Factors that contribute to the withdrawal of adult learners from Adult Basic Education Programme (ABEP): A case study of Ramotswa Village

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Approval Page

This research essay paper was examined and approved to meet the standard required for the partial fulfillment of Masters of Education (Adult Education).

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Statement of Originality

This research paper is an original work except where references have been made. The research was done by a student at the University of Botswana.
Acknowledgement

I would like to acknowledge my Almighty God for blessing me with an aptitude and grace to pursue my Master’s course. I thank my friend Otshwanetse Sebego for inspiring me to pursue this course.

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This paper is dedicated to my daughters Faith and Hope Kgope for assisting me with house chores, when I was busy doing the proposal. I also dedicate this work to my three brothers Kennedy, Rudolph and Donald for assisting me in taking turns during the weekends, taking care after my mother who is sick and unable to do house chores. Irene Chitanga, who serves as my mother’s house chore assistant, my daughter Faith and my elder brother’s fiancé Bontle Chinyepi deserve a dedication for helping in taking care of my mother.
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List of Abbreviations

AACE – African Association for Correspondence Education
ABE – Adult Basic Education
ABEC – Adult Basic Education Course
ABEP – Adult Basic Education Programme
AE – Adult Education
AED – Adult Education Department
AEFLA – Adult Education and Family Literacy Act
AL – Adult Literacy
ALE – Adult Literacy Education
ALOZ – Adult Literacy Organization of Zimbabwe
ALP – Adult Literacy Programme
ALR – Adult Literacy Rate
ALs – Adult Learners
AUPE – Adult Upper Primary Education
BCC – Botswana Christian Council
BE – Basic Education
BNLP – Botswana National Literacy Program
BOCODOL – Botswana College of Distance and Open Learning
BTS – Batswana Traditional Schools
CAPA – Creative and Performing Arts
CEDEFOP – European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training
– Centre Européen pour le Développement de la Formation Professionnelle

DNFE – Department of Non-Formal Education

EFA – Education for All

GOB – Government of Botswana

3G Ministries Church – Gospel of God’s Grace Ministries Church

LGLs – Literacy Group Leaders

LLNP – Language, Literacy and Numeracy Program

LP – Literacy Programme

LR – Literacy Rate

MoE – Ministry of Education

MoESD – Ministry of Education, Skill and Development

NCE – National Commission on Education

NGOs – Non Governmental Organizations

NLP – National Literacy Programme

NPE – National Policy on Education

OECD – Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

OSE – Out-of-School Education

QDA – Qualitative Data Analysis

RC – Ramotswa Cluster
RNPE – Revised National Policy on Education

SA – South Africa

SADC – South African Development Community

SEDC – South East District Council

SPSS – Statistical Package for Social Sciences

UDHR – Universal Declaration of Human Rights

UK – United Kingdom

UN – United Nations

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

UNICEF – United Nations Children’s Fund

UPE – Universal Primary Education

WIA – Workforce Investment Act
SYNONYMS

Constraint ------ An issue that one encountering cannot solve
Elementary------ Primary
Learners --------- Students
Obstacles ------- Factors leading to withdrawal
Withdrawal ------ Dropout
Factors that contribute to the withdrawal of adult learners from ABEP: A case study of Ramotswa Village

CHAPTER 1

1.0 Background of the study

This study is a proposal on factors that contribute to the withdrawal of adult learners from ABEP, which is a case study of Ramotswa Village, in Botswana. The background of the study topic starts by addressing historical aspect in view of Batswana’s traditional education system, a factor which contributed to the withdrawal of learners in traditional schools and the impact of colonial masters on the education of Batswana.

1.0.1 Historical

Africans had their own formal education system before colonial masters dominated their culture. For example, Batswana Traditional Schools (BTS) were called ‘bojale’ for young girls and ‘bogwera’ for young boys. Koolese, Makwinja, Mannathoko & Sekgoma (1992) state that before the British arrived, “the nation states and chiefdoms each had their own education system. Education was meant to teach children the right values and customs through formal education and informal education” (p.67).

BTS were conducted in special bushes and parents were not allowed to visit their children. The venue is confirmed by Moorad (1993) who asserts that, “bogwera was usually conducted away from the village in a special bush-camp” (p.32). A grandmother of the writer told the writer that if a learner became sick, he or she was not sent home. According to the grandmother, parents were not informed about the ailment, death or burial of their child, they ‘read between the lines’ that they lost a daughter or son when other learners returned, not theirs.
This suggests that withdrawal from learning in traditional formal education system was involuntary, but not systematically studied.

Western education was introduced in Botswana in 1847. Christian missionaries were not interested in educating Batswana but wanted them to know how to read the Bible. British government was also not interested in educating Batswana even though they showed that they wanted education in 1880 (Koolese et al., 1992, p.68). Colonial masters implemented their education programs to achieve their objectives, not to benefit Batswana.

Evaluation Unit (1978) supports this stating that the department of colonial education helped some communities and churches to establish ‘adult schools’, in order to teach adult literacy, in the 1990s. Literacy was meant to teach the Bible as stated by Koolese et al., (1992, p.68). Youngman (1998, p.26) states that a new Director of Education in Bechuanaland Protectorate called H. J. E Dumbell, suggested that adult schools should be established to teach men and women things that were valuable. Dumbell knew that literacy could benefit Batswana in other disciplines and was against limiting them from learning valuable things. Despite Dumbell’s idea, adult learning and teaching seem to be ignored by many states in the world.

The following subsection focuses on the background of withdrawal from Adult Basic Education (ABE) in view of institutional, economic and social factors. It covers withdrawal in global nations, Africa and Botswana.

1.0.2 Global

1990s decade marked an exclusive era in Basic Education (BE) history in the world, mainly propelled to action by the World Declaration on Education for All (EFA). At the beginning of the decade all major international donor agencies and more than 150 states adopted this Declaration. EFA Declaration initiated an advocacy framework for action to ensure more
inclusive education provision. Many states surged forward to follow the proposed commitment in order to provide BE for all (Govinda, 2000, p.6). Many countries and donors are challenged in providing BE for all due to institutional, economic and social factors provoking withdrawal of ALs from ALPs.

Literacy is the foundation of education and without quality BE people cannot escape from poverty. Nowadays in the world it is believed that education is a feature of national development pillars, and that global poverty will not drop unless people can enjoy the benefits of quality BE. Studies throughout the world show that low rates of participation in ALPs is accompanied by high withdrawal rates for those who do enroll (Malicky, Charles, & Norman, 1994, p.144). Govinda (2000) views progress in literacy as “closely linked, on the one hand to primary education development and on the other, to population growth and levels of poverty” (p.6).

Literacy is a method of communication and foundation of education throughout the world which seems to be a vital aspect of basic needs. Despite this, high withdrawal rate seems to persist without providers of AE vigorously intervening to eliminate constraints faced by ALs. Govinda (2000)’s concern is that, “several of the old problems persist, demanding radically different strategies to tackle the underlying malaise ... as highlighted by the Human Development Reports, literacy is a vital component of human development” (p.6). Old problems implies that withdrawal is not a new phenomenon, but existed as long as ALPs were offered.

According to Literacy Partners (2006), about 12% or 777 million adults in the world are regarded as functionally illiterate, with only elementary or below-elementary literacy levels in their first language. Literacy Partners state that nowadays for a person to be regarded as literate
in the multifaceted society, he or she has to read, write, do math and use computers. Again Literacy Partners outline that interacting in the society is challenging without these skills.

Illiterate adults cannot cope in the world of competitive trade markets, rapidly growing and advancing technology. Despite this some ALs who withdraw, can exacerbate poverty by dropping-out of BE programmes. Again such adults still experience constraints that influence their withdrawal from programmes even though literacy, numeracy, vocational and computer skills are essential for people to function and have a sense of belonging to the society and the world. Carpentieri (2014) is concerned about many adults who drop from Literacy Programmes (LPs), with less or no interest in developing literacy skills.

Based on measurable indicators for Universal Primary Education (UPE) enrolment and completion, adult literacy, and gender parity, the Educational Development Index (EDI), calculated by the EFA Global Monitoring Team of UNESCO for Central Asia is relatively high. Kazakhstan has achieved these EFA Goals except Mongolia. Mongolia’s rating was pulled down by relatively low UPE completion, which also has consequences for adult literacy and education. This implies that states which achieved EFA Goals have higher UPE completion, which implies there has been fewer withdrawals from LPs (Ahmed, 2009, p.14).

While education budgets for nations have steadily increased since the international EFA conference in Jomtien (1990), Thailand, on the other hand most of education funds in most states are allocated to primary and secondary education on the aspect of children. This results in AE programs being allocated very limited funds to plan curricula, employ adult educators, and secure learning spaces (Ahmed, 2009, p.18).
An absence of a specific budget for adult and non-formal education can lead to ALs spending their own money on their training. Some adults who do this are not working while others are earning very little money (Ahmed, 2009, p.18). ALs must therefore spend the little money that they earn on buying learning materials. This fact could make them opt to withdraw, especially unemployed ones. This suggests that if a state resolves such financial constraints more ALs will remain in AL programmes.

The issue of money seems to be the main challenge leading to factors which trigger withdrawal in Africa. The following subsection focuses on factors triggering withdrawal in Africa.

1.0.3 Africa

Education in Africa before colonization seems to have been indigenous, for example in Botswana and Uganda. This statement is supported by Niwagaba (2007) who asserts that education in Uganda was indigenous, where the cultural development of young children was guided by adults before the nation was colonized. Niwagaba (p.7) cited Cula (2003) who asserts that colonial government input in educating adults was not much, unless it was to sensitize citizens to the idea of growing cash crops. This was the case until Second World War ended.

After colonialism African nations ran education sectors as stated by Aitchison & Rule (2005) that, “…many SADC countries, on attaining independence from former colonial powers, engaged in variety of policy, legislative, campaign and provision endeavours to raise literacy and basic education levels amongst adults…” (p.104). Western education seems to have given ‘birth’ to many obstacles to learning which could have led to what SADC (2009) identified as one of SADC challenges in delivering EFA. SADC asserts that SADC experiences the challenge of
“poor quality of education at all levels” (p.8). This challenge is likely to be triggering withdrawal.

Niwagaba (2007, p.84)’s study investigated what influences adults’ participation in learning programmes in Uganda. Niwagaba found that educators are knowledgeable about sensitizing the communities on the importance of education, but in spite of this there is an ongoing high drop-out rate in ALs’ learning centres. A human-being’s motives to learn seem to be complex regardless of whether something is known to be effective or vital. SADC (2009) shows a consequence of dropping out as one of SADC challenges in the following statement: “high inefficiency due to absenteeism and drop outs” (p.8).


Nigeria is behind some African states like Botswana which have for example dealt with the gender disparity factor. While some African states are concerned to eliminate withdrawal from Adult Learning Programmes in order to avoid enslavement to poverty, Nigeria violates her people’s right to education particularly in relation to gender issues. This is verified by Addulkarim & Ali (2012) who state that despite Nigeria and her federal government’s “effort in designing and staffing adult literacy programmes for addressing cases of illiteracy among adults in Nigeria, many of the enrolled learners ended up dropping out of the class” (p.23).

Aitchison & Alidou (2009) state that in Africa, “the adult education sub-sector of (sic) state education systems remains relatively marginal and under-funded, in spite of the good
economic progress in many countries since the mid-1990s” (p.1). Aitchison & Alidou’s dispute is that AE is under-funded in Africa even if it is possible to fund it. Some African states like Nigeria for instance are rich and could support ALPs.

Aitchison & Alidou (2009) assert that AE and learning “is such a diverse and multi-sectoral field it is very hard to ascertain how much is in fact spent each year by each country on adult education or to make intelligible comparisons” (p.13). Aitchison & Alidou’s comment is that, “…the comparisons reinforce the impression of the marginal nature of adult education in the national budget” (p.13).

According to Aitchison & Alidou (2009), “Gambia estimates that the equivalent of 0.3 per cent of the national education budget went to adult education, Zambia 0.2 per cent, Kenya between 0.3 per cent and 0.4 per cent” (p.14). Other estimation according to Aitchison & Alidou are as follows: “Malawi 0.48 per cent, Senegal about 1 per cent (though it is planned to reduce this to 0.7 per cent!), South Africa about 1 per cent, Nigeria 2.43 per cent” (p.14). Nigeria might seem to support AE better in finance than other stated nations, but the 2.43 % could be little since it has a high population.

Aitchison & Alidou (2009) show other funding allocations as follows: “Mozambique 3.5 per cent, and Botswana (including vocational training) 5.6 per cent. Cape Verde is a notable exception, investing 8.71 per cent of its national education budget in ALE” (p.14). The estimation on funding ALP in Botswana was not specified. Aitchison & Alidou’s weakness is failing to state the year of the estimation. Their dispute is that AE is under-funded in Africa even if it is possible to fund it.

AE in Africa is mostly funded by international or foreign aid. Reports show that in order to develop the education sub-sector, it is necessary for governments to provide more national
funds to AE (Aitchison & Alidou, 2009, p.64). Despite limited funding some departments in Africa still misuse much money that has been donated to run ALPs. A typical example is stated by Andrews (2007) citing Mohlala & Pretorius (2006), who say that the Department of Education in South Africa (SA), “raised eyebrows amongst education commentators and practitioners of adult literacy projects when the department failed to spend R11-million donated by the European Union (EU) for adult basic education and training” (p.17).

The writer concurs with Andrews (2007) that, “one would have thought that the education department would be keen on the successful implementation of programmes such as ABET” (p.17). Failing to spend such money is evidence of neglect in the running of ALPs.

Aitchison & Alidou (2009) argue that, “illiteracy has several correlations with low productivity, low incomes and poorer health (and susceptibility to HIV/AIDS). It hampers national development efforts. It is a bar to much adult education” (p.1). The authors view is that massive increase in free UPE in Africa will slowly minimize this problem, but rates of withdrawal from basic schooling remain high. A typical example is the Botswana Government which minimizes illiteracy problems by providing free education at primary level and AL level.

Aitchison & Alidou (2009) earlier disputed that AE is under-funded in Africa even if it is possible to fund it. Aitchison (2009) states that despite most African countries’ economic-financial difficulties, “there is an urgent need to increase the percentage of the national budgets allocated to education and, in particular, to the adult education and training sector” (p.35). Aitchison’s call that there is a need for African countries to increase percentage of their adult education and training sectors’ national budget, might benefit rich countries such as Botswana and Nigeria, if they take this call into consideration. The next subtopic focuses on Botswana which also experiences a withdrawal problem.
According to UNESCO Bangkok (2013) 31% of the 1991 adult population in Botswana, 16 years of age and above, were still illiterate. UNESCO Bangkok also found that almost three quarters of the population in the same age group lacked literacy skills, or did not complete their primary education. Uncompleted primary education implies there has been a drop-out or withdrawal from primary schools. Withdrawal is not just a current issue but occurred even after Botswana’s independence in 1990s as revealed by Okwalinga (1993) citing Botswana Daily News in (1991) which broadcasted that, “in Botswana, a concern has been expressed in the mass media about low attendance and withdrawal from the literacy classes by adult males” (pp.49–50).

Modisenyane (1992, p.12) cited by Okwalinga (1993, p.49), investigated reasons why Serowe village men in Botswana dropped from NLP. Okwalinga found that men preferred embarking on activities which enable them to earn income to feed their families as they felt literacy did not benefit them. Dumbell’s proposal for adult schools as cited by Youngman (1998) suggested that adults were unlikely to dropout if they were taught things which they thought could benefit them. Attention to this issue could lead to an increase in enrollment and Adult Literacy Rate (ALR).

Higher enrollment and fewer withdrawals are likely to raise the Literacy Rate (LR) in a country. A percentage of people ranging 15 years and above who can read and write a short simple statement, with understanding on their everyday life is the criterion for determining the ALR (Trading Economics, 2014).
The 2003 literacy survey findings showed that the Botswana’s national ALR was 81 percent among the population of 15 years and over. The country had an increase of 12 percent from the literacy rate which was 68.9 percent in 1993. Female ALR was 82 percent comparing it to 80 percent for males (Aitchison & Rule, 2005, p.17).

The improvement could have been due to higher enrollment and fewer withdrawals in NLPs after many adults in Botswana realized the importance of literacy. An evidence of how Botswana was funded by donors is given by Maruatona (2001) citing Lind & Johnston (1996) & Meissenhelder (1992) stating that in Botswana, “literacy has mostly been sponsored by foreign agencies and it is not intended to transform the lives of participants” (pp.36-37). Maruatona outlines that, “… there is no political will and commitment to use it to alleviate poverty in the rural areas” (pp.36-37).

Again the LP experiences dropout rates. Reasons include lack of time because the enrollers were involved in social activities at their homes and workplace. Another reason was that the content was irrelevant to their needs (Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, 1998, as cited by Maruatona, 2001, p.37).

Youngman (2002a) claimed that Botswana received limited funding for LPs (as cited by Maruatona, 2007). He stated that the Government of Botswana (GOB) gives a small amount of 1.1 %, the regular funds budget of MoE on ALE. Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006) are also concerned about the little funds and state that, “DNFE only gets 1.1% of the MoE budget. It is insufficient to meet the mammoth task to educate all the out-of-school population” (p.17). Maruatona’s dispute is that even though LPs encounter financial challenges, the GOB expects ALPs to promote its national goals such as self-reliance.
Aitchison & Alidou (2009) stated that Botswana estimates to allocate 5.6% of its budget to AE, which include vocational training. Youngman (2002a) cited by Maruatona (2007), and Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006) show that the MoESD allocates 1.1% to adult education out of the estimated 5.6%. The Government of Botswana (GOB) funds NLPs with little money even though Aitchison & Alidou has stated that, “the reports indicate that there is a need for the governments to allocate more national funds to adult education in order to develop this sub-sector” (p.49).

Maruatona (2007) cited Maruatona (2002) arguing that Botswana’s opinion is that education is a social service to all citizens, but Botswana provides adults with low quality education in literacy, which is unable to empower them, and fails to improve their life. Low funding might be triggering low quality education.

This subtopic outlines Botswana’s background information on withdrawal of ALs from NLP. The next discussion is on the National Literacy Programme.

National Literacy Programme (NLP)

Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006) state that, “during the pre-independence and immediate post-independent era, adult basic education, which was conceptualised as basic literacy, was not provided by the Government” (p.4). Maruatona & Mokgosi proceed stating that, “it was the task of non-governmental organisations and church missions...” (p.4). According to Maruatona & Mokgosi the First National Policy on Education’s review (1977) discovered that there was a need for the GOB to take over LPs from churches and NGOs to run them.

The GOB took over LPs from churches, NGOs and initiated the Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE) to run them. DNFE initiated the NLP which was officially launched
in 1981 as the main GOB sponsored programme for non-formal education. It was meant to complement the formal school organization by promoting access to education for Out-of-School groups. The Ministry of Education MoE (1979) as cited in Hanemann (2005) asserts that the NLP was intended to enable 250 000 illiterate men, women and youth to become literate in Setswana and numerate in six years between 1980-85 (UNESCO, 2008).

One of NLP’s successes as stated by UNESCO (2008) is that the literacy rates for the youth and adults increased from 83.3% in 1990 to 94% from 2003 to 2008. UNESCO asserts that despite NLP’s successes, it faced challenges and failures mostly in dealing with learners’ interests, basic needs and completely getting rid of illiteracy in youth and adults. Lack of resources and high dropout rates are amongst several factors triggering this as identified by the UNESCO.

According to Aitchison & Rule (2005), “mining houses, churches and NGOs have also contributed to literacy work since the mid-1980s (the latter particularly in minority languages)” (p.19). Youngman (2002a), as cited by Maruatona (2007) states that the Debswana diamond mine provides its employees with a LP. It seems the mines in Botswana only contribute to Botswana’s LR by teaching its employees.

Enrollment in NLP dropped from 38 660 participants in 1985 to 11771 in 2001 failing to include the poorest and remote societies. AL had negative impacts on national development and social empowerment (UNESCO, 2008). Despite its failure NLP worked hard to achieve Botswana’s high LR with few resources as stated by Maruatona (2007) citing Youngman (2002a).
The background of the study discussed the history of withdrawal issue in Botswana before Botswana was colonized and after colonization. The next topic introduces this study.

1.1 Introduction

This research paper is a proposal to investigate factors that contribute to adult learners’ withdrawal from Adult Basic Education Programme (ABEP) in Botswana, with particular reference to Ramotswa Village. Botswana started ABEP programme in 2009 which was meant to promote literacy amongst the illiterate population.

This research proposal focuses on a population of 75 people which includes a sample of 40. They are Adult Learners (ALs) who withdrew from ABEP groups hosted by Ramotswa Cluster (RC) in Ramotswa village, 9 Literacy Group Leaders (LGLs), 1 ABEP official and Ramotswa chief. The study area is Ramotswa Village. Ramotswa is a semi-rural village situated in South East District of Botswana, near Gaborone. Since a sample of 40 is a large number representing 64 withdrawn adults, it can be generalized to ALs who withdrew from ABEP from 2010 to 2014, as it is a large number to represent Botswana.

This study intends to find out factors triggering adults who had enrolled in Ramotswa ABEP to withdraw from the programme, from 2010 to 2014. Withdrawing from ABEP before acquiring literacy and numeracy skills is a problem that this study seeks to explore.

It seems there is a controversy on the definition of withdrawal and dropout as some authors use dropout and withdrawal as one term, while others differentiate them. First Clinical Research (2007) describes withdrawal as an organization (planned) decision to dismiss a learner from a study and dropout as a learner’s choice to stop participating. PharmPK (2007) asserts that
withdrawal and dropout definitions can be declared both the same because of the missing data in both cases. PharmPK states that due to clinical perspective, they should be addressed separately.

First Clinical Research (2007) states that withdrawal and dropout terms are frequently used interchangeably. First Clinical Research outlines that the learner’s reasons for discontinuing learning are vital in how we define the terms. Drop-out and withdrawal shall be used interchangeably in this paper meaning leaving Adult Literacy Programme (ALP).

The introduction of this paper followed the background of the study. The implementation of ABEP in Botswana, which is a discussion of a next stand-alone topic follows.

1.2 Adult Basic Education Programme

1.2.1 Implementation of ABEP in Botswana

The GOB institutionalized the Adult Basic Education Programme (ABEP) in 2009 after NLP. This programme is an aspect of the Government’s overall plan for Vision 2016, elaborated in the Revised National Policy on Education (UNESCO, 2008). Vision 2016, Botswana’s overall long term policy framework, gave impetus to ABEP. Botswana also subscribes to the goals of other international commitments like Education for All (EFA) goals (Dakar Framework for Actions, 2000). The commitments were adopted at the Fifth and Sixth International Conferences on Adult Education … (Hamburg Declaration on Adult Learning, 1997…) (UNESCO, 2008).

The National Commission on Education (NCE) suggested that organizations employing more than 10 employees should release their workers at least half a day every week, to attend LPs without failing to pay them their full salary. This enables ALs to pursue approved courses by the employer and the Ministry of Education Skills & Development (MoESD, 1977, p.173). The
action reflects the GOB’s effort in supporting OSE even though there is no special policy running ABEP.

Like other Out-of-School programmes ABEP is directed by Botswana’s education policies called Education for Kagisano and Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) (1993). In order to run the literacy programme ABEP in Botswana came up with the following objectives:

- Establish a learning society in which education is seen as a lifelong process;
- Create opportunities for out-of-school people to learn as they continue with other aspects of their lives;
- Guarantee all school age youth and adults access to basic education in order to promote equity and social justice (a separate programme is being developed for children);
- Enable people to earn a living with dignity and thus to improve their standard / quality of life;
- Provide opportunities for young people and adults to further their initial education to higher stages in order to raise the general level of education of the population;
- Provide opportunities for adults to acquire work-related skills that will improve their productivity and standard of living, thus promoting national economic growth;
- Promote social empowerment and transformation, and
- Equip the population with skills and knowledge in order to enable them to participate actively and meaningfully in family, community and national development (UNESCO, 2008).

The GOB saw a need to implement ABEP to carry on after NLP, hoping to provide literacy and numeracy skills to adults who are lagging behind, and also improving ABEP. Botswana government seems to be not the only one offering LP. This is confirmed by Youngman (2002a) cited by Maruatona (2007), who state that Debswana diamond mine in Orapa is also providing ABE and LP depending on materials employed by the South Africa Bureau of Literacy and Literature, used by mines. As stated by Aitchison & Rule (2005) mining houses have also contributed to literacy works.

This topic discussed how ABEP came into existence, its objectives and the mine which supports ABEP to deliver literacy works. The next discussion is on the scope of ABEP.
1.2.2 Scope of ABEP

According to MoESD (1993) the National Commission on Education recommended in REC 82 (b) that, “the Department of Non Formal Education should introduce an “Adult Basic Education Course” to provide adults with the equivalent of Standard Seven schooling” (p.293). The proposal resulted in the implementation of ABEP which provides adults with the equivalent of Standard 7 schooling as verified by MoESD (1994) that ABEP “offers adults and out-of school youth and children the equivalent to Botswana’s seven-year Basic Education Programme” (p.9).

MoESD (1994) declared that, “the English literacy course is still to be piloted and will only partially fill the gap” (p.293). An implication is that learners were introduced to literacy in Setswana, not English, as it is a second language for transition to other levels of education. The Adult Basic Education Course (ABEC) did not provide the levels which assisted adults to transit to institutions and jobs. This statement is verified by Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006) stating that, “the NLP does not go to the level of primary school Standard 7 equivalence. It only stops at Primer 5 which is equivalent to primary education Standard 4” (p. 17).

Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006)’s statement is that “there is a dire need to bridge the gap between standard 4 … and standard 7 because that is the minimum requirement for most higher institutions and employers” (p.17). It seems there is no longer a gap in ABEP between Standard 4 and Standard 7 because ALs do Standard 1 to Standard 7 in primary level. Maruatona & Mokgosi state that Standard 7 is the minimum requirement in most institutions and employers. This opportunity could serve as an advantage for ALs who wish to pursue their education up to higher levels of education.
MoESD (1993) states that the commission suggested that ABEC should have 3 levels which are: “ABEC 1 (successful completion of the National Literacy Programme Primer 5 and equivalent to Standard 1-4), ABEC 2 (equivalent to Standard 5-6) and ABEC 3 (equivalent to Standard 7). The suggestion that ABEP curriculum should have three basic learning levels, is equivalent to the formal primary school system which takes seven years of education.

According to UNESCO (2008) ABEP is split into three levels which are: Level One (Standard 1-2), Level Two (Standard 3-4), and Level Three (Standard 5-7) which is the same as Standards 5-7 in primary schools. The levels seem to have changed since 2002 because Lower Primary level in Botswana formal primary education is now Standard 1-3, Middle Primary Level is Standard 4-5 and Upper Primary Standard is 6-7.

ABEP targets Out-of-School youth age 16 + and adults who never went to school or dropped out before completing primary school. Its special focus is on ethnic groups, people with special learning needs, disadvantaged and marginalized rural communities. A particular target group is rural communities because half of Botswana’s population stays in rural areas, with limited educational opportunities, and this group thus experiences the highest poverty, illiteracy and unemployment rates (UNESCO, 2008).

The curriculum offered by ABEP is for Botswana’s public primary schools, not specifically prepared for ALs. ALs are taught the same subjects that are taught to primary school learners, except Creative and Performing Arts (CAPA) and Guidance and Counselling. There are no learning centres for ALs in some areas like Ramotswa, so lessons are conducted in some primary schools’ premises or classrooms, near ALs residential places. Upon graduation ALs earn qualification equivalent to Standard 7.
Lessons are conducted weekly in 2 hours from Monday to Thursday, and in some clusters from Monday to Friday. It depends on numbers of groups and what schedule favours ALs. Other groups start lessons after one another from 3 pm, after some primary schools end studies in winter at 2.30 pm. Since Ramotswa is a large village, ABEP in this village is likely to offer lessons from Monday to Friday if there are many ALs.

It is imperative to undertake this study because not enough is known about why ALs are dropping out. The findings will help improve practices and may be useful informing other AL Programmes.

Statement of the research problem follows this topic. It will be followed by assumptions, objectives of the study, research questions, significance and limitations of the study.

1.3 Statement of the research problem

Botswana experiences withdrawal of ALs from ABEP which is exacerbated by few learners who enroll. This results in ABEP failing to eliminate illiteracy amongst all Batswana. GOB offered ABEP to achieve EFA after NLP’s failure to eradicate illiteracy. Despite free education some ALs withdraw from ABEP before acquiring literacy and numeracy skills. This brings a question of whether Botswana provides EFA adequately - in other words we need more information on why ALs do not complete their programmes of study.

Maruatona (2007) cited Youngman (2002a) who asserted that MoE provides Adult Literacy Education (ALE) with very limited funds. ABEP also lacks financial and tutoring support from NGO’s, individuals and churches like the Gospel of God’s Grace (3G) Ministries Church in Kopong village in Botswana, which freely tutors church and non-church members and who are primary and secondary school students, including ALs who are enrolling in ABEP, using church members who volunteered to teach them.
ALs are taught 7 subjects with primary school syllabus which could be too many for them. Some subjects may be of no value to them. ALs appear to become pessimistic as their needs are not considered, and opt to withdraw as they could not cope with financial constraints. This is a research essay. The proposed empirical study would indicate if this is true.

Withdrawing from ABEP before acquiring literacy and numeracy skills has potentially negative effects on subjects’ lives, their families and Botswana. Their cognitive, physical and affective aspects of development may be affected. Talents which could be exposed through literacy are hidden, especially since jobs seek literate and talented workers. Unemployment strikes illiterate people and illiteracy puts families at greater health risk. Illiterate families are more likely to suffer and experience absolute poverty. Adults may not self-actualize as their basic needs are not met.

Literacy and education are survival requisites in people’s lives in order for them to fit into a transforming society. Studies such as Okwalinga’s (1993) suggest that men should be provided with an exclusive learning, and Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006) suggest that implementation of local language policy seems to be ignored.

So far no studies were conducted on this topic in Ramotswa. This study therefore intends to investigate factors contributing to the withdrawal of Ramotswa adults from ABEP; find out adults’ expected benefits of enrolling in ABEP. It shall explore ways of solving the problem, including identifying workable intervention measures which could eliminate the problem.

1.4 Assumptions
The writer’s assumption is that some dropout adults never attended primary schools, and others withdrew before mastering literacy and numeracy skills.
1.5 Objectives of the study

The objective of the study is to:

1. Investigate problems and constraints encountered in enrolling in ABEP.
2. Investigate adults’ expected benefits of enrolling in ABEP.
3. Investigate why adult learners withdraw from ABEP.
4. Explore interceptive measures which could address the problem of adults’ withdrawal from ABEP.

1.6 Research questions

1) What are the problems and constraints that learners encounter on ABEP programmes?
2) Which institutional, economic and social factors influence learners to withdraw from ABEP?
3) What are the learners’ expectations that trigger their enrolments?
4) What measures could address the problem of adults’ withdrawal from ABEP?

1.7 Significance of the study

This study is important as it investigates factors contributing to withdrawal of ALs in Ramotswa Cluster, therefore will assist policymakers, programme developers and educators to know factors triggering withdrawal in RC. It shall assist in identifying problems, constraints and solutions to retain learners. The study shall also motivate them to initiate effective piloted strategies, which might improve the program in terms of its ability to motivate learners to complete.

The study shall help researchers seeking information on related studies. It may also inform their studies if they conduct a related study. The study may also alert Ramotswa chief who may be unaware of this problem, as well as help her to intervene.
1.8 Limitations of the study

Tracing the participants to administer instruments might consume time as they are not in one place. Finance could be a limitation. Information shall be acquired through ‘internet at home’ which is expensive. Money might be spent again on buying A4 photocopying papers, ink to print the proposal, research essays and questionnaires. This study is unfunded so it could not employ research assistants. It had strict timeline for completion.

This subtopic was a brief discussion on limitations of the study. The next subtopic summarizes chapter 1 of this study.

1.9 Summary

Botswana and other African states have depended on literacy programmes introduced by Europeans. African states run ALPs where by many factors trigger withdrawal such as insufficient funds. Without sufficient support governments cannot combat withdrawal.

ABEP replaced NLP in Botswana in order to fill gaps which NLP could not fix. ABEP like NLP set objectives to deliver literacy and numeracy skills. Like NLP it seems to be unable to fill the gaps like lack of resources. It is necessary to understand what these groups are, otherwise Botswana’s Literacy Rate would rise, hence the need to improve LR. Literature has suggested there was a need to eliminate NLP obstacles like one language policy.

The summary of this chapter transits this study to Chapter 2. Literature review for this study was retrieved mostly through ‘internet at home’ and using published books.
CHAPTER 2

2.0 Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed literature related to factors that contribute to withdrawal of adult learners from literacy programmes. The review consists of related research and literature on the right to education, institutions, economic and social factors contributing to withdrawal from LPs; enforcement of policies on literacy; theoretical aspect by Maslow’s motivational theory and summary.

2.2 The right to education

The following section discusses the right to education subtopic. The right to education is amongst the Human Rights declared by the United Nations (UN).

Colonial departments assisted churches and some communities in setting up adult schools in Africa as stated in Chapter One. Their effort in educating Africans was little as their education was based on their culture. The writer of this paper was taught subjects based on Europeans’ culture, geography and history, without a focus on Botswana, from Botswana primary school to senior secondary school from 1970s to 1980s. That was when some young girls in Botswana were withdrawn from primary and secondary schooling by their parents or guardians to be married, while boys were withdrawn to herd livestock. Inequity in access to education in the world could have triggered the UN to declare its universal human rights agenda like the right to education.

On December 30, 1948, United Nations (UN) publicized its human rights list called Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), which every person is entitled to have. The right to education is amongst these rights that every individual is entitled to (Ngongola & Selwe,

According to United Nations (1948) forty-eight countries voted for the declaration, no country voted against, with eight nonparticipants. United Nations states that, “in a statement following the voting, the President of the General Assembly pointed out that adoption of the Declaration was "a remarkable achievement, a step forward in the great evolutionary process” (p.2).

UNESCO (2000) states that “when the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was drawn up, only a minority of the world’s young people had access to any kind of formal education …” (p.16). Again UNESCO states that, “… little more than half of the world’s adults could read and write a simple passage about their everyday lives” (p.16). The writer stated that some children were withdrawn from schooling in Botswana. These by then vulnerable children are now adults who are struggling for a living. Some of them are illiterate because their parents or guardians did not enroll them in formal education. UDHR gives them an opportunity to enroll in ALPs.

UNESCO (2017) states that the second World Conference on Human Rights focused its attention on securing the human rights, especially to the discriminated or disadvantaged people, vulnerable ones, the poor and the socially marginalized or those in need of greater protection. United States (1948) asserts that one of the expectations on the declaration is that, “… millions of people -men, women and children all over the world- would turn to it for help, guidance and inspiration” (p.3). The UDHR seems to have benefited the under privileged ones such as
children, women and minority ethnic groups. For example, girls and boys are no longer withdrawn from schools to be married and herd cattle in African countries like Botswana.

United Nations (1948) declares that it was for the first time the UN declared the fundamental human rights to be protected in the world. Despite the human rights, apartheid existed in South Africa (SA). The Boers took away the black majority group’s land and forced them to work on their farms until independence. United Nations has a number of listed Articles, and amongst these articles is Article 26, which states that everybody has the right to be educated and that the fundamental level, which is primary stage, shall be free and compulsory. Abolishment of apartheid in 1994 led to the country’s own declaration of human rights like the right to education to all South Africans. The Declaration of human rights benefits the black people in SA.

UNICEF (2007) verifies that, “education has been formally recognized as a human right since the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948” (p.7). The writer concurs with this statement as countries which practiced apartheid like SA recognizes Education for All, this verifies that education has been officially recognized as a human right.

UNESCO (1949) asserts that Adult Education Conference was called after the “second Session of Unesco's General Conference held in Mexico City in 1947 and the Third Session in Beirut in 1948” (p.3). UNESCO states that the Director-General M. Torres Bodet, had this to say at the Adult Education Conference held at the International People's College of Elsinore in 1949: “of all the special conferences so far convened by the Organization which I have the honour to direct, this appears to be the most important” (p.3). The writer’s perception is that this conference together with other AE conferences held after, triggered countries which depended on churches and NGOs to offer Adult Literacy Programmes.
UNESCO (1949) states that, “… delegates came from all parts of the world and ensured that attention was given to problems peculiar to regions where institutions or methods of adult education may be less developed” (p.3). UNESCO declares that, “the Adult Education Conference brought together … 106 delegates representing 27 countries and 21 international organizations. No event of similar size and scope had previously occurred in the field of adult education” (p.3).

It seems Adult Education Conferences assisted in the implementation and the development of ALPs in African countries, like Zimbabwe after UDHR declaration. As stated colonial departments assisted churches and some communities in establishing adult schools in Africa. Even though their effort in educating Africans was little, they played a role in initiating adult schools. Those who enrolled in such schools are contributing to the world literacy rate.

United Nations (2015) states that, “the Universal Declaration of Human Rights remains as relevant today as it was on the day in 1948 that it was proclaimed and adopted by the United Nations General Assembly” (p.iii). Some countries have ‘gone extra mile’ in offering basic education freely. SADC nations like Botswana offer free primary schooling and ALPs. Most African states now provide education for all (EFA) by providing Out-of-School Education (OSE) for people willing to take part. A typical example is given by SADC (2009) stating that, “the SADC region has made considerable progress in education and training provision especially with regard to achieving Education for All targets” (p.7).

Most African states now provide EFA by providing OSE for people willing to take part. African states like Botswana worked hard to develop their citizens after independence and improved literacy and education promoted by UN. This is confirmed by Lopez (2005) who declared that “after independence in the 1960s many African countries vigorously expanded their
African states and other global countries offer LPs to expand education opportunities by implementing OSPs.

African nations such as Zambia are challenged by growing levels of illiteracy as argued by Shumba & Chakanika (2013), who cited Caffarella (2001) asserting that most countries in Southern Africa are trying hard to deal with the increase of levels of illiteracy, especially illiterate adults. Shumba & Chakanika are more concerned about boys being withdrawn from primary schools in Zambia. These boys will be illiterate adults in future. However some countries in SADC region seem to have worked very hard in an attempt to achieve gender parity. This is confirmed by Namwandi (2015) stating that gender parity was partially attained in Botswana, while girls in Swaziland and Lesotho greatly accessed education as compared to pre-independence period.

In an effort to deliver literacy, numeracy skills and other skills, OSPs in Africa are challenged by factors triggering withdrawal as stated. Abadzi (1994) cited by Andrews (2007), states that ALPs introduced in most countries in an advancing world have experienced high rates in dropout. Botswana is one of the developing countries characterized by high drop-out as stated by UNESCO (2008). Many studies found that high drop-out is boosted by some factors as follows:

2.3 Institutional factors

Studies have found many reasons for withdrawal. Some of them such as the issue of language of instruction, also called ‘mother tongue’, are discussed in the next section.

2.3.1 First language instruction

Many studies reveal that if learners are taught with their first language, they learn fast. Learning to read through a second language is quicker in learners who were first introduced to
reading in their first language. Learners taught to read through their mother language are inculcated into academic skills rapidly (Wikipedia, 2014). In support Andrews (2007) states that students who are taught 2\textsuperscript{nd}, 3\textsuperscript{rd} and or 4\textsuperscript{th} languages in elementary literacy classes are mostly characterized by learning difficulties. Language of instruction issue is unlikely to affect Ramotswa ex-ALs if there were no minority group learners as their first language is Setswana.

The writer of this study is an experienced teacher teaching upper level learners (standard 6-7), and is teaching multicultural children in one of Gaborone’s primary schools. The writer observed that some learners at upper level are challenged by failing their academic subjects if they did not master learning sounds of vowels, syllables and words in their second language at lower level (standard 1-3), including a few whose first language is Setswana. Students whose first language is not Setswana are usually left further behind as Setswana is their second language, unless a student is a fast learner. Third language minority group ALs experience this and opt to withdraw, as identified by Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006).

Botswana offers English and Setswana under NLP even though there are other languages spoken in the country. It could be argued that high dropouts and declining numbers in literacy classes suggest a need for other ethnic groups to be taught in their first languages. Societies realize their culture’s entity and importance, and want this to be recognized. West, North West and North East areas in Botswana are inhabited by predominant minority groups; therefore teaching in their first language is needed for these groups (Maruatona & Mokgosi, 2006, p.11).

Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006) assert that, “Botswana has a diverse culture with more than twenty languages, however only Setswana is a national medium of communication thereby marginalizing other ethnic groups” (p.17). Aitchison & Rule (2005) support Maruatona & Mokgosi on Botswana using Setswana as language of instruction by stating that the NLP “used
Setswana as the only language of instruction” (p.19). According to Aitchison & Rule, “Hesselbring (1990) found that speakers of minority languages had the lowest rates of literacy and wished to learn to read in their own language” (p.19). 26 years has passed since this finding, Botswana is still using one language policy. Researches are meant to solve problems, but it seems some governments and people in authority ignore them.

Calderbank (2013) states that first language instruction concept was promoted by UNESCO. According to the source, since 1953 UNESCO maintained language as a crucial aspect for individuals’ and societies’ development, and identified a fundamental right for learning in one’s own language. Despite this some African states deprive minority groups such privileges.

Calderbank (2013) argues that using a language of instruction that neither the teacher nor learner understands, nor uses particularly well, produces poor results. Poor results factor could trigger withdrawal by learners. According to Maruatona (2001), “Reimer (1997) documented literacy experiences of the Botswana Christian Council (BCC), a Non-Governmental Organization, in Etsha, a remote settlement in the northern Botswana. The NGO taught adults using their mother tongue” (p.38). Unlike the GOB, this NGO considered the importance of learning using mother tongue in minority group learners. BCC ignored one language policy and taught using mother language to produce good results and prevent withdrawal.

Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006)’s study supports establishing a resolution to addressing the risk of poor results asserting that, “some literacy group leaders state that they use minority languages, even though this is not allowed, because otherwise learners would not be able to follow and end up dropping out of classes” (p. 11). LGLs in Maruatona & Mokgosi’s study saw
a need to deliver literacy using minority group first language, challenging the one language policy.

An implication of Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006) and Calderbank (2013)’s study is that LGLs have to be knowledgeable about their learners’ language, if not a consequence could be poor results. They show that teaching learners first with their language could prevent poor results and withdrawal. Language of instruction issue might be the main institutional factor triggering withdrawal in minority groups worldwide. A consequence of illiteracy is viewed by UNESCO Bangkok (2013) arguing that:

illiteracy in youth and adults is the price people and countries are paying for the past failures of education systems. When people emerge from their school years lacking basic reading, writing and numeracy skills, they face a lifetime of disadvantage as illiteracy diminishes their social, economic prospects and damages self-esteem.

Some SADC counties like Namibia support LPs. According to Aitchison & Rule (2005), “national literacy programme in Namibia curriculum, which covers Language and Literacy, Arithmetic and Functional Literacy, has three stages…” (p.56). Again Aitchison & Rule state that, “stage two is an intermediate stage, also in mother tongue, which also looks at such areas as agriculture, civics and health” (p.56). UNESCO (u.d) states that Namibia’s LR was 76.49% in 2001 and 85.04 % in 2007. Namibia’s escalation in LR could be triggered by delivering literacy using mother tongue.

Lopez (2005, p.34) cited Pattanayak (1990) giving India as one example of a multilingual society where different languages are employed for various purpose. It has been already argued that Botswana should employ different languages in education of ethnic groups, hence providing a conducive environment to learners. ALs enroll in LPs expecting a conducive learning place,
not to be introduced to learning in other tribe’s languages. Another feature that can trigger withdrawal is not matching expectations.

2.3.2 Not matching expectations

Kambouri & Hazel (1994) in Britain found that a second most important factor for withdrawal was not matching expectations. Kambouri & Hazel state that the instructors’ response was that the progress of ALs might be slower than the pace they expected, and the learners underestimate the level of time and work needed. This is asserted by Andrews (2007) citing Hamann as cited by Kerka (1995, pp.1-2) who identified “a gap between learner expectations and reality as one cause of early withdrawal from a program and that ALs may get frustrated early through lack of progress”.

Some adults might have excelled in primary schools and withdrawn, if they did they enroll as adults expecting similar progress in their academic achievements. Andrews (2007) citing Hamann as cited by Kerka (1995, pp.1-2) states that if learners are denied enough information to know what to expect before enrolling, and how they should respond, they can get frustrated. Frustration might trigger low performance in academic achievements, leading to dropout.

Niwagaba (2007) cited Conrad (2002, pp.18-19) stating that ALs need to see relevancy of learning to their personal situation. Many states seem to ignore this fact as they do not involve ALs to suggest what they want to learn before enrolling in LPs. The writer’s assumption is that adults may engage in ALPs with an optimistic spirit, not expecting disappointments like instructors’ negative attitude.

Andrews (2007) conducted a study determining factors that influence learner participation in the Adult Basic Education and Training programmes of City Power (Reuven), in
Johannesburg. Andrews states that reasons for drop-out differ in lower levels than in the higher levels. The study established that lack of managers and supervisors’ support was among reasons for the drop-out at ABET levels 1 and 2. A discrepancy stated by Andrews is that, “… the drop-out rates at the lower levels are more as a result of a lack of motivation, support …” (p.89). Another finding by the study was that ALs were motivated to stay in the programme by few managers or team leaders who motivate them to apply for better post.

Some studies have shown that there is lack of motivation in running LPs in Africa like in SADC countries such as Angola. According to UNESCO (2009) Angola’s monitoring system is weak due to major difficulties in providing regular visits to all sites offering LPs, experienced during rainy seasons or in regions with no tarred roads. This serves as a constraint to Angola’s LPs administration and it is complicating motivation and support.

In Australia training providers highlighted various challenges revealed by 2011-12 annual reports. These involve complications with motivating attendance and retaining all learners, suitably qualified staff in rural areas managing contractual and providing necessities (UNESCO, 2013). Australia like Angola encounters complications with motivation and support. UNESCO (2008, p.11) stated that NLP in Botswana mostly failed in dealing with learners’ interests. This proposal sought to find out if ABEP is likely to be facing this challenge.

According to Stander (2002, p.1) a cause of withdrawal in United States of America (USA), one of the developed states which has lowest ALR, has been a focus of many researches. Stander cited Kerka (1995, p.1) citing Quigley (u.d) stating that lack of interest is the main cause of withdrawal in USA, with 60 – 70 % of ALs withdrawing from organized learning. Australia, Botswana and USA may share the same weakness.
Department for International Development (2008) cited Casey et al (2006) stating that, “a research study was undertaken in England, into the teaching of literacy, language and numeracy to learners on vocational courses at levels 1 and 2, in Colleges of Further Education” (p. 7). The findings according to the cited author showed that learners were more unlikely to withdraw from the course, and would attain vocational qualification where literacy and numeracy were included into the vocational programme, than on courses offering literacy and numeracy separately.

Okwalinga (1993) carried out a study on withdrawal of men from literacy classes in Malolwane and Mmathubudukwane village in Botswana, Kenya and Malawi. Okwalinga concluded that unhappiness with instructors’ attitude, inconvenient timing and location of classes were reasons for withdrawal in the three countries. Okwalinga asserted that unhappiness with instructors’ attitude was one of the most leading factors for learner withdrawal in Malawi and Kenya.

Andrews (2007) quoted D’Amico-Samuels as cited by Kerka (1995) stating that ALs will withdraw from the program if they were taught by teachers who were culturally insensitive or racists, labelled failures, or if members of their family with the community show that education does not develop life. The studies show that unhappiness with past and current instructors lead to dropout.

Manda (2009)’s study established that lack of qualified staff can trigger learner withdrawal. However, retaining qualified instructors in LPs won’t be successful if their working place is not conducive. Retaining trained instructors is vital. Therefore treating ALPs in the same way as other government posts, such as hiring the instructors on full-time basis and paying them fairly, could serve to help retain instructors who are well trained. States which offer numeracy
and literacy skills as part of vocational programmes as has been done in England are more likely to meet adults’ expectations and requirements, because they provided literacy and survival skills which complement each other.

This subtopic discussed not matching expectations. Another factor leading to withdrawal relates to provision of curriculum and supplied materials.

2.3.3 Provision of curriculum and supplied materials

One of the challenges faced by SADC as stated by SADC (2009) is “irrelevant curricula and the mismatch between the supply and demand of education” (p.8). This statement is verified by Dhlamini & Heeralal (2014) citing Wotherspoon (2004) underlining the influence of other factors central to dropping out problems in SA such as “… the nature of curriculum; available resources and quality of learning” (p.454). Dhlamini & Heeralal found that the curriculum design provided at ABET Centre in Gauteng Province in South Africa in 2010 concentrated more on theoretical contents and neglected the more practical aspect of the curriculum, which is of greater relevance to the ALs.

ALs are most likely to expect to opt for practical subjects after mastering literacy skills. They dropout if the programme does not fill the practical aspect as stated. Literacy and survival skills can help one to survive if there is lack of jobs as one can strive by being self-reliant. Adult Literacy Organization of Zimbabwe (ALOZ) in Zimbabwe provides women with many practical activities in the learning centres. This statement is verified by Sigauke (1993) stating that in Zimbabwe, “different projects … implemented in the different centres … include the following activities: gardening, poultry, sewing clothes for sale, carpentry, baking, dairy farming …” (p.60). The writer of this study did not list all the practical activities offered by ALOZ.
The benefit of providing practical activities is asserted by Sigauke (1993) stating that “these projects motivate the learners. They also generate money used by participants to pay for their children's education. Thus projects meet the economic and health needs of participants” (p.60). Countries experiencing complications with motivating attendance and retaining all learners like Australia should bench mark from Zimbabwe.

Aitchison & Rule (2005) assert that in Namibia, “… Adult Upper Primary Education (AUPE) is a three-year programme which consists of four core courses and two of four optional courses” (p.56). Opting for courses shows that Namibia considers ALs’ needs. Unlike SADC nations like Botswana, Namibia gives ALs chance to opt courses. Aitchison & Rule also state that “curriculum guides for the National Literacy Programme in Namibia have been developed and approved by the National Examination Board of Namibia” (p.56). Namibia seems to relate the content to the learners’ life unlike some SADC countries like Angola.

Okwalinga (1993, p.53)’s study established that other reasons for men’s withdrawal in Botswana, Malawi and Kenya are non-suital method of instruction and irrelevant course content. Non-suital method of instruction could be connected to no syllabus. Manda (2009, p.59)’s study declares that Malawi women withdrew due to insufficient supply of reading materials and no curriculum. A consequence of inadequate curriculum is revealed by Manda who states that, “lack of relevant content taught is one of the reasons why women dropout from literacy programmes” (p. 73). Manda together with Okwalinga found irrelevant content as a reason for withdrawal of men in Malawi.

As stated ABEP in Botswana uses a primary school curriculum and syllabus which are not designed for ALs. According to MoESD (1994) the OSE “… sector also lacks a
comprehensive policy as it was left out of the government Paper No. 1 of 1977 with a view to preparing a separate policy which was never done” (p.10). This implies that ABEP in Ramotswa operates without a specific policy, leading it to being inadequate for purpose, such as having irrelevant content. Namibia seems not to be experiencing this constraint because Namibia prepared a curriculum guides for its NLP as evidenced by Aitchison & Rule (2005).

Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006)’s paper stated that in Botswana, “… out of school education is still under-resourced and probably not well understood and appreciated by the wider communities…” (p.23). Under-resourcing might not imply that the resources are suitable. Okwalinga (1993)’s study might have not found under-resourcing as a challenge in Botswana, probably because learners were more concerned about the method of instruction and course content.

According to Maruatona (1996) administrators in Botswana impose the teaching they think learners need, and learners have shown that they are dissatisfied by withdrawing from the programme. This seems to be a worldwide issue. MoESD (1993) stated that it was suggested that ABEC “8.6.6 … requires a specially-written syllabus and materials appropriate to adults and their life situations” (p.293). If a country is rich and unsupportive like Botswana, buying materials and formulating relevant curriculum becomes difficult. Lack of empathy on ALs is shown by Hanemann (2005)’s statement that, in Botswana “neither a new curriculum nor new learning materials were produced to allow learners to reach Standard 7, as projected” (p.19).

Some of the employed learners’ response was that the curriculum did not meet their work related needs. They needed communication skills and other skills that are related to their work competency. Unemployed learners’ response was that they seek curriculum which will assist them in addressing economic and social problems (Dhlamini & Heeralal, 2014, p.456).
Addressing economic problems could relieve countries from spending a lot of money on issues such as poverty. ALs enroll in LPs hoping that the programme will inculcate them with survival skills. Failing to meet adults’ hopes leads to withdrawal as the learning place does not welcome them.

SADC (2009) identified the following challenge as one of SADC key challenges faced in the education and training sector, “shortage of relevant and appropriate teaching and learning materials” (p.8). This is verified by Andrews (2007) stating that ABET Research Paper (2003) identified lack of resources and delay of materials among reasons for drop-out at ABET levels 1 and 2 in Johannesburg. A discrepancy for Botswana, Malawian women and SA’s ALs is that ALs in Johannesburg experience delays in delivering materials.

Dhlamini & Heeralal (2014) cited Okech (2004) stating that, in Uganda “the lack of physical facilities and equipment that teachers will use in the classroom like the charts, learner resources contribute towards drop-out rate of learners” (p.457). Dhlamini & Heeralal confirm that lack of materials which support learning trigger dropout. There is a need to provide resources which are in good condition as stated by Okech cited by Dhlamini & Heeralal claiming that, “poor conditions of resources are also a contributory factor” (p.457).

Aitchison & Rule (2005) show that Namibia supports ALs with learning materials asserting that, “learners are provided, free of charge, with core materials for each stage (known as primers), exercise books, pencils, pens (for stage three and AUPE) and erasers” (p.56). Again Aitchison & Rule state that, “supplementary reading materials are available for learners to borrow from the book box. Literacy groups are also provided with chalkboard, chalks and dusters, where they are teaching at schools” (p.56).
Dhlamini & Heeralal (2014) cited Okech (2004) stating that, “availability of resources such as textbooks, desks, chalkboards has found to influence dropouts” (p. 457). This might imply that ALs in Namibia cannot easily dropout as materials are availed. ALs who spend part of the little money they earn buying learning materials may lose interest in learning. Lack of interest reasons for adults’ withdrawal in Botswana, Australia and USA in the studies discussed earlier could also have been influenced by insufficient reading materials.

As stated by Modisenyane (1992) cited by Okwalinga (1993) Serowe village men dropped from NLP because they felt literacy did not benefit them. If learners are taught things which cannot benefit them, they will withdraw. This reason of withdrawal is supported by Carpentieri (2014) stating that some adults may think that basic skills learning have little provision for them. Dhlamini & Heeralal (1994) assert that in SA, “the fact that the curriculum does not meet the needs of the learners so they see themselves not benefiting and contributing to the economy of the country hence they drop-out” (p.457). Dhlamini & Heeralal highlight that, “they are not learning any skills that will equip them to obtain their goals and alleviate poverty” (p.457).

ALs are grownups and their needs and expectation should be prioritized, because if educators fail to deliver relevant curriculum and enough materials, the learners will withdraw from learning before mastering a high level of literacy. They may never enroll again. Early withdrawal means women fail to get a high level literacy as proved by Stronquist (1990)’s study, which asserted that retention of women in LPS is poor, and that women fail to get the same high level of literacy as men because they withdraw early. Women might be challenged by a lot of house chores they do as compared to men and may also be disappointed by inadequate syllabus.
Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006)’s paper stated other relevant factors leading to withdrawal raised by ALs in Botswana National Literacy Programme as unsuitable venue, no infrastructure and non-conducive ones. The school at which the researcher works hosts ABEP study groups. ALs use desks, tables and toilets used by learners at the primary school. They are expected to learn and yet they are not catered for.

As observed by Maruatona (1998), at Kavimba lands “there was need to build a shelter to protect the learners from weather problems like rain and dust” (p.22). Maruatona states that “learners at Kavimba lands suggested that they would be happy to assist to build a shelter for the programme” (p.22). This finding might imply that adults in remote areas have no close primary schools to host them. They are eager to learn as they suggested building the learning shelter.

Carpentieri (2014) cited Rogers (2004) arguing that for learning to keep adults, it must be adult-centered, focusing on their needs, including their ambitions, aims and beliefs. ALs are grownups, their needs and expectation should be prioritized, because if educators fail to deliver relevant curriculum and enough materials the learners will withdraw from learning before mastering a high level of literacy. They may never enroll again. Okwalinga (1993) suggests that, “… Malawi and Botswana programmes need to relate content to the lives of the learners and pay increased attention to instructor preparation” (p.57). Okwalinga is concerned about ALPs in SADC countries like Malawi and suggests that the curriculum content should focus on learners’ needs.

There is a hope for implementation of ABEP curriculum in Botswana. This is highlighted by Aitchison & Alidou (2009) asserting that, “Botswana’s entire adult basic education curriculum and materials are being Overhauled, with the aid of an international team” (p.19). It is
seven years since these authors wrote this statement and this study will seek to find out if there has been any impact on learner attrition as a rescue.

This subtopic was a discussion on the provision of curriculum and supplied materials issue as a concern in LPs. The issue of funding of ALPs is also a potential concern in relation to learner withdrawal.

2.3.4 Funding Adult Literacy Programmes

Nowadays money seems to be one of the basic needs in life as it relates to provision of literacy and education, which are means of earning a living. Lack of money hinders states from developing people to become self-reliant. This is verified by Sigauke (1993) who states that “without money everything is bound to come to a standstill” (p.66).

Hanemann (2005) states that in Botswana, “the total budget for the DNFE represents slightly more than 1% of the total budget estimate for the Ministry of Education” (p.20). Again according to Hanemann, “out of this negligible amount 43% goes to the Botswana College of Distance and Open Learning (BOCODOL) and the African Association for Correspondence Education (AACE)” (p.20). LPs deserve a separate budget to avoid negligence as viewed by Dasgupta (2016), that lack of separate budget for LPs is a constraint in smooth administration of LPs.

Essay (2015) conducted a study on access and participation of ALs in adult basic LP in Kiambu District, in Kenya. Essay’s study supports the argument that lack of money contributes greatly to the poor running of ALPs. Money is essential to carry day to day activities in running LPs and all aspects of life. Therefore lack of money complicates the running of LPs.

Botswana seems to have little support in LPs as stated. This might be due to lack of support from churches, NGOs and donors. Namibia seems to have more support in funding as
compared to Botswana. This is revealed by Aitchison & Rule (2005) stating that “non-Government organisations (NGOs), religious bodies and some Commonwealth organisations also contribute the provision of adult education including literacy opportunities for Namibians” (p.57). Maybe Botswana shouldn’t have taken LPs from churches and NGOs like Namibia.

Aitchison & Rule (2005) state that “the National Literacy Programme was originally … funded mainly by a number of foreign donors” (p.19). Aitchison and Rule assert that the Botswana’s government “decided to institutionalize the programme from 1985 and took over an increasing proportion of the costs” (p.19). Now Botswana administers NLP with little funding. This is verified by Maruatona (2008)’s statement that, “there is insufficient funding for adult non-formal basic education programmes to afford all citizens access to quality education” (p.54).

The GOB’s fund for Botswana National Literacy Programme (BNLP) covers expenses of the institutional infrastructure of the DNFE’s central, regional and district offices including permanent staff. The costs show that the programme is “critically under-funded”. This leads to inadequate funds for honoraria for LGLs, lack of transport for monitoring the programme and “unacceptable” class meeting surroundings (Reimer, 1998, p.5 cited by Hanemann, 2005, p.20). Little funding shows negligence of ALP which promotes withdrawal. Youngman (2002a) cited by Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006) earlier in this study, shows that he is concerned about Botswana’s critical under-funding like Maruatona (2008) and Hanemann (2005).

Australia funds a Language, Literacy and Numeracy Program (LLNP), and administers it with territories providing assistance to eligible unemployed individuals (including refugees) looking for jobs. The aim is to develop their skills for functioning effectively in daily life (OECD, 2008, p.3). OECD asserts that the Adult Literacy National Project funds a reading and writing hotline (which enables callers to freely link with training providers). Countries like
Australia seem to have not many problems in funding ALPs as Australia seems to fully support the programme even providing a hotline.

Manda (2009) cited Aitchison & Alidou (2009) who asserted that funding of ALPs is usually insufficient, inconsistent and uncoordinated in Zambia and worldwide. Under-funding could be a main institutional factor hindering sustainability of ALPs with a possible consequence of drop-out. Roland (1997) supports stating that, “… adult education programs have very limited funds with which to plan curricula, hire instructors, and secure space” (p.13). According to Roland an exploration for resolution of these financial complications has led some states in the Asia-Pacific region to share responsibility for AE with NGOs.

Roland (1997) asserts that where there is no NGO support funding becomes a problem: “a unique case is that of Uzbekistan, where, to date there is no donor involvement and there are no NGOs in the country; all educational funding comes from the government” (p.13). Absence of NGOs in Uzbekistan is a constraint as the country is helpless. Roland argues that international donors and churches should be involved in running and funding AE.

Smart countries like China and Cuba allocate more funds to AE as stated by Njeri (2011) citing Bishop (1993). Njeri & Bishop show that good political will, means ALP has attained successful progress. The examples of China and Cuba contrast with Kenya’s government as it fails to allocate more funds to AE, but caters only for primary and secondary level of education. This situation seems to be faced by many ALPs especially in Africa where AE funding is insufficient compared to primary and secondary schools funding.

Windisch (2015) states that CEDEFOP data shows that more demands reasons than constraints in supply trigger under-investment in adult learning. This might be experienced if ALPs demand more funds and their country is unable to fund them. ALPs in Zimbabwe for
instance, have high demands due to its nation’s low economy, but Zimbabwe funds them. According to Xinhua (2010) one senior government official told the Herald Newspaper that the highest literacy levels increment in Zimbabwe is caused by their government’s heavy investment in the education sector over the years. Xinhua cited UNDP Digest (u.d) stating that Zimbabwe’s literacy level escalated to 92% from 85% while Tunisia remains on 87%.

Xinhua (2010) did not provide the period of Zimbabwe’s escalation in LR. Spot Check (2015) shows a discrepancy in LR stating that Friedrich Huebler, an education indicator specialist stated that countries use different meanings to define literacy, which is one of the problems with international comparisons. Many Zimbabwean migrate to their neighbouring SADC nations like SA as they are literate, and therefore they are able to get the basic needs using English language spoken by countries colonized by England. Zimbabwe was also colonized by England.

Spot Check (2015) asserts that the Institute for Statistics by the UNESCO estimated that Zimbabwe had 83.6% LR of people ageing 15 and older in 2011. Spot Check states that the estimation relied on the 2011 results of Zimbabwe’s Demographic and Health Survey and that they consulted the UNESCO’s June 2013 global literacy list to find out Zimbabwe’s LR rank in Africa. According to Spot Check UNESCO’s estimation for June 2013 showed that the following Sub-Saharan African nations were higher than Zimbabwe in LR: Equatorial Guinea (94.2%), South Africa (93%), Seychelles (91.8%), Gabon (89%), Mauritius (88.8%), Swaziland (87.8%), Burundi (86.9%), Botswana (85.1%) and Cape Verde (84.9%).

Spot Check (2015)’s weakness is found in failing to provide readers with UNESCO’s June 2013 estimation for Zimbabwe’s LR. Zimbabwe like other SADC countries experienced high dropout of ALs from LPs as stated by Sigauke (1993) citing COS (1994) that, “ten years
later the 1992 census showed that the adult illiteracy rate had dropped to 19.62%, the highest drop being in urban centres and among men” (p.54). 17.58 % improvement came up after the 1982 population census was conducted. Sigauke cited COS (1985) asserting that, “the 1982 population census for Zimbabwe revealed that 37.2% of the adult population in Zimbabwe were nonliterate” (p.54). Sigauke did not state what COS stand for.

Zimbabwe worked hard in reaching older adults to attain 62.8 % in adult LR, even though Zimbabwe is a poor country. According to Marango & Ndamba (2011, p.44) better financing and renewed efforts to reach older adults is critical to accelerated progress. Marango & Ndamba assert that Zimbabwe’s government and its NGOs’ financially and materially support their literacy programmes. If the government is financially and materially supported by NGO’s, churches and individuals willing to eliminate withdrawal, it can be speculated that there will be less or no withdrawal. Zimbabwe is an example of such a government. Unlike Uzbekistan, Zimbabwe does not only depend on government support but is boosted by her NGOs’ partnership.

In East Asia and Pacific the majority of countries spend less than five per cent, and in South and West Asia the majority spend less than four per cent of national income on education. Most countries in the Central Asian region also have not met the recommended level for education expenditure (UNESCO, u.d, p.39). This implies that many states in Asia-Pacific Region violate the right to AE by not abiding to the recommended 6 % budget.

Only some of the middle- to high-income countries, such as New Zealand, Malaysia, and Uzbekistan, have met or exceeded the recommended spending on education. AE spending constitutes an insignificant proportion of the public education budget, particularly for low-income countries, as they are trying to cope with the massive expansion of primary education

Equatorial Guinea’s government does not invest much of its oil capital in education. The country worked hard to improve women’s literacy and eliminate their marginalization. An outcome was a high LR and high literacy parity between men and women (Contract Accountants, 2012). High LR and high literacy parity suggests there is high enrollment and fewer withdrawals from LPs. African states like Equatorial Guinea and Botswana improved their literacy rate by eliminating gender disparity.

The development of AL and education varies in Sub-Saharan countries as stated by Aitchison & Alidou (2009) that, “in some of the poorer countries learners and local communities are largely responsible for meeting their own literacy and non-formal education needs (for example, Burkina Faso)” (p.15). Again Aitchison & Alidou state that in 2000 Cameroon families in urban areas used 6% of their budget on non-formal education while Senegal students spent about 5%. While other Sub-Saharan countries like Botswana offer free education these countries do not. ALs in these states are likely to withdraw from LPs if they cannot sponsor themselves. Those who cannot sponsor themselves might remain illiterate.

Studies show that SADC countries like Zimbabwe and Namibia support their ALPs. The reason for Namibia’s government achievement in international commitments stated by Shaleyfu (2012) citing UNESCO (2008) is that, Namibia “invests more than 6 percent of Gross National Product in education and is now working towards increased investment in youth and adult education as required by the Dakar Framework for Action” (p.14).
SADC countries like Namibia show that they are heavily investing in education as stated by Shaleyfu (2012), asserting that the government of Namibia “spends the largest portion of its budget on education and it is ranked in the top three countries in the world in terms of the percentage of the total budget that is spent on education” (p.14). Namibia has gone extra mile supporting NGOs as stated by Shaleyfu asserting that NGOs rely solely on government funds, while others depend on grants from donors or from contracts with private sector institutions.

Sufficient and well organized funding might improve the quality of education in LPs run by Africa. weMfundo (2007) states that SADC recommended that, “… the financing of education in terms of percentage of the GDP and percentage of the Government budget be examined critically in each Member State in terms of efficient unit costs” (p.100). weMfundo proceeds stating that it was recommended that SADC members should allow “… sufficient funding for teaching/learning materials” (p.100).

Some SADC members ignore the recommendation as they are still underfunding ALPs, like Botswana. Sigauke (1993) verifies that SADC should allow enough funding by stating that “money is needed for the provision of stationery … for buying teaching aids and reading materials; all of which directly and indirectly affect literacy activities” (p.67).

Unlike other SADC nations, Zimbabwe experiences economic problems and political instability, therefore deserves a credit in her support for LPs in many practical aspect. Free education, offering optional and practical subjects, heavy investment and improving minorities’ literacy in both genders appear to be one of the best ways of developing people and combating withdrawal. UNESCO Bangkok (2013) states that through partnering, liaising with communities and NGOs many states developed innovative programmes. There are potentially other economic factors that influence withdrawal from ALPs.
This subtopic discussed the funding of ALPs. The following subtopic is a discussion on economic factor as a reason for withdrawal.

2.4. Economic factors

Windisch (2015) cited McDonnell, Soricone & Sheen (2014) stating that ALs often face social challenges such as supporting families, financial constraint, low salary jobs with no specific hours of work. ALs in LPs are responsible for supplying their families with basic needs as stated. They earn little money and some opt to work hard at home to meet financial demands, leading them to withdraw from LPs. This is proved by Okwalinga (1993)’s study which established that ‘too much work at home’ was a major contributing factor towards withdrawal in Botswana, Kenya and Malawi. A second reason for withdrawal in Kenya was too much garden work.

As stated by UNESCO Bangkok (2013) people are paying prices for past failures. An example of people paying prices for past failures in Africa is evidenced in states with many illiterate and poor parents who are married and not working or are earning little. The GOB attempts to eliminate poverty by delivering free LPs, nevertheless ALs withdraw from LPs, while others do not enroll perhaps because they cannot afford basic needs easily.

A 1998 study conducted at Kiambu District in Kenya cited by Njeri (2011) states that the majority of ALs join LPs thinking that their economic status will improve. Njeri declares that ALs withdraw when they realize LPs fail to fulfill their economic needs. In support Okwalinga (1993) argues that, “the absence of a strong link between continued attendance and life improvement, or even prospects of it, is a crucial factor in discouraging attendance” (p.57). If learners are not provided with skills for survival, they will be discouraged to attend LPs as they are concerned about their basic needs. This can lead to withdrawal.
Kambouri & Francis (1994)’s study explored reasons for non-attending or drop out in Basic Skills Programmes in Britain. In the study instructors provided an economic reason for students’ withdrawal being that they ‘started work’. Malicky & Norman (1994)’s 3 year study in Canada examined participation patterns of adults in LPs as well as past school experiences and reasons for entering and leaving LPs. These examples showed that financial constraint forces ALs to withdraw from the programme because of work. Britain and Canada’s LPs share a financial constraint which is dominant in African states as most Africans are poor.

Okwalinga (1993)’s study revealed that 10 out of 23 (43%) men in Botswana, 3 out of 26 (12 %) Kenyan men believed that literacy would not help in their daily lives. However the study is 23 years old. Fewer Kenyan men than men in Botswana believed literacy would not help. This is not a surprise since Kenya has a high LR. Surprisingly no men believed literacy would not help in Malawi, yet their LR is 62.70 %, lower than Kenya and Botswana. Okwalinga (1993)’s weakness is employing different numbers of samples in three states, which means that the results may not be comparative.

The improvement of 83.3 % LR in Botswana in 1990 might imply that withdrawal has reduced due to change in many men’s perspective on the importance of literacy. It might have also improved because Botswana ceased violation of children’s right to education, as parents no longer withdraw girls and boys from schools. High LR in Botswana and Kenya shows commitment in developing citizens despite the continuing problems of withdrawal.

Shumba & Chakanika (2013) state that due to culture and tradition Malawian men’s engagement in LPs is not a priority as the society expects them to provide their families with basic needs. They spent a lot of their time engaging in activities which can bring income. Canada’s case differs from Malawi men in the sense that many more men withdraw in Malawi
than in Canada due to financial constraints. More withdrawals due to financial constraint might imply that there is more poverty in a state.

Okwalinga (1993)’s study found that searching for jobs to earn money was the second reason for withdrawal in Botswana and Malawi. No wonder why Malawi was ranked number 28 with 62.70 % literacy in 2013. It seems economic reasons for withdrawal in Britain, Canada and African states like Malawi are identical in the sense that withdrawal reasons are based on need to earn a living.

Okwalinga (1993)’s study suggests that, “… movement to search for jobs to earn money could be stemmed by socio-economic policies geared toward work creation for retention of adults and youth in the rural areas” (p.58). States facing economic factor constraints need support like the opportunity to create jobs for ALs, having enough funding and means of motivating ALs and educators. Malawi and other states call for sufficient funding which could serve as an intervention measure to prevent withdrawal.

This subtopic reviewed literature on economic factors contributing to withdrawal. The next subtopic provides a discussion on social factors as reasons for withdrawal.

2.5. Social factors

Family demands seem to dominate reasons for withdrawal in many countries as compared to other social reasons. Domestic violence and alcoholism seems to be not influencing withdrawal in many countries except Kenya.

McDonnell, Soricone & Sheen (2014)’s concern cited by Windisch (2015) is that ALs often experience individual challenges. Essay (2015) found out that withdrawal challenges among Kenyan men were due to: tight family chores, domestic violence and alcoholism. Domestic violence and alcoholism factors may not have been dominant or existing in Kenya.
during Okwalinga (1993)’s study, as they were not stated. The study showed that in Botswana, Kenya and Malawi’s men’s shyness to learn with females, and fear of failure were mostly triggering withdrawal. A discrepancy in the finding was that there was fear of failure in Botswana and Kenya, and Malawi’s men feared to be taught like children which could be due to using children schools and furniture.

Manda (2009, p.67) listed the following social factors as triggering women to withdraw from LP in Kabompo, in North West District Province of Zambia: jealous husbands, lack of husbands support, marriage interference and large families. Jealousy and lack of support could be triggered by men and family members’ lack of literacy skills and education. Zambian women seem not to encounter domestic violence or alcoholism as reasons for withdrawal in their families unlike in Kenya. Zambian women did not mention shyness to learn with men as their withdrawal reason. This might imply that African women are comfortable learning in same place with men, even though some men find it a problem.

Manda (2009, p.67) also found that reasons for health were the learners’ and family’s sickness, while cultural reasons involve culturally established bias and discrimination in the education system. The stated social factors for Zambia women’s withdrawal have not changed, they are same reasons for withdrawal in Sumbwa & Chakanika (2013)’s study.

The issue of withdrawing ‘boys’ to herd cattle instead of attending schooling occurs in Zambia as stated by Shumba & Chakanika (2013)’s study: that young boys are withdrawn from elementary schools in order to prepare them for adulthood. As stated by the writer of this proposal some parents in Botswana used to withdraw boys and girls from schools in 1980s. According to Shumba & Chakanika this violation of education occurs in Zambia even though her
LR is high. The Zambian boys will be illiterate men in future as current illiterate men and women are past failures of delivering literacy and numeracy skills in the by then children.

Andrews (2007)’s study conducted at City Powers in Johannesburg (SA) indicated low self-esteem and often a lack of progress as social factors triggering withdrawal. Andrews cited Skills and Education Network (2005, p.2) asserting that National Adult Learning Survey conducted in 2002 in United Kingdom (UK), listed the following as social barriers causing withdrawal: not being able to keep up; negative perceptions of schooling and lack of role models.

A discrepancy seems to be that lack of role models is experienced in the UK, but not in SA. Social factors for withdrawal in UK seem to be slightly different from those cited in SA. For example, there was no complaint about shyness to learn with opposite sex like there was for men in Okwalinga’s study. Africans’ belief that men are more intelligent than women might be triggering their shyness to share the same programme with women.

Ginsburg (2000) cited Wagner & Venezky (1999) stating that more studies conducted in developed countries indicate that bio-behavioral factors like poor eyesight, dyslexia and learning disabilities, can have an impact in literacy acquisition. Andrews (2007) found out that in 2005-06 withdrawal rate in City Power was triggered mainly by illness and death at level 3. According to UNESCO (2009) high drop-out and absence rates in Angola are triggered by internal and external factors like health problems, lack of self-motivation and lack of time. Unlike countries which are not industrialized, ALs in industrialized countries such as Angola and SA seem to mostly experience health problems as one of reasons for dropout.

SA and Angola are amongst the few industrialized African countries. Reasons for withdrawal due to illness and death seem to be dominant in industrialized states. Studies in
unindustrialized states in Africa in this study did not state illness and death triggering withdrawal except in SA and Angola.

Ginsburg (2000) argues that ill people like most adults, may experience complex family, work and social conditions that are difficult to ignore to allow education to take place. This implies that some ill ALs might not cope with learning and decide to withdraw. In Canada Malicky & Norman (1994)’s study found that a second most frequent reason for withdrawing from AE comprised social, family, and personal problems. Examples are pregnancy and or house chores like childcare, mental or physical health problems. Canada’s adults’ reasons for withdrawal are the same as reasons for most African states.

Withdrawal seems to persist in many states and enforcing policies on literacy might eliminate the situation. The next topic explores how policies on literacy are viewed.

2. 6 Enforcement of policies on literacy

Aitchison & Rule (2005) states that, “… many SADC countries, on attaining independence from former colonial powers, engaged in variety of policy, legislative, campaign and provision endeavours to raise literacy and basic education levels amongst adults…” (p.104). Aitchison & Alidou (2009) cited (before 2008 UNESCO Institute for Statistics) asserting that in Africa “a few countries have specific, ratified, national adult education policies” (p.5).

Aitchison & Rule (2005) listed the two SADC nations, Namibia and South Africa amongst African states which have such policy, and that both countries having 12.0 % illiterate adults. Aitchison & Alidou (2009)’s concern is that, “where specific adult education policy documents do exist they tend to be in draft form and as yet unratified (often for years), as in Gambia, Kenya, Lesotho and Malawi” (p.5).
Education develops from literacy and literacy is perceived as foundation for lifelong learning for all Batswana including minority groups and people with disabilities. In order to achieve lifelong learning as stated in Chapter One ABEP was institutionalized to replace NLP. A Report of the Evaluation of the NLP by the UNESCO (2008) listed non-enforcement of policy amongst NLP challenges in adult learning and education.

Despite education policies’ efforts, ABEP like NLP lacks a clear and specific policy to direct it as stated by MoESD (1994). One of the main problems affecting OSE in Botswana identified by Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006), is “lack of policy framework to guide implementation of the various out of school education provisions, leading to low status and marginalisation of this sector of education” (p.22). Maruatona (2007) cited Youngman (1998) asserting that, “it has been argued that Botswana should formulate and implement an adult education policy to guarantee learning opportunities for all. However, the rhetoric has so far exceeded the actual provision of education services” (p.37).

If the sector like OSE has no policy to guide it, it is more likely to be marginalized and have low status. An evidence of the sector being marginalized is ushered by Aitchison & Rule (2005) stating that, “adult literacy is often the first to suffer financial cuts when governments have to cut spending on services” (p.104). As argued by Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006) this sector has low status and is marginalized.

Chepesiuk (2007) states that Zambia’s attempt to make AE policy since she gained independence in 1964, failed as there is no AE policy. Chepesiuk proceeds stating that Adult Learning and Education is directed by different policy documents. This proves some SADC members’ and African countries’ negligence in running ALPs without specific prepared policies. The absence of specific prepared policies leads to marginalization and low status.
Many studies like Sumbwa & Chakanika (2013) recommend that ALPs policy should be formulated and implemented but the recommendation seems to be ignored. Sumbwa & Chakanika cited Caffarella (2001) establishing that even though AE is considered as a great device for maintaining development, it is clear that direct and deliberate policies have to be implemented for achievement.

Implementing ALE policy without considering implementing various language policy of languages spoken in Botswana like the minority language is insufficient. Botswana has one language policy. Sumbwa & Chakanika (2013) assert that most African countries regard policy as insignificant in adults when combating illiteracy. Considering vital policies like language policy unimportant delays development in Africa.

AE in US is funded by federal funds administered by the Workforce Investment Act (WIA) of 1998 known as Adult Education and Family Literacy Act (AEFLA). ABE is given federal funds. According to National Institute for Literacy reports most programmes are small or medium-sized with an average enrolment of 318 ALs, and are given a median budget of 199 000 USD (OECD, 2008, p.31). US average funding seems to be far better than in most African states. ALPs in Africa need specific acts like AEFLA. England has proved to be amongst the best in funding basic skills.

In England the 2003 Skills Strategy programme provides basic skills up to Level 2 freely in the workplace. The government raised adult foundation skills sector funding, appropriating 1.5 billion GBP to fulfill its target for 750 000 skills for life learners to be certificated between 2001 and 2004. Education providers in rural areas however often fail to meet funding criteria as they are unable to gather (8 to 10) the lowest required number of learners (OECD, 2008, p.15). This
might imply that those in rural areas who are not meeting the required number are not funded or attending LPs. Otherwise the country could perhaps have eliminated illiteracy.

Sumbwa & Chakanika (2013) declare that apart from many providers of ALPs like churches and NGOs, there is no benchmarking and this results in complicating coordinating and monitoring of the sector. One may wonder why states ignore benchmarking even though they expect their employees to bring production through benchmarking. Theories such as Maslow’s motivational theory might highlight educators and planners on how to run LPs and eliminate withdrawal. Maslow’s motivational theory is discussed in the next subtopic.

2.7 Theoretical aspect (motivation theory –Maslow)

Motivation theory was adapted from Abraham Maslow (1943). It is a model for human motivation in AE and subscribes to ABEP.

2.7.1 Maslow’s theory as a model for human motivation in AE

This subsection discusses Maslow’s theories of motivation and its relevance in exploring reasons for ALs withdrawal from LPs.

Switzer (2006) states that the education field experiences a dramatic influence from Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs. Human Motivation Theory informs this paper as it has a remarkable influence in ALs’ literacy and education. Adults in ABEP need to be motivated to learn reading, writing and Mathematics to inculcate skills in them, so that they fit in the transforming society. They also need to be motivated in order to acquire knowledge and skills in other disciplines for survival.

Maslow’s theory is proposed as it provides this paper with ideas on how ALs needs should be met, and it addresses how ALs could be retained in LPs. The concepts in Maslow’s
hierarchy of needs might serve as an interceptive measure which could address the problem of adults’ withdrawal from ABEP.

The necessity of employing this theory is proved by McLeod (2014) who asserts that Maslow's hierarchy is directly related to learning through motivation. According to McLeod for students to succeed in the classroom they must be motivated to learn. Maslow’s theory argues that it is doubtful for education to thrive with an absence of motivation. With the help of Maslow’s motivation theory, it is possible to explore what criteria need to be in place to minimize withdrawal from LPs.

Okwalinga (1993)’s study establishes that men withdraw from LPs because they are shy to learn with women. Their biggest hindrance is lack of sense of belonging. This is relevant to one of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. An implication of Maslow’s theory is that shy men in this study are not free in learning and lack a sense of belonging to a group (Lutz, 2014).

This discussion leads to Maslow’s hierarchy and an application of Maslow’s theory to teaching and learning. Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Pyramid is shown in the next subsection.

2.7.2 Maslow’s Hierarchy

The following figure is Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Pyramid. It has five levels of needs starting with physiological needs and cease with self-actualization.

\[
\text{Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Pyramid}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Deficit Needs} & \\
\text{Physiological Needs} & \\
\text{Safety Needs} & \\
\text{Belonging Needs} & \\
\text{Esteem Needs} & \\
\text{Self-actualization}
\end{align*}
\]

Figure 1. Personality theories. (Boeree, 2006).
Maslow (1943) asserted that, “human needs arrange themselves in hierarchies of pre-potency. That is to say, the appearance of one need usually rests on the prior satisfaction of another, more pre-potent need” (p.370). This implies that an adult learner’s needs in Maslow’s hierarchy depend on each other according to their arrangement. A learner will not move to other needs before the previous one is satisfied.

2.7.3 Application of Maslow’s theory

Application of Maslow’s theory in learning is needed to be employed in order to retain ALs and avoid withdrawal. It shall be covered under needs for each level in the hierarchy of needs.

2. 7. 3.1 The need for basic (physiological) needs in AE

Maslow (1943) highlighted that “undoubtedly these physiological needs are the most pre-potent of all needs” (p.373). For one to move into any other level from the first level in Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs, she or he has to first meet the first level (physiological needs), which is the basic needs such as food and shelter. People need money to buy food to survive and built shelter for protection. Maslow proceeded stating that, “a person who is lacking food, safety, love, and esteem would most probably hunger for food more strongly than for any-thing else” (p.373).

The implication of Maslow’s theory in learning concerning the basic needs is that if physiological needs are not satisfied, learners cannot learn, even though they know that learning is vital. Ex-ALs in this study need basic needs, those with no means of survival coming to learning places on empty stomach are most likely to hunger more strongly for food than learning. This could lead to dropout to get food and other basic needs. Dhlamini & Heeralal (2014)’s study earlier showed that ALs dropout if the programme fail to provide them with survival skills.
Maslow (1943) highlighted on the behavior of a man who is very and ‘dangerously’ starving stating that in him “no other interests exist but food. He dreams food, he remembers food, he thinks about food, he emotes only about food, he perceives only food and he wants only food” (p.374). An implication is that if ex-ALs are worried about food they could not concentrate and remember what was taught. This study will find out if ex-ALs main concern was food.

One of the reasons for withdrawal established by Okwalinga (1993)’s study is that ALs search for jobs to earn money. The money provides basic needs. (1998)’s study carried in Kenya as cited by Njeri (2011) established that the majority of ALs join LPs thinking that their economic status will improve. Worrying about provision of basic needs distracts participants in lessons. Maslow’s theory provides ABEP adult educators and planners with vital information that ALs are unlikely to concentrate during lessons, if they are worried about provision of basic needs. Providing food at learning places is not enough if the adult learner is a bread winner at his/her home. This could lead to low academic progression and withdrawal.

An example of how LPs can meet ALs basic needs is provided by Switzer (2006) when he states that a school knows that students cannot function at school without basic needs, therefore they may provide them with lunch if most of them have no food. Switzer proceeds stating that this would transit the students to safety need.

The writer’s view is that providing ALs with tea and bread during winter, and cold drink with bread in other seasons at break time if they attend lessons after lunch, may help ALs to meet basic needs and move to safety needs. Another view is that providing food is not enough without giving ALs allowance to motivate them to stay in the programme until they master the skills, and get certificates or not. These strategies could serve as interceptive measures by reducing and alternately ceasing withdrawal.
Manda (2009, p.72)’s findings reveal that the learning environment for women is not conducive as they use small desks used by small children. Manda proceeds stating that in order to encourage women’s participation the respondents said the government should build learning centers for adults where proper furniture will be availed. Motivational theory’s implication is that ALs should learn in a conducive shelter as shelter is their basic need.

Maruatona & Mokgosi (2006)’s paper earlier stated that unsuitable venue, no infrastructure and non-conducive ones are other relevant factors leading to withdrawal raised by ALs in Botswana National Literacy Programme. Education centres serve as shelters for all ALs. ALs need conducive learning places in order to learn. Maruatona (1998) found out that there was a need to build a shelter to protect ALs from bad weather.

Studies like Maruatona (1998)’s study addressing the need for learning centres seem to have led to the consideration of Maslow’s theory on the need for shelter as now Botswana has built education centres for ALs in some rural areas listed by MoESD (2008, p.70) in the following districts: Western/Kgalagadi, Central /Boteti and Northern /North East. MoESD states that, “department of non-formal education … has created resource centres in the districts to facilitate access to education for Out-of-School learners” (p.70).

Instructors’ applications of Maslow’s hierarchy theory in the classroom are clear. Learners’ basic needs should be firstly satisfied before they meet their cognitive needs. It won’t be easy for a hungry and weary learner to concentrate on learning. For learners to reach their full potential through progression in their learning place, they should experience physical and also emotional safety, including acceptance (McLeod, 2014).

This subsection discussed the need for physiological needs in AE. The next subsection discusses the need for safety and security in AE which serves as a motivation to learning.
2.7.3.2 The need for safety and security in AE

In this subsection Maslow (1943) emphasizes the need for safety and security in learning in order to secure learners from withdrawal. The need for shelter which seems to fall under basic and safety needs for learning has been partly covered under basic needs, as ALs cannot learn under bad weather like rainfall when there is no shelter. Therefore this subsection shall be brief.

One of reasons why men withdraw from LPs according to Okwalinga (1993)’s study is fear of failure and shyness to learn with women. Male ex-ALs in Ramotswa are more likely to know that literacy and numeracy skills are a transition to other levels of education, which can bring classic basic needs like a house with security, but might have chosen to withdraw due to shyness. This statement is verified by Maslow (1943, p.376) asserting that when it comes to safety, everything seems not important in practical situations (even the basic needs which are satisfied, are now taken for granted).

Maslow (1943) continues stating that, “a man, in this state, if it is so extreme enough and chronic enough, may be characterized as living almost for safety alone” (p.376). Fear of men in Okwalinga (1993)’s study seems to have been so extreme enough to make them withdraw as if they were living almost for safety alone. Their fear seem to have been so ‘chronic’ that they forgot that literacy and numeracy skills can improve their life. Male Ramotswa ex-ALs might have felt the same and decided to withdraw.

As stated Africans’ traditional belief that men are more intelligent than women could be influencing men to believe that women shouldn’t out-smart them. The learning environment for shy men does not welcome them. They need an exclusive learning and a conducive environment. Maslow (1993) suggests provision of security and protection if learners are insecure in learning as this will enable them to move to the next level. Okwalinga (1993) supports this suggesting
that Botswana, Kenya and Malawi “… should address the question of separate instructional settings for illiterate adult males …” (p.58).

Employing Maslow’s theory might assist educators and education planners to consider building separate learning centres for men if they withdraw due to shyness to learn with women. This might eliminate withdrawal of men from LPs due to shyness and trigger a sense of belonging to LPs. The belonging need in AE is discussed in the next subsection.

2. 7. 3.3 The belonging needs in AE

Maslow (1943) stated that if the basic and safety needs are fairly satisfied, “then there will emerge the love and affection and belongingness needs, and the whole cycle already described will repeat itself with this new center” (pp.380-381). For one to move to the 3rd level of Maslow’s hierarchy which involves love, affection and a sense of belonging needs, one has to meet safety and security needs. Educators have to provide learners with a sense of belonging to groups, to value them as people and learners (Glencoe, 2002). For shy men to move to level 3, they have to be safe and secure.

Okwalinga (1993, p.56)’s study established that most of Malawi and Kenyan men were unhappy with their instructors’ attitude. Unhappiness could be triggered by the instructors’ negative attitude towards men. This could deprive men a safe environment in which they could be learning properly and be able to satisfy the love, affection and belongingness needs.

Maslow supports this proposition emphasizing that instructors should provide ALs with love, affection and a sense of belonging to ALs group as stated by Glencoe (2002). This could also motivate the group to love and provide other members with a sense of belonging to the group. Equipping ABEP instructors with knowledge of Maslow’s learning theory is likely to
assist them in providing conducive environment to ALs. This could serve as withdrawal preventive measure.

Switzer (2006) suggests that by providing a welcoming surrounding with the group interaction, including acknowledging efforts through positive reinforcement from the instructors, ALs will concentrate in learning. Positive reinforcement could be done in scripts by writing excellent, etc, when marking written work, or through verbal expression during oral discussion. The group can reinforce practically through applauding a group member’s efforts.

Maslow alerts educators in this study about the importance of love, affection and a sense of belonging, in order for ALs to move to other levels of needs. Applying Maslow’s theory will help ALs in LPs like ABEP to move to Maslow’s forth level of needs, which is the esteem needs.

2. 7. 3.4 The esteem needs in AE

This subsection is a discussion on esteem needs in AE as a need for boosting learners’ interest and confidence in learning. ALs have to satisfy these needs in order to reach self-actualization needs.

Maslow (1943) stated that the esteem needs may be categorized into two secondary sets. According to Maslow, “these are, first, the desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for confidence in the face of the world, and for independence and freedom” (p.381). Maslow proceeds stating that, “secondly, we have what we may call the desire for reputation or prestige (defining it as respect or esteem from other people), recognition, attention, importance or appreciation” (pp.381-382). This implies that ALs enroll in LPs fulfilled with strength to learn, self-reliance, freedom and to achieve their goals.

The forth level of the hierarchy of needs can only be met after level one, two, and three are met. Learners seek good esteem in the fourth level through recognition and achievement.
Through acquiring recognition from others, learners feel confident in their aptitude to learn (Maslow, 1943, as cited by Lutz, 2014). Maslow’s implication is that ALs also need their group maids’ recognition and attention, so that they will feel confident and important in the world. This could boost their self-esteem.

ALs expect instructors and group members to recognize them, give them attention and appreciate them in their academic performance in learning. If not, they might develop low self-esteem and withdraw. ABEP administrators and educators also want the needs in the hierarchy, they have to be motivated through training, given certificates of appreciation and increased salaries. Maslow’s theory sensitizes the GOB to equip the instructors in LPs with knowledge of theories of learning, such as motivational theory and provide them with a supportive environment.

If ABEP fails to satisfy instructors’ needs, they will leave the programme to look for organizations which will satisfy their needs. Supporting instructors as well as ALs might serve as withdrawal preventive measure in this study. The writer of this paper’s assumption is that some ALs might withdraw if an instructor who gave them a sense of belonging resigns, especially if they think that the new one is unfriendly to them.

Skills and Education Network (2005, p.2) cited by Andrews (2007) identified that being nervous about going to classroom; low self-esteem and lack of general confidence in relation to learning; and low aspirations as causes of withdrawal in United Kingdom states. According to Andrews (2007)’s study the ABET Research Paper (2003) cited lack of confidence as one of reasons why drop-out occur at levels 1 and 2. Maslow’s theory implication is that ALs need educators’, learning group’s and families’ recognition, attention and appreciation in order to feel confident and important in their ability to learn.
As stated, Andrews (2007)’s study found that withdrawal rates at the 3rd level of learning are more due to lack of motivation and support. Other reasons stated by Andrews in this paper are low self-esteem and often a lack of progress. According to Andrews ABET programme lacked support of all stakeholders in the organization which prevented motivation and participation of learners.

Unsupportive stakeholders won’t promote good self-esteem, a need which is emphasized by Maslow, but may instead trigger withdrawal. Motivation and support will boost good self-esteem and progression as per Maslow’s fourth level. ALs with supportive stakeholders are likely to achieve their learning and education goals if not hindered by illness and death.

Andrews (2007)’ study in SA found that drop-out is mainly due to illness and death at level 3. Illness and death were not stated amongst main causes for withdrawal in many African states in this paper. Andrews’s study focused on Maslow’s levels 1, 2 and 3, while Casey et al (2006)’s study, cited by Department for International Development (2008), focused on level 1 and 2. Other studies in this paper did not reflect Maslow’s levels.

Sick learners with HIV & AIDS are likely to have low self-esteem if they have given up on life. Maslow’s theory emphasizes that sick learners should be supported with love which is emphasized at 3rd level of the hierarchy. Love could be shown by verbally acknowledging recovering ALs for attending lessons. LPs can boost low esteem by making Prize Giving Days to award not only best students in academics, but also those showing improvements in academics and attendance. Switzer (2006) emphasizes that educators’ understanding of Maslow’s theory should be equipped with their ability to work with ALs, in order for them to reach fully self-actualization.
ALs need instructors who have passion in teaching and are able to guide them with careers if they manage to be literate or get educated. Instructors with no passion might not be useful to them as they might not support them to climb Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Pyramid and self-actualize. Self-actualization needs discussion follows this subsection.

2.7.3.5 The self-actualization needs in AE

Maslow (1943) stated that, “the clear emergence of these needs rests upon prior satisfaction of the physiological, safety, love and esteem needs” (p.383). According to Maslow’s theory, “a musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately happy. What a man can be, he must be. This need we may call self-actualization” (p.382). The implication could be that for people to be happy, they should follow their talent. Attaining literacy skills is a transition to other levels of education. ALs who pass their elementary level and pursue in education with ambition, can be what they are meant to be if prior needs are satisfied.

Self-actualization becomes significant at the fifth level. The learners look for methods to fulfill their personal potential for learning and search for fulfillment in their learning. Learners will struggle for certain learning goals and seek to achieve them at this level. For example, learners may wish to get an “A” on their examination or may seek to read a number of books, at this level (Gorman, 2010, as quoted by Lutz, 2014). Learners may get an “A” if their self-esteem needs are satisfied.

According to Maslow (1943), “even if all these needs are satisfied, we may still often (if not always) expect that a new discontent and restlessness will soon develop, unless the individual is doing what he is fitted for” (p.383). Sometimes people choose wrong careers, the ones they are
not interested in because they cannot get the ones they are fitted for. Such people are more likely to be unhappy and impatient in their workplace because they are not doing those jobs with love.

An implication of Maslow’s theory is that ALs’ needs might be satisfied, but they might have chosen careers they are not fitted for. Maslow’s theory in this study sensitizes adult educators and planners in ABEP, to realize that they can provide career guidance to help ALs to choose their career paths. Researches like Maslow’s found out that individuals whose lives are different from their real nature and abilities, are less likely to enjoy life than those whose lives match their goals. It also informs this study that ALs who continue enrolling in ABEP with progress, will successfully climb the hierarchy of needs if their needs are satisfied.

According to Maslow’s theory if ALs dropout before achieving their goals, wishes and desires in education, they will view their welfare status with regret at later age due to failures of the past, they will be filled with despair. Its implication is that adults who withdraw from LPs forever are likely to look back with regrets of failing to achieve their goals in life, when they reach old age. They are likely to blame LPs like ABEP for failing to retain them if their reasons for the withdrawal were due to institutional factors. The theory’s general implication is that ALs who dropped out of LPs and are at a later old age or died, failed to reach self-actualization due to unsatisfied needs and failing to fulfill their goals.

The motivation theory informs this study that ALs who are able to move to the fifth level (non-withdrawal), perceive self-actualization as significant and work hard to achieve their goals. Lutz (2014) states that it is vital for educators to take Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs into consideration, for ALs in the learning place. Maslow’s theory’s implication is that ALs in LPs like ABEP might be retained if educators prioritize each adult’s needs, educators’ needs, and
employ motivation theory in delivering literacy knowledge and skills. This might serve as an interceptive measure in preventing withdrawal.

This chapter reviewed literature on the withdrawal of ALs from LPs in Botswana, SADC, Africa and worldwide. The next section is a summary of chapter 2.

2.8 Summary

Colonialism transformed Africans’ lifestyle like Batswana into European culture through literacy. Literacy is required for survival and transition to education. Unlike in the past Africans have to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes through literacy in order to develop and survive in a transforming society. Otherwise coping with the world of capital, modern technology and industrialization is likely to be a nightmare.

Withdrawing from ALPs like ABEP without inculcated literacy and numeracy skills can trigger poverty and other issues throughout the world. Sources like Maslow’s theory can avail information to guide education planners, policymakers and educators in combating withdrawal. Training instructors, other educators and ALs is not holistic without motivating and supporting them. Addressing constraints in LPs could combat withdrawal.

Supportive nations, NGOs, churches and education providers liaise and work hard to maintain high literacy rates. Benchmarking, honesty, love, dedication, empathy, patriotism and money in LPs are essential in combating illiteracy.

The summary of this chapter is followed by Chapter 3. Chapter 3 focuses on the research methodology.
CHAPTER 3

Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter is an outline of a description of methodological procedures which the researcher will employ to investigate withdrawal of ALs from ABEP, in the selected area of the study. The study will employ both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Sub-headings incorporated in this chapter are introduction, research methods, research design, study population, sample and sampling procedures, instrumentation, validity and reliability, data collection procedures, data analysis, ethical consideration and summary. The introduction leads to research methods discussion.

3.1 Research methods

This study will employ mixed (qualitative and quantitative) research methodologies to find out why adults withdrew from ABEP before mastering literacy and numeracy skills. According to Bulsara (u.d) a mixed methods research “is a methodology for conducting research that involves collecting, analyzing, and integrating (or mixing) quantitative and qualitative research (and data) in a single study …” (p.6). Both methods have pros and cons, therefore employing them will fill a gap identified in both methods. Madrigal & McClain (2012) support employing both methods by stating that the two methods have strengths and weaknesses, and that each one of them can benefit from another, if we combine them. The researcher will benefit from combining them.

Policy makers often feel quantitative measures are more trustworthy because their results can be gauged against one another, and because they are less biased. Qualitative and quantitative methods complement each other. Together they can provide a clearer picture of the situation than
a single methodology, because each one of them has strengths and weaknesses that another does not have. It is possible for more accurate facts to be obtained when varying methods are employed (Community Tool Box, 2014). The researcher will employ both methodologies to address a potential gap of bias and untrustworthiness.

Community Tool Box (2014) states that from time to time researchers and policymakers view qualitative methods as less true and genuine than quantitative methods. Community Tool declares that qualitative methods can provide consistent data if it is used carefully. To avoid such weakness the researcher decided to combine the two methods.

In discovering and verifying trends, qualitative research seems to acquire less power in statistics. Studies in qualitative research can however address factors related to people’s behavior, emotions, and personality traits that cannot be so well identified in quantitative studies. A great strength in quantitative studies is providing descriptive data, for example, enabling researchers to capture a snapshot of a user population even though it is easy to analyze them (Madrigal & McClain, 2012). In support Chilisa & Preece (2005) state that, “a methodology might be quantitative, based on statistics” (p.4).

Qualitative research gives the researcher an opportunity to collect in-depth information as the topic covers issues of behavior and thoughts. Open ended questions will help in digging for in-depth information on factors triggering withdrawal. Khan (2015) states an advantage of the method is stating that all qualitative researches are conducted in the normal settings, where there is no manipulation of variables. According to Khan subjects see realities as it is. Khan proceeds stating that the researcher has to record carefully and should avoid biasness.

Qualitative case study research will allow instruments to measure what they purport to measure since subjects are tested in their natural setting, and therefore unlikely to display a false
behavior. It acknowledges the potential existences of bias by a researcher as a producer of knowledge with research participants.

3.2 Research design

Since this study uses both qualitative and quantitative (mixed method) research, it shall employ mixed method research design. According to Creswell (2014) mixed method design integrates qualitative and quantitative research and data together in a study. This study shall make use of mixed approach which involves collecting demographic and qualitative data. Creswell asserts that, “a mixed methods design is useful to capture the best of both quantitative and qualitative approaches” (p.22).

Creswell (2003) defines mixed methods approach as an international pragmatic approach used to collect quantitative and qualitative data systematically in the design. Both Qualitative case study and descriptive statistics will be employed to strengthen the design. The study will mainly focus on qualitative case study as it will collect most data. Qualitative case study will be used to collect data on predominant institution, economic and social factors contributing to withdrawal. Descriptive statistics will be employed to collect data on gender, professional qualification, age and teaching experience.

In order to understand the problem better, data will be gathered using qualitative and quantitative techniques such as observation, interviews and questionnaires. Creswell (2003) highlights that, “the advantages of collecting both closed-ended quantitative data and open-ended qualitative data prove advantageous to best understand a research problem” (p.22). A combination of qualitative and quantitative data will lead to better understanding of why ALs in Ramotswa withdraw before mastering literacy skills.
Creswell (2003) states that in mixed methods approach, “data collection also involves gathering both numeric information (e.g., on instruments) as well as text information (e.g., on interviews) so that the final database represents both quantitative and qualitative information” (pp.18-20). Observation and interviews information will be collected and analyzed using Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) illustrated through text information as they are open-ended. Questionnaires are close-ended, therefore will be analyzed using numbers employing Statistical Package for Social Sciences program. Both methods will yield quantitative and qualitative information which might serve as an interceptive measure which could address the problem of adults’ withdrawal from ABEP.

This subtopic discussed the research design which will be used in this study. The next subtopic is on population of this study.

3.3 Study population

Mugo (2002) cited Webster (1985) defining study population as, “a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole” (p.1). Dale (2008) argues that such a population must be specific enough to provide readers with a clear understanding of the applicability of your study, to their particular situation and their understanding of that same population. For this study, the population will consists of adult learners who withdrew after enrolling in Ramotswa between 2010 and 2014, instructors of ABEP in Ramotswa, ABEP officials based in Ramotswa and the village chief. The study population allows the researchers to get the sample or accessible population.
3.4 Sample and sampling procedures

Mugo (2002) cited Webster (1985) defining sample as a fixed aspect of a statistical population used to acquire information about the population after studying their properties. Jackson (2006) defines a sample or accessible population as the group of people who participate in a study. In other words it is a sub-set of a population selected to estimate the behavior or characteristics of the population. Layder (2013) emphasizes that in a sample the researcher deals with the type of people, how many are to be engaged and the criteria to be used to select such participants.

The sample size is another critical part of a study. Layder (2013) argues that what is significant is when the process of sampling finishes and this is guided by what the researcher wants to know, the purpose of the inquiry and whether it is useful and or credible. Layder quotes Patton (2001, p.85) who maintains that the validity, meaningfulness and insights generated by the study has to do with information richness of the cases selected, and the observational and analytical capacity of the researcher. In this study the sample will be comprised of 34 adult learners who withdrew from the programme in Ramotswana; 4 instructors in Ramotswana; 1 ABEP official based in Ramotswana and 1 village chief making a total of 40 participants. It is anticipated that this number will be representative of the study population in Ramotswana.

The study will employ snowball sampling technique to select representatives, as it will not be easy to locate where the ex-ALs reside. According to Crossman (2016) a snowball sample is a non-probability sampling technique that is appropriate to use in research when the members of a population are difficult to locate. Furthermore Crossman states that the snowball sampling requires the researcher to collect data on the few members selected from the target population he
or she can trace, then asks selected members to give information required to trace other members of that population whom they know.

3.5 Instrumentation

Face to face interviews and questionnaires will be used in this study. Semi-structured interviews are where the interviewer asks pre-set questions but allow interviewees a freedom to digress and raise their own topics as the interview progresses (Elliot, 1991). Interviews are important in this study as the researcher will be able to probe for more information and even restructure questions if vague responses are given. Judd & Kidder (1991) points to the advantage of this instrument as and states that, “the interviewer has the ability to notice and correct the respondent’s misunderstanding, to probe inadequate or vague responses in order to obtain complete and meaningful data” (p.219). The face to face interviews will be conducted on instructors, officials and the chief while questionnaires will be administered on adult learners who withdrew from the programme.

3.6 Validity and reliability

Validation will be employed through pre-tested questionnaires to ensure the instrument measures what it purports to measure, and to ensure it is reliable. The researcher will also validate administering questionnaires and interview questions by disclosing confidentiality assurance, telling the interviewee that their names are not required and by asking the interviewee to tell the researcher if there is misinterpretation of any question during interview, and during collection of the piloted instrument. Pilot testing will help the researcher identify ambiguous questions, so that they can be replaced with unambiguous ones to yield clear ones.

Another validation will be employed by administering questionnaires for ex-adult learners in Setswana. Ex-ALs will be asked to ask their family members to assist them if there is
any misinterpretation. The researcher will administer questionnaire pre-test to 8 ex-learners (4 females and 4 males) to avoid gender biasness in findings, before administering interview questions and questionnaires to 40 samples.

Responses to questionnaires will alert the researcher if there is misinterpretation in any question. Reframing questions will be done if the researcher diagnose misinterpretations. Setswana questionnaires will be used in administering questionnaire questions. Interviews will not need further validation as the researcher will be available during an interview. They will assist to capture the interviewees’ emotions or feelings during an interview.

During an interview a researcher can diagnose if the interviewee interprets questions unlike questionnaires which should be validated by pre-tests. Interview questions allow for probing, they are open ended, so they allow the interviewee to express themselves without limit. The interview allows face to face contact; therefore enables the researcher to observe facial expression of the interviewee, even if a question is misinterpreted. Questionnaires for adults shall be divided into sections.

This subtopic discussed the study’s validity and reliability. The next discussion is on data collection procedures.

3.7 Data collection procedures

Permission request for data collection, an official letter from Graduate Studies Department, written and signed by the researcher’s main research essay supervisor, on behalf of Adult Education Department (AED) will be submitted to ABEP office at Ramotswa, in South East District Council (SEDC). The researcher will submit the official letter mainly to obtain information needed in the study. ABEP official’s signature in the letter will confirm that the researcher got permission to access data. Data will be collected from within the sample that is
made up of 34 adult learners who withdrew from the programme, 4 instructors, and 1 ABEP official and the village chief. Interviews will be conducted with ABEP instructors, ABEP official and the chief. Self-administered questionnaires will be administered on adult learners who dropped out of the programme.

This subtopic discussed about data collection. It is followed by a discussion on data analysis.

3.8 Data analysis

After collecting quantitative data the researcher will code the responses, create template and put the collected data in the template. Then the researcher will create variable names that will address the objectives of the study. The study will then compute and analyze questionnaires under quantitative study using statistics through employing Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program. The program will show bio-graphical data information first followed by questions data reflected in tables and graphs under frequency and %, including analysis of research questions following after the bio-graphical information.

The researcher will then read, interpret, evaluate bio-graphic and quantitative data in tables under sections after computerizing quantitative data, before making comments (on responses of questions) and implications on numeric information under different responses, items, tables and graphs. Tables, graphic and analyzed quantitative information will assist readers to understand the results of the study.

The researcher will analyze qualitative findings using thematic analysis. The researcher will create different themes after several readings of the qualitative transcripts that will address the objectives of the study. Research questions and interview questions will reflect after respondents’ bio-graph information in all Appendixes except in Appendix C and D, as they have
no bio-graph information. The researcher will present findings as quoted text main research questions and themes. This will appear in the form of description of the collected qualitative data. Interviews analysis will follow after analyzing the respondents’ bio-graph information, which will be analyzed in the form of description without using themes.

The study is qualitative research so it will also employ Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA). Betterevaluation (u.d) defines Qualitative Data Analysis as not linear and neat, but complex, including ongoing methods of critical reading, understanding and involving other people to share interpretation of data. Betterevaluation encourages researchers “to involve others in the process and to discuss and review ... findings as much as possible. This will help to make … findings more useful and trustworthy” (p.1). In order to avoid gender biasness the researcher will involve her 2 fellow students (male and female) pursuing masters in AE in the process after collecting data. Betterevaluation states that the (QDA) process turns transcribed data like interview into findings. As stated transcribed data will be addressed by thematic analysis.

The researcher with her helpers will critically read the questions and the responses, understand, discuss and review the findings sharing interpretation of qualitative data and direct quotations from research respondents, before writing the comments and implications under different themes. This will make the findings more useful and trustworthy. Responses of the chief and ABEP official will be analyzed by the researcher alone as there will be no complexity as findings are straight forward.

Quantitative research in this study will generalize findings of close-ended questionnaire data to the population of this study, whereas qualitative data collected using open-ended interview questions to collect participants’ views, will assist in explaining qualitative findings. Creswell (2014) asserts that the study starts by generalizing findings to a population and then
focus on qualitative, interviews with open-ended questions in order to gather participants’ views to assist in explaining quantitative findings.

The researcher with support from 2 fellow students will turn transcribed data from interview questions of this study into findings, employing QDA process under qualitative method. Betterevaluation (u.d) outlines that one reason for conducting QDA in communication for developing programs is, “to identify ways in which your programs can be improved or changed to better meet their objectives and the needs of the community” (p.2). One of the objectives for this study is to explore interceptive measures which could address the problem of adults’ withdrawal from ABEP. Employing SPSS, thematic and QDA analysis will assist in identifying ways in which ABEP can be improved or changed to meet its objectives and needs of literacy adult learners.

This subtopic went into detail on how the data will be analyzed. The ethical considerations is the last but one subtopic before the summary.

### 3.9 Ethical considerations

Permission to collect data will be written by the researcher’s main supervisor on behalf of Adult Education Department (AED) office. The researcher will deliver data collection request letter to the chief and ABEP office in Ramotswa in order to get permission to collect information. By so doing the researcher has considered ethics for institutions.

Research is meant to find solution to problems through data collected from samples. The researcher will promise the sampled participants to handle their data with confidentiality with caution to protect them, in order to avoid disclosure and promote participation. For example, names of participants shall be protected as they are not required in this findings report.

The findings shall be shared with the participants, and by delivering a report of the research essay to DOSET office in Ramotswa, as it runs ABEP. Other participants shall be
informed about the delivery in case they want to know about the findings. According to Chilisa and Preece (2005):

> dissemination of research findings to the researched communities is an ethical issue that is often ignored by researchers. This is a violation of public’s right to know what has been said about them, and what knowledge the research advances, that can help the researched community to improve their lives (p.253).

It seems studies carried by most students in Botswana’s institutions are meant to satisfy students’ requirements for their courses as samples seems not to be given feedbacks on studies. Institutions should make follow ups to ensure that problems are solved.

This study uses qualitative and quantitative methods to make the study rich. The researcher has chosen two instruments for collecting data in order to address any methodology gaps of using only one method. The researcher considered ethics in order to avoid violating any institutional policy.

This subtopic discussed the ethical considerations in studies like this study. The next section is a summary of Chapter 3.

### 3.10 Summary

This chapter discussed methods of collecting data employed in this study. Representatives from the selected place of study that is Ramotswa will be selected through employing snowball sampling technique in order to respond to questionnaires and interview questions.

Questionnaires will be validated through pre-testing the instruments to substitute ambiguous questions with unambiguous ones, in order to trigger clear answers. Ethics for the selected place will be considered by delivering an official data collection request letter, and reassuring samples that information collected from them is confidential, as their names are not requested.
The researcher will hand the final copy to Ramotswa ABEP office for participants to know what was said about them, and for ABEP official to know findings of the study. This could assist the programme to retain ALs, alleviate and combat withdrawal.
References


Lopez, J. (2005). *Characteristics of selected multilingual education programs from around the


Ministry of Education Skills and Development. (2008). *National report on the development and


DIPOTSO TSA MOITHUTI

TOPIC: FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE WITHDRAWAL OF ADULT LEARNERS FROM ABEP: A CASE STUDY OF RAMOTSWA

Dipotso di kgaogantswe gabedi. Dipotso tsa MOALO 1, o kopiwa go araba dipotso ka go tshwaya sefapano le go tlatsa methalo o o fang dikarabo ka wena. MOALO 2, o kopiwa go araba dipotso ka go araba o re Ee kgotsa Nnyaa fa go thokafala le go tlatsa methalo ka go araba dipotso.

MOALO 1: *Araba dipotso tse di latelang ka go tshwaya sefapano le go kwala se o se bodiwang ka kelotlhoko:*

Bong: Mosadi _____ Monna _____ O dule ABEP o bala lokwalo la bokae: ___

Kwala dingwaga tsa matsalo: ____

MOALO 2: *Araba dipotso tse di latelang ka go kwala Ee kgotsa Nnyaa le go kwala se o se bodiwang ka kelotlhoko:*

1) A fa o bona dithuto tsa ga e golele di na le mosola? ________
2) Bolela mabaka a karabo ya ntlha, gore ke eng o re Ee kgotsa Nyaa?
   ____________________________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________________________

3) A o bona go ka go sologela molemo go rutiwa dithuto tsothle tse di rutiwang bana ba sekolo se se botlana (primary school) fa o ka boelela dithuto tse? ________
4) Bolela mabaka a karabo ya boraro.
   ____________________________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________________________

5) A o tlogetse dithuto tse o setse o itse go bala? _____
6) A o ne wa bodiwa gore o solofetse eng mo go tseneng dithuto tsa ga e golelwe le go bolelelwa gore o solofele eng pele o tsenelela dithuto tse? ________
7) Bolela dilo di le tharo tse di go gwenthileng gore o tsenelele dithuto tsa ga e golele.
6) O ne o solofetse eng fa o tsenelela dithuto tsa ga e golele?

7) Boleta dilo tse di bakileng gore o tlogele dithuto tsa ga e golele.

9) Ke afe mathata a o kopaneng le one a a go kgoreleditseng go tsweledisa dithuto tsa ga e golele?

10) Boleta dilo di le tharo tse o bonang go tlhokafala gore di diragadiwe go rotloetsa baithuti ba ba tlogetseng dithuto tsa ga e golelwe gore ba di boelele gape?

11) A o na le kgatlhego ya go boelela dithuto tse? _____

12) Fa mabaka a karabo e o e fileng mo karabong e e fa godimo (11).
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR INSTRUCTORS

TOPIC: FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE WITHDRAWAL OF ADULT LEARNERS FROM ABEP: A CASE STUDY OF RAMOTSWA

The questionnaire consists of two sections. SECTION A requests you to fill in your personal details by ticking and writing. SECTION B requests you to answer questions by completing provided lines. Please read all the questions and biography section carefully before you attempt them.

Section A: BIOGRAPHY: Please tick appropriate boxes and fill in blank spaces provided.

GENDER: Male: ☐  FEMALE: ☐

PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS
PSLE: ☐  JC: ☐  COSC: ☐  DIPLOMA IN ADULT EDUCATION: ☐
DEGREE IN ADULT EDUCATION: ☐  Others Specify: __________________________

AGE:
Below 26: ☐  Between 26 – 35: ☐
Between 36 – 45: ☐  Above 46: ☐

TEACHING EXPERIENCE
Below 5 years ☐  Between 5 – 10 years ☐
Between 11 – 15 years ☐  Between 16 – 20 years ☐
Above 21 years ☐

Section B:

Please answer the questions by filling the blank spaces.

QUESTIONS:
1) Do you think adult learners should be interviewed about their expected benefit in ABEP before enrolling? _______
2) If your answer to question 1 is yes or no give reasons to support your answer.
______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________
3) Do you think adult learners should be taught using their mother language in Botswana? ______
4) If your answer to question 3 is yes or not give reasons to support your answer.

______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

5) List three factors which you think trigger withdrawal.

______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

6) Which factor triggers withdrawal mostly according to your view in the above factors?

______________________________________________________________________________

7) What do you think should be done to combat withdrawing from ABEP before mastering literacy skills?

______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

8) What do you think should be done to trigger withdrawn adults to enroll back?

______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

9) Do you think instructors should work hours worked by government officers? 
Yes [ ] No [ ]

10) What do you think causes trained instructors to resign from teaching adults?

______________________________________________________________________________

11) Which of the following do you think should be done to retain trained instructors? Please tick the box of an appropriate answer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pay rise</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
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<tr>
<td>Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR RAMOTSWA CHIEF

TOPIC: FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE WITHDRAWAL OF ADULT LEARNERS FROM ABEP: A CASE STUDY OF RAMOTSWA

QUESTIONS:
1) Are you aware that adult learners withdraw from ABEP? Yes ☐ No ☐
2) Did Ramotswa officials consult you to assist in solving the problem? Yes ☐ No ☐
3) If so, what have you done to address the problem?
______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________
4) What are the reasons for Ramotswa adult learners’ withdrawal from ABEP?
______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________
5) If you are not aware which actions will you take to assist in combating withdrawal from literacy programme?
______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR RAMOTSWA ABEP OFFICIAL

TOPIC: FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE WITHDRAWAL OF ADULT LEARNERS FROM ABEP: A CASE STUDY OF RAMOTSWA

QUESTIONS:

1) How many adult learners have withdrawn from ABEP since it was introduced in Ramotswa?
   Men _____  Women _____  Total = ______

2) Do levels offered by ABEP differ from formal primary school levels?
   Yes ☐  No ☐

3) If your answer to no. 2 is yes, how?

_____________________________________________________________________________

4) Which constraints do you think trigger withdrawal from ABEP?

_____________________________________________________________________________

5) Which problems do you think trigger adults in Ramotswa to withdraw from ABEP before mastering literacy skills?

_____________________________________________________________________________

6) Does the programme request adults expected benefits of the ABEP before they enroll?
   Yes ☐  No ☐

7) If the answer to no. 6 is no, do you think requesting the expected benefits from adults before enrolling could assist in preventing the withdrawal if they enrol?
   Yes ☐  No ☐

8) How many instructors resigned from the programme in Ramotswa since ABEP was implemented? ____

9) Which interventions has the programme employed to address withdrawal problem in Ramotswa?
10) Do you think those interventions are helpful in reducing withdrawal of learners from the programme?
Yes □  No □

11) If your answer to no. 10 is no, do you think employing trained instructors could address the problem of adults’ withdrawal?
Yes □  No □

12) If your answer to no. 10 is yes, how?
______________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________________

13) What do you think should be done to solve the problem of withdrawal from the ABEP?
______________________________________________________________________________

14) Do you think trained instructors should work same hours as other Government of Botswana (GOB) employees?
Yes □  No □

13) What are your perceived benefits of trained instructors working same hours as GOB employees? Please tick the box of an appropriate answer.

| Staff retention | ☐ |
| Better salary   | ☐ |
| Increase in literacy rate | ☐ |
| Learners retention | ☐ |
| Withdrawal eradication | ☐ |