

**POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN THE CITY OF WINDHOEK: A
LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE**

by

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DECLARATION

I, Salomo Ndapulamo hereby declare that this study titled **POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN THE CITY OF WINDHOEK: A LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE** is my own original work and that all sources used or quoted have been accurately reported and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this thesis represent original work by the author and have not otherwise been submitted in any form for any degree or diploma to any tertiary institution, or at any other University.

SIGNATURE:



DATE: 11 July 2022

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First and foremost, glory and honour be unto the "...Lord, God who is, and who was, and who is to come, the Almighty" (**Revelation 1:8, NIV**), for His endless love, goodness, protection and for giving me the strength to write this thesis. Secondly, my sincere gratitude and appreciation goes to my supervisor, Professor Sival Kahn, for the guidance, inputs and encouragement throughout my academic journey. Lastly, I want to thank all the participants who made this possible.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my parents, Mr Bernardino Ndapulamo and Mrs Katti Kalulu, for without their support I would not have made it to University. They saw the potential in me, believed in me and invested in my education, therefore, I would like to dedicate this thesis to them, for it was their sacrifice that made it possible.

ABSTRACT

Poverty is a global phenomenon which affects people in various depths overtime, and there is no nation that is absolutely free from incidences of poverty. In Namibia, two thirds of the population were living in conditions of absolute poverty at independence in 1990, and since then, alleviating poverty has been on the government agenda. The aim of the study was to explore whether the City of Windhoek can alleviate poverty through its local economic development strategies to improve the lives of its citizens. The study adopted a qualitative research approach to address the research objectives. Empirical data were collected by means of survey questionnaires from the residents of the City of Windhoek and from officials of stakeholder organisations. Secondary data were collected by means of documentary analysis.

The study found that poverty alleviation is when the governments and various organisations both local and international seek to improve the standard of living of the poor. The study found that the main goal of any local economic development strategy is to provide quality jobs and this makes it to be an important component in the broader effort to alleviate poverty. The study also found that most of the residents of the City of Windhoek and officials of the stakeholder organisations are Generation Y and they are educated. The study further discovered that 3% of the residents of the City of Windhoek are food poor, while 5% are severely poor and 9% are poor. The study further found that both the community members (76%) and officials from the stakeholder organisations (96%) hold the views that the alleviation of poverty can translate into a better quality of life for the citizens of City of Windhoek.

The study recommended that to encourage local employment by the private sector in the area, CoW should give tax exemptions of 5% to businesses operating within its area of jurisdiction that have 90% or more of staff members that are local employees. To ensure that the residents increase their income, CoW should urge the residents to take up extra jobs and become entrepreneurs. With increased income the residents can invest in their health which is one of the important aspects of a better quality of life. The study to this end proposed the IDP sequential model that City of Windhoek can implement to assist the residents to permanently pull themselves out of poverty.

KEYWORDS: local economic development; local government; poverty; poverty alleviation; quality of life; socio-economic conditions

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ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYMS

AR	Affirmative Repositioning
BB	Baby Boomers
CED	Community Economic Development
CBN	Cost of Basic Needs
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
Cllr	Councillor
CoW	City of Windhoek
COVID-19	Coronavirus
CPM	Capability Poverty Measure
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GY	Generation Y
GX	Generation X
GZ	Generation Z
HDI	Human Development Indicator/Index
HHS	Household Survey
HPP	Harambee Prosperity Plan
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPC	Independent Patriots for Change
LED	Local Economic Development
LEDAs	Local Economic Development Agencies
MC	Management Committee
MGEPEWSW	Ministry of Gender Equality Poverty Eradication and Social Welfare
MURD	Ministry of Urban and Rural Development
NDPs	National Development Plans
NDP5	Fifth National Development Plan
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NHIES	Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey
NLFS	Namibia Labour Force Survey
NPC	National Planning Commission

NPM	New Public Management
NSA	Namibia Statistics Agency
NUDO	National Unity Democratic Organisation
ODPHP	Office of Disease Prevention and Health Promotion
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PAP	Project Action Plans
PDM	Popular Democratic Movement
RPPRP	Right Person with Passion in the Right Position
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SMARTER	Specific, Measurable, Agreed, Realistic, Time-bound, Ethical and Resourced
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
SMME	Small, Medium and Micro Enterprise
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SWAPO	South West Africa People's Organisation
SWOT	Strength Weakness Opportunities and Threats
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNISA	University of South Africa
WERI	Windhoek Economic Recovery Initiative
WHO	World Health Organisation

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Poverty is a worldwide phenomenon which affects continents, nations, and people differently. It afflicts people in various depths and levels at different times and phases of existence. There is no nation that is absolutely free from poverty (Innocent, Eikojonwa & Enojo, 2014:98). In its most general sense, poverty is the lack of necessities, which include food, shelter, medical care, and safety, that are generally thought to be necessary based on shared values of human dignity (Bradshaw, 2006:6). The National Planning Commission (NPC) (2015:9) describes poverty as “a multi-dimensional concept which refers to a lack of resources that can be used to acquire basic goods and services”. Poverty indicators can attract the attention of both government and development partners, and encourage them to design and review policies and programmes that can enhance the standards of living. Adongo (2006:26) argues that poverty alleviation entails reducing the negative impact of poverty on the lives of poor people, in a sustained and permanent way. It includes the state’s social grant programmes which alleviate the impact of poverty for many people.

At independence in 1990, the government of the Republic of Namibia inherited a country dominated by income inequality and it was estimated that two thirds of the population were living in conditions of absolute poverty (Jauch, 2015:1). Since then, reducing the incidences of poverty in Namibia has been on the government’s agenda since independence and it is still one of the priority areas that the government is still focusing on. It is for this reason that this study aims to explore whether the local structure of the government has the capabilities to alleviate the daunting challenge of poverty within their area of administrative jurisdiction by using the City of Windhoek (CoW) as the unit of analysis.

This chapter presents the background and rationale for the study. The chapter provides a description of the problem statement as well as an outline of the research objectives and questions. The chapter indicates the research hypothesis and explains the significance of the study. Furthermore, chapter one gives a brief literature review

of the research objectives and it highlights the limitations of the study, the ethical considerations, and the structure of the ensuing chapters.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The Constitution of the Republic of Namibia (hereafter referred to as the Constitution) is the highest legislation in the country. It states that the state shall promote and maintain the welfare of the people (Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, 1990:53). It further states that the economic order of the country shall be based on a mixed economy (Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, 1990:55), and it makes provision for the establishment of structures of regional and local government (Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, 1990:56). The Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended guides the operations of local authorities in Namibia. Section 2 of this Act makes provision for the establishment of three types of local authorities, namely: municipal councils where the CoW falls, town councils and village councils.

The Constitution shows that the issue of poverty is on the government's agenda. The adoption of the mixed economy illustrates that the government and its agents, inclusive of the local authorities plus the private sector, can participate in the economic growth of the country in order to attain the socio-economic conditions of the communities. As part of improving the standard of living for all the Namibians, Vision 2030 was launched in 2004 (Vision 2030:7). Vision 2030 is to be achieved through the National Development Plans (NDPs) from NDP1 to NDP7, which run for 5 years with specific targets and the country is currently busy with NDP5 which is being implemented between the 2017/18 – 2021/22 financial years. Among other policies that deal with the phenomenon of poverty in Namibia is the Local Economic Development (LED) strategy that was adopted in 2009. This strategy calls for local people to identify, harness and utilise resources to stimulate the economy and more importantly create new job opportunities at a certain locality (Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2011:2).

More recently, a declaration of "War against Poverty" was made in 2015 by the President of the Republic of Namibia, Dr Hage Geingob, who argued that his administration would endeavour to eradicate poverty by narrowing the socio-economic

gaps among the populace through wealth redistribution (Republic of Namibia, 2015:5). The declaration of “War against Poverty” shows the seriousness that the government has placed on alleviating poverty and improving the quality of life for its citizens. This has become more apparent with the launch of the Harambee Prosperity Plan (2016/17 – 2019/20) in 2016, which is an action plan to accelerate development in clearly defined priority areas, which lays the basis for attaining prosperity in Namibia.

The issue of poverty is one of the social phenomenon that has been integral in academic discourses. Smith (2005:2-3) characterises poverty as “hunger, pervasive poor health and early death, the loss of childhood, the denial of the right to a basic education, other conditions that are less quantifiable but no really less and oppressive, and powerlessness”. Smith (2005:2-3) argues that the above conditions need concerted action in order to overcome them. The above is supported by Franklin and College (2011) cited by Khumalo (2013:5643), where they allude that there is a need for a re-think on the approaches used to address poverty because the poverty reduction strategies and programmes aimed at alleviating poverty have performed poorly at the domestic and global levels. The above arguments by various scholars demonstrate the complexity of poverty and it is for this reason that a study of this nature was carried out.

In fact, scholars argue that there is a link between poverty and good governance. Diamond (2004:222, cited by Innocent et al. 2014:100), proffers that the deepest root cause of poverty is not lack of resources, but it is rather a lack of good governance. This means that the instability or unwillingness to apply public resources effectively to generate public goods is the cause of poverty. Advocates for decentralisation argue that poverty can be alleviated more effectively by a government that is both spatially and institutionally closer to the people because such a government is knowledgeable about the needs of the people (Cetin, 2016:41). Moreover, local authorities give greater voice and representation of citizens, remove social constraints and administrative obstacles, facilitate collective action, make the central government more responsive to the needs of citizens and produce more acceptable government decisions (Bongfiglioli, 2003:45-46). Additionally, Bardhan (1997, cited by Cetin, 2016:41), also posits that decision-making at the local level gives more responsibility, ownership, and thus incentives to local agents; monitoring and control of local agents

by local communities is easier.

It is within the legislative frameworks that the present study analyses the alleviation of poverty by the CoW. The way poverty is measured and assessed can be different from country to country and place to place, however, the measurement of poverty is important because if any anti-poverty action is to be taken, authorities need to know its extent, severity and effects, so as to be persuaded to take the necessary action. When measuring poverty, Namibia uses the absolute poverty line which is based on the cost of basic needs approach (Namibia Statistics Agency (NSA), 2016:8). The poverty line is classified into two parts: the upper bound poverty line which refers to persons that are considered to be poor, while the lower bound poverty line identifies persons that are food poor since their total consumption expenditures are insufficient to meet their daily calorific requirement (NSA, 2016:105).

The CoW is the administrative capital of the country and the largest and only city in Namibia. Based on the latest statistics, Windhoek has an estimated population of about 422 638 people (NSA, 2021:online), but the population is growing at a tremendously high rate because of the influx of people from all over Namibia and neighbouring countries. Moreover, it is one of the towns in Namibia where rural-to-urban migration is at an accelerated rate as people are leaving the rural areas in search of greener pasture in the CoW. The push and pull factors are not only prevalent with the rural-to-urban immigration, but there are also incidences of people leaving smaller towns in search for better employment opportunities in the CoW. These result in overcrowding in the CoW. Some of the immigrants do not find formal decent jobs in the city, hence they are forced to reside in the informal settlements. Like many other towns in Sub-Saharan African countries and Namibia in particular, the CoW is not exempted from the proliferation of informal settlements, which contributes to the increase of incidences of poverty in the city. Resultantly, it is within informal settlement areas where the majority of poor people are found in the CoW.

Despite the huge influx of people in the CoW, the city is unique because it is the social, economic, political, and cultural centre of the county. The uniqueness also emanates from the fact that the headquarters of national enterprises, governmental bodies, educational and cultural institutions are situated in the CoW. Through the Decentralisation Enabling Act 33 of 2000, which requires for the transference of the

central government powers, authorities, duties and resources to the local authorities, the issue of poverty can be alleviated as well by the CoW. Hence, as part of the effort to improve the quality of life for its residents, the CoW has an LED strategy (2010-2015) which was under review at the time of writing this thesis. The strategy aims to boost the economic activities in the city and improve the social welfare of its residents. The CoW's LED strategy is important because it takes into consideration various policies and strategy documents such as Vision 2030, NDP5 and HPP that are used for planning at national, regional and local levels (CoW, 2010:5).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Since Namibia is a unitary state with three layers of government: central, regional and local government, it suggests that central government should have influence over the regional and local levels of government, implications of which planning at these levels has to take central government agendas into consideration. Taking into consideration that poverty eradication is one of the central government priority areas in Namibia as indicated in the NDP5, the "War against Poverty", and the HPP among others; it means that the daunting problem of poverty in the context of Namibia should not only be viewed as a responsibility of central government alone, but it is an obligation for all levels of government. Local government in particular, is the government structure that is closer to the people at the grassroots, therefore it is better suited to alleviate poverty.

Currently, incidences of poverty have been increasing in the CoW over the past years and since poverty is a daunting problem and its implications are real and severe, and needs to be alleviated, it is imperative that CoW should endeavour to alleviate poverty within its area of administrative jurisdiction. As such, CoW just like other local authorities in Namibia has been engaged in LED over the years in order to assess the economic conditions that prevail within its area by identifying the unique economic challenges as well as the opportunities that exist for the city to explore and improve the social welfare of its residents. However, it is not clear whether LED can alleviate poverty and whether the alleviation of poverty can improve the socio-economic conditions of poor communities, and ensure that residents have a better quality of life. Therefore, this study seeks to ask the question, does LED alleviate poverty in the CoW?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The main research objective for this study is to explore whether the CoW can alleviate poverty through its LED strategies to improve the lives of its citizens. The secondary research objectives are to:

- explore the relation between poverty alleviation and socio-economic conditions of poor communities;
- examine whether LED strategies can alleviate poverty; and
- investigate whether the alleviation of poverty translates into a better quality of life for the citizens of CoW.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question for this study is, can CoW alleviate poverty through its LED strategies to improve the lives of its citizens? The subsidiary research questions associated with this study are:

- What is the relation between poverty alleviation and socio-economic conditions of poor communities?
- Does LED strategies alleviate poverty?
- Can the alleviation of poverty translates into a better quality of life for the citizens of the CoW?

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study contributes to the discipline of Public Administration in terms of research when it comes to the alleviation of poverty by local authorities. The study also provides a deeper understanding of the various theories and approaches of poverty alleviation that can be utilised by local authorities to alleviate poverty. Although several studies have so far been conducted in Namibia regarding poverty alleviation, no research has been conducted to analyse the alleviation of poverty by local authorities and specifically on whether LED strategies can alleviate poverty and improve the socio-economic conditions of the community. Therefore, the present study serves as a guiding tool to future researchers and it makes recommendations that can be used by

the CoW to effectively alleviate poverty within its area of administrative jurisdiction.

1.7 LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Creswell (2014:64), “a literature review means locating and summarising the studies about a topic. In most cases these are research studies, but they may also include conceptual articles or opinion pieces that provide frameworks for thinking about topics. There is no single way to conduct a literature review, but many scholars proceed in a systematic fashion to capture, evaluate, and summarise the literature”. This section deals with literature regarding whether poverty alleviation improves the socio-economic conditions of the community, whether LED strategies alleviate poverty and whether poverty alleviation translates into better quality of life for citizens.

1.7.1 Poverty alleviation and socio-economic conditions

Poverty alleviation is the means by which governments and various organisations both local and international, seek to improve the standard of living of the poor (The World Bank, 2015c, cited by Hakirii, 2015:xiv). Socio-economic conditions refer to the availability, accessibility and quality of public goods and services as they fluctuate in various countries (Umar et al., 2019:345).

1.7.2 Local economic development strategies and poverty

LED is a process by which public, business and non-governmental partners work collectively to create better conditions for economic growth, employment generation and sustainable development as a whole (Sbisi, 2009:5). LED is made up of four main strategies, namely: community economic development; locality development planning; enterprise development and human resources development (Helmsing, 2001:64; Blakely and Leigh (2010:217).

1.7.3 Alleviation of poverty and better quality of life

Better quality of life is associated with the value that one desires to attach to different dimensions of life according to his or her own preferences or the comparison of the overall well-being across countries (OECD, 2011:14-27; Lutz et al., 2018:4). Indicators

that are crucial in determining whether people's quality of life is getting better or worse are material living conditions such as housing, income and job or the quality of life aspects like community, education, health, environment, governance, life satisfaction, safety and work-life balance (OECD, 2011:14-27; Lutz et al., 2018:4).

The following is a summary of scholars who have conducted studies on poverty alleviation. Cetin (2012:41) conducted a study which was a critical evaluation of local poverty alleviation policies by focusing on three provinces in Turkey. The study focused on poverty alleviation initiatives prior to the welfare period, the welfare state golden age period and neo-liberal periods (Cetin, 2012:49). The research revealed that local authorities are operating in a competitive environment and hence it is difficult to fight poverty. It highlighted that local authorities should be provided with the necessary technical, financial and expert staff in order to deal with the alleviation of poverty especially given their increased responsibilities (Cetin, 2012:49).

Research conducted by Khumalo (2013:5643) on the alleviation of poverty endeavoured to unpack the dynamics of poverty and its manifestations as well as the complexities in tackling it. Khumalo (2013:5643) discussed the forms of poverty and their underlying causes in South Africa. The author suggested that the multi-stakeholders approach should be used to tackle the challenges of poverty (Khumalo, 2013:5643). Furthermore, the study proposed that the government should not favour the interest of the business at the cost of the less fortunate people, but should rather strike a healthy balance that promotes inclusive development.

Sem's (2010:4) study on poverty alleviation focused on the levels of poverty within the residents of informal settlements in Windhoek. The study concentrated on exploring the conditions of poverty among the residents of Babylon informal settlement in Windhoek and the strategies that can be used by the government to alleviate the prevailing conditions of poverty. The study concluded that some of the best ways to ensure the alleviation of poverty is through the provision of health services, education, housing, sanitation, water supply and adequate nutrition (Sem, 2010:61).

While Nghaamwa (2017:6) focused on understanding how the residents of Okahandja Park informal settlement earn and sustain their livelihoods and to evaluate the socio-economic conditions/strategies that are in place to boost the livelihoods of the

residents of the Okahandja Park informal settlement in the CoW. Nghaamwa's (2017:i) study found that "...poverty has lasting harmful effects on society, and as such poverty results in hunger, malnutrition, poor physical status and increased healthcare costs which undermine economic growth at large".

Whereas the above mentioned studies have focused on the causes of poverty and the role of government structures in alleviating the daunting challenges of poverty in various countries including Namibia, the present study focuses on the alleviation of poverty by the CoW.

1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher initially intended to distribute the questionnaires to the participants and collect them after five days, but due to the Covid-19 pandemic, the questionnaires had to be administered by the researcher and two fieldworkers during the collection of empirical data from the community members. The process of collecting data from the community members was also prolonged as some participants were reluctant to participate in the study citing that they were afraid of contracting Covid-19 although the researcher and fieldworkers were observing all the Covid-19 regulations put in place by the government. Lastly, this study only focuses on the CoW.

1.9 ETHICAL CLEARANCE

To uphold ethical standards, ethical clearance was obtained from the Department of Public Administration and Management Research Ethics Committee of the College of Economic and Management Sciences at the University of South Africa (UNISA) (see Annexure F). Fleming and Zegwaard (2018:210) argue that it is integral that ethical clearance is sought and obtained from the institutions' ethics committees especially for studies in which human participants are involved. The researcher adhered to ethical considerations laid down by the ethics committee as indicated in the ethical clearance certificate.

1.10 CHAPTERS OUTLINE

This study is structured as follows:

Chapter One: General Introduction

This chapter introduces the thesis. It discusses the background and rationale for the study. The chapter presents the problem statement that necessitated the conducting of this research as well as the research objectives and questions that guide the research in conducting the literature review. The chapter also lays out the hypothesis, significance of the study, overview of literature review, limitations of the study, ethical clearance and an outline of the thesis chapters.

Chapter Two: Conceptual, Theoretical, Legislative and Policy Framework for Poverty Alleviation

This chapter is the first of the three chapters that focus on the literature review and theoretical framework of the study. It provides the meaning and measurement of poverty. It gives an overview of a global perspective on poverty. The chapter also discusses various theories of poverty alleviation as well as the approaches to poverty alleviation. It discusses the role of societal actors in poverty alleviation and it also contextualises socio-economic conditions of poor communities. The chapter clarifies the link between local government and poverty alleviation. It gives an outline of the legislative and policy frameworks for poverty alleviation in Namibia.

Chapter Three: Local Economic Development

This chapter analyses LED as interventions to alleviate poverty. In so doing, it provides the meaning of LED and discusses various theories of growth and development. Thereafter, it discusses the LED strategies as well as the various critical components in them. The chapter concludes with a presentation of the LED strategic planning process.

Chapter Four: Poverty Alleviation and Better Quality of Life

This chapter aims to establish whether poverty alleviation can translate into better quality of life for the citizens. The chapter discusses the poverty deprivation traps and the keys to escape them. Thereafter, it provides a conceptualisation and measurement of quality of life. It concludes with a discussion of the notion of better quality of life.

Chapter Five: Poverty Alleviation in the City of Windhoek

The chapter starts with an overview of the organisation of local government in Namibia. Thereafter it provides an overview of poverty in the CoW. It also discusses the CoW approaches to alleviate poverty. It analyses the LED strategy for the CoW and other initiatives put in place by the city to improve the socio-economic conditions of the community.

Chapter Six: Research Methodology

The chapter focuses on the qualitative research approach followed in the study. It discusses the philosophical worldviews and the research design followed in the study. It also outlines the targeted population, the sample and sampling methods used, the methods of data collection and data collection instrument. The chapter also explains how the data were analysed and presented.

Chapter Seven: Data Analysis and Interpretation of Results

This chapter presents the data and interprets the results. The data are presented according to the questionnaire used in the study. Empirical data are presented in the form of tables, graphs and pie chart. Document analysis is based on themes that arose from the research objectives.

Chapter Eight: Findings, Recommendations and Conclusions

This chapter gives a summary of the main findings of the study and makes recommendations based on the findings. The chapter also outlines the study contribution to the body of knowledge and provides direction for further research.

1.11 CONCLUSION

The introductory chapter provided the blueprint to this research, which aimed to explain the overall structure. The background revolved around discussing what the legislative framework says about poverty alleviation. It also outlined the problem statement, research objectives and questions, significance of the study, and a brief literature review of the research objectives. This chapter further provided the required ethical considerations for the study as well as a brief explanation of the study limitations. Chapter two follows with a review of relevant literature which focuses on conceptual, theoretical, and legislative and policy framework for poverty alleviation.

CHAPTER TWO: CONCEPTUAL, THEORETICAL, LEGISLATIVE AND POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the general introduction for the study by outlining what the legislative frameworks and scholars say about the topic. Chapter one also provided the background and rationale for the study as well as the problem statement that necessitated the conducting of the study. From Chapter one, it became apparent that poverty is a multi-faceted problem which needs urgent solutions for all nations that are affected by it. In its simplest general conceptualisation, poverty denotes the lack of basic needs that are deemed essential for survival and hence the poor in this instance are those who do not have the ability to meet such basic needs and are at risk of death as a consequence.

Taking into consideration what has been discussed in Chapter one, it is important to provide a conceptual clarification of poverty and its measurement as well as the global perspective of poverty and to explore the theories of poverty alleviation. In the system of law, a theory is important because it explains the law and provides a principled approach to changing it, thus using the same principle, theorisation is important in terms of poverty. This is because there is no single "system" of law that addresses poverty, but there are multiple laws on the international, national, regional and local levels. This includes "soft law," that is, the aspirational declarations without the binding force of law that nevertheless represent a commitment on the part of the declaring state. Theory enables us to map their connections and their lacunae. Lastly, theory makes it possible to focus on poverty to frame the discussion so that poverty is at the centre rather than at the margins or entirely off the radar (Stark, 2010:7).

This chapter commences with the clarification of the meaning of the concept of poverty and how it can be measured. This is followed by a brief global overview of poverty. Thereafter, the chapter focuses on the analysis of the theories of poverty in recent literature as well as the approaches for poverty alleviation. The roles of societal actors in poverty alleviation are outlined and the socio-economic conditions of the community are conceptualised. The chapter then analyses local government from various

perspectives with the aim of establishing the link between local government and poverty alleviation. It ends with an overview of the legislative and policy frameworks guiding the alleviation of poverty in Namibia as well as a conclusion which summarises the key issues that were looked at in the chapter and presents a brief overview of the next chapter.

2.2 MEANING AND MEASUREMENT OF POVERTY

The concept of poverty is not easy to define and therefore various meanings and definitions of it have been developed over the years (Botchway, 2013:85). When poverty is defined, the definitions range from income and consumption-based to those that focus on its multi-dimensional nature by pointing out its various manifestations. The manifestations that illustrate the meaning of poverty consist of the following: “lack of productive resources to sustain livelihoods, limited or no access to basic services such as water, health and education, hunger and malnutrition, increased morbidity and mortality, living in an unsafe or insecure environment, poor or no housing, lack of participation in social, cultural and political life and social discrimination or exclusion” (Eldis, 2009:1). Scholars such as Botchway (2013:85) observe that the manifestations of poverty can strengthen one another. This is a scenario whereby hunger will bring about malnutrition which can cause ill-health. Consequently, the chronic ill-health can deter a person’s ability to make meaningful contributions in social and community events, which could eventually lead to social exclusion and poverty (Botchway, 2013:86).

The definitions of poverty can also be categorised in terms of historic definitions of poverty, contemporary economists’ definitions and contemporary institutions’ definitions. One of the contributors to the historic definition of poverty was Adam Smith, the father of modern economics, who defined poverty as “the inability to purchase necessities required by nature or custom” (Smith, 1776, cited by Davis and Sanchez-Martinez, 2014:7). The above definition gives the social aspect of poverty (custom) and the material economic condition (nature) the same weight. He expounded further that the necessities which are needed for a person to be considered not poor are “...not only the commodities which are indispensably necessary for the support of life, but whatever the custom of the country renders indecent for creditable

people, even of the lowest order, to be without" (Smith, 1776, cited by Davis and Sanchez-Martinez, 2014:7). The other contributor to the historic definitions of poverty is Karl Marx who argues that "our needs and enjoyments spring from society; we measure them, therefore by society and not by the objects of their satisfaction because they are of a social nature, they are of a relative nature" (Wood, 1988, cited by Davis and Sanchez-Martinez, 2014:7).

The contemporary economists' definitions of poverty were offered by Joseph Rowntree Foundation (2013:8) that defines poverty as a situation whereby "a person's resources (mainly their material resources) are not sufficient to meet minimum needs (including social participation)". It is of paramount significance to note that this definition also corresponds with the historic definition given in this study and it also possesses features of the larger definition of poverty since it acknowledges the significance of the social life of the individual and not just his or her material circumstances.

Another important contributor to the contemporary economists' definitions of poverty is Amartya Sen. Sen's significant contribution to the literature on poverty came in the form of shedding light on the debate between the proponents of the relative definitions of poverty versus the absolute definitions of poverty. Sen analysed both views and provided their shortcomings. Sen (1983, cited by Davis and Sanchez-Martinez, 2014:8) argues that "absolute deprivation in terms of a person's capabilities relates to relative deprivation in terms of commodities, incomes and resources". In illustrating his point, Sen envisages a fixed (invariant across societies and time) number of capabilities that every person should be able to perform in order for him not to be classified poor. The impression in this context is that while making an attempt to achieve this requirement, the level of the material needs/resources necessary to develop these capabilities may change over time and across societies (as to the capabilities themselves). Based on the above, poverty should thus be seen as context-dependent on the means to end it, however it is not context-dependent on the non-material goals whose fulfilment characterises poverty. Sen further pointed out that the socio-economic environment around the person also gives this notion of poverty a sense of relativity. Sen (1983, cited by Davis and Sanchez-Martinez, 2014:9) maintains that "poverty is an absolute notion in the space of capabilities, but very often it will be in a relative form in the space of commodities or characteristics". The

argument here is that the need for certain absolute levels of capabilities/capacities may reversely transform into relative needs in terms of material commodities, resources and incomes.

The proponents of the contemporary institutions' definitions have also provided their views on poverty. According to the World Bank (2004:15), poverty is a "pronounced deprivation in well-being, comprising of many dimensions. It includes low incomes and the inability to acquire the basic goods and services necessary for survival with dignity. Poverty also encompasses low levels of health and education, poor access to clean water and sanitation, inadequate physical security, lack of (political) voice, and insufficient capacity and opportunity to better one's life". The definition of the World Bank has both elements of relative and absolute poverty and it also points out the multi-dimensional character of poverty including the illusive concept of dignity and most importantly it emphasises the importance of political and individual freedoms. The European Commission (2005:10) claims:

People are said to be living in poverty if their income and resources are so inadequate as to preclude them from having a standard of living considered acceptable in the society in which they live. Because of their poverty, they may experience multiple disadvantage through unemployment, low income, poor housing, inadequate health care and barriers to lifelong learning, culture, sport and recreation. They are often excluded and marginalised from participating in activities (economic, social and cultural) that are the norm for other people and their access to fundamental rights may be restricted.

Haralambos, Holborn and Heald (1991:32) argue that in order to define poverty, a minimum standard should be used and the people below that standard can be classified as poor. This minimum standard is also referred to as a poverty line and it is based on subsistence. Therefore, Haralambos, Holborn and Heald (1991:32) record that over the years, people were considered to be in poverty if they lacked the material resources which can physically maintain human life.

Perceptions surrounding poverty have evolved over time and current debates consider poverty as living below the acceptable social standards or threshold (Klugman, 2002:2). However, this idea did not receive a good reception among the relativists scholars, as they criticised it as being too general, and they argued that a definition of

poverty should be related to standards of a particular society at a particular time (Botchway, 2013:86).

According to Eldis (2009:1), the classification of people as poor should not just be done based on a single universal minimum standard, the poverty line, because the line differs according to how rich that society is and therefore it is a multifaceted issue to define poverty. Mufune (2011:100) argues that poverty has been associated with deprivation or scarcity in most conceptions, nonetheless arguments have also evolved about deprivation of what, by how much, over what period and who is deprived? At a general level, poverty can be conceptualised as a state of affairs or a process. According to Mufune (2011:100), the former means that it is seen as an existing condition which afflicts a given number of people, while the latter means that it is seen as some course of action or change in which certain people experience a series of conditions over time.

When poverty is conceptualised as a state of affairs, it is seen as a condition afflicting people and it is treated as an absolute or relative state (Mufune, 2011:100). Absolute poverty is the inability to attain a minimum standard of living (Mufune, 2011:100). People are in absolute poverty when they are unable to afford certain basic goods and services that are needed to attain a respectable life and to obtain adequate nutrition, housing and clothing. De Beer and Swanepoel (2000:12) state that absolute poverty means that a person is so poor to an extent that his/her next meal may determine whether he/she will live or die. In this context, poverty is measured by determining the number of people living below a certain income threshold (poverty line).

Mufune (2011:101) further indicates that relative poverty as a conception was introduced as a means to divert from the short coming of defining poverty in absolute terms. According to Mufune (2011:101), "it refers to a standard of living that is defined in terms of the expectations of the wider society in which an individual lives and is a comparative measure of poverty". Thus, Mufune (2011:101) further states that a person may be considered not poor in absolute terms, but may still be considered poor in relative terms when compared to other members of his or her society. According to De Beer and Swanepoel (2000:12), relative poverty refers to the poverty of one entity or community in relation to another. This type of poverty determines whether one has fallen behind others by comparison. In doing so, one would find that a poor person in

community 'X' in relation to or compared to other poor people in community 'Y' may not be really poor. The lowest income group in community 'X' may not be really poor because they fared better than those in 'Y' when compared, even though in community 'X' they are really poor. Hence, Mufune (2011:101) notes that relative poverty is usually measured as a particular fraction of income.

The notion of poverty as a process was done by among others Bradshaw (2006:5) with his concept of the culture of poverty. After studying the poor families in Latin American countries, notably Mexico and Puerto Rico, Bradshaw formulated this conception. He claims to have discovered basic similarities among those in poverty (Bradshaw, 2006:5). He states that they were not only deprived materially, but they also tended to adapt to their situation through a set of attitudes emphasising fatalism, apathy and alienation (Bradshaw, 2006:5). In Bradshaw's views, the above has prevented the poor from breaking out of the cycle of deprivation where they found themselves (Bradshaw, 2006:5).

Botchway (2013) has endorsed Mufune (2011) by acknowledging that "in one aspect, poverty can be considered as a state of multiple deprivations of individuals or groups or communities of their well-being" (Botchway, 2013:86). The above means that individuals lack or are deficient in socio-economic and psychological capabilities due to deprivations. The deficiency is manifested via the lack of the following issues: income, access to basic services, access to assets, and limited social networks for instance living in isolation. Consequently, it entails that the poor are hungry, lack shelter and clothing, lack schooling and also cannot access health care services.

The World Bank (2008:7) report shows that "poverty is a deprivation which encompasses not only material (income and basic needs or services), but also non-material aspects such as vulnerability, voicelessness, powerlessness and mental or psychological indispositions". Botchway (2013:87) defines poverty as "a condition of being deprived of well-being, being vulnerable to events outside one's control, being isolated and living below the acceptable socio-economic norms or prescriptions of society and psychologically and politically indisposed". The definition of poverty provided by Botchway (2013:7) indicates that poverty is a multi-phenomenon with dimensions encompassing some of the services such as the supply of water, which is provided by the local authorities in Namibia.

The World Bank reports for 2008 and 2018's position on poverty conceptualisation is evidently income based, though they accept poverty as encompassing not only material deprivation measured in terms of income or consumption, but also low achievement in education and health. For instance in 2008, the Bank prioritised income as an important component in the measurement of poverty by differentiating between 'the poor', who live on below US\$2 a day and the 'extreme poor', who live on less than US\$1.25 a day (World Bank, 2008:3). Whereas in its 2018 World Bank report, the Bank has come up with a new poverty line by categorised the 'extreme poor' as those who live on less than US\$1.90 a day (World Bank, 2018:7). The aforesaid are absolute measures of poverty, which are measures that quantify the number of people living below a certain threshold. The Bank thus understands poverty as an income level below a poverty line which is considered necessary to meet basic needs.

In addition to the two major types of poverty discussed, namely: absolute and relative poverty, it is important to outline the other types of poverty in order to establish a robust understanding of the meaning of poverty. Botchway (2013:86) identified these types of poverty, which are: income poverty, human poverty, food poverty, case poverty, community poverty, chronic poverty and transient or transitory poverty, urban poverty, and rural poverty. Income poverty refers to a lack of money and inability to gain access to income generating employment and it depends on a single factor, income (Botchway, 2013:87). Human poverty refers to deprivation in certain essential aspects of human life and is multidimensional dependent (Botchway, 2013:87). Food poverty is considered as the inability of the individual to obtain one decent and nourishing square meal a day (Botchway, 2013:87). Case poverty refers to poverty occurring when individuals do not share in the general well-being of the society. Meaning that specific individuals may be experiencing poverty while the general society is experiencing prosperity (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:13). On the other hand, community poverty occurs when almost everyone in the community is poor (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:13). Chronic poverty, which is also referred to as generational poverty, is for those who are poor most of their lives and transmit their poverty to subsequent generations (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:13). Unlike chronic poverty, transient or transitory poverty occurs over a short period of time when one moves from 'non-poor' to 'poor' for a short period and moves back to non-poor (De Beer &

Swanepoel, 2000:13). Urban poverty is experienced by the people that live in the urban areas, the people suffering from this poverty experience overcrowding, violence, noise and they lack basic municipal services. While rural poverty is experienced by those in the rural areas.

However, worth noting is that all the definitions of poverty provided in this section vary and they have some shortcomings in one area or the other. The Copenhagen Declaration of the United Nations in 1995 offers a definition that endeavours to encompass both contexts of the developed and developing countries. According to the United Nations (1995:10), it was agreed during the summit that:

Poverty includes lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by lack of participation in decision making and in civil, social and cultural life.

Associated with the definition of poverty is the measurements of poverty because it helps to identify who is poor, how many people are poor and where the poor are located (Adeyeni, Ijaiya & Raheem, 2009:164). The measurement of poverty is significant because it establishes what poverty entails and clarifies the incidences and the level of poverty. Scholars such as Lister (2004:5) believe that different measurements of poverty can give different results based on indicators and poverty lines used to evaluate the poor. While, Botchway (2013:87) observes that there is a lack of a clearly cut and specific scientific poverty measurement mechanism in place. Hence, academics have reluctantly agreed that the measurement of poverty can be done at various levels and they refer to these phases as 'objective' and 'subjective', which are related to quantitative and qualitative measurements of poverty correspondingly (Lister, 2004:5). Each level is concerned with defining poverty based on particular determinants with objective levels dealing with socio-economic indicators such as income levels, consumption expenditure, life expectancy and housing standards (Du Toit, 2005:2). Whereas the subjective aspect is concerned with attitudes, needs and perceptions collected from the individuals via the participatory methodologies (Du Toit, 2005:2).

With regards to the quantitative measurements of poverty, the following instruments are used:

Household survey: According to the World Bank (2001:17), the Household Survey (HHS) is done based on income and consumption expenditure patterns of households and draws on monetary indicators obtained from them. One of the advantages associated with this tool is the fact that it is based on national representative samples and it also permits inferences about the conditions and evolution of poverty both at the national and local levels (World Bank, 2001:17). The HHS is however not without weaknesses, the disadvantages in this regard emanate from the fact that it is not easy to make comparisons since there are disparities in survey designs of various countries over time (World Bank, 2001:17). The other weakness is also the inconsistency in the way of measurement since some countries ask participants with regards to how much they spend on food once in a month, whereas others ask how much they spend on food over a week (World Bank, 2001:17). This means that the inconsistency within the instrument makes the transferring of data from household-surveys into measures of well-being to necessitate many interpretations.

Poverty lines: One of the effective and important tools used to measure poverty particularly in terms of income and consumption is the poverty line. According to Klugman (2002:24), a poverty line is a cut off line in income or consumption below which an individual is considered poor. In general, the poverty line is used to indicate the ability to buy a basket of commodities and it is the same all over the world (World Bank, 2001:18). However, the Bank states that countries can adopt their own specific poverty lines that can reflect the country's socio-economic circumstances and expenditure patterns (World Bank, 2001:18). Once a poverty line is quantified, the level of poverty in a specific area can be easily measured.

Other quantitative poverty measures: Incidence of poverty (headcount index) which refers to “the number of the poor or portion of the population whose income is below the poverty line and who cannot afford the basic basket of goods” (Klugman, 2002:24). It is used to quantify those in poverty and extreme poverty. Depths of poverty (poverty gap) provide information as to how far off households are from the poverty line (Klugman, 2002:24). It provides information on income or consumption shortfall relative to the poverty line across the whole population. It is the total resources or

money needed to bring all the poor to the level of the poverty line. Poverty severity (squared poverty gap) takes into account not only the distance of the poor from the poverty line (poverty gap), but also inequality among the poor (Klugman, 2002:24). The further away one is from the line, the greater the weight or severity of poverty.

The qualitative or non-monetary measures of poverty are also important ways of measuring the well-being of people. The advocates of the qualitative measures have pointed out the insufficiencies of income and consumption expenditure as indicators of poverty and concentrated on outcomes in health, literacy, vulnerability and powerlessness as indicators of poverty (Botchway, 2013:87). When poverty is measured qualitatively, the emphasis is put on capabilities in the various indicators of well-being such as level of education and health status among others, and they are compared with a given poverty line. Below this poverty line a person is said to be poor and unable to meet his/her basic needs (Klugman, 2002:24). In lieu of the above, the Human Development Indicator/Index (HDI) which is a measure of a country's economic and social well-being and average progress in human development is treated as the threshold or poverty line for the nonmonetary measurement of poverty (World Bank, 2001:18). This represents a definitive level at which the indicators of the various dimensions of human development must attain or reach.

Another tool also used to measure poverty qualitatively is the composite indexes of wealth that looks at mixed characteristics in terms of income, health, assets and education (Davids, Theron, & Maphunye, 2005:112). As indicated earlier on under the qualitative measurements of poverty, HDI is one of the tools that can be used to measure poverty qualitatively. This tool uses 3 equally weighted indicators, namely: life expectancy at birth, adult literacy and enrolment rate (education attainment), and standard of living measured by real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita to draw up the index (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2009). Once HDI is constructed, it is measured on the scale from 0-1 (or 1-100 in some cases), '0' being the lowest and '1' being the highest. The countries with HDI below 0,5 (50) are considered to have low level human development, those between 0,5 (50) and 0,8 (80) as medium level and those above 0,8 (80) of high level of human development, and 1(100) as absolute development (UNDP, 2009). However, the tool has been criticized because its indicators are arbitrary and have implicit trade-offs, despite its

intuitive appeal used in highlighting disparities between countries' geographical areas and groups (Ravallion, 2002).

The last tool that will be looked at under the qualitative measurement of poverty is the Capability Poverty Measure (CPM). This tool was developed by the UNDP as a response to the deficiencies that were identified within the HDI tool. While the HDI focuses on studying the country and the comparisons of capabilities at the macro level, the CPM emphasis is on micro level capabilities of people and their lack of capabilities (UNDP, 2009). The CPM index is composed of 3 indicators reflecting the percentage of population with capability shortfalls in 3 basic dimensions of human development. These dimensions are living a healthy and well-nourished life, having the capability of safe and healthy reproduction, and being literate and knowledgeable (UNDP, 2009).

This study adopts the definition of the United Nations (1995:10) that:

Poverty includes lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by lack of participation in decision making and in civil, social and cultural life.

It can be deduced from the above discussion that poverty influences the socio-economic conditions of a community. Furthermore, poverty is not a new phenomenon and neither is it easy to define. Its definition has evolved over the years from what was considered to be historic to contemporary economics and institutions' definitions of poverty. This indicates the complexities and change dynamics of poverty as scholars are searching for inclusive definitions that can be applied across all societies to better describe poverty. What is standing out from the literature is that poverty cannot just be defined as the lack of basic necessities such as food, shelter, water and clothes, but it should also encompass the issues of vulnerability, powerlessness, education, health and participation in decision making as indicated in the working definition of poverty for this study.

2.3 OVERVIEW OF A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE OF POVERTY

This section presents an overview of a global perspective of poverty with the aim of illustrating the severity of poverty in the world. Global poverty is one of the worst problems that the world faces today. Billions of people are living in conditions of absolute poverty in the world. This is a situation whereby nearly 1 out of every 10 people in the world lives below the international poverty line of US\$1.90 a day. Furthermore, nearly 2 billion people, or 26.2% of the world's population lives on less than US\$3.20 a day (Compassion International, 2022:online; World Bank, 2022:online). Two thirds of the world's poor are children, youth and women (Peer, 2021). The extremely poor people are often on the side-lines without support as they watch economic growth and prosperity pass by them. These people are faced with hunger, have less or no access to education and they suffer from poorer health among others (Roser & Ortiz-Ospina, 2013:online).

According to the Action Against Hunger (2022:online), the breakdown on where the majority of those that are living on less than US\$1.90 per day are located as follows:

- 413.3 million in Sub-Saharan Africa
- 216.4 million in South Asia
- 47.2 million in East Asia and Pacific
- 25.9 million in Latin America and the Caribbean
- 18.6 million in the Middle East and North Africa
- 7.1 million in Europe and Central Asia

Literature reveals that there is no a single cause of poverty in the world. This is because poverty across the world is a result of a combination of numerous complex factors. These includes low or negative economic growth, inappropriate macroeconomic policies, deficiencies in the labour market resulting in limited job growth, low productivity and low wages in the informal sector, and a lag in human resource development. Other factors which have also contributed to a decline in living standards and are structural causes or determinants of poverty include increase in crime and violence, environmental degradation, retrenchment of workers, a fall in the real value of safety nets, and changes in family structures among others (Ajakaiye & Adeyeye, 2001:31; Peer, 2021).

One of the approach used to alleviate poverty in the world focuses mainly on the economic growth. The approach put emphasis on mechanisms that can ensure economic progress. These includes sound fiscal and monetary policy, greater openness, security of property rights and privatisation. The approach had some shortcomings specifically due to its emphasis on privatisation, which led to many of its critics viewing it as the handmaiden of unfettered markets (Besley & Burgess, 2003:12; Williamson, 2000). Microeconomic studies found that investments in human capital especially in education is crucial in the fight against poverty because each additional year of schooling is associated with 6 to 10 percent increase in earnings. This approach was hailed to be effective in attacking poverty in both developed and developing countries across the world (Duflo, 2001:796; Krueger & Lindhal, 2001:121).

It can be deduced that from a global perspective poverty is affecting many people, therefore it is important that those who are affected by poverty should not be left to alleviate poverty on their own, but should be supported by their respective governments' as well as local and international organisations. To avoid more people from falling below the international poverty line of US\$1.90 a day, it is imperative that global emphasis is placed on ensuring that everyone have access to free and quality education up to tertiary level and that economies of all countries are being grown exponentially. This can help the educated citizens of different countries to use their knowledge and skills to engage in economic activities and improve their lives. Therefore, global organisations such as the World Bank and United Nations should urge the political leaders of all countries to ensure that there is a political will towards education and economic growth coupled with a fair distribution of resources to all the citizens.

2.4 THEORIES OF POVERTY

This study outlines the theories of poverty by analysing how each theory describes poverty and its proposed anti-poverty programmes to alleviate poverty. These theories include poverty caused by individual deficiency; poverty caused by cultural belief systems that support sub-cultures of poverty; poverty caused by economic, political, and social distortions or discrimination; poverty caused by geographical disparities;

poverty caused by cumulative and cyclical interdependencies; and the human capital theory of poverty.

2.4.1 Poverty caused by individual deficiency

This theory holds that poverty is a large and multifaceted set of explanations that focus on the individuals as responsible for their poverty situation. In this theory, the politically conservative scholars blame individuals in poverty for creating their own problems and argue that with hard work and better choices, the poor could have avoided their problems (Bradshaw, 2006:6; Brady, 2018:5). Contributing to the theory of poverty caused by individual deficiency are the classical economists Adam Smith and David Ricardo. They argue that poverty is hugely understood as a consequence of individual poor choices that weaken productivity, however the theorists also admit that pure differences in underlying genetic abilities are as well possible causes of poverty (Davis & Sanchez-Martinez, 2014:17). The theorists claim that if individuals make “wrong” choices they may lead them into “poverty or welfare trap”.

This theory proposes that in order to overcome poverty, the poor should be pushed into work as a primary goal that Bradshaw (2006:7) calls the “workist consensus”. Furthermore, the move should be accompanied by an increasing emphasis on “self-help” and the strategies for the poor to pull themselves from poverty should be encouraged by the elimination of other forms of assistance (Bradshaw, 2006:7). Moreover, Davis and Sanchez-Martinez (2014:17) reveal that state intervention is not fully welcomed under this theory since it is usually perceived as a source of economic inefficiency; since it produces incentives that are misaligned between individuals and the society at large. It also maintains that welfare programmes should be viewed as possible causes for the reinforcement of poverty especially through the creation of a welfare dependence. The theorist also claims that from this point of view, the state does not have a role to intervene because the individual traits that cause poverty are either given or determined by the market forces. Therefore, the proponents of this approach have suggested small-scale measures to welfare transfer in order to prevent the welfare trap, which are as follows: first, decentralise affordable housing and improve transit options; second, cut welfare benefits and increase wages through tax

incentives; third, train social service staff to assist welfare recipients in moving from welfare to work (Davis & Sanchez-Martinez, 2014:19; Addae-Korankye, 2019:56).

This theory is important because it makes citizens, the government, private sector and civil society organisations to evaluate the choices that poor people have been making in their lives in order to determine whether they have contributed to their poverty plights or not. Since the theory is encouraging hard work, better choices and less assistance from the government to those in poverty, this suggests that residents should improve their decision-making. For example, they should learn to live on less than they make and save more towards their children's education as well as their retirement fund. The weakness with this theory though is that it does not take into consideration that some people are poor because of the historical imbalances and discrimination which left them with no choices rather than working a low paying job or not working at all.

2.4.2 Poverty caused by cultural belief systems that support sub-cultures of poverty

This theory traces the cause of poverty in the culture, which is sometimes linked with the individual theory of poverty. This theory suggests that poverty is created by the transmission over generations of a set of beliefs, values, and skills that are socially generated but individually held. The proponents of this approach have developed what they call "poverty begets poverty", which is a situation whereby as children are growing up in dysfunctional families, they will feed from the deviant behaviour of their progenitors whom they usually perceive as their role models (Bradshaw, 2006:8; Davis & Sanchez-Martinez, 2014:20; Brady, 2018:7). One of the contributors among the prominent figures of the sub-culture of poverty is Oscar Lewis who stated that "poverty, in short, is a way of life, remarkably stable and persistent, passed down from generation to generation along family lines (Lewis, 1965 cited in Davis & Sanchez-Martinez, 2014:20). Therefore this is a theory whereby deprivations are treated as an individual phenomenon instead of a society-wide structural problem. The proponents of this theory further maintain that individuals are not necessarily to blame because they are victims of their dysfunctional subculture or culture (Addae-Korankye, 2019:57).

This theory has been criticised with most critics pointing out its shortcomings in terms of its explanation of poverty. The criticisms are summarised by Jung and Smith (2007) as follows:

- Bias in interpretation of observed common attitudes and patterns among groups of poor individuals. This is arguably the principal objection made against this view and rests in the argument that many of the criteria normally used to distinguish the culture of poverty are formulated in terms of western, middle-class values (i.e., against middle-class background/prejudices).
- Uncontrolled, individual-orientated research methodology: in empirical studies, the influence upon individuals of the values, beliefs and institutions is largely unexamined and even unremarked.
- Inexactness: the boundaries between the sub-culturally poor and the rest of the poor are generally not duly specified, let alone quantified.
- Inconsistency: the concept of a sub-culture of poverty cannot be applied when the values and attitudes that are supposed to be inherently possessed by the poor are not accepted by the poor people themselves. By counterargument, the observed attitudes and conditions may well be the result of external causes rather than internal values.

It is worth noting that empirical evidence to point to attitudes surrounding education and work as the main drivers behind the choice of going on welfare is still scarce. External factors (environmental and structural) are still believed to play a larger role. According to Bradshaw (2006:9), from a community development perspective, if the theoretical reasons lie in values and beliefs, transmitted and reinforced in subcultures of disadvantaged persons, then local anti-poverty efforts need to intervene to help change culture through socialisation as a policy.

Since the theory indicates that poverty is inherited, it is thus important for the government through its structures to educate the residents on the importance of family planning to enable families to have children according to their abilities to provide them with a better standard of living. The assumption is that if communities are sensitised on family planning, households would have children at the right time and the poor family would most likely have one or two children which the government or any other third party can step in and assist them with nutritious food.

2.4.3 Poverty caused by economic, political, and social distortions or discrimination

Under this theory, the theorist does not look to individuals as a source of poverty, but to the economic, political, and social system which causes people to have limited opportunities and resources with which to achieve income and well-being. The theorists suggests that the economic system is structured in such a way that poor people fall behind regardless of how competent they may be. Therefore, the problem of the working poor is seen as a wage problem linked to structural barriers preventing poor families from getting better jobs, complicated by the limited numbers of jobs and lack of growth in sectors supporting lower skilled jobs (Bradshaw, 2006:10; Brady, Blome & Kleider, 2016:119; Pernia & Deolalikar, 2003:27).

One of the proponents of this theory is Mark Rank who remarked that the root cause of poverty does not lie within the individual failings, but rather within structural failings of the country's society (Rank, 2005:20). In illustrating his point, Rank (2005:20) made a reference to the American society by explaining that there is an implicit assumption in the American ethic of individualism as well as its emphasis on self-sufficiency. This is a situation whereby the rich are hard-working and deserve their rewards while the poor are impoverished because of personal inadequacies. However, Rank (2005:20) provides evidence that the cause of poverty is the inadequacies of economic and political structures to provide sufficient opportunities for all the people in a country, thereby perpetuating poverty. As pointed out by Rank, a critical point in terms of economic aspect is the fact that the labour market is structured in such a way that it perpetuates a 'natural unemployment rate' hence a certain percentage of the labour force will always be unemployed, while others will be forced to accept low-wage work that keeps them near the national definition of poverty.

Another issue that Rank (2005:21) observed was the lack of social support and inadequate safety nets to assist low-wage earners and those living in poverty. Rank (2005:21) notes that the political decision can restrict the social policies from effectively addressing poverty rates in a country and the budget cut can have a

detrimental effect on the effectiveness of the welfare programmes to raise people out of poverty.

The theory proposes that if the problem of poverty is in the system rather than in the poor people themselves, a community development response must be able to change the system (Brady, 2018:5; Pernia & Deolalikar, 2003:27). This is easy to say but hard to do, which may explain why so many policy programmes revert to trying to change individual behaviour. Bradshaw (2006:11) queries that how can one create job opportunities, improve schooling for the poor, equalise income distribution and assure equal political participation by poor persons? None of these tasks are easy and all require interventions into the systems that create the barriers that block poor persons from gaining the benefits of society. Rank (2005:21) warned that efforts to take people out of poverty will fail if they are carried out without a complete restructuring of the social environment based on the recognition of the universality of poverty and its impact on everyone in the country.

This theory is important because it reflects the reality of many African countries and it is therefore influential in this study. Since the theory is blaming the economic, political, and social discrimination as responsible for poverty, this implies that the government through its structures inclusive of the local authorities should intervene to pull the people out of poverty. This requires the government to demonstrate the political will and address challenges such as unemployment through employment creation and they should also encourage entrepreneurial habits within the residents. Moreover, there is a need for redistributive policies such as the affirmative action policy to be implemented in all public and private institutions in Namibia to assist those that were previously disadvantaged.

2.4.4 Poverty caused by geographical disparities

Rural poverty, urban disinvestment, third world poverty and other framing of the problem represent a spatial characterisation of poverty that exists separate from other theories. While these geographically based theories of poverty build on the other theories, this theory calls attention to the fact that people, institutions and cultures in certain areas lack the objective resources needed to generate well-being and income,

and that they lack the power to claim redistribution. The theory therefore claims that geography of poverty is a spatial expression of the capitalist system. This geographical theory of poverty implies that responses need to be directed to solving the key dynamics that lead to a decline in depressed areas while other areas are growing. Instead of focusing on individuals, businesses, governments, welfare systems, or cultural processes, the geographical theory directs community developers to look at places and processes by which they can become self-sustaining (Bradshaw, 2006:12-13; Bhattacharya, 2016:276; Brady, 2018:12).

It can be deduced that since the theory holds the geographical location of people responsible for poverty, measures to alleviate poverty should include the assessment of the area availability of resources and economic opportunities. As discussed in Chapter one, the CoW is the administrative capital of Namibia, therefore there are numerous economic opportunities within the city such as working a low skilled job in the construction sector or being a vendor, among others, for the residents to explore and improve their socio-economic conditions.

2.4.5 Poverty caused by cumulative and cyclical interdependencies

The previous four theories have demonstrated the complexity of the sources of poverty and the variety of strategies to address it. This theory is complex and to some degree it builds on components of the other theories in that it looks at the individuals and their community as caught in the spiral of opportunity and problems. Moreover, the theory holds that once problems dominate, they close other opportunities and create a cumulative set of problems that make any effective response nearly impossible. The cyclical explanation explicitly looks at individual situations and community resources as mutually dependent, within a faltering economy (Bradshaw, 2006:14; Brady, 2018:13-14; Addae-Korankye, 2019:59). As an example, creating opportunities for individuals who lack resources to participate in the economy, which makes economic survival even harder for the community since people pay fewer taxes. Since this theory puts emphasis on the individual situation and community resources as main contributors to poverty, this means that individuals from poor backgrounds who could

not get proper education would struggle to identify and exploit the economic opportunities that might exist within the community.

2.4.6 Human capital theory

This theory focuses on earnings which is one of the major determinants of poverty. The theory was established by Becker and Mincer and it explains two important issues in terms of poverty namely, the individuals' decision to invest in human capital (education and training) and the pattern of individuals' lifetime earnings (McKernan & Ratcliffe, 2002:5). According to this theory, individuals' various levels of investment in education and training are clarified in line with what they expect to get from the investment. While acknowledging that an investment in education entails direct expenses such as tuition fees and indirect costs in terms of the foregone earning during the investment period, the theory claims that only individuals who will be compensated by adequately higher lifetime earnings will select to invest. Moreover, people who do not expect to work more in the labour market and who do not have more labour market opportunities, for instance women or minorities, will not be willing to fully invest in human capital (McKernan & Ratcliffe, 2002:5). Consequently, these women and minorities may not have higher earnings and may have lower earnings rather and therefore they may be more likely to be in poverty.

With regards to the individuals' lifetime earnings, the human capital theory explains that in general, the pattern of individuals' earnings are arranged in such a way that they start out low (when the individual is young) and increase with age (Becker, 1975:43, cited in McKernan & Ratcliffe, 2002:5), even though earnings tend to fall slightly as individuals near retirement. The theory also explains that incomes start out low when people are adolescents since younger people are more likely to invest in human capital and will have to relinquish earnings as they invest. Therefore, the theory holds that younger people are more likely to invest in human capital than older people because they have a longer remaining work life to benefit from their investment and their foregone wages and so costs of investing are lower. Finally, as the workers are ageing, the pace of human capital investment and thus productivity slows, thereby leading to slower earnings growth. Consequently, at the end of a person's working life,

skills may have depreciated as a result of lack of continuous human capital investment and the aging process (McKernan & Ratcliffe, 2002:5).

The critics allude to the fact that it is a theory of human capital investment and labour market earnings rather than poverty. The claims emanate from the fact that earnings is just one of the main determinants of poverty. They also point out that non-earnings income and family composition are other significant determinants of poverty that the human capital theory does not shed light on (McKernan & Ratcliffe, 2002:5). In line with this theory some people that are living below the minimum poverty line might be because they do not have education, while others might have education but did not invest in furthering their studies for instance to a diploma, hence they are receiving low wages and salaries. Therefore, it is important that government should ensure that all its citizens have access to education and citizens should be encouraged to invest in their human capital improvement through furthering their studies.

Based on all the discussions under this section, it could be deduced that all the above theories can be categorised as theories of poverty because each theory has its own perception of the causes of poverty as well as the possible strategies that can be used to alleviate poverty. One can argue that based on the various explanations of the causes of poverty each theory might have an element that has contributed to poverty in the CoW – meaning that some people might be poor because they made bad choices, while others might be poor because they were born in a poor family. All theories discussed above are important but the theory of poverty as caused by economic, political, and social distortions or discrimination has more relevance to the present study in terms of the causes of poverty and the strategies to be employed by the relevant institutions to alleviate it. Taking the arguments of Rank (2005:21) into consideration, it is important that efforts by the CoW to take its residents out of poverty should take a bottom-up approach whereby the masses should be involved in the processes of poverty alleviation.

2.5 APPROACHES TO POVERTY ALLEVIATION

The term poverty alleviation and poverty reduction are often used interchangeably in contemporary literature. The UNDP (2002, cited by Musakwa, 2008:40) refers to

poverty reduction as any process which seeks to reduce the level of poverty in a community, or amongst a group of people or countries. In like manner, Nkwede (2014:155) argues that “poverty reduction is generally considered to be a means through which an individual, community or country is relieved of the hardships resulting from poverty and provide basic necessities of life for good living/higher standard of living”.

On the other hand, Kraai (2015, cited by Ahmadu and Edeoghon, 2018:54) argues that poverty alleviation refers to reducing the negative impact of poverty on the lives of poor people, in a sustained and permanent way. It includes the state’s social grant programmes which alleviate the impact of poverty for many people. The World Bank (2015c, cited by Hakirii, 2015:xiv) sees poverty alleviation as the means by which governments and various organisations both local and international seek to improve the standard of living of the poor, for example, the World Bank Poverty Alleviation Fund. This thesis accepts and explores the poverty alleviation approach because it emphasises the permanent basis as well as the involvement of various spheres of government or organisations in achieving this objective.

The African Development Bank (1998, cited by Nkwede, 2014:155) posits that poverty alleviation can only be realised through sustained and broad-based economic growth complemented by efficient provision of social services such as education, health-care, clean water, sanitation and nutrition. Therefore, to reduce poverty means to improve the socio-economic conditions of the masses in order to enhance their living standards.

Poverty alleviation does not just mean increasing the income levels, but rather creating conditions in which all humans live healthy and creative lives with sufficient food, shelter, clothing, and they are guaranteed freedom, dignity, self-esteem, and are free from unfair treatment by the government and the community, and get the opportunity to participate in the society (Nkwede, 2014:155; Ahmadu & Edeoghon, 2018:56). The above sentiment is supported by Singh and Chudasana (2020:1-2) who argue that there are numerous developmental projects and poverty alleviation programmes around the world that are earmarked at alleviating poverty and assisting the vulnerable communities through various participatory and community-demand-driven approaches.

Furthermore, economic growth is one of the main instruments for poverty alleviation and for pulling the poor out of poverty through productive employment. This is based on the findings from Africa, Brazil, China, Costa Rica and Indonesia which illustrate that rapid economic growth lifted a significant number of poor people out of financial poverty between 1970 and 2000. Economic growth generates the revenue that is required for expanding poverty alleviation programmes while enabling governments to spend on the basic necessities of the poor including healthcare, education, and housing (Bhagwati & Panagariya, 2012:34; Singh & Chudasana, 2020:2). Poverty alleviation strategies can be categorised into four broad types including community organisations based microfinancing, capability and social security, market-based, and good governance.

Microfinancing deals with the rendering of financial services to the poor who are not served by the conventional formal financial institutions. In other words, it aims to extend the frontiers of financial service provision to the less fortunate people. This is due to the fact that access to formal banking services is not easy to be obtained by the poor people. The main challenge faced by the poor when trying to acquire loans from formal financial institutions is the demand for collateral which is often asked by these institutions. In addition, the process of acquiring a loan entails many bureaucratic procedures which lead to extra transactional costs for the poor. It is against the aforesaid background that many researchers and policymakers believe that access to microfinance in developing countries empowers the poor (women in particular) while supporting income-generating activities, encouraging the entrepreneurial spirit, and reducing vulnerability. They further advise that for microfinance to be more effective, services like skills development, training, technological support, and strategies related to better education, health and sanitation, including livelihood enhancement measures need to be provided to the poor (Bakhtiari, 2006:66; Vatta, 2003:432; Durani et al., 2011:139-141; Singh & Chudasana, 2020:2).

Capability and social security as a poverty alleviation strategy is based on the work of Amartya Sen. Sen claims that poverty exists because of social exclusion and capability deprivation. He advises that development should focus on maximising the ability of the individual to ensure sufficient freedom of choice. The capabilities approach presents a framework for the evaluation and assessment of various parts of the individual's wellbeing and social arrangements. Moreover, it shows the distinction between means

and ends as well as between substantive freedoms and outcomes. Improving the capabilities of the poor is crucial for improving their living standards. Improving individuals' capabilities also helps in the pooling of resources while allowing the poor to engage in activities that benefit them economically. Furthermore, the social inclusion of vulnerable communities via the removal of social barriers is as important as financial inclusion in poverty alleviation strategies. Social security is a set of public actions designed to reduce levels of vulnerability, risk, and deprivation. It is a significant instrument for addressing the issues of inequality and vulnerability (Sen, 1985b:12; Sen, 1993:40; Singh & Chudasana, 2020:2-3).

Market-based is viewed in line with the World Development Report of 1990 which endorsed a poverty alleviation strategy that combines enhanced economic growth with provisions of essential social services directed towards the poor while creating financial as well as social safety nets. Studies on poverty alleviation show that numerous social safety net programmes and public spending on social protection, including social insurance schemes and social assistance payments continue to act as tools of poverty alleviation in many of the developing countries across the world. Literature further reveals that these social safety nets and protection programmes reveal positive impacts on the alleviation of poverty, extent, vulnerability, and on a wide range of social inequalities in developing countries (Khan, 2009:1; Singh & Chudasana, 2020:3).

Lastly, the relevance of good governance as a poverty alleviation strategy has gained top priority in the development agendas over the past decades. Developing countries, in particular those that are weak in the political and administrative areas of governance have to deal with enormous challenges related to social services and security. The practice of good governance as an approach to alleviate poverty has become a prerequisite for developing countries to receive financial aid from multinational donor agencies. This calls for strengthening a participatory, transparent, and accountable form of governance if poverty has to be reduced while improving the lives of the poor and vulnerable (Earle & Scott, 2010:34; Davis, 2017:636; Kwon & Kim, 2014:359).

The present study outlines five approaches to poverty alleviation which are: lack of income; inadequate resources to satisfy basic needs; social exclusion; human development and sustainable livelihoods. Lack of income is a traditional approach

which views poverty as a lack of income (World Bank, 2004:15). Based on this approach, people are poor if they do not have sufficient money to meet a minimum level of income or expenditure as defined by a given society (Global Volunteers, 2016:online). This approach is promoted by various agencies, for instance the World Bank, including governments and it recommends that the best strategy to alleviate poverty is the promotion of a welfare state/government – giving of subsidies to the poor, creation of employment opportunities and improving of wage income levels.

The inadequate resources to satisfy basic needs approach classifies poverty as not having enough resources with which to achieve the basic human needs such as clean water, nutrition, health care, education, clothing and shelter because of the inability to afford them (Banaras, 2020:online). This approach is promoted by the World Bank and it claims that one of the best strategies to alleviate poverty is the massive investment in physical infrastructure, for example, low income housing construction, and sewage installation among others and social infrastructure provision, for instance the provision of clinics and schools.

The social exclusion approach focuses on groups of people that are marginalised and it claims that even if individuals can have good paying jobs, if they are marginalised by the majority because of their race/religion/ethnicity among others, they cannot be said to have a good life (Global Volunteers, 2016:online). In other words, the approach claims that a person is in poverty if he or she is being excluded by other members of the society. Therefore, poverty means not being able to have and do the things that permit full participation in a society. The poverty alleviation strategies that this approach is focussing on are cultural and political values that make poor people unable or unwilling to participate in the society, for instance, geographical isolation, as well as informal and institutionalised racism and sexism.

The human development approach puts emphasis on participation and political inclusion in reducing poverty. Scholars such as Kistjanson et al. (2004, cited by Musakwa, 2008:41) argue that there are two common taxonomies of poverty alleviation strategies, namely cargo and safety net strategies. The former assists the poor to get out of poverty, whereas the later stops people from falling into poverty. They therefore recommend that the former should be supported by the later so that they can be effective and sustainable in the long run. They further illustrate that this

approach acknowledges that poverty has many causes and as such, a multi-dimensional approach would be ideal in solving the problems of poverty in comparison to a single solution. The approach is promoted by the UNDP and the strategies that it focuses on include a range of activities ranging from job creation to infrastructure provision and enhanced participation in urban developments.

The sustainable livelihoods approach denotes a way of thinking about the objectives, scope, and priorities for development activities. It is based on evolving thinking about the way the poor and vulnerable live their lives and the importance of policies and institutions. It facilitates the identification of practical priorities for actions that are based on the views and interests of those concerned but are not a panacea. The approach is promoted by Southern NGOs especially those working in rural areas, for example, Christian Care and Action Contrella Faim (Serrat, 2008:1; Matsvai, 2018:1963). The above approaches to poverty alleviation are summarised in Table 2.1 below. The table also outlines the agencies which promote the approach as well as the poverty alleviation strategies the perspective focusses on.

Table 2.1: Approaches to poverty alleviation

Approaches to poverty	Lack of income	Inadequate resources to satisfy basic needs	Social exclusion	Human development	Sustainable livelihoods
Agencies who promote this approach	A wide variety of agencies e.g. World Bank including most governments. This is the most common definition	World Bank	Northern governments and NGOs working in Northern countries (e.g. France and Britain)	UNDP	Southern NGOs- especially those working in rural areas (e.g. Christian care and Action Contrella Faim)

Strategies this perspective focusses on to alleviate poverty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Welfare - Subsidies - Job creation - Wage levels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Physical infrastructure investment (e.g. low-income housing construction, sewage installation) - Social infrastructure provision (e.g. provision of clinics and schools) 	Cultural and political values that make poor people unable or unwilling to participate in the society (e.g. geographical isolation, informal and institutionalised racism and sexism)	A range of activities ranging from job creation, to infrastructure provision and enhanced participation in urban developments	The exclusion of the poor from making decisions about their own development priorities.
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Source: Pieterse and Parnell (1999, cited by Musakwa, 2008:41); World Bank (2004:15); Global Volunteers (2016:online); Serrat (2008:1).

Table 2.1 shows that strategies which are proposed to alleviate poverty are influenced by the approach that is used to determine the causes of poverty as well as the agencies that promote the approach. The approaches to poverty alleviation, the agencies that are promoting the approaches as well as the poverty alleviation strategies the agencies are focusing on are critical in uplifting the poor from poverty. Based on the information in Table 2.1, for people to be alleviated from their poverty plight, it would require intervention from the government to assist the poor through the provision of various safety nets.

It could be inferred that the definitions above show that both poverty alleviation and poverty reduction are aimed at taking people out of poverty, however, poverty alleviation tends to put emphasis on the permanent basis as well as the involvement of various spheres of government or organisations in achieving this objective. While this study acknowledges that all approaches to poverty alleviation outlined in the above section are important, it argues that much emphasis should be put on understanding poverty from the lack of income, inadequate resources to satisfy basic needs and social exclusion approaches as outlined in Table 2.1. These three approaches are the most relevant and visible in the context of the CoW as discussed in chapter five of this thesis. Furthermore, poverty alleviation strategies are good under various circumstances, for instance when unemployment is high in the country, the best strategy is the provision of social safety nets, employment creation and

economic empowerment of the poor people by the government. For the government to provide the safety nets they should have the resources and secondly the political will. These two are intertwined because even if the government has resources but is not willing to channel them towards the alleviation of poverty, the poor will still be in poverty, and the same goes even if there is a political will to assist people to get out of poverty and there are no resources to do so, poverty will still persist. Therefore, the prudent use of resources by the government is required and citizens should continuously engage the government through dialogue in order to waken the political will.

2.6 ROLES OF SOCIETAL ACTORS IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION

According to Collier (2007:5), even though a number of middle income developing countries around the world are witnessing their national social and economic indicators moving in positive directions, the other “bottom billion” least developed countries characterised by poverty traps and market failures have struggled in recent decades. The above is happening in spite of huge investments that have been made in the traditional methods in the form of government expenditures, foreign aid and private philanthropy. The persistence of huge people living under the poverty line has suggested that there is a need for considering alternative approaches to the challenge of poverty alleviation. This section therefore offers an integrated framework for poverty alleviation that maps the roles of the private sector, the government and civil society organisations in contributing to poverty alleviation.

2.6.1 Role of the private sector

The private sector has a crucial role to play in the alleviation of poverty. This is mainly because the private sector makes up a large portion of wealth and job creation in various countries, which makes it an important social tool that can be used to alleviate poverty as well as to promote the welfare of the residents (Long, 2018:1). The private sector has a major role to play in determining whether the growth it creates is inclusive and contributes to poverty alleviation. It can promote economic opportunities for the poor (UN, 2020:2). The private sector contributes towards the alleviation of poverty

when it carries out its corporate social responsibility (CSR). CSR in the broadest sense deals with what is or should be the relationship between global corporations, governments of countries and individual citizens. More locally, CSR is concerned with the relationship between a corporation and the local society in which it resides or operates (Crowther & Aras, 2008:10). In the context of this thesis, CSR is utilised based on the definition of Long (2018:1) who narrates that CSR is a business model of private accountability to the public. This implies that businesses and corporations incorporate practices that initiate positive social impacts domestically as well as worldwide. The people living in poverty are often experiencing economic deprivation, unemployment, low wages and a lack of investment from the private sector, hence CSR is one of the avenues that can be utilised to bring the goals of the private sector in line with the needs of the public (Callander, 2017:1).

The role of the private sector in poverty alleviation is summarised into five strategies that can be used by the enterprises to engage the poor especially in the low-income market contexts. These categories are: the poor as source of information, the poor as producers and input suppliers, the poor as employees, the poor as distributors, and the poor as consumers (McKague et al., 2015:134-137; Renouard, 2012:62-65).

Poor as source of information: Due to limited incomes, higher levels of illiteracy, lack of capacity, greater aversion to risks, market and governance failures and limited infrastructure, low-income markets are very hostile environments to do business. However, having information from low income individuals would be useful in assisting enterprises to effectively develop their business models, sourcing and employment strategies, products and processes to benefit the poor and the enterprise (McKague & Tinsley, 2012:17).

Poor as producers and input suppliers: In sectors like agriculture, food products and small scale manufacturing, smallholder farmers and poor producers comprise a significant source of inputs for companies, cooperatives and commodity value chains. In this context, large processors and manufacturers often need high quality inputs which are reliably produced at reasonable cost and it often makes strategic sense for them to work with farmers and producers to increase the quality and quantity of their crops, livestock and manufactures. The above can benefit the large processors as well as poor producers (McKague & Oliver, 2012:101; Kapstein, Kim & Ruster, 2009:3).

Poor as employees: One of the most beneficial ways the poor can be engaged by the private sector to alleviate poverty is through employment (Karnani, 2011, cited by McKague et al., 2015:134). Moreover, research has found that poor people value the employment opportunities provided by private enterprises. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) concurs asserting that “Nothing is more fundamental to poverty reduction than employment” (ILO, 2002:2). It is also believed that most of the jobs that are found in least developed countries are in the SME sector. Likewise, internationally, the majority of productive and quality employment is generated by SMEs, as opposed to large companies, the public sector or the civil society sector. Moreover, reducing poverty through employment for the poor requires simultaneous attention to three major factors: increasing the demand for the labour of the poor, increasing the supply of labour through training and making the labour market more efficient (WBCSD, 2007; ILO, 2005, cited by McKague et al., 2015:134).

Poor as distributors: One of the essential ways that have a significant impact on poverty alleviation is to involve the poor as distributors in the value chain. This is reinforced by the fact that the majority of the people in low-income countries are living in rural or remote areas or informal settlements which are far away from formal commercial distribution networks. Therefore, the poor have the opportunity to work as sales agent distributors for numerous organisations seeking to sell socially beneficial goods and other products to low-income communities. What is more, large companies can also engage the poor as distributors (Clay, 2005:5).

Poor as consumers: Once the private enterprise and social entrepreneurs, working in partnership with government and civil society organisations, provide employment opportunities that can increase income levels among the world’s poor, increases in consumption by the poor can follow. However, in instances where the private sector is seeking to engage the poor as potential consumers, poverty alleviation impacts will come from instances of increasing access and the prices of goods and services can be lowered. The practice of increasing access to goods and services is important, however, for the very poor to take advantage of increased access, the goods and services must be affordable to them. There are three major options for companies to consider that can reduce costs for the poor: making minor changes to products and

services; taking advantage of technological breakthroughs; or reducing price by appropriately reducing quality or features (Jaiswal, 2008:83-84).

2.6.2 Role of the government

Approaches and frameworks that deal with the subjects of business and poverty alleviation did not say anything on the role of the government in poverty alleviation and in some cases, eschew government engagement all together. This is unrealistic and overlooks the fact that the markets and private sector-led production are inseparably embedded in the social and political institutions of society. It is important to note that in some scenario, inappropriate public policy or government interference can be, and in many countries has been antithetical to the interests of the poor and indeed the role of the market system in organising production and distribution of goods and services in a society (Biggart & Delbridge, 2004; Biggart & Beamish, 2003; Datta-Chaudhuri, 1990) cited by McKague et al., (2015:139).

Furthermore, Andersen (1990, cited by Wong, 2017:238) argue that the role of the government in poverty alleviation is complex because it is influenced by the model of the state which outlines the responsibilities of the government with regards to the protection and promotion of the socio-economic wellbeing of citizens. One of the most valuable and commonly-adopted classification is that of welfare states comprising of “social democratic”, “corporatist” and “liberal”. The social democratic welfare state stresses public responsibility and provides comprehensive, universal and generous benefits as a right of citizenship; corporatist welfare stresses mutual aid, status differential and the family’s role, such that benefits are often contributory and work-related; and liberal welfare states stress private responsibility and merely provide a safety net against contingencies.

Wong (2017:239) clarifies that within a specific ideological and institutional setting, various strategies are available to governments in the fight against poverty. For example, the World Bank (2001:5) has advocated a three-pronged strategy of promoting opportunities through economic growth, facilitating empowerment, and enhancing security. At the operational level, different policy tools, such as universal targeting versus specific targeting, transfers in cash versus transfers in kind, and

material aid versus empowerment can be deployed to achieve the policy goals involved. The UN (2020:2) states that governments can help create an enabling environment to generate productive employment and job opportunities for the poor and the marginalised.

Studies by Limão and Venables (2001:452), Kydd and Dorward (2004:951), World Bank (2007:4), and McKague et al. (2015:139-140) have revealed that markets and economies cannot function efficiently and in ways that will include and benefit the poor without governments living up to their main roles. They also recommend that government institutions that are missing or weak should be strengthened rather than be ignored. Additionally, it should be noted that governments play a key role in facilitating the private sector – including social entrepreneurs - to address poverty alleviation by focusing on four main areas of responsibility, namely: infrastructure development, provision of public services, facilitation of job creation, and markets regulation. They argue that the main roles entail the following:

Infrastructure: Firstly, governments play an important role in assisting with the facilitation of the private sector involvement in poverty alleviation by ensuring that public infrastructure in terms of roads and transport systems, communication systems, electricity, water and sanitation systems are established and maintained.

Public services: Secondly, governments can assist the private sector actors to reduce poverty by taking responsibility for the provision of basic public services like education and public health. Low levels of education, lack of access to training opportunities and endemic poor health are severe constraints to employability, and no amount of well-intended corporate philanthropy or civil society activity can begin to address the need for broad provision of basic public services. The provision of basic public services does not only help the lives of the poor, but makes opportunities for social enterprises and companies more attractive by reducing costs.

Facilitating job creation: Thirdly, governments can assist the private sector in facilitating job creation by reducing the costs of doing business.

Regulation: The main causes of markets failures are information asymmetries (such as ill-informed consumers) and externalities (such as environmental pollution and extremely unequal distribution of wealth). In these cases, governments must play a

role in defining permissible behaviour through incentives, regulation, and standards. Governments need to regulate markets to avoid market failures and abuses of consumer rights, threats to public safety, and environmental damage and other externalities. The state has an essential role to play in redistributing wealth for the common good through sound fiscal and social policies and ensuring that the private sector activity is incentivised to include and benefit the poor.

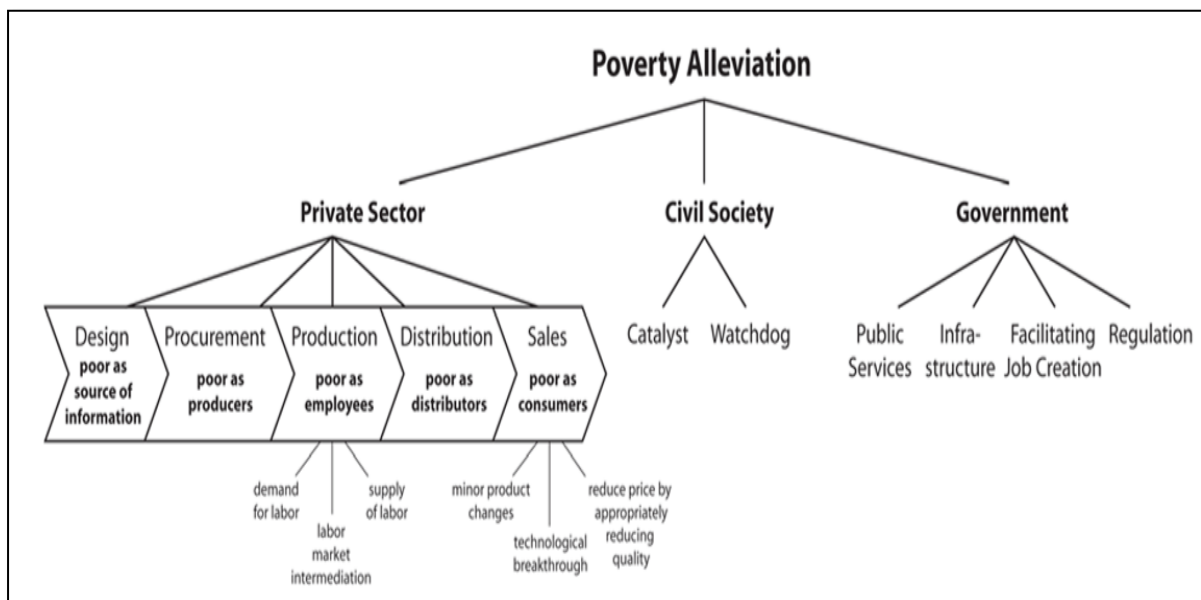
2.6.3 Role of the civil society

Civil society organisations have two important roles that complement the role of the private sector in poverty alleviation. These are to act as a catalyst for positive change and as an advocate or watchdog to protect the poor. The civil society organisations in this context include local and international non-governmental organisations concerned with poverty alleviation and development. In reality, the strength of the civil society sector in developing countries can vary according to a number of factors, one of which is the nature and strength of the state itself. This is a scenario whereby for instance an authoritarian state may be motivated to undermine the efforts by the civil society to hold it or the private sector accountable (Sarker & Rahman, 2006:9).

Catalyst: As a catalyst for change, civil society organisations can work with the private sector, social entrepreneurs and low-income communities on various development issues. Civil society organisations can also play an important role in partnering with private sector organisations on initiatives that will benefit low-income communities. Civil society organisations often have the knowledge, legitimacy and understanding of local needs that can help to make their activities or their partnerships with other organisations work. In addition, civil society organisations are sometimes contracted by governments to deliver basic services such as health and education. However, civil society organisations often lack the scale to reach the entire population that needs to be served, and may inadvertently reduce pressure on the government to ensure that everyone, including the poor, benefit from basic infrastructure and services (Nelson & Zadek, 2000; Selsky & Parker, 2005; Perez-Aleman & Sandilands, 2008; Gradl, et al., 2010) cited by McKague et al., (2015:141).

Watchdog: Another equally important role that civil society organisations play is as advocates and watchdogs, to raise public awareness when the government or private sector organisations are not living up to their legal and normative expectations. Civil society organisations can monitor the actions of the private sector and government and advocate for the enforcement of the existing rules or a change in the status quo. Civil society organisations therefore, as major social actors along with governments and the private sector have important roles to play in contributing to poverty alleviation (Karanani, 2011:17; McKague et al., 2015:141). The above roles are depicted in Figure 2.1 below.

Figure 2.1: Integrated framework for poverty alleviation



Source: McKague, Wheeler and Karnani (2015:131)

Figure 2.1 illustrates that the private sector and social enterprises have an essential role in poverty alleviation which ranges from engaging the poor as sources of information, as suppliers, as employees and as distributors as well as potential customers. It also shows the role that can be played by the government in order to mitigate the market failures, externalities and other potential downsides of the private sector activity which can hinder the contribution to development as well as to the alleviation of poverty. The figure further illustrates the essential role of the civil society organisations which is as watchdogs and catalysts for policy reform.

From the above discussion, it is clear that societal actors have an important role to play in the alleviation of poverty within a specific area. The government in particular should play a primary role to ensure that the poor people are out of poverty by reducing the income taxes, writing off student loans, improving access to health and education care as well as raising minimum wages. For the government to provide the aforesaid services, it needs resources, therefore it should use earnings from the country's natural resources such as fishing and diamond to provide these services because they can improve the socio-economic conditions of the poor and middle class citizens. Furthermore, the government has to create an enabling environment that would attract foreign and local investors to set up businesses, hence contributing to job and wealth creation.

The private sector's contribution to poverty alleviation takes a form of engaging the poor as producers and employers of SMEs because they typically employ the largest number of people and they have the greatest potential to employ lower-skilled and low-income workers throughout the country. Lastly, though the government and the private sector have good regulations in place to assist the poor people to get out of poverty, they might fail to uphold or honour their obligations. Therefore, civil society organisations should be watchful to ensure that the obligations and promises are fulfilled by establishing trade unions that continuously monitor the two actors and engage them where possible. Civil society organisations should also provide civic education to the residents as these might prompt the residents to hold their electorate accountable and to deliver on their election manifestos.

2.7 LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND POVERTY ALLEVIATION

This sections aims to establish and clarify the nexus between local government and poverty alleviation. This section therefore conceptualises local government from multidimensional perspectives and explains the relationship between it and poverty alleviation. The link will help to illustrate how local government can alleviate poverty and improve the socio-economic conditions of the residents within its area of administrative jurisdiction. In order to illustrate the diversity of the lower level of government, this section analyses various perspectives of local government.

Local government is usually referred to as a political instrument for governance at the grassroots level. According to Tonwe (2011:66), local government is “a political subdivision of a nation or (in a federal system) state, which is constituted by law and has substantial control of local affairs, including the powers to impose taxes or to exact labour for prescribed purposes”. Tonwe (2011:66) further explains that the governing body of the local government can either be elected or locally selected. Other scholars such as Lwendo and Sazita (2011:11) explain that “local government refers to the authority’s dependent agencies that are established according to legislation and statutes, under the direction of a locally elected council to provide services for their localities and to represent their interests”.

Depending on the system of government used in a country, there is a tendency to use the concepts local government and local authority interchangeably. Mukwena and Chirawu (2008:8) argue that despite the existence of interchangeability in the everyday usage of the concepts, a distinction can be drawn between the two concepts. Local government refers to a system of local authorities (Mukwena & Chirawu, 2008:11). Whereas the term local authority “refers to a sub-unit of government, controlled by a local council which is authorised by the central government to pass ordinances having a local application, levy local taxes or exact labour, and, within limits specified by the central government, vary centrally decided policy in applying it locally” (Mukwena & Chirawu, 2008:8). While Lwendo and Sazita (2011:11) define local authority as “an organisation comprising of elected and appointed officials, which operates within a specific geographical area to provide services for its local communities”.

Whalen (2012:312) points out that every unit of local government in any system is expected to possess the following characteristics: a given territory and population, an institutional structure for legislative executives and administrative purposes, a separate legal identity, a range of powers and functions authorised by delegation from the appropriate central or intermediate legislature. Hence, from the above conceptualisation, local government can be treated as a multi-dimensional concept. These dimensions are: social, economic, geographic, legal, political and administrative (Tonwe, 2011:66).

With regards to the social dimension, Rice and Sumberg (2007:102) argue that local government is a social institution which is run according to the idea of oneness. As the

level of government closer to the people at the periphery level, local government gives the masses an opportunity to express their ideas and to have their voices heard and through the process of interaction the local people can bring to the forefront basic needs (food, shelter, clothing and water) of people in the area (Rice & Sumberg, 2007:102). When viewing local government from this dimension, the social exclusion dimension of poverty could be dealt with effectively since the residents are able to interact with the local government officials hence this could bring about equal distribution of the basic needs in the society.

According to Tonwe (2011:67), under the economic dimension, local government is viewed as an economic institution with a leading role to play in promoting the economic well-being of the people within their areas of jurisdiction. In this context, municipalities are described based on their economic feasibility, therefore revenue generation becomes the main function of municipalities. Tonwe (2011:67) further reveals that municipalities that are not economically strong will find it difficult to advance the economic conditions of the people within their area of jurisdiction. The revenue generation aspect of local authorities is vital since it would enable them to carry out their powers, duties and functions as outlined in the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended. The economic dimension of local government is concerned with delivering the needed and desired services, such as education, road maintenance, public safety, and health care to citizens (Kettl & Fesler, 2008:70). The above-mentioned services are determinants of poverty in qualitative terms, hence providing these services would be vital in alleviating poverty in a particular locality. Tonwe (2011:67) states that the participation of the local authorities in local economic development is of paramount importance to the citizens. This is so since the citizens would be able to see tangible results of their tax contribution in which they can take a personal interest in terms of a road, market and dispensary.

According to Tonwe (2011:68), the geographic dimension of local government focuses on the defined territorial jurisdiction over a particular human habitation. The geography of local authorities comprises of physical, demographic and economic features. The geographic dimension of local government stems from the fact that among the inhabitants of a given area, there is a consciousness that they are differentiated from the inhabitants of other areas in the same country (Tonwe, 2011:68). This dimension

of local government allows poverty to be mitigated by a local government that understands the physical and economic features of its localities.

The legal dimension means that a local government is a legal institution in the sense that it is established by the laws of a competent and higher authority. For example, local government in Namibia is enshrined in the Namibian Constitution, Article 102 and is established in accordance with the Act of Parliament, the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended (Namibia, 1992). This makes local authorities to be the agents of the state and as such, they represent the public interests at the local level. Tonwe (2011:68) notes that in that capacity, local authorities exercise part of the powers that the state has legally delegated to it within specified geographical boundaries. In Namibia, the state powers are transferred to the local authorities through the Decentralisation Enabling Act. 33 of 2000 (Namibia, 2000).

As a legal self-governing institution, Lwendo and Sazita (2011:13) state that local authorities have the following characteristics: Firstly, they have a well-defined area of jurisdiction. This means- that a local authority only has a mandate to operate within its own area of jurisdiction and may not operate in the area of another local authority. Within its area of administrative jurisdiction, a local authority has a legal mandate and obligation to provide all its inhabitants with basic services (Lwendo & Sazita, 2011:13). This characteristic shows that local authorities have a legal obligation of ensuring the wellness of their localities which includes the alleviation of poverty. Secondly, local authorities must take all the necessary steps to ensure the safety of local inhabitants (Lwendo & Sazita, 2011:13). This entails that a local authority's objectives should include the promotion of a safe and healthy living environment through the provision of services such as road safety, traffic control, civil protection, fire brigade and ambulance services.

The political dimension views a local government as a political institution and a mechanism for governance at the local level (Tonwe, 2011:68). Conceptually, local government is an aspect of democracy. When a local government loses its democratic feature, it degenerates into local administration. To ensure the upholding of democracy, Lwendo and Sazita (2011:13) argue that a local authority should promote citizen participation in their search for solutions to local problems. This entails that local authorities should not take any decision of policy or community significance

without consulting the communities. The administrative dimension of local government emphasises that a local authority has its local bureaucracy like other higher levels of government. According to Lwendo and Sazita (2011:14), a local authority can employ officials to conduct its daily business.

Thus, Melnychuk (2013:1-2) argues that local government can respond to the complexity of poverty through policy areas that can lead to poverty alleviation. They can use tax revenue for capital expenditures to build transit systems, libraries and recreation facilities that can support education, employment creation and general inclusion of people in the communities where they live. Moreover, local authorities can change their community by encouraging the development of affordable housing through direct funding, partnerships and land use policy that can encourage mixed housing type communities which can reduce the marginalisation of low income citizens.

Decentralisation has allowed municipalities to act directly on a wide range of issues. Democratic local governance has enabled them to institutionalise participatory processes, negotiate partnership agreements to counter deprivation or exclusion, develop instruments to target and reach the areas of greatest need and launch a range of initiatives to foster social inclusion. They further argue that local authorities should ensure that the residents have adequate access to roads, drainage, transport and water supply. Local government is the level of government most directly involved, even where national and international funding is available to support sectoral programmes. Thus depending on the degree of decentralisation, especially the devolution of functions to the local level, local authorities can play a direct involvement role in health care, education, and vocational training in the delivery of these services. Municipalities can perform a pivotal LED promotion role within their areas of jurisdiction. The role of municipalities in this endeavour can include among others: the support for small and medium businesses through the provision of training and support mechanisms and creating optimal infrastructure (Binza, 2005; Serageldin, Solloso and Valenzuela, 2006:2).

In terms of the above-mentioned dimensions of local government, it can be deduced that local authorities are the appropriate entities of government to mitigate the various dimensions of poverty and improve the socio-economic conditions of the community.

The aforesaid argument emanates from the notion that local government is the arm of government that is closer to the people, therefore it can play a role in ensuring that residents within its area of administrative jurisdiction are looked after. This is because the participation of the masses would bring out clearly the various dimensions of poverty that are affecting the local people. Therefore, if local authorities can liaise with local communities before taking any decisions which may affect their lives, it could result in local authorities developing strategies that can effectively alleviate poverty provided that there are funds, capacity as well as the political will among others.

2.8 SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

A search done illustrates that academic literature on socio-economic conditions is minimal. However, there are countless literature on concepts utilising socio-economic terms such as socio-economic status/class, socio-economic indicators, socio-economic factors and socio-economic well-being. Moreover, there are other related terms as well such as standard of living, human development, socio-economic development, human welfare and social progress. What the above-mentioned concepts have in common is that they are endeavouring to measure how well people are living their lives in various societies (Umar et al., 2019:338). It is however, pertinent to provide a contextual definition of socio-economic conditions as well the meaning of other related concepts. This is necessary to provide a clear context for the first objective of this study.

Socio-economic status/class refers to the social standing or class of an individual or group and is mostly measured as a combination of education, income and occupation (American Psychological Association, 2021:online; Basta et al., 2007:48). While socio-economic indicators denotes measures of well-being which provide a current view of social conditions and monitor trends in a range of social concerns over time (Noll, 2002:3). Socio-economic well-being shows how well people live in their societies in terms of the socio-economic indicators and it is subjected to different conceptual interpretations such as quality of life, standard of living, and human development among others (Umar et al., 2019:344). Therefore, socio-economic conditions of community in the context of this thesis include both features of socio-economic

status/class and indicators. The above is supported by Umar et al. (2019:345) where they refer to socio-economic conditions as the availability, accessibility and quality of public goods and services as they fluctuate in various countries. From Umar et al.'s (2019:345) definition, it is clear that the socio-economic conditions of community is the measurement of the availability of education, housing, health facilities and other related social and economic aspects within a community that are essential for citizens to attain an acceptable minimal standard of living.

A study by the Office of Disease Prevention and Health Promotion (ODPHP) (2020:1) found that numerous factors such as marital status, social class, education level, income level, and geographic location (urban versus rural) can influence a household's risk of living in poverty (ODPHP, 2020:1). A study by Umar et al. (2019:345) found that socio-economic conditions in any country determine the satisfaction of citizens. This is supported by Luttmer and Singhal (2014:154) who claim that if citizens are satisfied with their socio-economic conditions, they tend to have a high tax morale and tax compliance, but if they are dissatisfied with their socio-economic conditions, they tend to have a low tax morale and unwillingness to pay tax. Consequently, lower tax leads to reduced financial resources at the government's disposal which hinders its ability to provide safety nets and improve the socio-economic conditions of community. The onus should therefore be on the government to improve the socio-economic conditions of the community first in order for citizens to have high tax morale. Sen (1983, cited by Umar et al., 2019:346) proffers that "it is the responsibility of the government to improve the socio-economic lives of citizens".

It can be deduced that socio-economic conditions are derived from social and economic indicators and the status of a community. These conditions are important when one is measuring how well people are living their lives. This is because when a community is comprising of individuals that are educated, it means that they have the knowledge and skills to do something for themselves and improve their lives. Moreover, if the educated individuals are given resources by the government or by NGOs such as community based organisations assisting the poor, they will be able to create employment for themselves as well as for some of the community members. It is thus imperative that the local government should ensure that residents living within their area of jurisdiction have access to basic services such as clean water, housing

and sanitation as this would contribute to improving some of the socio-economic conditions of the residents.

2.9 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORKS

This section presents an overview of the legislative and policy frameworks that provide the basis of authority for the alleviation of poverty in Namibia. The purpose for discussing the frameworks is to clarify the legal provisions that permit the local structures of government to alleviate poverty within its area of administrative jurisdiction in Namibia. The international policies are discussed first and thereafter the national legislation and policy frameworks.

2.9.1 International policies

This subsection focuses on some of the key global policies that advocate for the alleviation of poverty by local authorities in developing countries including Namibia. The term policy comes from a Greek word *polis* (city-state) which means the conduct of public affairs or the administration of government (Cloete & de Coming, 2012:6). In this thesis, the term policy is defined as “a series of patterns of related decisions to which many circumstances and personal, group and organisational influences have contributed” (Cloete & de Coming, 2012:6). International policies such as the Habitat Agenda II, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the Agenda 2063 had an influence on the socio-economic planning in Namibia.

2.9.1.1 Habitat Agenda II

The Second United Nations Conference on Human Settlements was held in Istanbul, Turkey in 1996 (Habitat Agenda II, 1996:24). This Agenda brought together high-level representatives of national and local governments, as well as private sector and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). The Agenda had universal goals of ensuring adequate shelter, safer human settlements, and healthier liveable cities (Habitat Agenda, 1996:24). One of the objectives of this Agenda was to arrest the deterioration of global human settlements conditions and ultimately create the conditions for

achieving improvements in the living environment of all people on a sustainable basis (Habitat Agenda II, 1996:24).

Chapter 4 of the Habitat Agenda II which is on Sustainable Human Settlements Development in an Urbanising World, Section 3, discusses social development, eradication of poverty, creation of productive employment and social integration (Habitat Agenda II, 1996:25). In this specific section, the Agenda outlines the many manifestations of poverty including homelessness and inadequate housing among others. The Agenda further proposes possible actions in terms of policies and strategies that governments at the appropriate level, including local authorities, can consider to ensure the alleviation of the many manifestations of poverty. Section 118(e) and (f) of the Habitat Agenda II states that in order to combat poverty, local authorities in partnership with all relevant interested parties (workers and employers' organisations) should among other issues do the following: Firstly, promote contracting and procurement that can, as appropriate, facilitate the involvement of the local private sector, including small businesses and contractors, and, when appropriate, the informal sector and the community sector in the provision of basic public goods and services (Habitat Agenda II, 1996:116). Secondly, ensure that people living in poverty have access to productive resources, including credit, land, education and training, technology, knowledge and information, as well as access to basic services including those related to the provision of food security, education, basic health care, safe drinking water, sanitation and adequate shelter (Habitat Agenda II, 1996:116).

It can be deduced that this Agenda has tasked local authorities to address the many manifestations of poverty. The Habitat Agenda II advocates for the contracting out of public goods and services to the local private sector which is important because it can enhance the effectiveness of the services. If the contracting out is to take place, it is important that local authorities should regulate the prices which are to be charged for the goods and services because the private sector might charge high prices which would make the poor people not to be able to afford services such as water, electricity and housing among others.

2.9.1.2 Sustainable Development Goals

The SDGs came into effect in 2015 to build on the success of the Millennium Development Goals. Goal 1 of the SDGs talks about no poverty and it aims to end extreme poverty in all forms by 2030. Namibia has made progress towards achieving this goal with reductions in the level of poverty from 28.8% in 2010 to 18% in 2016 and by 2017 poverty had been reduced to 17.4% (NPC, 2018:12). The reduction in the level of poverty can be credited to the adaptation of pro-poor policies and programmes such as the social safety nets which the government has implemented among others to help people break the cycle of poverty (NPC, 2018:12). SDG 1 indicates that poverty is a global phenomenon and there is a target to end it by 2030. Therefore, the government, including local authorities, should strive to ensure that there is no poverty.

2.9.1.3 Agenda 2063

Agenda 2063 was adopted by the African Union in 2015. This Agenda is a Pan African plan intended for the social transformation of Africa by 2063. One of the goals for this agenda is for the African people to achieve a high standard of living, quality of life and well-being for all citizens. The Agenda takes into consideration short initiatives such as the SDGs and hence it also focuses on ending all forms of poverty in Africa and development planning in Namibia has been aligned to Agenda 2063.

As evidenced from the above discussed initiatives and others such as the World Development Report (2003) which says local administrations have a responsibility to deal with urban poverty, the UN Habitat Conference and Millennium Summit which also illustrates the key roles of local administrations with regards to poverty related issues, one can argue that global initiatives have urged local authorities to deal with the issue of poverty. Bongfiglioli (2003:19) also states that local levels denote the quality, effectiveness and efficiency of public service delivery, the quality of local public policy and decision-making procedures, and the idea that power and authority should be exercised at the local level.

2.9.2 National legislative and policy frameworks

This subsection focuses on the local legislative and policy frameworks that provide a legal basis for the alleviation of poverty in Namibia.

2.9.2.1 Constitution of the Republic of Namibia

Article 95 states that for the state to maintain and promote the welfare of people, it should have policies that are aimed at the following: (e) “ensurance that every citizen has a right to fair and reasonable access to public facilities and services in accordance with the law”; (f) “ensurance that senior citizens are entitled to and do receive a regular pension adequate for the maintenance of a decent standard of living and the enjoyment of social and cultural opportunities”. Article 98(1) states that “the economic order of Namibia shall be based on the principles of a mixed economy with the objective of securing economic growth, prosperity and a life of human dignity for all Namibians” (Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, 1990:47). The Constitution as the supreme authority in Namibia advocate for the better well-being of the people. This is important because it means that the government has a legal obligation to develop policies that can ensure that there is no discrimination but allows all citizens to have access to public services.

2.9.2.2 Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended

Part 5(30) of the Act calls for local authorities to deliver the following services among others:

- to supply water to the residents in its area for household, business or industrial purposes;
- to provide, maintain and carry on a system of sewerage and drainage for the benefit of the residents in its area;
- to provide, maintain and carry on services to residents for the removal, destruction or disposal of rubbish, slop water, garden and stable litter, derelict vehicles, carcasses of dead animals and all other kinds of refuse or otherwise offensive or unhealthy matter;

- to establish and maintain cemeteries, or to take over any cemetery situated within its area;
- to construct and maintain streets and public places;
- to supply electricity or gas to the residents in its area;
- to establish, carry on and maintain a public transport service;
- to establish, with the prior approval of the Minister and in accordance with such conditions as may be determined by him or her, a housing scheme, whether by itself or in conjunction with any other person;
- to establish, carry on and maintain markets and, for that purpose, to construct and let market houses, auction or sale rooms, stalls, warehouses and other buildings for the sale or storage of goods at such market;
- to establish, carry on and maintain abattoirs, aerodromes, an ambulance service, bands and orchestras, dipping tanks, a fire brigade, museums and libraries, nurseries, and a traffic service;
- to establish and maintain any building or structure for any community requirement;
- to allocate bursaries, and grant loans, for educational purposes;
- to confer honours upon any person who has in the opinion of the local authority council rendered meritorious service to its residents;
- to determine by notice in the Gazette the charges, fees and other moneys payable in respect of any service, amenity or facility established and provided by it under this Act or any matter regulated and controlled by it thereunder;
- to accept donations made or receive moneys offered to it by any person within Namibia and, with the prior approval in writing of the Minister in every particular case and subject to such conditions as he or she may determine, to accept such donations made or receive such moneys offered to it by any person outside Namibia;
- to enter, subject to the regulations, into joint business ventures; and
- to commercialise, subject to any regulations which may be made relating thereto, any service rendered by it or any function or duty exercised or carried out by it.

A service such as the supply of water is one of the essential needs in life, but the nature of this service requires that someone should pay for it for the service to be kept on being rendered. Therefore, it is integral that local authorities should charge affordable prices when rendering services because poor people might not afford some of the services.

2.9.2.3 Decentralisation Enabling Act 33 of 2000 as amended

This Act provides for and regulates the decentralisation to regional and local authorities of functions vested in ministries of the central government. Section 2 of the Act deals with the decentralisation of functions of line ministries. In this thesis, a line ministry can be defined as a ministry in respect of which a service function has been or is to be decentralised. A function can be defined as that which has been conferred or imposed on a line ministry by any law (Keyter, 2014:online). Decentralisation takes three forms, namely: de-concentration, delegation and devolution. De-concentration “involves the shifting of workload from central government ministries headquarters to staff located in offices outside of the national capital, the staff may not be given the authority to decide how those functions are to be performed” (Mukwena & Chirawu, 2008:3). Delegation implies that the local authority council is empowered to perform the function as an agent on behalf and in the name of the line ministry. Devolution implies that the local authority council is empowered to perform the function for its own profit and loss. The Minister of the MURD must, prior to the decentralisation of any function, consult with the Minister responsible for the line ministry concerned and must decentralise a function only in consultation with Cabinet (MURD, 2004).

This Act allows central government ministries to decentralise some of their functions to be carried out at the local level. This means that central government programmes such as the NDPs and the HPP which are aimed at fighting poverty can be implemented by local authorities within their areas of administrative jurisdiction. This is important because local structures are the closest to the people and they know the challenges faced by communities, therefore, once functions are decentralised to them, they should venture into public-private-partnerships (PPPs) where necessary with local and international institutions to ensure effective execution of such functions.

2.9.2.4 Vision 2030

This is a legislative framework which presents a long-term plan to improve the general welfare of the Namibian society to the level of their counterparts in the developed world by 2030. Vision 2030 outlines what needs to be done in order to attain the Vision by means of providing direction to the public institutions such as government ministries, regional and local authorities, the private sector and civil society actors. It outlines that Namibia should be prosperous and industrialised and this development should be by her human resources. Chapter four of Vision 2030 deals with people's quality of life and it is aimed at improvising the socio-economic conditions of all Namibians (Vision 2030:7-44). Since Vision 2030 is aimed at providing direction to public institutions, it is therefore important that the CoW should align its programmes and strategies such as the LED to priority areas outlined in Vision 2030.

2.9.2.5 Local Economic Development Strategy

The strategy aims to encourage social progression and to improve the quality of life to take people out of poverty. More specifically, the LED indicates that in order to improve the livelihood of the localities and reduce poverty and inequality, emphasis should be placed in a whole government approach which includes local, regional and national levels (MURD, 2011:2-19).

2.9.2.6 Fifth National Development Plan

The main pillars in NDP5 are: economic progression, social transformation, environmental sustainability and good governance. One of the key focus areas of the social transformation pillar is the social protection, which targets to reduce the percentage of the severely poor from 11% in 2016 to 5% in 2022. The key strategies set forth in NDP5 to reduce the level of the severely poor are such as the strengthening of the social safety nets, and the expansion of the legal framework for poverty eradication (NDP5:114). This is an indication that the alleviation of poverty is one of the priority areas for the government under NDP5. This means that the government is endeavouring to improve the well-being of the citizens.

2.9.2.7 War against poverty

War against poverty resulted in the establishment of the Ministry of Gender Equality, Poverty Eradication and Social Welfare (MGEPEWSW) in 2015. The MGEPEWSW was tasked “to co-ordinate all aspects hereto and harness the political will of the government and the goodwill of Namibians as a tool in the eradication of poverty” (Republic of Namibia, 2015:5). In addition to the creation of the MGEPEWSW, the other strategies that were put in place by the government of the Republic of Namibia to achieve the declaration of war against poverty are as follows:

- An increment in the old age pensions fund by 66.7% from N\$600.00 per month, to N\$1 000.00 per month, starting from the 2015 financial year and further additional increases were effected so that old age pension grants could reach N\$1 300.00 per month by 2021.
- Education and skills development – the war against poverty holds that children must be assisted to escape the poverty trap. This is a condition that forces poor children to remain in the circumstances they were born into by equalising access to quality education and ensuring equal access to opportunities.
- Introducing sustainable income generating activities in various communities, as well as broad-based empowerment programmes like food production, bakery, brick-making, tourism, aquaculture, livestock and crop farming.
- Reducing the high rate of unemployment – in order to achieve this, the government and the private sector needs to grow the Namibian economy in an equitable manner. The prerequisite for economic growth is business competitiveness, employee productivity and fair treatment of workers.

The continuous increments in the old age pensions fund illustrates how serious the government wants to fight poverty. This is also an indication that the government acknowledges the impacts of inflation hence increments are necessary to keep the old age pensioners out of poverty.

2.9.2.8 Harambee Prosperity Plan

Chapter five of the Harambee Prosperity Plan (HPP) is concerned with social progression. The HPP acknowledges that the government is aware of the many dimensions of poverty hence the war against poverty is multifaceted. It further says that the immediate priority for the HPP is the hunger, housing and sanitation dimensions of poverty, while all other dimensions of poverty would be addressed in the long-term plans (HPP, 2016:38). It further states that “the most effective way to address poverty is through wealth creation, which in turn is done by growing the economy in a sustainable and inclusive manner and through the creation of decent employment opportunities” (HPP, 2016:7). The provision of housing and sanitation are some of the core functions of local authorities in Namibia and they are also part of the dimensions of poverty as stated under the HPP. This means that effective and efficient provision of housing and sanitation to residents at affordable prices can contribute to fight some dimensions of poverty.

2.10 CONCLUSION

The chapter provided various definitions of poverty in order to establish a robust meaning of poverty and how it can be measured. The different types of poverty were explained and the major one are absolute and relative poverty. Moreover, different theories of poverty that describe the causes of poverty and the anti-poverty strategies to mitigate the incidences of poverty were also analysed. The chapter outlined the approaches of poverty alleviation as well as the different roles of societal actors in the alleviation of poverty. The chapter analysed the legislative and policy frameworks for alleviating the social phenomenon of poverty. The next chapter presents the local economic development phenomenon. The chapter consists of various headings and sub-headings that point out the disagreements among scholars and the chapter bridges the gap within the literature on poverty alleviation through local economic development strategies.

CHAPTER THREE: LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the conceptual, theoretical, legislative and policy framework for poverty alleviation. This chapter deals with the issues pertaining to Local Economic Development (LED) strategies. The idea of LED strategies originated from high-income countries of the Northern hemisphere. LED came as a response to the problems of social and economic nature that were brought by locality-specific development problems. Moreover, the traditional top-down approach did not produce good results, especially the supply-side sectoral development strategies, in addressing the increasing unemployment and inequality at local level, hence this necessitated the search for better development strategies that are inclusive by offering opportunities for growth to all areas (Nel, 2001:1004).

In like manner, the notion of LED has been developing in the Southern hemisphere for the same reasons as those of the Northern hemisphere. Some of the major issues that prompted the development of LED in the Southern hemisphere were such as the persevering problems of sluggish economic growth and poverty, accompanied by changes in the national and international economic environment, and the ineffectiveness of the central governments to intervene and mitigate the local problems effectively (Nel, 2001:1004). Moreover, cities of the developing countries have been experiencing rapid population growth without economic growth and this trend is expected to continue particularly in the African cities. The current focus of people in the African cities as well as the projected growth have urged the redefining of the role of cities and local governments. It is also worth to mention that African cities are full of economic opportunities, and these opportunities are there despite feeble entrepreneurial activities and weak contemporary urban government revenue bases. Beyer, Peterson and Sharma (2003:9) note that the fiscal and non-fiscal needs of urban population growth can be suitably met by forming well-defined LED strategies. The emphasis in this scenario is to have locally driven based initiatives that would attend to the needs of the people at the local level.

In this context, LED is better understood as a development strategy envisioned to assist cities to make use of their potential and prevent urban migration from creating longer-term economic decline. In order to realise the above, it is imperative that a city should address its economic base and identify the role it can play to strengthen it. LED empowers local people, local governments as well as local industries since it is based on collaboration of various actors such as public, business and non-governmental organisations which are collectively striving to foster conditions that are favourable for economic and employment growth.

LED is intended to enhance both the vitality of the local economy and the fiscal capacity of the local government. It is for this reason that LED as a concept has been used to describe an increasing number of initiatives, ranging from industrial policy and regional planning to community development, which, although part of an LED strategy, cannot entirely be considered as LED (Rodríguez-Pose & Tijmstra, 2005:3). However, Rodríguez-Pose (2002, cited by Rodríguez-Pose and Tijmstra, 2005:3) allude to the fact that only development strategies that are territorially based, locally owned and managed, and are aimed particularly at increasing employment and economic growth can qualify to be called LED.

This chapter presents different definitions of LED as a way to establish a robust understanding of the concept. It discusses the theories of growth and development, and it also deliberates on the LED strategies and it concludes with the LED strategic planning process.

3.2 DEFINING LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

The concept of LED is not easy to define and as such there is no universal definition of what it entails hence scholars have come up with various definitions. According to Zaaier and Sara (1993:129), “LED is essentially a process in which local governments and/or community based groups manage their existing resources and enter into partnership arrangements with the private sector, or with each other, to create new jobs and stimulate economic activity in an economic area”. While Blakely (1994:xvi) argues that “LED refers to the process in which local governments or community-based (neighbourhood) organisations engage to stimulate or maintain business

activities and/or employment. The principal goal of local economic development is to stimulate local employment opportunities in sectors that improve the community, using existing human, natural, and institutional resources". Canzanelli (2001:9) defines "LED as a process where the local actors shape and share the future of their territory. It is a participatory process that encourages and facilitates partnership between the local stakeholders, enabling the joint design and implementation of strategies, mainly based on the competitive use of the local resources, with the final aim of creating decent jobs and sustainable economic activities".

A common definition is offered by Nel (2001:6), who defines LED as "a process by which local governments or community based groups manage their existing resources and enter into partnership arrangements with the private sector, or with each other, to create new jobs and stimulate economic activities that facilitate and enable an improvement of the quality of life". Scheepers and Monchusi (2002:82) define LED as "a process managed by municipalities in accordance with their constitutional mandate to promote social and economic development". The World Bank (2003:4) explains that "LED is the process by which public, business and non-governmental sector partners work collectively to create better conditions for economic growth and employment generation. The aim is to improve the quality of life for all". According to Rueker and Trah (2007:15), LED is "an ongoing process by which key stakeholders and institutions from all spheres of society, the public and private sector as well as civil society, work jointly to create a unique advantage for the locality and its firms, tackle market failures, remove bureaucratic obstacles for local business and strengthen the competitiveness of local firms".

According to Sbisi (2009:5), LED is "a process by which public, business and non-governmental partners work collectively to create better conditions for economic growth, employment generation and sustainable development as a whole". The International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2006, cited by Haindongo, 2017:10-11) defines LED as "a participatory development process that encourages partnership arrangements between the main private and public stakeholders of a defined territory, enabling the joint design and implementation of a common development strategy, by making use of the local resources and competitive advantage in a global context, with the final objective of creating decent jobs and stimulating economic activities".

A working definition for this study is that of Blakely and Leigh (2010:75), who offer a three-part definition of LED that focuses on the desired end state rather than growth defined objectives. They argue that:

LED is achieved when a community's standard of living can be preserved and increased through a process of human and physical development that is based on principles of equity and sustainability.

The above definition has three essential elements: *first*, economic development establishes a minimum standard of living for all and increases the standard over time. Under this element, the argument is that recognition of the need for a minimum standard of living in economic development does not only translate into job creation, however, job creation provides *living wages* (earnings for full-time work that are high enough to lift individuals and families out of poverty). The element further indicates that a rising standard of living is associated with the consumption of better goods and services, and quality housing, as well as increasing the number of households receiving paid health care plans, being able to save for retirement, and being able to provide vocation or collegiate education for their children. *Second*, economic development reduces inequality. Here the view is that while the "economic development as economic growth" approach can mean that there is more wealth and assets, it does not strive to guarantee that everyone would reap the benefits from the additions to the economy. As a result, certain groups and places are left behind and would find it difficult to maintain the standard of living they once knew because economic growth has driven up the costs of living for all. Thus, economic *development* reduces inequality between demographic groups (age, gender, race, and ethnicity) as well as spatially defined groups such as indigenous populations versus in-migrants, or old-timers versus newcomers. In like manner, it reduces inequality between different kinds of economic and political units (small towns versus large cities, inner city and suburbs, rural and urban areas). *Third*, economic development promotes and encourages sustainable resource use and production. This element holds that if economic development does not incorporate sustainability goals, then its process can create inequality between the present and future generations. Economic development requires recycling the goods cast off by an increasingly affluent and consumer oriented society, as well as greater controls on growth to stem Greenfield consumption and sprawl proliferation. Raising standards of living that are attained through sustainable

resource use and production require different approaches to economic development (increasingly characterised as green development).

The above definitions of LED show the intricacy within the concept of LED. One could deduce from the above definitions that LED is a process whereby various stakeholders engage in dialogues to combine their resources in order to stimulate economic activities in a particular area. It is crystal clear from the above definitions that LED is concerned with the creation of employment opportunities and an enabling environment. Definitions of Zaaier and Sara (1993); Blakely (1994); Nel (2001); and Scheepers and Monchusi (2002), mention specifically local governments as actors that should take a lead in managing the resources and creation of a conducive environment for the business activities to flourish. This means that a municipality such as the CoW should strengthen its LED strategy by means of conducting thorough local assessment of the economic opportunities within its area in order to solve socio-economic problems such as unemployment and poverty.

3.3 THEORIES OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

It is important to allude from the onset that LED is an evolving field hence it should be distinguished from economic growth. It is also worth stating that Blakely and Leigh (2010:76) record that most of the body of theory that historically has sought to explain regional or local economic development has not made this distinction. However, they urge students of LED planning to be familiar with this work and to take note of its continuing influence in the field.

According to Blakely and Leigh (2010:76-80), there are several partial theories that point to the historical underlying rationale of LED. The sum of these theories may be expressed as:

Local and regional development = $c \times r$, where c equals an area's capacity (economic, social, technological, and political capacity) and r equals its resources (natural resource availability, location, labour, capital investment, entrepreneurial climate, transport, communication, industrial composition, technology, size, export market, international economic situation, and national and state government spending).

A c value equalling 1 represents a neutral capacity that neither adds to nor detracts from the resources of a community. A c value greater than 1 represents a strong capacity that, when applied to (multiplied by) resources, increases them. A strong organisation that can form effective partnerships to meet the needs of the local economy can multiply resources. Whereas, a c value less than 1 represents weak community capacity (low-functioning social, political, and organisational leadership), whether due to cronyism, corruption, self-interest, disorganisation, or ineptitude, that, when applied to resources, decreases them and hampers development. Resource capacities are measured in many ways, and different theories give pre-eminence to different resources, including raw materials, infrastructure, government spending and markets, size of markets, access to money, and access to communication.

Theories of economic development have traditionally focused mainly on the r part of the equation (resources), neglecting the c part (capacity). For instance, location theories emphasise the advantages that come from being close to markets, however, central cities, though close to markets, are economically lagging because they lack the social and political capacity to take advantage of their geographical advantages (Dubé, Brunelle & Legros, 2016:144). Other theories focus mainly on infrastructure and the need to invest in any number of programmes such as building industrial parks, roads, airports, football stadium, or telecommunications hubs. Regardless of the above resources, if there are no fully developed programmes to utilise them, they will not add to the community capacity. Blakely and Leigh (2010:80) record that "...there are witnesses to thousands of rural industrial parks that have failed to attract businesses and remain empty. Thus, any theory local economic development must consider resources and capacity together". This is a scenario whereby more community capacity can make up for limited resources in LED, while a community lagging in the amount and variety of resources must work harder to use the resources available most effectively. This section explores some of the most significant theories that have been employed to explain LED outcomes and to shape planning for economic development.

3.3.1 Neoclassical economic theory

According to Blakely and Leigh (2010:81-82), this theory offers two main concepts for regional and local development, namely: *equilibrium of economic systems* and *mobility of capital*. It states that all economic systems will reach a natural equilibrium point if there is a free flow of capital with no restriction. Meaning that capital will flow from high-wage/cost to low-wage/cost areas since the latter offer a higher return on investment. In terms of local development, this would mean that shacks would draw capital because of the lower prices for property and labour sometimes in comparison to the overall market. The assumption here is that if the model could work flawlessly, then all areas would slowly attain a state of equal status in the economic system. Consequently, a huge part of this rationale has contributed to the wave of deregulation of banking, airlines, utilities, and similar services. Theoretically, all areas can compete in a deregulated market.

Furthermore, one of the neoclassical economic theorists and Noble Prize Winner, Milton Friedman, has opposed any form of government or community regulations on the movement of businesses from one area of the country to another, or even to other countries. They also compete against the restrictions on companies like those requiring minority or local equity participation, arguing that this could serve as a disincentive for companies to locate in an area (Jwa, 2017:15). They further argue that regulations in this regard would contribute to failures as well as disruption of the usual and necessary movement of capital. Moreover, they suggest that no attempts should be put forth to rescue dying or uncompetitive companies. Meaning that workers who have lost their jobs should relocate to new employment areas which would serve as an incentive to development in such places (Jwa, 2017:15).

The neoclassical economic theories are not without criticism though as there are numerous regional and LED advocates that reject the theories and the policies that come from them. Blair (1995:170) for instance, points out that the development advocated by such theories should not hide the fact that the benefits which accrue from such development is not shared equally among all groups, hence some groups benefit more than others. The theory also does not say much regarding why some areas are competitive, whereas others fail.

From the above discussion, it is clear that the positive side of this theory is that it would attract multi-national companies to set up their business in the area because there is no intervention by the government in the economy and these companies would most likely create employment opportunities for local people. The negative side of this theory is that the flocking of large companies in an area may pose serious competition to local companies and this may force them out of business. Moreover, multi-national companies often ship out their profits to the country of origin instead of investing them in the local economy, while some barely fulfil their CSR and others may pay local employees low wages and salaries. This theory would therefore not grow the economy of the CoW in a manner that would accord residents to have economic powers such as high paying jobs that would enable them to improve their standard of living.

3.3.2 Economic base theory

According to Poinot and Ruault (2018:2), “economic-base theory is a conventional theoretical framework used to describe the main short-term factors of regional (or local) economic development, with particular relevance to small regions”. The theory postulates that cash inflows that are coming from other regions, in other words external revenues, are the main sources of economic activity at local level. Blakely and Leigh (2010:82) also record that this theory suggests that a community’s economic growth is directly connected to the demand for its goods, services, and products from areas outside its local economic boundaries. It further holds that when industries that make use of local based resources such as labour and materials for the purpose of producing goods and services to export grow, it will result in the generation of local wealth and jobs. Thus it is crucial to make a distinction between “basic activities”, which make external incomes possible and therefore reinforce the entire growth process, and “non-basic activities”, which are locally provided services that strictly depend for their growth on the level of basic activities (Poinot & Ruault, 2018:2).

The LED strategies that are coming from this theory thus emphasise that priority in terms of giving aid and recruitment should be given to businesses that have a national or international market over aid to local service or non-exporting companies. The theory advises that the implementation of this model will see the inclusion of measures that reduce barriers to the establishment of export-based companies in a particular

area like tax relief and subsidy of transport facilities and telecommunications or the establishment of free-trade zones. Blakely and Leigh (2010:82) further clarify that numerous entrepreneurial and high-technology strategies which are aimed at attracting or generating new companies draw on economic based models. The basis is that non-exporting companies or local service-providing businesses will develop automatically to supply export companies or those that work in them. It is also argued that export industries have higher job multipliers compared to local service firms.

Poinsot and Ruault (2018:2) reveal that critics have pointed out that the key weakness of the economic base model is that it relies on external rather than internal demands. Therefore, it disregards the opportunities for import substitution that can bring another means of generating jobs and income in the local economy. It is also observed that the overenthusiastic application of the economic base model can lead to a skewed economy which would almost entirely be dependent upon external, global, or national market forces.

It could be deduced that this theory can contribute to the development of the local economy since people are coming from other regions in Namibia to work in the CoW and most of the companies are situated in the city and they offer goods and services to other regions in the country. This theory would unfortunately not be able to grow the economy of the CoW fully because if there is no demand for goods and services by the nearby regions it would mean no income or employment opportunities for the residents of the CoW.

3.3.3 Product cycle theory

The product based theory was first proposed by Vernon (1966), who showed how product development must take place in areas with greater wealth and capital to invest in the process of investing and developing new products, supported by local markets that can pay higher prices for a product that has not yet become standardized. Funk (2004:142) asserts that “technological discontinuities cause a period of ferment in which alternative product forms compete for dominance due to the large amount of market and technological uncertainty that exists following a technological discontinuity. New firms enter the market and competition focuses on product innovation”.

Malizia and Feser (1999:177) describe the theory as follows:

Economic development is defined as the creation of new products and the diffusion of standardized products. Development originates in the more developed region and is exported to the less-developed region through trade and then investment. Establishing a new industry in the less-developed region creates a progressive force that can help eliminate the barriers to interregional equality. Yet product cycle does not predict convergence or regional incomes; the development process can be convergent or divergent.

This theory is not applicable in the context of the CoW because the society is not worth and they would not be willing to pay higher prices for products.

3.3.4 Location theories

Location theories seek to explain how firms chooses to locate at one location and not the other. Hence this theory also provides explanations for how local economies grow or decline (Blakely & Leigh, 2010:85). The notion of the location choice was further explained by Dubé, Brunelle, and Legrosc (2016:144), who argue that the companies' location choice involves either maximising profit or minimising cost, and the company needs to choose the best possible place among a given set of choices and constraints. Blakely and Leigh (2010:85) observe that companies are able to maximise their profits by selecting locations that minimise their cost of production and of transporting goods to the market. Moreover, as part of the effort to minimise transport costs, the theory believes that a company with an end product that weighs less than its inputs will move to the source of the inputs and ship the final product to the market. Apart from the transportation costs, in today's world, the theorists have opted to use logistics as an appropriate concept in this regard. However, as far the location theory is concerned, there are also other factors that are crucial as highlighted by Blakely and Leigh (2010:86):

Beyond transportation and logistics, other factors that affect the quality or suitability of a location are labour costs, the cost of energy, availability of suppliers, communications, education and training facilities, local government quality and responsiveness, and waste management. Different firms require

differing mixes of these factors to be competitive. Therefore, communities generally attempt to manipulate the cost of several of these factors to become attractive to industrial firms.

Based on this theory, companies should set up their businesses next to their production site in order to cut on the cost associated with the transportation of goods. This means that companies situated in the CoW who are in the mining and fishing sector for instance, would most likely incur high transportation costs to get their products to the markets. This is an indication that the theory is better suited for companies providing goods and services to the local economy, therefore, companies in the CoW should focus more on the manufacturing industry.

3.3.5 Central place theory

Central place theory is a variant of location theory that is most applicable to retail activities. According to this theory, each urban centre is supported by a series of smaller places that provide resources (industries and raw materials) to the central place, which is more specialised and productive. These smaller places are in turn surrounded by even smaller places that supply and are markets for the larger places. The urban centre contains specialised retail stores that source the entire region with professional specialists such as corporate lawyers, investment bankers, and heart surgeons; and headquarters for corporations as well as non-profit organisations. When inhabitants of a very small place need a specialised product or service, they travel to the central place, though they can find many less but specialised products and services in their own community (Blakely & Leigh, 2010:88).

This theory is the most relevant and explains better the situation of local economic growth in the context of the CoW because all major services such as kidney transplantation are provided or carried out in the CoW. This means that residents of the CoW should set up more SMEs because as people will be continuously travelling to the city in search of services that are not provided in their areas they can support the local business. Therefore, it is integral that these businesses are set up at strategic locations such as next to hospitals and universities among other places.

It could be deduced that the theories of growth and development are crucial in understanding why some LED strategies fail while others succeed, as well as why institutions chose to set up businesses in certain areas as opposed to others. Overall there are pros and cons associated with the above theories of growth and development as indicated at the end of each theory. Therefore, it is important that a local authority such as the CoW utilises the central place theory in its quest to provide residents with better economic opportunities such as income, which the residents in return can use to pay for basic services provided by the municipality, which would improve their socio-economic conditions of poor communities and aid them to achieve a better quality of life.

3.4 LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Following the laying of the foundation on what is LED, it is also important to establish what strategies means in the context of this study. Strategies are "...planned actions for specific development goals of a community derived from the available opportunities-economic as well as social" (Blakely & Leigh, 2010:214). Researchers such as Helmsing (2001:64) allude that LED is made up of three main categories or strategies, namely: community economic development; locality development planning and enterprise development. However, Blakely and Leigh (2010:217) have added on human resources development thus making the categories or strategies to be four in total.

The main goal for any LED strategy is the provision of quality jobs for the contemporary population (Blakely & Leigh, 2010:215). Amid the categories, LED undertakes both supply and demand sides. The supply side policies are aimed towards businesses in terms of tax incentives and non-tax incentive forms and are either discretionary or non-discretionary (Eberts, 2005:91). Furthermore, Eberts (2005:91) elaborates that discretionary policies can be aimed at particular businesses while non-discretionary programmes involve any business that meets certain pre-specified categories. On the other hand, the demand side policies are targeted at providing an enabling environment for innovation, research and development, Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs) development and entrepreneurial activities (Musakwa, 2008:30).

Both supply and demand sides have been in existence since the 1960s and have evolved, for example, in the USA, Canada as well as in Europe and these were classified into four waves (Clarke & Gaile 1998; Friedman & Ross, 1990) cited by (Musakwa, 2008:30).

The first wave started in the 1960s to early 1980s and it focused on mobile manufacturing investment, especially on foreign direct investment. The emphasis was on hard infrastructure by investing on improving the physical environment for businesses such that it becomes attractive for business retention, expansion as well as recruitment. During this period, investment was done on building improved access to roads, airports, ports and railways for passengers and goods and services among others. Strategies that were implemented to attract investors or to attain the LED objectives during this period were such as massive grants and subsidized loans usually aimed at inward investing manufacturers and tax breaks among others (Davis & Rylance, 2005:4).

The second wave came into effect from the 1980s to mid-1990s and it was geared towards the retention and growing of the local businesses. During this period, attention was as well placed on the attraction of inward investment as one of the important avenues to strengthen the LED activities, but this time special preferences were given to specific geographic areas. To achieve the above, cities utilised strategies such as direct payments to individual businesses, business incubators/work space, advice and training SMEs, technical support and some hard and soft infrastructure investments (Davis & Rylance, 2005:4).

The third wave happened around from late 1990s to 2000 and the attention this time was placed on soft infrastructures such as provision of skills, supporting research and development, provision of business advisory services, the provision of access to capital and finance, and supporting the development of business and trade associations that would make the environment conducive for businesses. During this wave, cities also started engaging in PPPs, networking as well as the leveraging of private sector investments for the public good (Davis & Rylance, 2005:4).

The fourth wave which started from 2000 to date differs considerably from the other three waves because it focuses on integrating the local economy into the global

market, developing human capital and increased use of telecommunications (Clarke & Gaile, 1998, cited by Musakwa, 2008:30). The waves help the LED practitioner to develop a better understating of why some programmes succeed while others fail.

Scholars such as Herbers (1990) as well as Ross and Friedman (1990, cited by Eberts, 2005:91) argue that the first two waves are focusing on the supply side by offering incentives directly to institutions. While the third wave of economic development policies corresponds to the demand side policies and is targeted at enhancing regional resources to promote industry clusters (Eberts, 2005:91). Moreover, Eberts (2005:91) explains that whereas the waves signify an evolution of economic development strategies, all three types of policies are pursued simultaneously. Although Musakwa (2008:30) argues that LED has moved through the first three waves and the world is currently in the fourth wave, Davis and Rylance (2005:3) claim that elements of each wave are still practiced today. The above waves are summarised in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Classification of local economic development strategies

Component	First Wave (1960s-early 1980s)	Second Wave (1980s–Mid 1990s)	Third Wave (Late 1990s- 2000)	Forth Wave (2000 to Date)
Goal	Attract outside firms	Retention and expansion of firms	Enhance regional resources to promote industrial clusters	Enhance global competitiveness
Location of assets	Discount them to attract outside business	Reduce taxes and provide incentives to business	Build regional collaboration	Global since there are no boundaries
Business focus	Outside Firms	Assist all local firms	Create context for better relations among firms	Being internationally friendly
Human resources	Create jobs for locally unemployed people	Develop training programmes	Utilise workforce training to build businesses	Investment in human capital
Community base	Physical resources	Social and Physical resources	Leadership and development of quality environment	Build on international resources

Source: Davis and Rylance (2005:3); Clarke and Gaile (1998, cited by Musakwa, 2008:31)

Table 3.1 shows that there are consistent elements over time to the evolution of LED. Key amongst these elements is the role of local government, the private sector, the none profit sectors as well as the local community in creating opportunities to work together to improve the local economy. LED also focuses on enhancing

competitiveness, and thus increasing sustainable growth; and also on ensuring that the growth is inclusive. It also encompasses many local government and private sector functions including planning, infrastructure provision, real estate development and finance (Davis & Rylance, 2005:4).

The categories or classification of LED strategies, namely: community economic development, enterprise development, locality development planning and human resources development as outlined in Helmsing (2001:64) as well as in Blakely and Leigh (2010:217) are described below.

3.4.1 Community economic development

Community economic development (CED) is seen as a type of development that begins from the inside to the outside and its aim is to ensure the development as well as the empowerment of the individual and community (McLaughlin & Davidson, 1994, cited by Musakwa, 2008:32). CED is also a process that is spearheaded by the local people whereby they endeavour to build organisations as well as partnerships that would bring about interconnectedness of profitable companies with other interests and values, for instance, skills and education, health, housing and the environment (Helmsing, 2001:64-65). CED is a unique procedure and its uniqueness emanates from the fact that there are more local people involved, unfolding how the community should change and organisations search for habits which can make their actions and investments to reinforce the wishes as well as the intentions of the entire community (Perry, 2003, cited by Musakwa, 2008:32). Under CED, businesses have ways to accrue wealth as well as to make the local method of life much creative, inclusive, and sustainable, presently and in the future. CED therefore puts much emphasis on developing a community and includes different strategies like women empowerment, training local businesses and harnessing human capital via training (Reich, 1993, cited by Helmsing, 2003:70). Moreover, Helmsing (2003:70) argues that the main goals for CED are to: stimulate a sense of belonging, promote self-help and empowerment, contribute to the generation of self-employment, improve the living and working conditions in settlements as well as to create public and community services. Helmsing (2003:71) has classified the CED strategies into: creating local safety nets, housing

improvements and settlement patterns, basic service delivery and stimulating the local economy which are discussed below.

Creating local safety nets: Poverty in all its manifestations is a severe condition which affects countries, therefore the creation of safety nets and reduction of insecurity are essential ingredients for better LED conditions. For instance, creating a day care centre would mean that women would have more time to partake in economic activities. Whereas credit groups and savings clubs could be formed as well to meet local emergencies needs.

Housing improvement and settlement pattern: Upgrading of settlements requires improvements and installation of infrastructure such as water, electricity and sewerage pipes, especially in the informal settlements. The upgrading should be done on houses as well since a house is not just a place of residence, but it is an economic activity also.

Basic service delivery: This can be achieved through the unbundling of basic service delivery via privatisation and or on a non-profit basis which can stimulate a local economy. For example, SMEs can be contracted to provide public latrines, and the collection of waste can also be subcontracted to SMEs.

Stimulating community economy: Entry to a market led economy can be a barrier to individuals and households who lack resources to effectively produce and compete with other producers. The barrier to entry should be mitigated and the significance of the informal sector should be acknowledged. Furthermore, programmes such as credit programmes, training of SMEs as contractors of basic services and technical assistance and marketing should be carried out because they can assist those that are considered unemployable to become part of the labour force.

3.4.2 Enterprise development

According to Helmsing (2001:68), improving the economic base of an area is referred to as enterprise development. The economic base in this context denotes the businesses which are export oriented, with the destination of the exports on the other

parts of the country or it can be abroad (Helmsing, 2001:68). The exporting companies have a tendency of clustering because of the benefits that accumulate from it which includes among others companies supporting each other, reduction in the cost of transactions due to close proximity with each other, and occupation of a strategic position to lobby for good training and education (Musakwa, 2008:33). In order to improve the economic base, it is essential to attract foreign direct investment as well as supporting of invention and innovation by the local companies. Moreover, the promotion of SMEs which includes having in place allied services like finance, transport and freight, as well as promoting industrial clusters can also enhance the economic base (Helmsing, 2001:68).

The potential which accrues from industrial clusters was first discovered by Marshall (1919, cited by Musakwa, 2008:34), whereby he describes industrial clusters as when small companies which are indivisible from the similar local industry and local society concentrates. Helmsing (2003:72) observes that industrial clusters can lead to the agglomeration of economies which can make local producers to reap benefits such as specialised labour and inputs and knowledge spillover which accumulates from geographical concentration.

3.4.3 Locality development

For LED to succeed, it needs infrastructure, services as well as socio-economic capital to be in place, therefore it is essential that such substructures are given consideration during the planning phase. Helmsing (2003:73) notes that the element of locality development deals with the issues of planning as well as the attaining of the needed infrastructures plus the appropriate economic and social overhead capital. Locality development also addresses the issue of managing the whole local area with the aim of constructing physical infrastructure as well as the economic and social overhead capital in a manner that would bring up equitable development in terms of land uses and the minimisation of negatives (congestion, pollution), while maximising the positive externalities (agglomeration economies). Importantly, localities that succeed in better managing their territories can enhance local 'quality of life' and competitiveness of local economic activities.

3.4.4 Human resources development

According to Blakely and Leigh (2010:219-220), this strategic option forges connections between the employment needs of certain segments of the local population and the job-formulation process. The aim is to alter the human resources system in ways that increase opportunities for good jobs for the unemployed and underemployed in the community. The creative human capacity emphasises people as the wealth generating resources in the 21st century. The methods to be followed under human resources are outlined below:

- **Customized training:** This entails providing the employer with specific training based on the firm's requirements.
- **Creative venue development:** This can be done through the organisation of space and programmes that provide for inventors and others to expand their talents and invent new products and services in spaces provided for by local authorities.
- **Targeted placement:** This can be achieved through ensuring that employers who receive government assistance are obliged to hire qualified local personnel as the first source of employees.
- **Welfare to work:** The welfare recipients should be required to seek employment in the private sector with some local assistance and local employment institution should be designed to serve this end.
- **School-to-work programmes:** This programme is aimed at improving the prospects of young people, particularly from disadvantaged communities, to find employment while at school and/ or to link the educational process directly to the employers' needs.
- **Local employment programmes:** This is to be done through developing employment offices in the community that run training and personal skills development programmes to help especially disadvantaged social groups' gain employment or acquire increased skills.

It could be deduced that local authorities should strive to attract and retain institutions that would be able to create job opportunities in the local economy. A local authority as a key role player in the LED strategy should therefore create a conducive

environment that can attract companies to its area. This can be done by means of giving tax breaks to companies, however, a company given this incentive should not only be required to employ the locals, but such employees should also occupy management positions based on merit.

3.5 CRITICAL COMPONENTS IN LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

For any LED strategy to be successful in accomplishing its intended objectives, careful attention should be placed on these two integral components, namely: participation and partnerships. The aforementioned components are important because LED is a planning roadmap and it is also a process at the same time. When viewed as a road map, LED outlines the policy priorities as well as long and short term strategies which can stimulate the economic activities. Within this context, the participation of different stakeholders can assist to create a strategy that is inclusive and comprehensive. As a process, participatory strategy development is treated as a starting point in augmenting relationships and linkages among stakeholders that will assist with the implementation of doings. Therefore, scholars argue that participation and partnerships assist to guarantee economic growth and poverty reduction which are critical outcomes of any LED strategy (Blair, 2000:23-25; Beyer, Peterson & Sharma 2003:9). The next sub-section discusses the first critical component in the LED strategies.

3.5.1 Participation

The term participation has been used in different contexts in its everyday usage. In this thesis, participation is utilised in the context of governance as “forums for exchange that are organised for the purpose of facilitating communication between government, citizens, stakeholders and interest groups, and businesses regarding a specific decision or problem” (Beyer et al., 2003:9). It is important to organise participation as a structured process, but not as a process of public meetings and it should be focussed on particular processes. It is the responsibility of a local government to devise ways of structuring participation and it is equally expected of it

to take a lead in urging and promoting participation especially of the marginalised groups and women.

The World Bank's analysis of the City Development Strategies (cited by Beyer et al., 2003:9) are:

The accent on social inclusion and stakeholder participation finds resonance with current thinking on development, which emphasizes the importance of, firstly, taking a holistic approach, giving equal weight to economic, political, institutional, social, and cultural factors; and secondly, democracy which is seen as a vital component of development, not merely an outcome of the process of economic and social advancement.

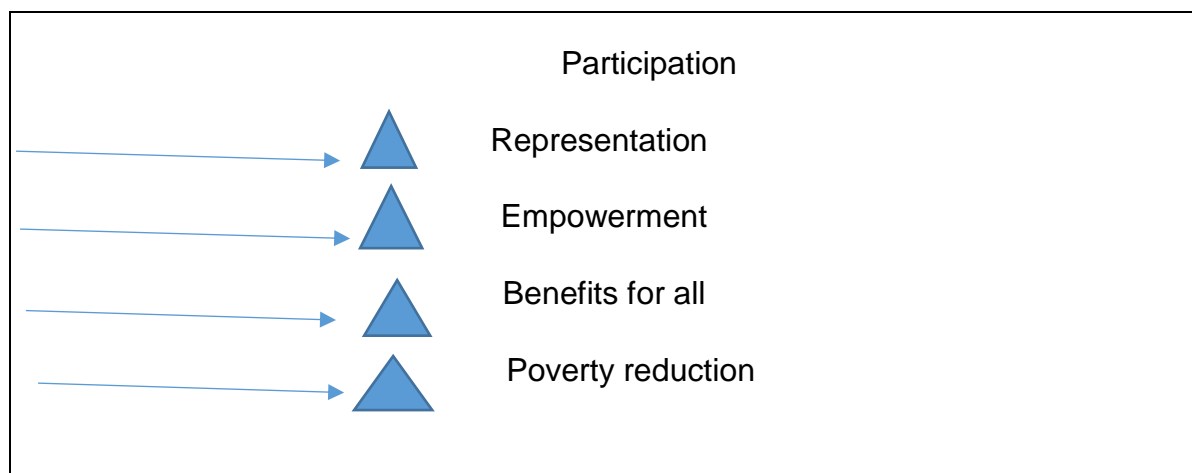
Generally, participation produces two outcomes. The first is a strengthened and enhanced democratic system. This deals with the level to which the civil society is involved in the decision-making and the guarantee that the majority voices are accounted for regarding key issues. Despite the above, Beyer et al. (2003:10) observe that there is a contestable argument regarding whether a more democratic system can result in the reduction of poverty. At a theoretical level, decentralisation combined with democratic local governance enables participation as well as extended representation. The above-mentioned arguments lead to a higher empowerment of the marginalised groups and therefore, poverty reduction. Though participation can bring about higher empowerment, there is no greater evidence that it produces poverty reduction especially in the short term (Beyer et al., 2003:10).

Participation also entails consultation with numerous actors which brings synergy of ideas that can produce better informed decision-making regarding the services provided because the economic, political, social and cultural factors have opportunities of being given equivalent weight (Blair, 2000:23). Participation though, is not without constraints. In its widest sense, participation is defined as "a form of social action that is voluntary, rational, and based on the belief that individuals (or communities) have joint interests that allow cooperative solutions" (Beyer et al., 2003:11). The short coming in this sense emanates from the fact that although the decision-making in the development of LED strategies is consultative, it is the local authority that has the

responsibility for the final word and strategy, hence this may present a barrier to ensuring that the concerns of the poor and marginalised are included.

As far as participation is concerned, there are three factors that should be considered, namely: the number of stakeholders involved, degree of participation and diversity of representation (Blair, 2000:24; Beyer et al., 2003:11). With regards to the number of stakeholders, it has been argued that too many participants can cause vague policies that lack specificity due to the consensus process and too few participants also results in biased policy and lack of buy-in. With regards to the degree of participation, it is important that coordinators of the process clearly facilitate how and what points during the process are stakeholders able to influence the process. Lastly, the diversity of representation entails that although the exclusion of groups is inevitable, coordinators must be able to categorise and define the sector of influence (Blair, 2000:24). Figure 3.1 below depicts the democratic local governance causal formula for participation.

Figure 3.1: Democratic local governance causal formula



Source: Blair (2000:23)

Figure 3.1 illustrates how participation in LED strategies can translate into poverty alleviation. For participation to be effective, there should be a fair representation whereby the masses have to give their concerns to their representatives. The fact that the masses have been consulted and are represented makes them empowered and they will also benefit since they have raised their concerns, hence this will benefit all the parties involved.

3.5.2 Partnerships

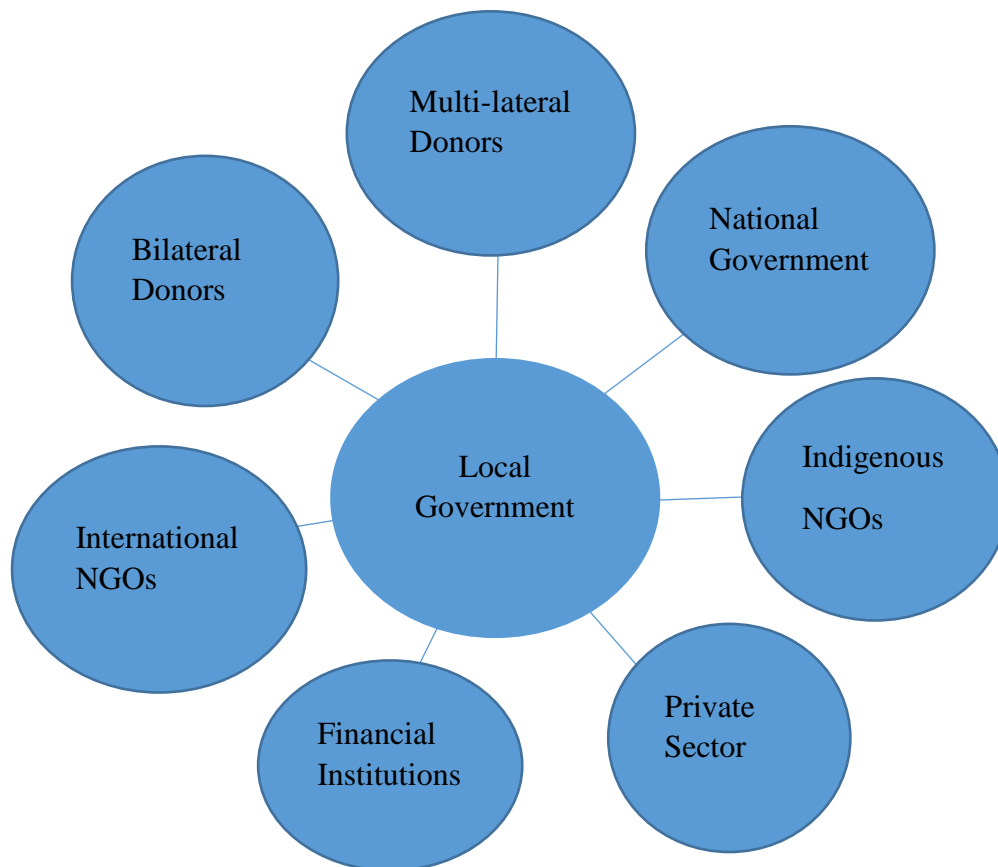
Whereas the focus of participation is on addressing the nature of inclusion and the level of civil society participation, partnership on the other hand focuses on transforming mere inclusion into working, productive and equitable relationships. According to Beyer et al. (2003:13), partnerships are “a set of institutional relationships between the government and various actors in the private sector and civil society”. In contrast to mere participation, partnerships entail a more formal institutional relationship with clearly defined roles and responsibilities for each stakeholder.

Beyer et al. (2003:14) further argue that “successful LED strategies are often created under a central government’s commitment to decentralise because it can enable the emergence of new partnerships. Decentralisation facilitates a redesign of relationships between the national and sub-national governments and between government and private sector and civil society”. Brinkerhoff (1999:62) states that:

By allocating authority to regional and local levels, decentralization ensures that non-state actors will have someone to enter into partnership with. Decentralization through privatization in essence creates partnerships with private sector actors by narrowing the scope of government’s role in goods production and service delivery, and opening up the playing field to private business. To the extent that decentralized relationships already exist that support and promote local autonomy and cross-sectoral collaboration, partnerships can more easily form and operate effectively.

Once partnerships begin to develop around implementing activities, the local government should in some way be involved, even if it is only in a monitoring or support role. According to Beyer et al. (2003:15), partnerships can be a combination of these stakeholders: the civil society partnerships (the private sector working with citizen’s groups toward a common goal; national – sub-national partnerships (different levels of government working together towards a common goal); sub-national – private sector partnerships (local government working with the private sector towards a common goal); financial institution – civil society partnerships (financial institutions working with indigenous non-governmental organisations towards a common goal).

Figure 3.2: Stakeholder partnerships for the implementation of LED activities



Source: Beyer et al. (2003:15)

Figure 3.2 shows stakeholder partnerships for the implementation of LED activities. The local government as the institution leading the LED strategy is surrounded by various institutions that it needs to work with in a partnership arrangement to stimulate the economic activities within its area. The partners range from those that will bring on human resources in terms of knowledge and skills to those that have financial muscles to stimulate the local economy.

From the above discussion it can be deduced that participation and partnerships are key to a successful LED strategy. Participation presents opportunities to stakeholders to point out the activities which they want the municipality to embark upon in order to stimulate the local economy. It is therefore important that the CoW should encourage all stakeholders to participate in its LED strategy by inviting them to meetings that should be held during weekends so that all stakeholders will be able to attend and give

their inputs. Partnerships on the other hand, bring together resources such as human and financial that are crucial to the success of an LED strategy. Therefore, implementing institutions should strengthen the partnerships by means of explaining the significance of the LED to the partners as well as why their involvement is crucial for the success of the LED strategy.

3.6 LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS

The LED strategic planning process is made up of five stages which are normally presented as separate stages, but practically, the LED strategic planning process is flexible and as such one stage often continues in parallel with another according to local needs. Consequently, if problems are experienced during a specific stage, it may not be a consequence of work in that stage but this might be because of the inaccuracy of a preceding stage. In this case, the preceding and following stages may need to be revised to resolve the problems (Swinburn, Goga & Murphy, 2004:4). Scholars such as Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:2) clearly put it that the five stages in the LED strategic planning process should be used as a basis for guiding a flexible re-iterative process rather than a strait jacket to be followed without any local improvisation. This means that the strategy should be able to be adjusted in order to address particular circumstances. The LED strategic planning process is made up of five stages, namely: organising the effort, local economy assessment, strategy making, strategy implementation, and lastly strategy review (Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:7; Swinburn et al., 2004:4; Swinburn, 2006:7). These five stages are discussed below.

3.6.1 Stage 1: Organising the effort

According to Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:3), one of the best ways to organise an LED strategy is to make sure that institutional arrangements and stakeholder involvement is decided from the onset of the planning process. It is also important that an LED team is established at an agreed place and the team should take a lead in managing the strategic planning process. Under this stage, Swinburn et al. (2004:4) observe that successful LED requires the collaborative exertion of various stakeholders, namely: public (governmental), private (business) and non-

governmental (NGOs, trade unions, social, civic, religious) sectors. They further clarify that the strategic planning process starts by identifying the people, public institutions, businesses, industries, civic organisations, professional organisations, think-tanks, training institutions and other groups that comprise and/or impact the local economy.

Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:3) note that stakeholder groups bring skills, experiences, and resources that contribute immensely to the overall strategic planning process. Hence, the establishment of strong working relationships and organisational structures to support the strategy planning process will lead to beneficial long-term, public, private and non-governmental partnerships. This stage is made up of 5 steps which are vital for the overall success of this stage and they are discussed below:

Step 1: Identify the LED team leader and establish a council staff team

What happens within this step is that somebody, an individual or organisation, needs to take the lead in initiating the LED strategic planning process. The flexibility of stakeholders involved in the LED strategic planning process needs to be taken into consideration when deciding on the team leader. Hence, it is recommended that a local authority, a department of the local authority or an officer of the local authority, spearheads this process because while other stakeholders are able to relocate their operations, a local authority would be unable to do so since it needs to be geographically designed and would most likely already have some contact with all participants (Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:3).

Step 2: Establish a political process in council

The effective implementation of any LED strategy will need intensive political exertion and backing. The above can be achieved through the involvement of the political leaders such as the mayor, councillors and community leaders among others, who can help to put the LED strategy at an advantage position to recoup benefits of both the political support and commitment which are essential to acquire the necessary resources needed for effective implementation (Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:3). Moreover, it was discovered that it is worth a while for the leadership and responsibility of the LED strategy to be entrusted to a local political leader, for instance the

Chairperson of the Finance and General Purposes Committee. Chitembo and Silumessii (2011:3) further argue that the aforesaid is important because the committee supervises the policy direction of the municipality as well as the allocation of the resources. Equally important at this step is the inclusivity of the LED strategy reporting process in the yearly decision making cycle.

Step 3: Develop a stakeholder partnership group

The LED stakeholders consist of “individuals, businesses, organisations or groups in the public, private and not-for-profit sectors that have an interest in strategizing and implementing LED programmes and projects” (Chitembo and Silumesii, 2011:4). It is pivotal that the above mentioned stakeholders are involved in the LED process from strategy formulation to programme and project implementation, to monitoring and evaluation, since their involvement can increase the following:

- credibility, equity and transparency by opening the planning process to the public;
- effectiveness as it is easier to understand the real (economic) needs when the beneficiaries are involved. It also contributes to building support and overcoming resistance and mistrust; and
- efficiency as stakeholders can mobilise their own resources to support and promote local economic development.

The final configuration of the stakeholder group must be strongminded by a strategic assessment of the local economy and the key local economic actors themselves. Potential stakeholders in the LED process are as follows: public sector (local authorities including technical departments, regional government and institutions of research and higher learning), private sector (large corporations, trade unions, SMEs, land and real estate developers, banks and other financial groups, chambers of commerce, news media, professional associations, private education establishments and think tanks) and the community sector (community leaders, neighbourhood groups and community service organisations) (Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:6).

Step 4: Develop systems to work with other tiers of government

According to Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:6), the various tiers of government, namely: central, regional and local, have a pivotal role to play in creating an enabling environment that is conducive for LED. Hence, it is appropriate that the aforementioned spheres of government should be included in the strategic planning process when essential. On the other hand, it is also important to look beyond the local arena to other programmes, plans, rules and regulations that will impact the LED agenda in addition to the relationships that the LED has with other local plans. The above includes national policies and laws such as:

- telecommunications deregulation;
- financial regulations;
- environmental standards;
- taxation;
- land and property laws;
- national infrastructure investment plans;
- decentralisation policy, laws and their operating frameworks;
- expenditure and revenue assignments; and
- intergovernmental fiscal relations.

They also note that regional initiatives permit authorities to pool resources and gain synergies from working in partnership with nearby local authorities. The LED task team should therefore look to establish or build on inter-governmental work that is already occurring so that new programmes and initiatives can be initiated and influenced.

Step 5: Consider the appropriate type of organisation to develop LED strategies and projects

One of the greatest tasks in the LED strategic planning process is the formation of a suitable organisational arrangement to develop and implement LED. Although this task is important, it is not always necessary that it should be decided at the beginning of the strategy making process. It can be established during the course of developing the strategy. The preferred institutional location where an LED could be located within a municipality are such as in the Town Clerk's office and planning or engineering (works)

departments. Additionally, an independent or semi-independent Local Economic Development Agencies (LEDAs) have the potential for improved coordination and synergy with different governmental and non-governmental entities (Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:6).

3.6.2 Stage 2: Local economy assessment

Knowing the characteristics of the local economy is essential because it helps the stakeholders to identify and agree on a realistic, practical and achievable LED strategy. In order to achieve this, one has to elicit key data on the local economy, hence an effective local economy assessment will first conduct an appraisal of the current economic relationship and activities in a particular area, and will use the obtainable quantitative and qualitative information that shows the current structures and trends in areas such as business development, manufacturing, employment, skills as well as other information that will aid to classify the strategic direction of the local economy. Another issue to be considered under the local economy assessment stage is the administrative jurisdiction or the municipal boundary. The assessment of the local economy should not be confined to the area of administrative jurisdiction or the municipal boundary, therefore the information to be collected could highlight particular programmes and projects that could expand the local economic base since some area might consist of metropolitan region, a travel to work area, or a city (World Bank, 2003:8; Swinburn et al., 2004:5; Begin-Gillis, Sam., & Yule, 2014:8-10).

Part of the introductory works that need to be carried out under this stage is the determination of what information is relevant, required and obtainable, as well as the identification of the unclear, and missing information that will be essential for the local economy assessment. Once the necessary information is obtained, it will be essential to organise and analyse the information in order to provide a profile of the local economy assessment using tools such as the strength weaknesses opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis, benchmarking, and regional economic indicators (World Bank, 2003:8; Swinburn et al., 2004:5).

A SWOT analysis is one of the commonly used local economic assessment tools since it identifies and analyses four essential elements of a local authority that is

implementing a LED strategy. The aim of this tool is to discover the type of local assets that are at the disposal of a local authority and this is seen as a strength. It also points out the obstacles that would most likely hinder the growth of the local economy and this is classified as a weakness of a local authority. The two elements (strength and weakness) are also referred as internal environment aspects. The other two elements (opportunities and threats) are external environment issues that are concerned with the favourable and unfavourable exogenous faced by a local authority (Swinburn et al., 2004:5).

Additionally, the assessment should take cognisance of LED opportunities across the main sectors counting the formal, informal and community sectors. Moreover, the quality of the data to be collected will be strongminded by the available budget and the nature of the local economy. In the third world countries, the information about the economy is usually obtainable at the national level. Furthermore, collecting comprehensive data on the local economy can be an expensive exercise that municipalities that do not have sufficient funds will found difficult to carry out this responsibility (Swinburn et al., 2004:5). This stage of the LED strategic planning process can be divided into five steps.

Step 1: Undertake a review of regulations/procedures that affect businesses

According to Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:7), under this step it is important that a local authority improves the processes and procedures to which businesses are subjected to by itself. To carry out the above function effectively, there is a need for an initial assessment to be conducted and such assessment should review all the features of a local authority contract and interaction with businesses. Among other issues that need to be reviewed in this case is the business registration, taxation and most importantly the interaction between business customers with local authority staff as well as the local authority's staff responsiveness to the concerns and requests of the business.

Step 2: Identify the data to be collected

According to Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:7-8), when it comes to the data that needs to be collected, there are some factors that need to be taken into consideration. These are such as:

- the level and detail of existing information that can be used;
- the ease with which new information can be collected;
- the cost of collecting such information in both time and resources;
- the ability to analyse and translate the information into a meaningful LED strategy once collected; and
- the practical application (usefulness and validity) of the information.

The LED information collected is primarily used for the purposes of informing the public officials, building public awareness as well as for the support of LED goals and activities. Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:7-8) argue that it will not be easy to rouse interest in the LED activities if there is no particular information that can generate the interest. The types of information that needs to be collected in this regard are such as:

Demographic information: This type of information is about people in a community and it is important because it offers a foundation for understanding the demographic profile of the locality, its social needs as well as current and future trends. Hence, the conviction in this regard is that a breakdown of demographic information will offer a full understanding of the factors related to the local economy.

Economic information: Here the focus is on capturing the information that will give an understanding of the structure, characteristics as well as the nature of the local economy. The effective way of doing this is through the classification of the local economic information in accordance with the industrial sector, as it can give insights in terms of the performance of the local economy, especially how it is interlinked, which sectors are flourishing, which ones are deteriorating, where more prevalent business opportunities are situated as well as the aggregate value of local productive chains. It is also vital to gather labour market information since it can give a workforce profile that outlines issues such as skills levels and shortages which are still in decline as well as LED trends. In order to thoroughly understand how the local economy operates, it

is imperative that one understands first the nature and extent of the informal sector economy. It is significant to understand how the informal sector contributes to and operates with the formal sectors and how to increase the productive qualities of the activities.

Business enabling environment information: This is the type of information that shows whether a local authority through its actions and activities has endeavoured to create a business-enabling environment support or hinders business activities in both the formal and informal sectors. As such, this information sheds light on business success and failure; the types of business that are in the area, the perception of the business on the council's support of the local business community, etc.

Hard infrastructure: This is concerned with the prestige of issues such as transportation, telecommunications, gas, water, electricity and wastewater provision. This information therefore can be used to point out the current and future infrastructure deficiencies as well as the needs, and this helps to prioritise investments in infrastructure of LED.

Regional, national and international information: Analysing information pertaining to the regional, national and international economy aids to identify new markets as well as opportunities for business development. Hence, the understanding of the economic linkages makes it possible to identify those activities that need to be strengthened to capture value that is realised outside the local economy.

Institutional assessment: One of the key issues that will determine the LED effort is the quality of local institutions. This does not only concern the local authority, but it also considers major LED partners, for instance the service providers as well as the civil society organisations. The assessment of the capacity, performance and governance of the key institutions in the LED process is significant as it assists in putting into place the relevant measures to improve their ability to deliver LED.

Step 3: Undertake an audit of data and gather data

This step is concerned with the review of the strategically important information that has been collected as well as its analysis thereof. A pilot valuation should be able to determine accessible quantitative and qualitative information on the sources, structures and trends in production and employment, skills as well as other LED resources and point out gaps in information. The information should be able to identify the possible programmes as well as projects that could strengthen the economic base of the local area.

Step 4: Develop a plan to fill information gaps

Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:8) posit that the needed information is endless, but due to the scarcity of it, this demand cannot always be met. It is therefore recommended that the shortage of information should not be treated as a means to an end, but the release and effective utilisation of the available information in this regard would be sufficient in the primary steps in the process. The identified gaps should be encompassed into a strategy that should be advocated by the local authorities and other various stakeholders in the LED to fill the identified knowledge gaps over the future. Equally important within this step in the identification of significant information gaps, if it is recognised, it is important that focus groups of key business and other stakeholders should be brought in to at least discuss a qualitative opinion on the matter.

Step 5: Analyse data and produce a local economy assessment

This is the last step in the second stage of the LED strategic planning process and it deals with the analysis of the collected information to enable the assessment of the community's economic situation. This step should be carried out by an experienced LED expert or a similar professional and it is of utmost significance that stakeholders' input should be included in the establishment of the core advisory team that should at least consist of a maximum of six representatives from different stakeholder groups.

The main function for this advisory team should be to guide and debate findings with the consultant, and they should play an integral role in communicating the findings with broader audiences of stakeholders (Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:8).

3.6.3 Stage 3: Strategy making

The aim for formulating a strategy is to achieve an integrated approach to LED strategic planning. The formulation of a strategy therefore assists the practitioners in a municipality and principal stakeholder groups to balance the LED with environmental as well as social needs (World Bank, 2003:9). In its classic form, an LED strategy consists of these elements, namely: vision, goals, objectives, programmes, projects and action plans (Swinburn et al., 2004:6). These elements are discussed under the steps below.

Step 1: Creating a vision

A vision reflects the views of the stakeholders on their preferred economic future for the community. This means that it is a description of where a municipality, town council or community desires to be in the future and it is usually a three, five or sometimes eight year plan. A vision is important because although it might not be fully attainable, it presents a clear sense of direction to the community. Hence, a vision should be imaginative as well as realistic. This implies that a vision should incorporate and reflect fundamental matters outlined in the local economy assessment (World Bank, 2003:9).

Step 2: Develop goals

In this step, Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:13) proffer that goals show particular outcomes that the community seeks to achieve and they are also descriptive and concrete in comparison to a vision statement, hence it is associated to the findings from the local economy assessment and goals assist with the achievement of the vision. It is argued that good practices ensure that a manageable number of goals are six or less.

Step 3: Develop objectives

Objectives should be very specific, time bound and measurable. In doing the aforesaid, the obvious purpose is to "...take advantage of strengths, overcome weaknesses, exploit opportunities and deal with threats identified during the local economy assessment" (Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:13). Thus, Begin-Gillis et al. (2014:25) therefore argue that it is vital that the formulated objectives should be SMARTER (Specific, Measurable, Agreed, Realistic, Time-Bound, Ethical and Resourced):

Specific: The key questions here are what exactly the goal intended to achieve? Does it contribute to the achievement of the vision? Hence, it is argued that good goal statements should thus explain: what, why, who, where and when. A vague goal statement should be avoided because it will be difficult to define success, consequently it will be hard to achieve as well.

Measurable: There should be a possibility of monitoring the progress and to measure the outcome of the goal. Good goal statements should be able to answer the questions with regards to how much or how many. Especially how will the municipality know not only when the goal is achieved (the terminal result), but also how much progress towards the goal has been achieved at specified intervals (mid-term results)?

Agreed upon: Due to the multi-disciplinary and inter-institutional character of the main stakeholders that are involved in developing and formulating the LED strategy, the goals framed must be relevant to and be agreed with all parties involved.

Realistic: The goal should be widening, however realistic and relevant to the needs of the community.

Time-bound: Goals must have a deadline as it would assist in shedding light on when will the goal be achieved?

Ethical: Goals must comfortably be within the confinement of the institutional and community moral compass.

Resourced: The LED associates must be prepared to obligate sufficient resources to attain the goals set. This may include issues such as time (skills), money, information, sources or property.

Step 4: Develop programmes

After the completion of the local economy assessment and the determination of the vision, goals and objectives, a community should decide upon the key programmes that will become the core of its strategy (Begin-Gillis et al., 2014:26).

Step 5: Select projects

Here the starting point would be to propose and select projects on the foundation of clear criteria within each programme area. Each possible LED project should be evaluated to determine whether it meets the broader LED goals, objectives as well as priorities that were discussed and agreed by the stakeholders. The consideration of the mode of delivering the agreed project is also relevant to ensure that it is a mode that optimises the objectives of the LED (Begin-Gillis et al., 2014:26).

Step 6: Documenting the strategy

The last step involved in strategy making is the documentation and publishing of the strategy to enable consultation when necessary during various stages especially when drafting the LED strategy and after the completion of the LEA. Dissemination and public consultation in a public forum setting will serve to bring forward ideas and inputs from the broader community. Once the entire strategy has been agreed and has encompassed complete discussion of the nature and selection of LED projects, a reviewed form of these documents should be made available to all members of the community through the local media including the printed copy, radio, municipal website as well as other formats essential to inform the local community. The feedback on the LED strategy should be encouraged and practically taken into consideration (World Bank, 2003:10; Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:13; Begin-Gillis et al., 2014:26).

3.6.4 Stage 4: Strategy implementation

An LED strategy is an overall plan consisting of short, medium or long-term aims and actions and it sets out what is going to be achieved. This stage has two important plans, namely: implementation plan and action plans. The former is concerned with

setting out the budgetary and human resource requirements, and institutional as well as procedural implications of implementing the LED strategy. It also serves as an integrated programming document to maintain clarity of strategy direction, and ensures that programmes and projects do not inappropriately compete for resources and support. Whereas the later provides specific details on project components including a hierarchy of tasks, responsible parties, a realistic delivery timetable, human resource and financial needs, sources of funding, expected impacts, results, performance measures and systems for evaluating progress for each project (World Bank, 2003:10-11; Swinburn et al., 2004:6). There are five steps that are involved in implementing the LED strategy.

Step 1: Prepare an overall LED strategy implementation plan for all programmes and projects

The implementation planning begins as soon as the LED programmes and projects have been selected. Strategy implementation is driven by a broad implementation plan, which in turn is driven by individual project action plans (PAP). In addition, implementation plans play a vital role as a final mediator amid different projects as well as their action plans to ensure a fair completion of resources. Moreover, it supplies critical data pertaining to monitoring and evaluation to all parties that are involved especially the municipality's Chief Executive Officer (CEO) as well as the Mayor who will eventually account to the greater levels of government as well as to the community (Swinburn et al., 2004:6; Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:13).

Step 2: Prepare individual project action plans

Once programme and project selection as well as prioritisation have been completed, it is essential to detail the activities that need to be carried out to implement each project. This should provide the PAP for operationalising each project (Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:13).

Step 3: Build institutional frameworks for LED implementation and monitoring

One of the best ways to support the implementation and monitoring of the LED is through the establishment and maintaining of the formal and informal links with all the stakeholders. This is because the building of good working relationships as well as trust amid partners help in the process of managing perspectives as well as opposing agenda. Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:4) discover that the majority of comprehensive LED strategies have come into existence as a result of public-private sector partnerships which are spearheaded by stakeholders such as the municipality, private sector as well as community groups.

Step 4: Ensure that relevant inputs are available

It is important to guarantee that when implementing the LED strategy all the needed inputs are available and in place before the commencement of strategy implementation. Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:4) allude that “LED implementation requires a commitment of resources, time and political support, and securing and maintaining such inputs will determine effectiveness to achieve programmes and projects, and therefore the overall vision”. Hence it is vital for the LED to have the local political support to ensure that its implementation can be realised. The task to lobby the political support is in the hands of the municipal leaders who are expected to use their influence to create and nurture numerous levels of partnerships as well as networks that can assist the LED process in ensuring that it has the necessary required resources for its effective execution. Swinburn et al. (2004:7) as well as Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:4), advise that it is important to involve the political leaders of all the parties in LED strategy discussions because a municipality can greatly improve the chances of strategy success and longevity by identifying the need for a programme or policy and its beneficiaries, and establishing necessary resource requirements. Moreover, the political support will promote international donors, the private sector, and non-governmental organisations which would build internal and external momentum and inspire support. Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:5) argue that “it is also important that the municipality fully understands that LED is a potential contributor to future revenue growth, and recognises the connection between successful LED, increased local economic activity and municipal budget growth”.

Step 5: Carry out tasks in project action plans

When delivering the PAP, it is important that all the main partners that were originally identified as beneficiaries or possible contributors to the project are still available to support the project. Before the start of project implementation, project managers will preferably have been selected and charged with responsibility for each project. During the implementation of the project, constant review should be undertaken to ensure that the project is delivering its stated aims and desired outputs.

3.6.5 Stage 5: Strategy review

Generally, an LED strategy is normally written for a period of three to eight years. However, there is a need to review the strategy annually so as to enable adjustments where necessary in order to meet the changing needs of the local conditions. It is important that a comprehensive review is carried out after every three years. With regards to the implementation of the LED strategy, the process needs to be subjected to a vigorous annual assessment. The review should take into consideration the availability of resources, particularly those needed for the delivery of the strategy inclusive of the established and agreed monitoring and evaluation indicators of the local economy. Furthermore, it is necessary that the review should include, where likely, inputs, outputs, outcomes and impacts, and also the implementation process and the level and extent of stakeholder participation (World Bank, 2003:12; Swinburn et al., 2004:7; Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:6; Begin-Gillis et al., 2014:28). This stage can be narrowed down into five steps as presented below:

Step 1: What? Why? When?

The first step acknowledges that although LED is comparatively a fresh discipline, evidence shows that bad practices illustrate that there has been mistakes in the past. According to Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:6), the mistakes could be more or less associated with the following potential causes:

- politics (including exclusion of key interest groups, inappropriate zoning);

- lack of commitment by Project Managers because they are not held regularly accountable;
- lack of strategic thought (resulting in inappropriate strategies);
- inadequate funding, research, monitoring and evaluation (resulting in inappropriate strategies and initiatives);
- grant chasing; and,
- following the latest trend.

Step 2: Monitoring

Monitoring is concerned with the incessant assessment of a strategy or project implementation in accordance with the agreed schedules, as well as the issues of the use of inputs, infrastructure, and services by project beneficiaries. Monitoring is crucial because it provides managers and other stakeholders with incessant feedback on implementation. It also identifies actual or potential successes and problems in their infancy stages in order to enable a timely facilitation of adjustments to project operation (Swinburn et al., 2004:7).

Step 3: Evaluation

According to Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:7), “evaluation is the periodic assessment of a project’s relevance, performance, efficiency, and impact (expected or unexpected, positive or negative) in relation to stated objectives”. In general, the project manager carries out temporary evaluations during the time of implementation, which serves as a primary review of the progress, a forecast of a project’s probable effects, as well as the means of identifying essential adjustments in project design. Evaluation is an important process because it tests the design of a project, and this helps to draw deductions and make judgements. In order to achieve the aforementioned, evaluations therefore focus on the effectiveness of a particular programme/project which is a fundamental landmark in the cycle. Evaluation is usually divided into two categories, the process evaluation which focuses on the implementation of the programme or project, whereas the outcome evaluation focuses on the programme results.

Programme evaluation is also concerned with how a programme can be improved while outcome evaluation is concerned with whether the programme actually works.

Step 4: Institutional arrangements

When this step is carried out, the purpose is to determine the institutional arrangements for measuring progress. Hence one needs to focus on the people, processes and events that will be essential for measuring progress at both the strategy and the individual projects and programmes levels (Swinburn et al., 2004:7).

Step 5: Strategy review and the planning process

Monitoring should not be an afterthought that is undertaken at the end of an LED strategic planning process, but it should be incorporated into each stage and step of the planning process. Evaluation can happen at interval, however, it can only occur if good monitoring information is available. Lastly, evaluation should lead to the review of a strategy and its projects (Swinburn et al., 2004:7).

The above discussed LED strategic planning process is illustrated in table 3.2 below. The table shows the stages as well as the steps that are involved under each stage.

Table 3.2: LED process planning, implementation and review summary

LED strategic planning	
Stages	Steps
Stage 1: Organising the effort	Step 1: Identify the LED team leader and establish a council staff team
	Step 2: Establish a political process in council
	Step 3: Develop a stakeholder partnership group
	Step 4: Develop systems to work with other tiers of government
	Step 5: Consider the appropriate type of organisation to develop LED strategies and projects
	Step 1: Undertake a review of regulations and procedures that affect businesses in council
	Step 2: Identify the types of data to be collected

Stage 2: Local economy assessment	Step 3: Undertake an audit of available data and gap analysis, and gather data
	Step 4: Develop a plan to fill information gaps
	Step 5: Analyse data and produce an assessment of the local economy from available data
Stage 3: Strategy making	Step 1: Create a vision: an agreed stakeholders' consensus on the preferred economic future of the community
	Step 2: Develop goals: identify key priority areas of action to meet the vision; specify the desired outcomes of the LED planning process
	Step 3: Develop objectives: set performance standards and targets for development; they are time bound and measurable
	Step 4: Develop programmes: define and group together similar projects that collectively achieve particular objectives
	Step 5: Select projects: implement specific programme components; they are prioritised, costed, time bound and measurable
Stage 4: Strategy implementation	Step 1: Prepare an overall LED strategy implementation plan for all programmes and projects
	Step 2: Prepare individual project action plans
	Step 3: Build institutional frameworks for LED implementation and monitoring
	Step 4: Ensure that relevant inputs are available
	Step 5: Carry out tasks in project action plans
Stage 5: Strategy review	Step 1: What? Why? When?
	Step 2: Monitoring
	Step 3: Evaluation
	Step 4: Institutional arrangements
	Step 5: Strategy review and the planning process

Source: Chitembo and Silumesii, (2011:7); Swinburn et al., (2004:4); Swinburn, 2006:7).

From the above discussion, it is clear that the LED strategic planning is a comprehensive process with critical steps under each stage which should be followed by the implementing organisation. Moreover, this is a cumbersome process that requires competent and qualified people to ensure its success. Therefore, it is important that institutions appoint the right person with passion in the right position

(RPPRP). Additionally, regular assessments of the economy are needed to reflect changes on the local economy and to identify the productive sector that an LED strategy can focus on. Furthermore, it is important to review the strategy as it helps the municipality to evaluate the progress of its LED strategy especially the possibility of potential mistakes during the implementation phase and how the anomalies could be corrected. Therefore, it is imperative that the implementing institution should also focus on the content, context, commitment, capacity and client/coalition (5-C protocol) of policy implementation to ensure a successful application of the LED strategy. Above all, the implementing local authority must have the political will to commit the funds towards the LED strategic planning process if the strategy is to succeed.

3.7 CONCLUSION

The chapter focused on LED strategies by analysing the origin and meaning of the concept. LED started from the high-income countries of the North and thereafter it moved to the less developed countries in the South. African cities are full of economic opportunities despite the barriers posed by the weak entrepreneurial activities and urban government revenue bases. LED is only achieved if the community's standard of living can be preserved and increased via human and physical development which is founded on the element of equity and sustainability. The main LED strategies are community economic development, enterprise development, locality planning and human resources development. The essential elements that should be given careful consideration in LED strategies are participation and partnerships. The LED strategic planning process is made up of 5 stages, namely: organising the effort, local economy assessment, strategy making, strategy implementation and strategy review. Each stage has various steps under it. The process is cumbersome and requires the RPPRP for its success.

The next chapter discusses poverty alleviation and better quality of life.

CHAPTER FOUR: POVERTY ALLEVIATION AND BETTER QUALITY OF LIFE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter two dealt with the conceptual, theoretical, legislative and policy framework for poverty alleviation. The chapter conceptualises the meaning and measurement of poverty, whereby it outlines the qualitative and quantitative techniques for measuring poverty. It also discusses the various theories of poverty alleviation by pointing out the causes of poverty and the anti-poverty strategies that can be used by the government for the alleviation of the daunting problem of poverty.

In chapter three, the emphasis was on exploring how LED strategies can be interventions for alleviating poverty. The chapter established the meaning of LED and outlined the theories of growth and development that explain the success and failures of LED strategies as well as the stimulus for local economic activities. An essential component of this chapter was the summary of the LED strategic planning process which presented the guidelines to be followed by the implementing institution.

Chapter four seeks to investigate whether the alleviation of poverty can translate into better quality of life for the citizens. In so doing, the chapter discusses the social phenomenon of the poverty deprivation traps and it also provides a contextualisation of better quality of life among others. The chapter marks the final conceptual framework based on global and international perspectives.

It is worth noting from the onset that being in poverty is a situation that can yield different problems which include not having sufficient resources, for instance, money to spend on basic needs such as food, clothes and housing, which sometimes results in homelessness. The social phenomenon of poverty in itself also entails coping with inadequate lifestyle choices that may consequently result in social exclusion. Also given the fact that poverty is a multifaceted concept, it becomes difficult for anybody to be exempted from it and hence it has become apparent that everybody may experience poverty at some point in their lives. It is argued that some groups of people such as single-parent families and families with many children or elderly people, as well as disabled people among others are more at risk of poverty. Moreover, poor people endure problems such as poor health and reduced access to healthcare;

reduced access to education, training and leisure activities; financial exclusion and high levels of debt; and limited access to modern technology such as the internet (Van Bruggen, Kantartzis, & Rowan, 2010:23). They also believe that the aforesaid problems make it difficult for the poor people to break out of poverty.

Gildenhuis (1997:2) argues that the goal of a modern local government is to create the necessary conditions within its municipality and within the limits of its legal jurisdiction for promoting a satisfactory quality of life for each of its citizens. The local government cannot be expected to create a satisfactory quality of life and neither should it be expected to develop people. It is the task of the people to pull themselves up by their bootstraps, develop themselves and create their own satisfactory quality of life according to their personal, physical and mental abilities. The task of a local government in this process is to create favourable circumstances to allow such personal development. Gildenhuis (1997:2) further advises that the attainment of a satisfactory quality of life by all citizens demands an urban environment that provides equal opportunities for each individual to develop, maintain and enjoy a satisfactory quality of life, without threats and constraints from outside his or her personal environment. The remainder of this chapter focuses on poverty deprivation traps, the keys to escape the traps, and it discusses quality of life which clarifies the notion of better quality of life.

4.2 POVERTY DEPRAVATION TRAPS

This section discusses the social phenomenon of the poverty deprivation traps since these traps influence the socio-economic conditions of the community and affect the quality of life of residents. According to Smith (2005:11), the poverty trap is sometimes referred to as “structural poverty” since it is not a provisional problem that people can eventually escape from through sustained efforts because it is more than a lack of income. This is because the present condition of poverty makes it likely that poverty will continue tomorrow. Azariadis and Stachurski (2005, cited by Ikegami et al., 2016:4), define a poverty trap as a “self-reinforcing mechanism which causes poverty to persist.” Durlauf (2002:143) tackle the issue of poverty traps from an economist point of view, whereby he suggests that “formally, poverty traps are limiting cases of

economic immobility or are states in which the persistence of economic conditions is arbitrarily long”.

These definitions and in particular that of Azariadis and Stachurski (2005) signifies a difference between poverty trap and chronic poverty. According to the South African Human Right Commission (2014:21), “chronic poverty suggests only the observation of a given unit below the poverty threshold over sequential periods while a poverty trap recognises that a particular mechanism sustains this condition. Chronic poverty is thus necessary, but not sufficient, for the existence of poverty traps”.

Moreover, it is worth noting that poverty traps can be found at various levels, affecting individuals, communities or even entire nations. Poverty traps may be ‘single equilibrium’ or ‘multiple equilibrium in nature’. In the context of ‘single equilibrium’, it means that the mechanisms giving rise to poverty traps are of a systemic nature, arising from the institutional setting in which economic activities occur or, perhaps, geographic and spatial factors shared by the majority of a given country’s population. In other words, the phrase ‘single equilibrium’ suggests that given all the structural conditions of the economy, growth that brings about improvements in the welfare of the general population cannot occur endogenously because the ability to escape the clutches of poverty is simply not there. Multiple equilibrium poverty traps differ from single equilibrium traps in that diverging welfare outcomes may be observed within the given country or region under consideration. Furthermore, in such instances, the particular welfare outcome that obtains for a given individual or household is not solely dependent on the invariant characteristics of the person or her environment (Barret & Carter, 2013:978; South African Human Right Commission, 2014:21).

Smith (2005:11) notes that the main aspects of the poverty deprivation traps are where “people suffer from malnutrition, poor health, and illiteracy; live in environmentally degraded areas; have little political voice; and attempt to earn a meagre living on small and marginal farms or in dilapidated urban slums in which conditions make significant growth of incomes exceedingly difficult”. The extreme conditions therefore imply that the children are also likely to be trapped in poverty when they grow up. Smith (2005:12-17), Barrett, Carter and Ikgami, (2008:2-3) and the South African Human Rights Commission (2014:20-34), outlines some of the major

poverty traps that keep the poor enslaved to the vicious cycle of poverty, and these are:

Family child labour traps: This is a situation whereby the parents are too unhealthy and unskilled to be proactive and support their family, hence the children have to work. Consequently, the children will not be able to get the education they need because they need to work. This situation manifests itself in a sense that when they grow up they will also send their children to work (Barrett et al., 2008:2).

Illiteracy traps: This is closely related to the problem of child labour trap. With the illiteracy trap, the family does not send children to go and work, however, the parents do not send the children to school either because they cannot afford the cost for transportation, school uniforms and or school fees. If a family can borrow the money needed to cater for the school logistics, the higher incomes to be received by their then literate children could be used to pay back the borrowed money. However, the problem is that poor people do not have access to credit and this makes it difficult for them to get loans to finance a productive schooling (Barrett et al., 2008:2).

Working capital traps: The lack of credit also plays a crucial role in other poverty traps especially the working capital trap. Under this trap, a micro entrepreneur has to operate with an inventory that is too small to be productive, meaning that he/she will also have little net income to afford a larger inventory in the future (Barrett et al., 2008:2).

Uninsurable-risk traps: This trap is associated with people who have the fewest assets as they face the greatest chances of losing what is important to them, for instance their land, their basic nutrition, and their health, which is the greatest uninsured risk. For instance, most of the poorest are farmers, and they are literally not able to get any weather insurance. Consequently, they have to orient their whole approach to farming to reducing the risks of a catastrophic drought or other shock in which their families face ruin. However, this approach to farming also makes it unlikely that they can take advantage of opportunities to do much better and begin to build assets that can alleviate them out of poverty in the long run. As a result, they cannot change their circumstances in a way that would let them gain more security against high risks in the future (South African Human Right Commission, 2014:20).

Debt bondage traps: While acknowledging the importance of credit, Smith (2005:13) points out that a wrong kind of debt from unscrupulous money lenders can also be a trap. Colluding moneylenders calibrate loan amounts and interest payments to ensure that a family can never get out of debt. Sometimes the rate of pay for impoverished people working for their creditors is so low that it is not sufficient even to pay back the interest they owe.

Information traps: Needy people such as day labourers and housemaids among others are some of the poorest of the poor and they often work long hours every day just to put a meal on the table. Though there could be some other jobs that pay better, it is unfortunate that these people will not have time and energy to learn about how much the other occupations pay and how to do the work in them. Hence, this is perceived as if employers are not motivating their staff to be knowledgeable about other better opportunities surrounding them and may work to stop them. Consequently, the lack of access to information keeps the poor in poverty, and conditions of poverty prevent the poor from getting the information needed to escape from poverty (Smith, 2005:13).

Undernutrition and illness traps: This trap emanates from the fact that as an individual is physically weak, he/she cannot work productively. Consequently, his/her wages would not be enough to buy sufficient food, and as such, he/she would continue to work with low productivity for low wages. Scholars have classified this situation as the undernutrition trap and it is also another form of structural poverty which is in families and deeply impoverished areas (Barrett et al., 2008:2).

Low-skill traps: With regards to this trap, it is argued that if there is no employer in the country who is seeking skilled workers, for instance, basic manufacturing jobs, then there is no visible incentive for individuals to invest in attaining these skills. However, if there is no workforce available with these skills, the outside investors are not likely to invest in the region. Why do so, when you can go to other developing countries where these skills are readily available? This type of trap could be described as a chicken or the egg problem – which comes first, the investment or the skills? Governments can help with training and incentives for firms if they have resources – but when they lack resources resulting from conditions such as high debt burden, this

may be difficult or impossible to resolve from within the trapped economy (Barrett et al., 2008:3).

High fertility traps: If everyone around you is having many children, and there are few decent jobs to go around, then you too must have many children, or face the likelihood that you will not have a child that will have the means and the willingness to take care of you when you are too old to work. If all could have lower fertility, all might be better off. However, the question is how could a poor and powerless woman in an obscure village, possibly be expected to make such a change? (Barrett et al., 2008:3).

Subsistence traps: One of the key methods to increase productivity is specialisation. However, specialisation can only be carried out if you can trade for the other goods and services you need. In instances whereby everyone in the country is practicing subsistence agriculture, there would not be anyone to sell to, hence everyone will remain producing for subsistence only with perhaps a small trading on the side. The alternative would be to produce for more distant markets, however, to do so you must first know them. Secondly, you must get your product to these markets and lastly you must convince distant buyers of its quality. The middlemen are therefore crucial because they vouch for the quality of the product they sell and they are able to do this effectively because they get to know the farmers and the artisans they buy from and they specialise in the product (Barrett et al., 2008:3).

Farm erosion traps: This is a situation whereby the poor people are in dire need of food and they end up overusing their land although they know that this will result in less soil fertility and productivity the following year, and ultimately even desertification. Moreover, during the times of famine, farmers eat up the seeds they have stored from the previous harvest for planting in the next sowing period. This is because of hunger and they do not want to starve. In this situation, a farmer has to grow more food today to keep his family from becoming badly undernourished. However, in the end, you are simply trapped in a cycle of poverty (Smith, 2005:17).

Common property mismanagement traps: This poverty trap is associated with activities such as overfishing of lakes, unsustainable management of forest, and overgrazing of land, etc. The above are partially the consequences of inappropriate management of common community resources with a legacy of greedy colonial

practices, which is now imitated by post-colonial regimes. The result is that it is difficult to restore the shared resources after they are broken down (Barrett et al., 2008:3).

Collective action traps: Often times a community of poor could improve its circumstances by working in collaboration on joint projects. For the above practice to be effective, it is a prerequisite that there should be a leader who should organise. However, generally the poor do not have the time and resources to carry out this practice. Moreover, since the payoff of collective action goes to the group, and not just the organiser, the reward barely offsets the risks. Consequently, it can be difficult for individuals to take the early steps (Smith, 2005:17).

Criminality traps: Here the argument is that youths who do not have access to useful education and who see a slight future in the legitimate work are persuaded to join gangs as well as other cultures of criminality. The emotional scars result from the experience of violence which also reinforces this tendency. The subsequent fights, thefts, and criminal activities then compound the community's poverty trap by destroying assets, diverting resources to provide for personal and property security, and even taking the lives of able-bodied young men. The majority of the victims are innocent and many are poor. The worsening social and economic conditions attract more people into criminality, a vicious cycle that reinforces poverty (Smith, 2005:18).

Mental health traps: Issues such as depression and anxiety are universal among the poor in developing countries, and they are partly the result of poverty and its related powerlessness. Not knowing where your next meal is going to come from also creates tremendous emotional stress. Additionally, numerous poor people are intensely ashamed of their poverty, even when it is not their fault. As a result of the poverty situation, they usually have to bear mocking and humiliation on a daily basis because of their circumstances. The poor people often feel terrible that they are unable to provide adequately for their children and these inabilities bring about chronic feelings of hopelessness and anguish. In a worst case scenario, depression and anxiety are inflicted on the poor purposely, since the rich people typically abuse and terrorise the poor people to keep them from gaining any bargaining power (South African Human Right Commission, 2014:21).

Powerlessness traps: Usually, the condition of powerlessness is a trap. It is not only the relatively impersonal forces such as the environment or even the market that keeps the poor ensnared, but the active connivance of the rich who benefit from low wages and subservience. It is argued that poverty entrapment is poverty of, by, and for the rich. Mohammad Yunus (cited by Smith, 2005:17) argues that “the poor remain in poverty not because they want to, but because of the many barriers deliberately built around them by those who benefit from their poverty”. Smith (2005:17) clarifies that he was referring to the nexus of landlords, colluding moneylenders, corrupt officials, as well as others who are probably among the very few in the world who will be better off if poverty continues than if it is ended.

To escape the poverty deprivation trap requires tremendous efforts. Smith (2005:31-42), Barrett et al., (2008:2-3) and the South African Human Right Commission (2014:20-34) recommends measures that can be used by the government to end the poverty traps. Their studies indicate that keys that can open doors to more income and wealth are essential because they can assist to build further capabilities and assets as well as resiliency to the numerous risks and shocks that people in the developing countries encounter. Moreover, they reveal that only with adequate capabilities and assets would a person be able to escape from poverty and be reasonably safe from poverty over a long time. The keys to escape the poverty deprivation traps are not aligned to a specific trap because this is a generic overview of what can be done to escape the poverty traps in general.

The first key is health and nutrition for adults to work and children to grow to their potential. Poverty cannot be completely eradicated, as it is mainly caused by human factors. It is for this reason that there has been numerous poverty alleviation programmes which are intended to pull people out of poverty in many households as well as communities in the world (Smith, 2005:39). Education is another method that can be used to break the poverty traps. The provision of quality education is crucial as it empowers people to take advantage of opportunities around them. Moreover, it helps children to get knowledge, information and life skills they need to realise their potential. It is therefore argued that the training of teachers, building of schools, provision of educational materials and the breaking down of the barrier that prevents children from

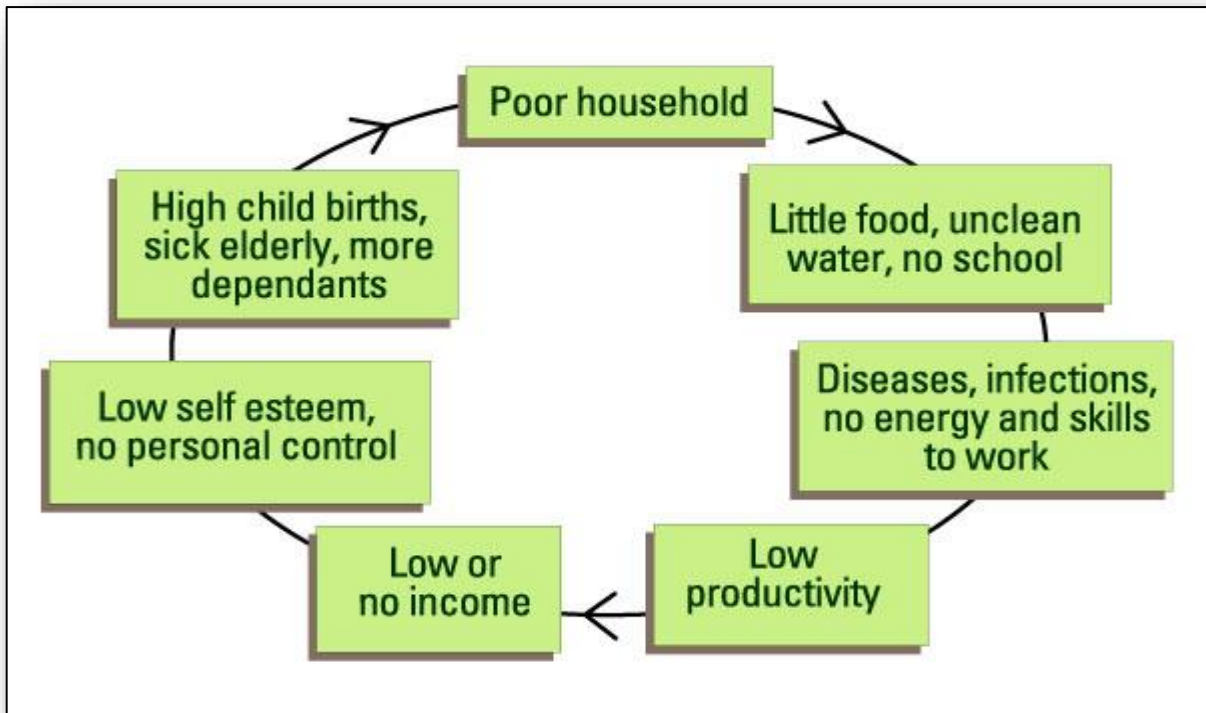
accessing education are important features of poverty alleviation programmes (Barrett et al., 2008:3).

Another important aspect to be considered is health, food and water. There should be programmes that are intended to feed children at school and to provide them with health services as well. This encourages parents to send the children to school and to keep them there. If children have food to eat and are healthy, they can learn and respond to the needs of the programme (Smith, 2005:40). An equally important key is the provision of skills and training. The youth and able-to-work in the communities should be provided with skills to help with farm work or other economic activities, which helps them to earn money to make a living and take care of their families. Lastly, income redistribution should be considered. It is important that the government extends its development programmes such as roads, bridges, and other economic facilities to rural areas, to make it easy for goods and services and farm produce to move to and from the farming communities. With a bit of effort in the areas mentioned above, it will not take long to see real improvements in the socio-economic conditions of the community.

From the above discussion, it is clear that poverty deprivation traps can affect people's socio-economic conditions as well as their quality of life. Therefore, there is a need for interventions either from the government, the private sector, charity organisations or from family members that are well-off to assist the poor to get out of poverty. If the poverty deprivation traps are not dealt with, households will fall into a vicious cycle of poverty. This is a bad situation that no government should allow their citizens to fall into. The vicious cycle of poverty starts with a scenario of a poor household whereby there is no sufficient nutritious food to eat, clean water to drink as well as money to send their children to school. Consequently, the household is malnourished, unhealthy and hence it will suffer from numerous diseases, infections and other health complications. The children lack the necessary skills and knowledge that are crucial to carry out significant economic activities because they are uneducated. The household has no energy and skills to work which results in low productivity and low or no income. As such, parents die from preventable diseases because of lack of access to health facilities and they leave the children's fate in their own hands. When children grow up, they have low self-esteem and no personal control, hence they get

spouses who are in poverty as them and they give birth to many children. At this juncture, a household is characterised by high birth rate, sick elderly and more dependents. This makes children to grow up in a poor household hence they go through the cycle their parents have gone through. The vicious cycle of poverty is depicted in Figure 4. 1.

Figure 4.1: Vicious cycle of poverty



Source: <https://eschooltoday.com/learn/the-vicious-cycle-of-poverty/>.

The vicious cycle of poverty affects the children badly because they will not be able to go to school and they will transfer their poverty situation to their children and it becomes a generational poverty. Therefore, it is imperative that the government should assist the poor by providing them with free education up to matric level, free health care system as well as free meal distributions at school to enable parents to send their children to school. The above requires the political will as well as funds which the government might not have. It is therefore suggested that the government should seek humanitarian aid from international organisations in order to be able to assist the poor citizens.

4.3 QUALITY OF LIFE

The concept of quality of life is not easy to define. This is because it is problematic to explore which domains should be included in the overall definition of this concept. Robeyns and Veen (2007, cited by Alkire, 2008:2) write that “there is no generally accepted definition of quality of life”. Galloway (2005:10) observes that authors from unlike disciplines approach quality of life from the viewpoints of their own research interests and objectives, hence the topic of quality of life research also differs extensively. For instance, it has been argued that social indicators were developed to measure the quality of life for the general populations of cities, regions or nations, whereas social and psychological indicators were developed to evaluate the quality of life of individuals, or groups of individuals with common characteristics. Keith (2001:5, cited by Galloway, 2005:10) argues that many researchers believe that there is no exact definition of quality of life. Therefore, scholars have opted to study different facets and dimensions of quality of life rather than to attempt to define it explicitly.

One of the philosophers, Kingwell (2000:207), after examining the concept of quality of life reminds us of the unbalanced relationship that a lot of thoughtful people encounter between success and meaning. He narrates:

They want to know what it all means, what their personal prosperity is in aid of: fulfilment, virtue, happiness, something. They want a *telos* of some kind, in other words, an end in view that helps to make life worth living.

Contributing to the debate of quality of life is Theofilou (2013:150), who argues that for an effective explanation to be achieved, quality of life should be viewed as a notion that is consisting of numerous social, environmental, psychological as well as physical values. Glatzer (2015:8) observes that the concept of quality of life in literature is often used interchangeably with wellbeing: quality of life in the sense of wellbeing, and wellbeing in the sense of quality of life. However, Smith (1973, cited by Theofilou, 2013:151) suggests that the concept of wellbeing should be used to refer to objective life conditions that apply to a population generally, whereas quality of life should be shortened to individuals’ subjective assessments of their lives because of what he believed to be the evaluative nature of the concept. According to Diener, Suh, Lucas and Smith (1999, cited by Theofilou, 2013:151), the concept of quality of life generally includes how a person measures the ‘goodness’ of multiple aspects of their life. These

evaluations encompass one's emotional reactions to life occurrences, disposition, sense of life fulfilment, and satisfaction with work and personal relationships.

Researchers such as Ventegodt, Merrick and Andersen (2003:1031) have developed an integrative theory of quality of life. They explain that the notions of quality of life entail a good life, which is similar to living a life of high quality. The notions can be divided into 3 loosely separate groups, each concerned with an aspect of a good life. First, the *subjective* quality of life deals with how good a life each individual feels he or she has; second, the *existential* quality of life is concerned with how good a person's life is at a deeper level; and lastly, the *objective* quality of life is about how a person's life is perceived by the outside world. These groups are discussed below.

4.3.1 Subjective quality

The subjective quality consists of four aspects. First is wellbeing which is the most natural aspect which is determined through a person's own assessment of his or her quality of life. The assessment is conveyed through interactions between people especially during the greetings phase. When we meet different people, we often ask each other questions such as how are you or how is life? Hence we are requesting that person to give us an evaluation of their quality of life. Responses could be, "I am fine" or "things are not going too well at home/work" or "my health is not what it used to be". This means that wellbeing is closely linked to how things function in an objective world and with the external factors of life (Ventegodt et al., 2003:1032; Meiselman, 2016:105-106; Brown, Bowling., & Flynn, 2004:18).

The second aspect is satisfaction with life which is associated with the feeling that life is how it should be and this is when a person's expectations, needs, and desires in life are being met by the surrounding world hence one is satisfied. Therefore, satisfaction can be classified as a mental state: a cognitive entity. This symmetry and concord can be revealed in two ways. This is whereby we could either try to change the external world so that it matches our dreams or we can give up our dreams because they are unrealistic, or adapt them to the world as it is, thus creating concord between the external world and our dreams. Although both approaches give the same satisfaction, it is worth pointing out that the two strategies generate different lives: whereby in one

instance one life meets with one's dreams and while the other life is lived in resignation; however both lives will be satisfactory (Ventegodt et al., 2003:1033; Meiselman, 2016:106; Brown et al., 2004:19).

The third feature is happiness which is the main goal. Most individuals reach out for a happy life and many policy makers aim at greater happiness for a greater number. Though the term happiness is often used in various ways, in its widest sense it is an umbrella term for all that is good. Therefore, happiness is the degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his/her own life as a whole favourably. Many people link the concept of happiness with human nature: they argue that happiness comes to people who live in extraordinary harmony with his or her nature. However, there are also those who believe that happiness cannot only be achieved through adapting to one's culture and related factors, but in other words happiness should not necessitate individuals to resign too much but to fight for what, deep down, is important to them (Veenhoven, 2012:15).

The fourth and last aspect of the subjective quality of life is meaning in life. This is an important term that is seldom used as people only speak about meaning of life with close friends and relatives, if at all. It is documented that people who seek meaning in life are often catapulted into a confusing situation, where the value for all aspects of life is viewed quite differently. They often ask these questions: Am I doing the right things in life? Have I got the right job? Am I using my talent in the right way? A search for meaning in life involves an acceptance of meaninglessness of life and an obligation towards oneself to make amends for what is meaningless. In this way, the question of meaning in life becomes deeply personal, and very few people attempt to answer it because, by doing so, we risk our security in everyday life (Ventegodt et al., 2003:1034). The next subsection discusses the objective quality of life.

4.3.2 Objective quality

The objective quality consists of four features. First is the biological order view of quality of life which puts emphasis on the fundamental and biological constitution of humans. It perceives humans as a living organism, a colony of cells that through intense exchange of information, realises a deep biological potential to create human

beings. Once the natural process of becoming a person has taken place, then life is characterised by order; biologically, psychologically, socially, and religiously. This is understood in a broad sense as what people believe about life and reality. Using this point of view, physical health reflects the state of the biological information system, as the cells of the body need precise information to function correctly and to keep body healthy and well. Moreover, this notion holds that the quality of life lies in the conformity between the actual life lived and the formula for being a person that lies deep within the organism (Kingwell, 2000:209; Ventegodt et al., 2003:1035; Glatzer, 2015:10).

The second aspect is the realisation of life potential and from the objective perspective of quality of life, this feature denotes that humans are in constant development, therefore realising of creative activities, good social relations, a meaningful job, and starting a family are integral in living life to the full. This feature establishes a link between nature and humanity because it links quality of life closely to the human roots in nature (Kingwell, 2000:209; Ventegodt et al., 2003:1035; Glatzer, 2015:10).

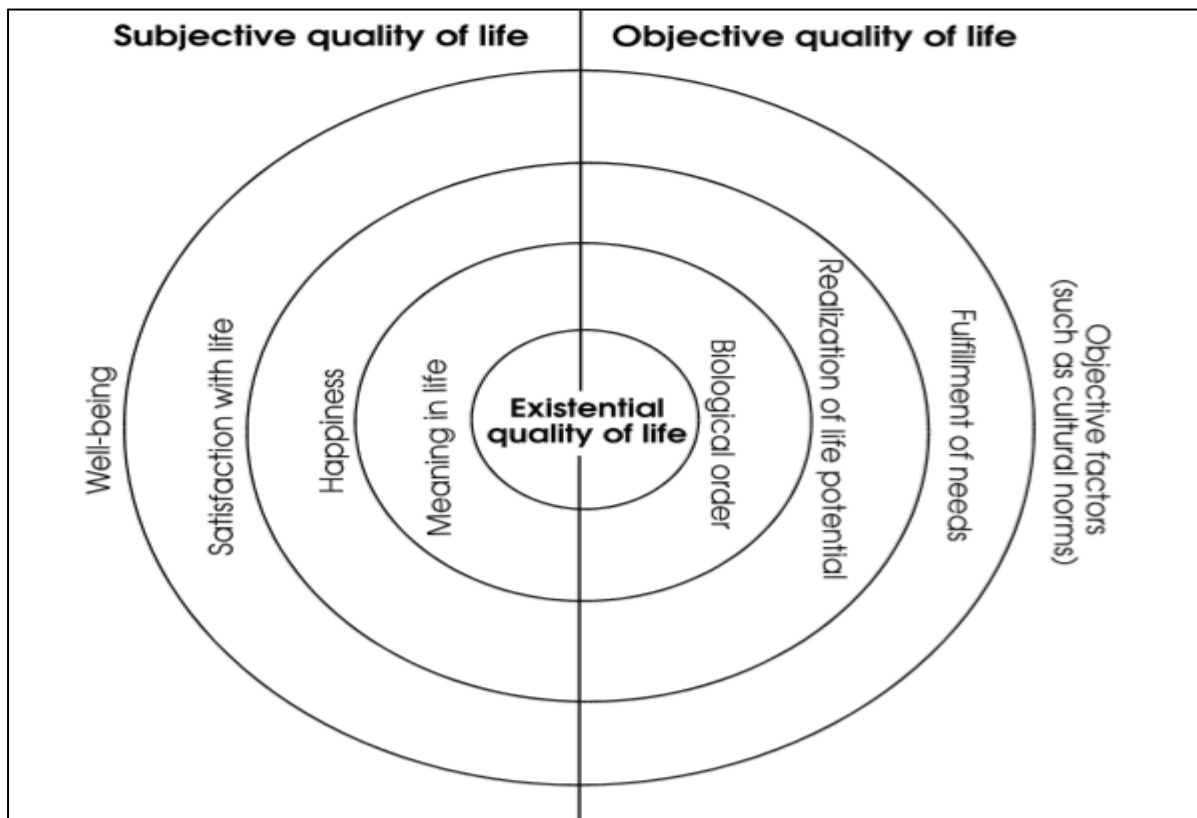
The third feature is the notion of fulfilment of needs which was traditionally perceived that once your needs are fulfilled, then your quality of life is high. It is worth noting that the notion of fulfilment of needs is ambiguous, for instance: I need a cup of coffee or we all need the security a family can give us. In contemporary literature, Maslow formulates the concepts of needs based on attributes such as food, sex, and social relations as well as the more abstract need to realise oneself (McLeod, 2016:6).

The fourth and last aspect on the objective quality is the objective factors which are related to the external factors of life such as income, marital status, state of health, and the number of daily contacts with other people. Scholars argue that there is a need to distinguish these aspects of the quality of life because a good life is easily confused with the sort of life people generally consider as being "right" and rich in an external sense of the word. You can be unhappy in a sports car and happy in a tram car. It is therefore noted that this general truth is lent credence by the clinical fact that there is often little agreement between a physician's evaluation of a person's (objective) quality of life and the patient's own evaluation of his or her (subjective) quality of life. The factors chosen to indicate the objective quality of life are closely associated with the culture in which we live. For example, in some cultures, most people believe that having two children is sufficient to give us maximum quality of life, while in another

culture having two children might not be considered as sufficient to give us maximum quality of life (Theofilou, 2013:153; Meiselman, 2016:106-107).

The features of quality of life are displayed in Figure 4.2. The existential element is often placed in the middle since it unites the subjective and objective elements.

Figure 4.2: Integrative theory of the quality of life



Source: Ventegodt et al., (2003:1032)

Figure 4.2 shows that the interaction of the qualities of life moves in horizon from the subjective to the objective. Well-being interacts with objective factors because they are the most superficial as they are concerned with people’s superficial ability to adopt to their culture. Satisfaction with life interacts with the fulfilment of needs since they are concerned with somewhat deeper aspects: is there symmetry between what I want from life and what life gives me? Happiness is grouped with realizing life potential because this encompasses people’s deepest existence and nature as individuals. Lastly on the interaction, meaning in life is with order and disharmony in the biological information system because they deal with humanity’s innermost being (Cummins, 2000:57-59).

In addition, Ventegodt et al. (2003:1036) believe that there is a need to imagine an abstract nucleus between meaning in life and biological order that remains inexpressible and immeasurable. The subjective and objective unite in this nucleus: the deepest subjective quality of life and the objective state of the organism, as we know it from health and sickness. There, deep down in the individual, at the very centre where meaning in life is created lies our innermost pool which is the centre of people's existence. The outcome at this stage which is how the individual feels here reflects the quality of life and the deepest knowledge that people can attain.

It is important that any approach to quality of life may consider selecting a space in which quality of life can be measured. This is in line with the fact that indicators may be used from different spaces, but a conceptually coherent approach should be utilised to explain why particular indicators have been used. One of the traditional approaches that is used to measure the quality of life is based on the number of resources compounded by individuals. The most notable resources measures are monetary indicators of income or consumption. The non-monetary resources can also be used as indicators to measure quality of life and these encompass a range of assets, and excess to certain public services such as health, education, water, electricity as well as roads (Alkire, 2008:2; Ruževičius, 2014:319:). Furthermore, Alkire (2008:2) argues that the resource based approach to measuring quality of life has an instant moral appeal because it seems to refrain from any possibly difficult value judgements, and leaves every person or family with an option to arrange their resources in whatever way seems best to them.

Though the resources based approach to quality of life is significant in achieving a better quality of life, this approach is not sufficient to measure quality of life. This is because "many resources are not intrinsically available - they are instrumental to other objectives, yet the quality of life arguably depends not on the mere existence of resources but on what they enable people to do and be: the value of the living standard lies in the living, and not in the possessing of commodities, which has derivative and varying relevance" (Alkire, 2008:2). Moreover, although it has been argued that resources are not sufficient pointers to measure the quality of life, the indicators of resources – of time, of money, or of particular resources such as drinking water,

electricity, and housing are still extremely relevant to quality of life measurement and are often used to proxy functions.

It could be deduced from the above that how one defines quality of life is essential in measuring the quality of life for a person. The subjective aspects focus on the personal interpretation of quality of life, therefore they are highly influenced by the person's feelings. For instance, a person's employer may feel that he/she is paid too much, while the spouse or the children at home may feel the opposite. On the other hand, objective quality of life reflects the true quality of life since it is not based on emotions, feelings and self-evaluation but it is based on factual data. The most important aspect though is that quality of life depends on the lenses that one uses to look at it. Furthermore, the objective aspects influence the outcome of the subjective aspects. For example, when a person's needs are fulfilled, that person would generally be satisfied with life. This means that there would not be subjective aspects without the objective aspects and vice versa.

4.4 BETTER LIFE

Following the conceptualisation of quality of life in the above section, this segment aims to expand on it by discussing the notion of better quality of life. There are few literature sources that address the notion of better quality of life, and as such, most literature tends to focus on the quality of life as a concept in general. This section intends to bridge this gap by analysing various literature on better quality of life. The concept better means more desirable, satisfactory, or effective. In its widest usage, the concept is often used as an adjective whereby it describes something as being superior or it can be utilised as an adverb which means that something is done to a higher degree or more completely. When the concept is used as an adjective, it is a comparative of the word good, while the superlative is best. The notion of better quality of life is therefore associated with the value that one desires to attach to different dimensions of life according to his or her own preferences or the comparison of the overall wellbeing across countries (OECD, 2011:14-27; Lutz et al., 2018:4).

To establish a robust analysis of better quality of life, it is important to identify a range of indicators that paint an accurate picture of whether people's life are getting better

or worse. These indicators can include among others material living conditions such as housing, income and job or quality of life aspects like community, education, health, environment, governance, life satisfaction, safety and work-life balance. The above listed indicators are said to be more accurate in studying people's quality of life in comparison to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) as an indicator of quality of life (OECD, 2011:14-27; Lutz et al., 2018:4).

An essential element of assessing better quality of life is the household income and wealth. When people have resources, they are able to utilise them to satisfy their basic needs as well as to pursue many other goals that they deem important to their lives. In this sense, scholars argue that economic resources are crucial since they enhance individuals' choices and determine the life that an individual would want to live and protect them against economic and personal risks. While at the society-wide level economic resources allow countries to invest in education, housing, health and security among others, it is worth to keep in mind that though income alone is not sufficient to assess a country's welfare, it is often a necessary condition for the country's overall development. Moreover, household wealth which derives from the accumulation of personal savings as well as from transfers between generations, also contributes in an important way to individual wellbeing. That is, by protecting people from unexpected shocks and allowing them to smooth consumption over time. The preservation of people's wealth also ensures that their material living standards can be sustained over time (Fleurbaey, 2009:30; OECD, 2011:37).

In addition, it is not sufficient to look simply at average levels of both household income and wealth when analysing a better quality of life. It is also critical to assess how economic resources are shared across individuals and population groups. Information on the distribution of household income and wealth, and how these are correlated, is therefore central for designing policies to improve people's material wellbeing. Moreover, policies have to take into consideration distributional impacts to assess a possible trade-off between equity and efficiency and to consider whether some groups of the population will be left behind with the potential to drag on future growth that this implies (Fleurbaey, 2009:31; OECD, 2011:37).

Another important element on the notion of better quality of life is the universal aspirations of people around the globe, which is having a job that matches one's

aspirations and competencies and that pays adequate earnings. This is because a good job does not only increase people's command over resources, but it also provides people with a chance to fulfil their own ambitions, to develop skills and abilities, to feel useful in society and to build self-esteem. In this sense, jobs should be viewed as enablers that shape personal identity and create opportunities for social relationships. Researchers agree that being unemployed has a large negative effect on physical and mental health and on subjective wellbeing; this suggests that the negative effect of joblessness on wellbeing goes well beyond the income loss that unemployment brings (Wilson & Walker, 1993:153; Clark & Oswald, 1994:649).

Furthermore, working conditions can be as important as job availability in terms of their consequences on people's lives, as people spend a considerable amount of time at work. Work represents many people's main recognised contribution to the community where they live, and it is a source of pride and dignity; the quality of their jobs is therefore fundamental for them. The above is in conformity with the findings from organisations such as Economic and Social Council (2010:14) and UNECE (2010:1) which hold that job quality depends on certain critical factors such as job safety and the ethics in the workplace, the income and benefits from employment, job security and social protection, social dialogue, workplace relationships and job motivation.

Housing is of paramount importance as far as better quality of life is concerned because it is a major element of people's material living standards. Everyone has the right to adequate housing, which means more than just four walls and a roof over one's head. Housing is essential to meet basic needs such as being sheltered from extreme weather and climate conditions. Housing should offer people a suitable place to sleep and rest, where they are free of risks and hazards. In addition, housing should give a sense of personal security, privacy and personal space. Finally, housing is important to satisfy other essential needs such as having a family. All these elements make a "house" a "home" and these are intrinsically valuable to people (OECD, 2011:82).

Besides their intrinsic value, housing conditions may affect a wide range of other outcomes. This is due to the fact that housing costs make up a large share of the household budget, therefore people particularly those on low incomes are often constrained by the level of resources left for other essential expenditures such as food, healthcare and education. Consequently, high housing costs can thus threaten

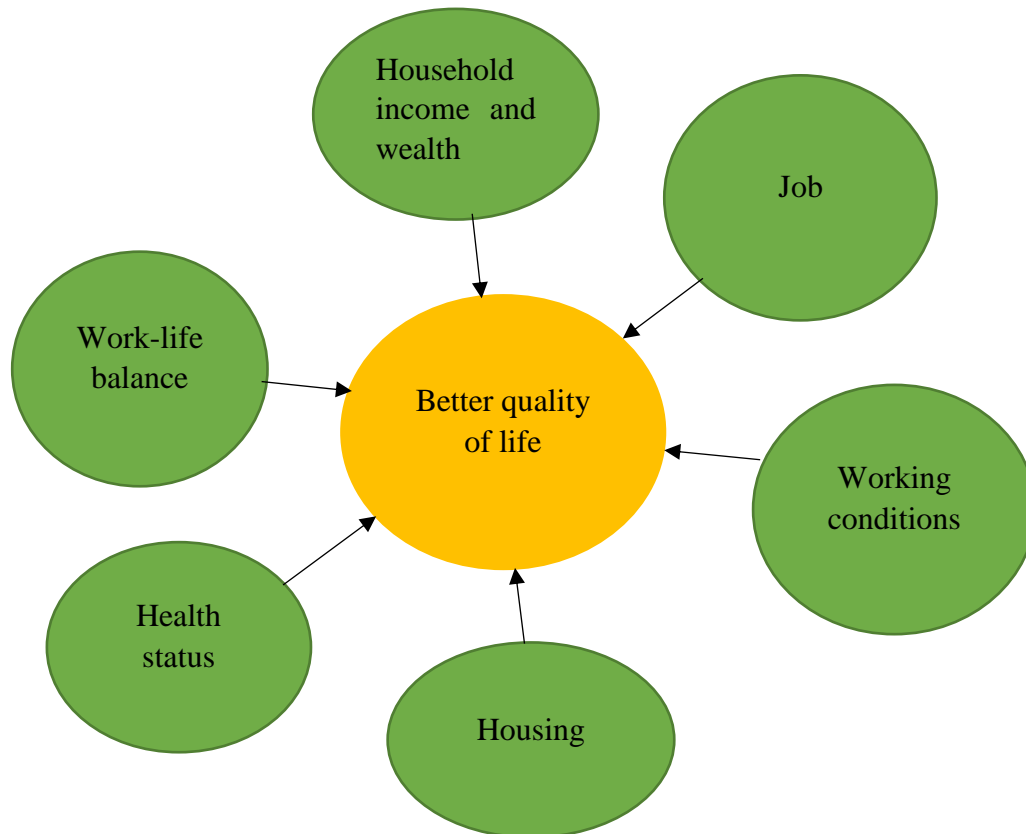
households' material wellbeing and economic security. They may also generate forms of housing stress that may seriously hamper relations between households' members and impair the development of children (OECD, 2007b:20). On the other hand, poor housing quality (e.g. lack of access to basic sanitation and functional utilities, overcrowding, etc.) is also a major driver of health status, with effects on both physical and mental health. It can lead to domestic violence and to children's low school performance. The capacity to engage in basic social activities such as inviting people at home may also be threatened by poor housing conditions (Glaeser & Sacerdote, 2000:7; OECD, 2009:15).

For people to enjoy better quality of life, health status is one of the most valued aspects of people's lives, and one that affects the probability of having a job, earning an adequate income, and actively participating in a range of valued social activities. In the context of this thesis, being health will be utilised in its broadest sense which is "health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity" (WHO, 1948:4). The length of life and whether it is lived free of illness and disability both have intrinsic value for people. Health status also has instrumental value because it enhances people's opportunities to participate in education and training programmes and in the labour market as well as to have good social relationships. At the societal level, countries with better overall health outcomes also display higher average income and wealth, higher employment rates, higher rates of participation in political activities, higher social network support and higher overall life satisfaction (WHO, 1948:4; Kessler & Üstün, 2008:40; Looper & Lafortune, 2009:6).

Last but not least, on the notion of better quality of life is work and life balance. Whether you are young or old, rich or poor, one thing that every person has in common is the number of hours they have in a day. The way those 24 hours are divided between different activities is a key determinant of wellbeing. The work-life balance refers to "a state of equilibrium between an individual's work and personal life" (OECD, 2011:124). Obtaining such a balance is central to people's wellbeing: too little work can prevent people from earning enough income to attain the desired standards of living, and may reduce their sense of purpose in life; but too much work can also have a negative impact on people's wellbeing if their health or personal lives suffer as a consequence.

An individual's ability to satisfactorily combine work, family commitments and personal life is important not only for the wellbeing of the person but also for that of the whole household (Kessler & Üstün, 2008:40; Looper & Lafortune, 2009:6). The above discussed qualities are depicted in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3: Better quality of life



Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 4.3 shows that there are different aspects (green areas) that contribute to better quality of life. All features are equally important for a person to achieve better quality of life and if one aspect is not achieved such a person would not enjoy a better quality of life. For example, a person can have a high paying job which gives him or her a lot of money, but if the working conditions are bad, such an individual would not be happy with the quality of his or her life.

It could be deduced from the literature that better quality of life is associated more closely with the subjective lens of quality of life. This is because it is often considered as synonymous to wellbeing. People enjoy a better quality of life once their material

living conditions which include among others health living conditions, nutritious food, income and job are achieved and being lived in the highest manner. This study further argues that the provision of quality and affordable services to the residents by the government and its spheres especially a local authority such as the CoW, in a timely and professional manner, would enable the residents to achieve some important aspects of better quality of life. The aspects include among others housing which is one of the most important elements of living a better quality of life and one that takes up most of the household's budget. However, for each resident to achieve a better quality of life to the fullest, there is a need for interactions between the residents and the local authority concerning what aspects constitute a better quality of life for the residents.

4.5 CONCLUSION

It was discovered in the chapter that poverty deprivation traps is when people are trapped into persistent poverty which is difficult to get out of and they can only exit with the assistance of external interventions. Poverty alleviation refers to reducing the negative impact of poverty on the lives of poor people in a sustained and permanent way. There are various societal actors such as the private sector, government and civil society organisations that play important roles towards the alleviation of poverty.

Moreover, it was acknowledged in the chapter that it is difficult to define quality of life because it is not easy to explore which domains should be included in the overall definition of quality of life. In some cases, emphasis is placed on how a person measures the 'goodness' of multiple aspects of their life. These evaluations include one's emotional reactions to life occurrences, disposition, sense of life fulfilment and satisfaction with work and personal relationships. The lenses that one can utilise when defining quality of life are objective and subjective.

The notion of better quality of life is concerned with the value that one desires to attach to different dimensions of life according to his or her own preferences or the comparison of the overall wellbeing across countries. The main indicators which illustrate whether a person is living a better quality of life or not are material living conditions such as housing, income and job or quality of life aspects like community, education, health, environment, governance, life satisfaction, safety and work-life

balance among others. The vicious cycle of poverty affects the quality of life of the residents. Therefore, the alleviation of poverty in all its forms is crucial for the residents to enjoy a better quality of life.

The next chapter explains the national and local environment by justifying why the CoW is used as a unit of analysis in this thesis.

CHAPTER FIVE: POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN THE CITY OF WINDHOEK

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters (two, three and four) on literature review focused mainly on the external environment through the analysis of various theories and concepts of poverty alleviation, LED strategies and the notion of better quality of life. These chapters were meant to point out the knowledge gap in the literature pertaining to the phenomenon of poverty alleviation. As such, numerous scholars' works were analysed and disagreements and similarities were discovered. This chapter aims to build on them by analysing the local environment of the literature on poverty. In so doing, the chapter begins with an overview of local government structure in Namibia, and thereafter it investigates what resulted and caused poverty in the CoW and what is being done to alleviate it.

This chapter is about the CoW; therefore, it is essential to note that cities in developing countries are facing ever increasing shortages of affordable income and high levels of poverty. Moreover, policies aimed at addressing the gap have not been able to meet the demand. Consequently, informal settlements have become a common trend in developing countries and the implications of this phenomenon are real and need urgent attention by the relevant institutions including local authorities. The chapter commences with the analysis of the overview of poverty in the CoW. The approaches used by the CoW in dealing with poverty are discussed in this chapter and it ends with a conclusion.

5.2 ORGANISATION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN NAMIBIA

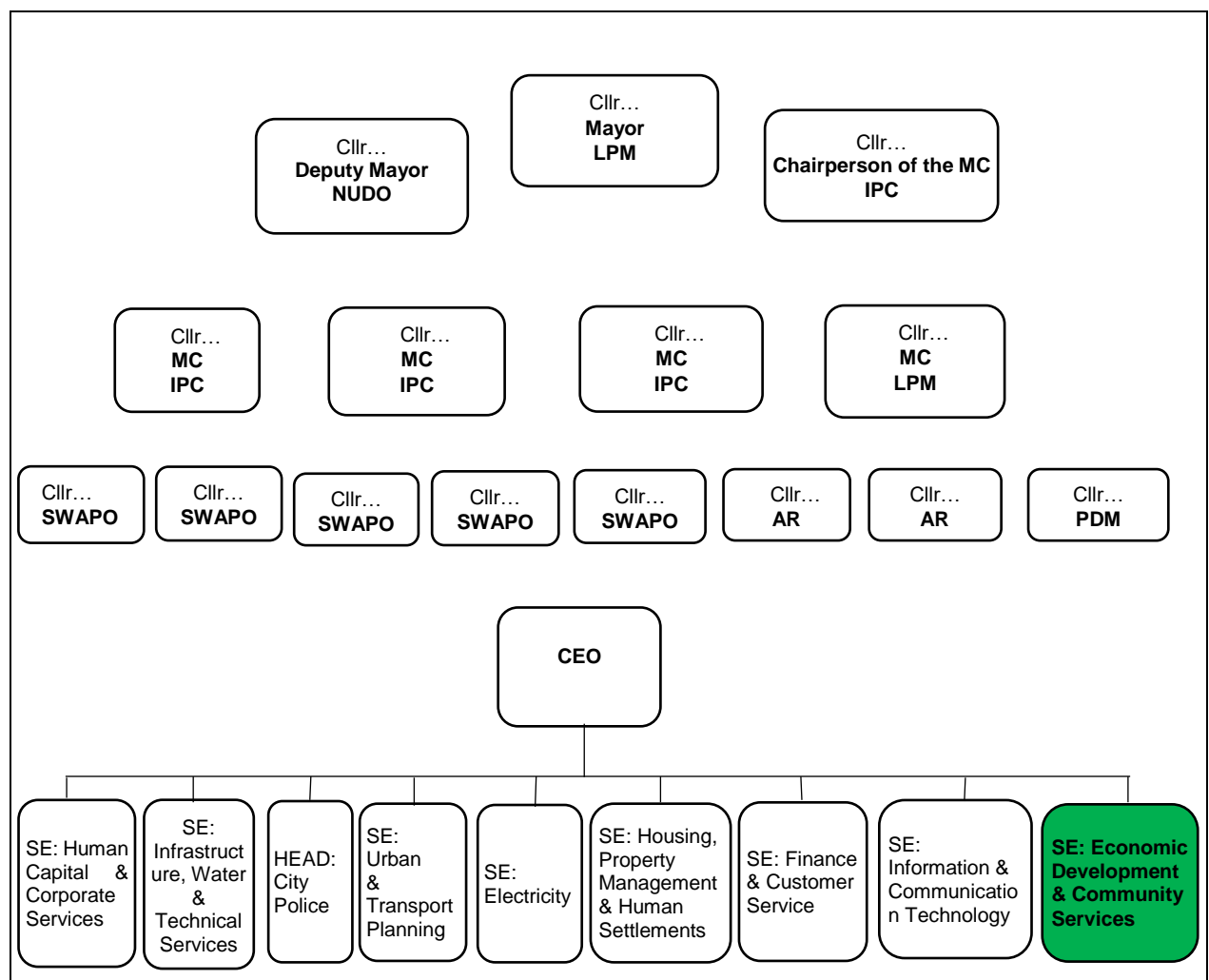
This section aims to provide an overview of the organisational structure of local government in Namibia and CoW in particular while highlighting the promoter of the LED strategies in the CoW. As alluded to in Chapter one, section 1.2, local government in Namibia is established in accordance with Article 102 of the Constitution (Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, 1990:56). The main legislative frameworks for local government in Namibia are the Constitution, the Regional Council Act 22 of 1992 as amended as well as the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended. The

Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended makes provision for the establishment of three types of local authorities: villages, towns and municipalities. It is of paramount importance to point out at this juncture that classifications into the aforementioned types of local authorities is done by the President, following the assessment of each local authority financial resources and its capacity to provide services. As such, a local authority can be re-classified as it changes and develops as time goes by. The classification of a local authority affects its duties and powers, in a sense that towns have responsibility for more services than villages, and municipalities have responsibility for more services than towns. Based on the classification of a local authority, the following are the size composition of councils under each category: village councils have five (5) members; town councils have seven (7) to 12 members and municipal councils have seven (7) to 15 members depending on their size. Each municipal council and town council elects a mayor and a deputy mayor from amongst its members. The mayor and deputy mayor serve as the chairperson and vice chairperson of the council. Municipal and town councils consist of management committees, which is a small group of councillors inclusive of the mayor and the deputy mayor, elected by all the members of the council each year. The management committee is made up of three (3) to five (5) elected members depending on the size, and its primary responsibility is to ensure that the decisions of the council are carried out (Legal Assistance Centre & Hanns Seidel Foundation, 2018:1-2; Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, 1990:56; Commonwealth Local Government Forum, 2022).

CoW municipal council is made up of 15 councillors and among them one is chosen as a mayor, and another as a deputy mayor, and they serve as chairperson and deputy chairperson of council respectively. The mayor is the political head of the municipality, while the administrative component of the municipality is spearheaded by the chief executive officer (CEO), who also serves as the accounting officer. Figure 5.1 depicts the organogram of the CoW in 2022. The first row from the top shows that the current mayor of CoW is from the Landless People's Movement (LPM) political party, the deputy mayor is from the National Unity Democratic Organisation (NUDO), and the chairperson of the management committee (MC) is from the Independent Patriots for Change (IPC) political party. The second row shows that three councillors (Cllr) from IPC are members of the MC and the other councillor is from the LPM. The third row illustrates that the South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) have five

councillors, and the Affirmative Repositioning (AR) have two councillors, and the Popular Democratic Movement (PDM) have one councillor in the CoW council. The fourth row shows the head of administration, the CEO which is a technocrat position with appointments done based on merits. Under the office of the CEO, there are different departments responsible for the provision of different services, namely: human capital and corporate services; infrastructure, water and technical services; city police; electricity; housing property management and human settlements; finance and customer service; information and communication technology; and economic development and community services. The department responsible for economic development and community services is the promoter of the LED strategies in the CoW.

Figure 5.1: CoW organogram 2022



Source: CoW (2022)

It can be deduced from the above discussion that the classifications of local authorities into different types determines the expectations placed on each local authority. Therefore, a municipality such as CoW has a greater responsibility to ensure that its citizens have a better quality of life. CoW should therefore make all the necessary efforts such as urging the private sector organisations in the city to engage in corporate social responsibility on a yearly basis as this would aid in providing the needed help to the residents in dire need. While innovation, creativity and implementation of projects and strategies are mostly carried out by officials under the office of the CEO, political supports from council is important if the suggested and established initiatives are to succeed in alleviating poverty. Therefore, it is imperative that members of council should put aside party politics and focus on serving the residents of the CoW by means of endorsing good initiatives aimed at improving the socio-economic conditions of the residents, put forth by the officials or fellow councillors of different political affiliations.

5.3 OVERVIEW OF POVERTY IN THE CITY OF WINDHOEK

Poverty in the context of the CoW is associated with the historical background of the city. Historically, before Namibia's independence, the CoW was dominated by white representation, whereby the white residents of Windhoek elected a council for a period of five years. This was during an era of segregation (1915 to 1948) and apartheid (1948 to 1977) which were characterised by white supremacy (Thomas, 2018). During this era, the black people were only allowed in the CoW because they needed to sell their cheap labour. As a result, black people who were already in the city were forcefully removed from areas that had economic opportunities to a new township far from the city centre known as Katutura. Here in Katutura, the black people had their own form of council, while the coloured people also had their council in Khomasdal. These two townships were both governed separately and they were referred to as the "black" and "coloured" locations respectively. Once feedback was required from these locations, it was given to the main Windhoek council by the representatives of both the black and coloured councils who had no voting power in the main council. As a result, the spatial separation between race groups was the physical expression of the social, economic and political division within Namibians, and township locations and layouts

ensured the exclusion of its residents from the benefits of urban life (Gold, Muller & Mitlin, 2001:6; Du Pisani, 2006:1; Mueller-Friedman, 2006:34-35).

The situation changed after independence when a system of political representation was adopted whereby the political party with the highest number of votes after the regional councils and local authorities' elections had the most seats in the council. Consequently, the three areas of the CoW that were previously racially divided were consolidated and managed under one council and the representation on the council reflected a better balance of the residents. This meant that the previously relegated areas of the city were now receiving more attention in an attempt to address the former imbalances. Thus, new infrastructure, such as shopping complexes, markets (for more informal trading), tarred roads and street lighting were developed in areas that were previously marginalised (Gold et al., 2001:7). Although new infrastructure were added in the areas that did not have previously, independence meant that all residents of the CoW had access to the rest of infrastructures within the city.

Furthermore, the city acknowledges that it has a corporate responsibility towards its residents hence it channelled funds towards the construction and maintenance of sports and recreational facilities within the city which are crucial in improving the social well-being of the residents. These resulted in the construction of sport fields which accommodate sport activities such as soccer, netball, volleyball and tennis. Other facilities for social events such as swimming pools, recreational parks and playgrounds were as well established within the city. These amenities are important because they help both adults and children to keep fit which is a vital aspect in a person's life. Access to some of the facilities such as sport fields, swimming pools and some of the recreational parks is through bookings on set days while other days were reserved for maintenance of the facilities. All facilities have 24 hour security in place to ensure the safety and protection of the residents (http://www.windhoekcc.org.na/depa_economic_development_division1.php).

While the above outlined facilities were put in place to improve the physical and social well-being of the residents by keeping them fit and socially entertained, the provision of adequate housing to everyone on the city was as well on the city's agenda. However, the task has not been easy and this is partially due to the proliferation of informal settlements that have been experienced in the CoW since independence.

According to the Housing Development Agency (2013:6), informal settlements can be seen as “areas where groups of housing units have been constructed on land that the occupants have no legal claim to, or occupy illegally; unplanned settlements and areas where housing is not in compliance with current planning and building regulations”. Van Zyl (2008:147) argues that “informal settlements are normally on the urban edge, normally with zero or minimal communal services, initially on land not belonging to the occupants, normally makeshift structures of cardboard, corrugated iron, plastic sheeting, canvas, and recycled materials. They are normally incrementally built through self-contracting”.

Informal settlements were not tolerated in the CoW before independence as they were restricted by the then municipal bylaws, hence they only began to expand after independence. The bylaws which were adopted by the colonial masters restricted the movement of people from the rural areas to Windhoek. This was due to the perceptions by the colonial regime that informal settlements are a “health and security risk” and as such, only the formal settlements were allowed during the colonial period and this was aided by the notion that only men could migrate to urban areas to supply labour to the colonial capitalist system in factories, mines and the domestic sector. Nevertheless, shortly after Namibia’s independence and the resultant freedom of movement, people started to migrate freely to the urban centres to settle. Men brought their families to live with them in Windhoek and due to the relaxation of the control laws, migrants used the opportunity to occupy the unused open land. People started erecting informal structures on the outskirts of Windhoek, resulting in the formation and establishment of several informal settlement areas in Windhoek. Interestingly, not everybody that lives in the informal settlements seemed to be bothered by the living conditions as some people in the informal settlements did not prioritise investing in the upgrading of their shacks, because they believed that the investments are more urgently needed on their farms. This is due to the narrative that the majority of these people often return to their areas after pension, or in case of death they are taken home for burial. In their view, it is then important for them to invest in traditional wealth in the rural areas than doing so in the urban properties (Seckelmann, 2001:15; Selenius & Joas, 2004:10; Haimbodi, 2014:9-10). Some of the types of housing structures found in most of the informal settlements in the CoW are as depicted in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: Housing structure found in most informal settlements in Katutura



Source: Nampa (2020)

Figure 5.2 shows that the houses are made out of zinc and also that the structures are congested. The houses are small in size and they do not have running water or a flushing toilet in the house therefore people often use public toilets. Figure 5.2 shows that the residents in the informal settlements are faced with poverty and they need some interventions by the city so as to assist them with relocating them to serviced land.

The contemporary CoW is made up of eleven constituencies, namely: John Pandeni, Katutura Central, Katutura East, Khomasdal North, Moses //Garoëb, Samora Machel, Tobias Hainyeko, Windhoek West, Windhoek East, and Windhoek Rural. Though these constituencies are within the municipality boundaries, they all have different physiognomies (demographically, geographically, politically and economically). The level of poverty within these constituencies varies considerably (CoW, 2017:15).

In Namibia, poverty is estimated through the Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) methodology. In compliance with this methodology, Namibia develops three monetary poverty lines, namely: the food poverty line, the lower bound poverty line and the upper bound poverty line. These poverty lines are monthly thresholds below which a person will be classified as food poor, severely poor or poor, respectively. Food poor refers to

individuals who cannot afford to spend at least N\$293.1 per month to buy the minimum daily required 2100 food calories, which enables one to live a normal life. As such, any person who cannot afford to spend at least N\$293.1 on food per month is considered food poor. Severely poor denotes individuals who cannot afford to spend at least N\$389.3 per month on basic necessities such as food, transport, health, and education among others. Therefore, any person who cannot afford to spend at least N\$389.3 per month on food and other non-food basic needs is considered severely poor. Poor (the official poverty rate) refers to individuals who cannot afford to spend at least N\$520.8 per month on basic necessities. As such, any person who cannot afford to spend at least N\$520.8 per month on food and other non-food basic needs is considered poor (NSA, 2016:104).

The data on poverty estimates in Namibia are gathered through a sample survey, the Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey (NHIES) which is normally conducted after every five years. The latest survey is that of 2015/2016 as the 2020/2021 survey was postponed. The results on poverty estimates from the 2015/2016 NHIES shows that of 415 780 people in the CoW, 4.8% are poor since they fall under the upper bound poverty line. Moreover, 2.2% are severely poor since they fall under the lower bound poverty line, while 1.2% are food poor (NSA, 2016:104). This classification is based on the poverty lines as indicated in Table 5.1. The poverty lines are calculated based on the amount below under which people are classified as food poor, severely poor or poor. The figures are adjusted for inflation effects.

Table 5.1: Namibia's poverty lines

Poverty lines	2003/2004	2009/2010	2015/2016
FPL (Food poverty line)	N\$127.15	N\$204.05	N\$293.1
LBPL (Lower bound poverty line)	N\$184.56	N\$277.54	N\$389.3
UBPL (Upper bound poverty line)	N\$262.45	N\$377.96	N\$520.8

Source: NSA (2016:104).

Table 5.1 shows that the food poverty line estimate for 2015/2016 was N\$293.1, with the lower bound poverty line estimated at N\$389.3 and the upper bound poverty line

at N\$520.8. The above means that much still needs to be done by the CoW to assist the food poor, severely poor and the food poor that are living in the CoW.

According to the NPC (2015:31), the level of poverty in Windhoek is high in constituencies such as Tobias Hainyeko, Moses Garoeb, Samora Machel, Katutura East and Katutura Central which are all in Katutura. Moreover, the NPC (2015:31) claims that the high level of poverty in Katutura townships can be attributed to rapid population growth due to an inflow of migrants. The report further highlights that the majority of the migrants into these constituencies lack the necessary skills and education to be swiftly absorbed into the labour markets, which leads to the high rates of unemployment and subsequent poverty. Scholars such as Du Pisani (2006:1) states that the quality of life of the residents in these constituencies is characterised by poverty and everyday violence.

The World Bank (2020, cited by Ndjavera, 2020:1) projected the severe poverty rate in Namibia to rise by 2.7% due to the Coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic which threatens to widen existing large income gaps and increase the already extremely high inequality. Although the above figure reflects an increase in the level of extreme poverty country wide, the World Bank further points out that those most affected by Covid-19 are people living in urban areas, people with secondary education, and those employed in construction, manufacturing, private services, trade or transport sectors. Windhoek makes up more than half of the urban population in Namibia and it is where construction and manufacturing is highly concentrated. Moreover, Ndjavera (2020:1) reports that "...in part due to the negative impact of Covid-19 on livelihoods, poverty rates are projected to increase in the short to medium-term, with the international extreme poverty rate projected to rise to 18.9% in 2022. Typically, female-headed households, the less educated, larger families, children and the elderly, and labourers in subsistence farming, are particularly prone to poverty".

It can be deduced that the historical imbalances and huge inflow of migrants in the CoW have contributed significantly to the level of poverty in the city. Hence to alleviate poverty there is a need for the central government to fast track the decentralisation of services to other regions and to develop smaller towns in the country in order to avoid the huge influx of migrants to the CoW. There is a need for the CoW to assist the food poor, severely and poor people by providing them with serviced land where they can

construct their own houses. Latest figures on the level of poverty are needed because without them the planning will not be accurate and this might hinder efforts to alleviate poverty.

5.4 CITY OF WINDHOEK APPROACHES TO POVERTY ALLEVIATION

The analysis on the approaches utilised by the CoW in its endeavour to alleviate poverty within its area of administrative jurisdictions is viewed in line with the current economic development and social welfare initiatives implemented by the city. However, since Namibia is a unitary state with three layers of government, namely: central, regional and local government, it is imperative to highlight some physiognomies of a unitary state because they would shed light in understanding the influence of central government on the CoW initiatives to alleviate poverty. Newton and Van Deth (2010:82) argue that, “in a unitary system, national government ultimately controls all layers of government below it, and can reform, reorganise, or abolish units of local or regional government without any special constitutional restraint”. The unitary system of government is centralised in nature, but the central government can devolve some of its powers, duties and functions to the lower levels of government, therefore the central and local government can depend on each other in a centralised unitary state.

The implications of the system of government used in Namibia means that the CoW initiatives are developed in accordance with the central government policies such as Vision 2030 and the National Development Plans (NDPs) among others. If a local government institution such as the CoW is to play its democratic role, it must be elected by, and accountable to local citizens; but the central government is also elected and accountable to the citizens. In this scenario, the question arises as to which level of government should have the final word in decision making? The problem is likely to be serious if the central government and a particular local government municipality are controlled by different political parties (Newton & Van Deth, 2010:119). In Namibia, since independence both the central government and the CoW have been controlled by one political party, the SWAPO which strengthened the working relationship between these layers of government. However, the regional councils and local authorities' elections of November 2020 saw the CoW being led by

a coalition made up of the AR, the IPC, the PDM, and the NUDO (Iileka, 2021:1) (see Figure 5.1). In a situation where the local government is controlled by opposition political parties, there tends to be party political conflict built in central-local relations which is only resolved through negotiating, bargaining and compromising for these levels to work together (Newton & Van Deth, 2010:119).

With regards to the approach used to direct development, the then Mayor of the CoW, Dr Job Amupanda in his speech during the second ordinary council meeting of 2021 explained that the CoW would follow a developmental state approach (CoW, 2021:8). A developmental state approach is when the government plays a leading role in directing development, through the use of a series of policies, including tariff protection, subsidies as well as other types of controls envisioned at developing selected sectors of economic activities. This type of approach is associated with the role played by the government in promoting industrialisation especially in Japan and East Asia in the post-World War II era (Caldenty, 2014:27; Mollaer, 2016:3). While the central government in Namibia follows the neoliberal model whereby the government plays a limited role in the economy, but ensures the creation of an enabling environment to attract investors, the then Mayor asserted the following: “for Windhoek, the Municipal Council must now assume an interventionist character to drive economic development” (CoW, 2021:8). This is to be carried out through the use of the Windhoek Economic Recovery Initiative (WERI), the then Mayor expounded as follows:

The initiative seeks to ensure that the City takes a Corporatist approach, bringing together business and labour to achieve economic growth not only for the local economy but also for the entire country. WERI will unleash an opportunity for innovation of economic growth and employment creation. To entrepreneurs and industrialists, foreign and domestic, who have always wanted to present your ideas to the City but were unable to do so due to corruption and bureaucracy, may this initiative serve as fertile ground for thrilling opportunities.

While the above might not necessarily mean that there is a central-local political conflict in the relations between the levels of government as observed by Newton and Van Deth (2010:119), it is worth noting that this is still in its infancy stage. As time goes by, and if the coalition remains in control of the CoW for its five years term, a closer

analysis of the working relationship between the central government and the CoW in terms of the approach to reviving the economy of Windhoek and improving the quality of life for the residents would be a good topic for researchers.

5.4.1 Local economic development strategy

Just like other cities and towns in Namibia, the CoW has an LED strategy which assesses the economic conditions that prevail by identifying the unique economic challenges as well as the opportunities that exist for the city to explore and improve the social welfare of its residents. The LED strategy for the CoW is important because it aligns the city's objectives and projects with those of the central government's most prominent documents especially the Vision 2030, the NDPs, and the Harambee Posterity Plan (HPP) among others (CoW, 2010:5).

As of the time when this thesis was being written, the latest LED strategy in the public domain was the one for 2010-2015 as the new one was not yet finalised, hence this was treated as the working strategy for the city. According to the CoW (2010:6), the focus of the 2010-2015 LED strategy was on unique actions that were deemed important to provide the essential environment where local development could contribute to the goals and agenda of the central government, which aims to:

- revive and sustain economic growth;
- create more employment opportunities;
- reduce poverty; and
- promote economic empowerment.

In its endeavour to achieve the above, the CoW acknowledges that due to the location of Windhoek, the city does not have primary activities such as fishing, mining, and agriculture. The sectors that make important contributions to Windhoek's economy are manufacturing, wholesale and retail trade, real estate and business services, and the government sector as well as tourism. Furthermore, Windhoek has the largest number of manufacturing establishments in the country and it is highly concentrated in three sub-sectors, namely: food produce and beverage, furniture, and metal product

manufacturing. Whilst the business activity in Windhoek is dominated by the wholesale and retail trade sector, it is worth pointing out that as the largest urban area in Namibia, Windhoek also has the largest demand for wholesale and retail trade as well as business service activities. Consequently, the CoW has to provide the environment in which the aforesaid activities operate and this environment is not only the hard infrastructure, but it includes human resources that are needed to attain LED (CoW, 2010:6).

Like many other local authorities, the vision of the CoW is to enhance the quality of life of all its people. While the mission is to render efficient and effective municipal services. In order to achieve the above, the objectives of the LED strategy (2010-2015) for the CoW are to:

- identify practical sectoral programmes that could be used as the basis for proactive economic development initiatives;
- undertake focused analysis of key economic sectors;
- focus on opportunities for small, medium and micro enterprise (SMME) development;
- promote the creation of an enabling environment conducive for economic development by addressing components of programmes and projects;
- to provide a framework for implementation of LED initiatives;
- articulate the functions of the City in fulfilling leadership and supportive roles in the LED strategy, programmes and implementation as well as monitoring and evaluation; and
- ensures that the strategy aligns with and add value to the existing strategies and private sector initiatives.

The key issues and economic development needs that have been put forth to meet the abovementioned objectives are such as the need for accelerated growth, expansion and diversification in the local manufacturing sector; the need to stimulate trade and business development in Windhoek; the need to support entrepreneurs and focus on small business development; and the need to incorporate tourism as part of

LED efforts and utilise its potential to create employment for local communities (CoW, 2010:9-10).

The strategy has thrusts which represent the building blocks on which the new economy of the CoW is based. Each strategic thrust contains a basket of activities and projects that form the basis for development. The thrusts are employed as a reference point in order to develop suitable strategies (for each respective thrust). These strategies are translated into workable programmes aimed at addressing the specifics of the different thrusts. These thrusts are such as manufacturing and industrial development; trade investment promotion and business development; SMME development; tourism and skills development (CoW, 2010:12). Each thrust is aimed at growing the local economy which in turn creates employment opportunities for the residents and this helps to alleviate poverty in the city.

5.4.2 City of Windhoek initiatives to alleviate poverty

This section focuses on analysing some of the selected social welfare initiatives which are currently carried out by the CoW to improve the quality of life for the residents. The CoW through its Department of Housing, Property and Human Settlements has unique divisions that deal with the issues of community development, disaster management and the provision of affordable public transportation.

Within the community development division there is a social welfare section which was established in 2005. It is concerned with addressing the needs of vulnerable groups and it also assists in developing the potential of individuals, families as well as communities. The overall goal of this section is the betterment of the residents; therefore it carries out specific programmes that are targeting people such as orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs), older persons, and the disabled that are residing within the city. In fulfilment of the above, the city owns five community centres and it is actively involved in these three centres, namely: the Nathaniel Maxuilili centre; the Greenwell Matongo Centre, and the Otjomuise centre. One of the most caring programmes taking place at these three centres is the provision of soup kitchens to the OVCs throughout the year from Monday to Friday.

The disaster management division deals with the issues of emergency like fire prevention, emergency medical services, heavy rescue, water rescue, hazardous material response and community awareness safety education in an effort to enhance the safety and quality of life for the residents. Emergency such as burning down of shacks and flooding during rainy seasons are most likely to happen to the residents of the informal settlements. Taking into consideration that a considerable number of people that are residing in the informal settlements in Katutura often work minimum wage jobs in downtown and its surrounding areas where the well-off people are residing, the city therefore provides public transport. The city operates a fleet of 79 busses serving predominantly residential areas of Katutura from 5:30 am to 6:00 pm at an affordable rate in comparison to other transportation services in the city.

One can thus deduce that the CoW has outlined key sectors to be focused on in order to stimulate the economic activities within its area. However, it is important that the latest LED strategy for the CoW should be finalised and implemented soon to strengthen the areas which the 2010-2015 LED strategy did not cover. The classification of poverty lines in Namibia based on food poor, lower and upper bound poverty lines is important but not sufficient because poverty also involves elements of exclusion and deprivation. In order to tackle poverty effectively in the CoW, there is a need for the governing body to play an interventionist role in the economy especially to help the vulnerable groups and those that were previously disadvantaged. This is because if the city leadership does not intervene to help the less fortunate group they will remain in poverty because the proportion of the city that is less educated will find it difficult to identify the economic opportunities that are arising as the local economy is growing.

5.5 CONCLUSION

The focus of this chapter was on examining the underlying conditions of poverty in the CoW as well as on unpacking the current strategies by the city in alleviating poverty. It was discovered in the chapter that the forceful removal of people from the areas that have economic opportunities to Katutura have contributed to the poverty plight in the informal settlements. The informal settlements were not allowed in Windhoek before independence, but shortly after independence people started constructing their shacks

on the outskirts of Windhoek. The growth of informal settlements has tested the city's capacity with regards to upgrading them and uplifting the livelihood of the residents.

Poverty in Namibia is measured using the CBN approach and the poverty estimates figures for 2015/2016 was N\$293.1 for food poor with the lower bound poverty line estimated at N\$389.3 and the upper bound poverty line at N\$520.8. Furthermore, it was discussed in the chapter that in an event where the central government and a particular local government are controlled by different political parties, this can result in the central-local tensions which can affect the working relationship if they are not resolved amicably. The overall vision of the CoW is to enhance the quality of life of all its people. Therefore, the city has an LED strategy which focuses on sectors such as manufacturing, wholesale and retail trade, real estate and business services, and the government sector as well as tourism. Lastly, the CoW through its community development division has various programmes in place to alleviate poverty within its area of administrative jurisdiction.

The next chapter discusses the research methodology.

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on literature that addressed the local environment with specific emphasis on the CoW. The chapter gave a justification as to why poverty is justified in the context of CoW. The present chapter is different from the first five chapters of this thesis. Its uniqueness emanates from the fact that it is the most practical chapter of them all and it has a major influence on the outcome of this study. It is therefore regarded as the most essential chapter on this thesis because it describes the research methodology that supported the research process as well as the analysis and interpretation of the results.

Grinnell (1993:4) argues that research is a structured inquiry that uses acceptable scientific methodology to solve problems and creates new knowledge that is generally applicable. Burns (1994:2) sees research as a systematic investigation to find answers to a problem. Whereas methodology denotes the systematic and theoretical analysis of the methods applied to a field of study. It is made up of the theoretical analysis of the body of methods and principles associated with a branch of knowledge. Typically, it encompasses concepts such as paradigm, theoretical model, phases and quantitative or qualitative techniques (Igwenagu, 2016:5). Research methodology therefore refers to a set of systematic techniques used in research, meaning that it is a guide to research and how it is conducted (Igwenagu, 2016:5). Similarly, Silverman (2005:99) and Terreblanche and Durrheim (2006:6) argue that research methodology denotes the practical choice of cases, methods and analysis made by researchers to study any phenomenon.

This chapter therefore describes the research approaches, the philosophical worldviews, the target population, the sample, and the techniques used for sampling. Moreover, it explains the pilot study, the research methods with emphasis on methods and instruments of data collection, and the procedures followed during data collection. The manner in which results are analysed and interpreted are also discussed in this chapter as well as the ethical considerations adhered to and measures taken to ensure the quality of the study.

6.2 RESEARCH APPROACHES

Research approach refers to plans and the procedure for research that encompass the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Grover, 2015:1). There are three main approaches to research, namely: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods.

According to Creswell (2014:4), the qualitative research approach is concerned with exploring and understanding the meaning of persons or collections ascribe to a social or human problem. The research process in this scenario includes emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participants' setting, data analysis inductively built from particulars to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the information. The participants in this form of inquiry support a method of looking at research that honours an inductive style, a focus on individual meaning, and the importance of rendering the complexity of a situation. Ahmad et al. (2019:2828) argue that qualitative research is a process of naturalistic inquiry that aims to obtain a deeper understanding of social phenomena within their natural setting. It puts emphasis on the "why" as opposed to the "what" of social phenomena and relies on the direct experiences of human beings as meaning making agents in their daily lives. Babbie and Mouton (2001:270) observe that qualitative research is about studying human action from the perspective of social actors themselves. The main goal for this approach is to describe and understand, rather than explaining human behaviour.

The quantitative research approach focuses on testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. Subsequently, the variables can be measured with instruments in order for the numbered data to be analysed by making use of statistical procedures. The end report usually has a structure made up of an introduction, literature and theory, methods, results as well as discussion (Driscoll, et al., 2007:18). In like manner with the qualitative research, those who engage in this form of inquiry have assumptions about testing theories deductively, building in protections against bias, controlling for alternative explanations, and being able to generalise and replicate the findings (Creswell, 2014:4). Researchers such as Ahmad et al. (2019:2829) explain that quantitative research uses methods of natural sciences which produce numerical data and hard facts. It normally seeks to develop cause and effect

relationships between two variables by utilising mathematical, computational and statistical methods. Quantitative research is often referred to as empirical research because it can be measured accurately and precisely. Data under this approach are presented in graphs and tables which make it easier for the research to analyse the findings.

Driscoll et al. (2007:19) allude that mixed methods research refers to all the procedures of collecting as well as analysing both quantitative and qualitative data in the context of a single study. Chen (2006:75) and Creswell (2014:4) share the same sentiment by arguing that mixed methods research is a method of inquiry which involves collecting both qualitative and quantitative data, integrating the two forms of data, and using distinct designs that may involve philosophical assumptions and theoretical frameworks. In like manner, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007:123) state that mixed methods is when researchers combines the elements of quantitative and qualitative in one study for the purpose of extensiveness and depth of understanding and corroboration. Creswell (2014:4) further expounds that the fundamental assumption of this form of inquiry is that the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a more complete understanding of a research problem than either approach alone.

This study used a qualitative research approach. The rationale for using the qualitative approach is because of the nature of the study. The study aims to investigate whether CoW can alleviate poverty through its LED strategies to improve the lives of its citizens. To address the specific research objectives such as determining whether LED strategies can alleviate poverty is better suited with a qualitative analysis. In utilizing the qualitative approach the research made use of questionnaires to gather the community and officials perspectives on poverty and how it can be alleviated.

6.3 PHILOSOPHICAL WORLDVIEWS

Slife and Williams (1995, cited by Creswell, 2014:5) claim that though philosophical ideas are not at the forefront in research, they still shape and influence how research is conducted at the practical level. The term worldview is often used synonymously with paradigm. These terms mean a basic set of beliefs that guide actions (Guba,

1990:17). In this thesis, the term worldview is used instead of paradigm, and it is contextualised as a general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study. In other words, worldviews are rooted and influenced by factors such as discipline orientations, students' supervisors/mentors inclinations, as well as past research experiences (Creswell, 2014:6). Worldview reflects the lens through which a researcher looks at the world. It is the conceptual lens through which the researcher examines the methodological aspects of their thesis to determine the research methods that will be used and how the data will be analysed (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:26).

This thesis discusses four worldviews in contemporary literature, namely: postpositivism, transformative, constructivism/interpretivist and pragmatism (Creswell, 2014:6; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:26). Postpositivists define a worldview to research, which is grounded in research methods known as the scientific methods of investigation. In its classical form, this scientific method entails a process of experimentation that is used to explore observations and provide answers to research questions. It is mostly utilised to search for cause and effect relationships among variables, which makes it a preferred worldview for studies that seek to interpret observations in terms of facts or measurable entities. Therefore, studies within the jurisdiction of this worldview depend on deductive logic, formulation and testing of the research hypotheses, presenting operational definitions and mathematical equations, calculations, extrapolations and expressions, to make conclusions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:18; Fadhel, 2002:25; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:30).

The constructivist/interpretivist worldview seeks to fundamentally understand the subjective world of human experience. This worldview endeavours to get an insight of the subject being studied with an aim to understand and interpret what the subject is thinking or the meaning being made from the context. Within this worldview, much emphasis is placed on comprehension of the viewpoint of the subject being observed, as opposed to the viewpoint of the observer. Hence, the key tenet of the interpretivist worldview is that reality is socially constructed. Studies that are following this worldview have their data gathered and analysed in a manner that is consistent with grounded theory (Guba & Lincoln, 1989:79; Bogdan & Biklen, 1998:112; Strauss & Corbin, 1990:17).

The transformative worldview bases its research around issues in social justice and it aims to address the political, social and economic issues, which lead to social oppression, conflict, struggle, and power structures at whatever level this might occur. The advocates for this worldview claim that the constructivist stance did not go far enough in advocating for an action to help marginalised people (Creswell, 2014:9; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:3).

The pragmatism worldview can be traced among the philosophers who believe that it was not possible to access the “truth” concerning the real world by means of a sole scientific method as endorsed by the positivist worldview; and that it is also not sufficient to determine social reality as constructed under the interpretivist worldview. Since the philosophers within this worldview were not satisfied with the mono-paradigmatic orientation of research, they proposed for a worldview which would provide methods of research that are seen to be most appropriate for studying the phenomenon at hand (Patton, 1990:87; Alise & Teddlie, 2010:104; Biesta, 2010:96). Similarly, Creswell and Clark (2018:39) describe pragmatism as a set of ideas that have been articulated by many people throughout the years. It draws on many ideas, including employing “what works”, using diverse approaches, and valuing both objective and subjective knowledge.

This thesis adopted and followed the interpretivist worldview because it had to get the community perspectives on their poverty plight as well as the views of the officials on whether the LED strategies can alleviate poverty. Therefore, because of the nature of the study interpretivist was better suited to address the research objectives.

6.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design refers to the overall strategy that one chooses to address the problem which requires integration of different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby, ensuring to solve the problem in efficient way. It constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, analysis of data, interpretation and reporting of conclusions (Grover, 2015:1-2). Scholars such as Gravetter and Forzano (2012:205) suggest that a survey should be conducted to obtain descriptive information about a particular group of individuals. Therefore, this plan gives a

conceptual framework, which guides how the research is conducted. The current research aimed to gather various information from the residents of the CoW regarding their poverty plights. In so doing, it set to explore the relation between poverty alleviation and the socio-economic conditions of poor communities; to determine whether LED strategies can alleviate poverty; and to investigate whether the alleviation of poverty translates into a better quality of life for the residents. This study used a descriptive research method to gather information about variables as they exist naturally. This approach is supported by Fabe (2012, cited by Veldtman, 2018:129) who claims that the descriptive method deals with the collection of data about an existing condition. The emphasis is on describing rather than on judging or interpreting. This method is used to describe the nature of a situation as it exists at the time of the research, and to explore the causes of a particular phenomenon (May, 2011:98). As part of the descriptive research method, survey research design was relevant in this study since it aided the researcher to gather information that answered the research questions. Therefore, survey research was used to obtain data from the respondents in a sample that was drawn from a population.

6.5 TARGET POPULATION

Bryman (2012:714) refers to the population as the universe of units from which a sample is to be selected. Since population is a primary source of data, it can easily influence the credibility of the sample, sampling technique(s) and the overall outcomes of the study based on the researcher's understanding, definition and choice of the population (Asiamah, Mensah & Oteng-Abayie, 2017:1607). There are three types of population, namely: the general, target, and accessible populations. The general population refers to an entire group about which information is required to be ascertained (Banerjee & Chaudhury, 2010:5). Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001:2) advise that participants in the general population must at least share a single attribute of interest. Asiamah et al. (2017:1612) claim that the general population is characteristically crude because it often contains participants whose inclusion in the study would violate the research goal, assumptions, and or context.

According to Glen (2019), target population means a group or set of elements that you want to know more information about. Bartlett et al. (2001:2) refer to a target population as the number of population that remains after the application of the selection criteria (inclusion and exclusion) to the general population. The accessible population denotes the total population that remains from the target population after those who will not participate or cannot be accessed to participate in the study are removed (Bartlett et al., 2001:2).

In the context of this thesis, the target population consisted of all the residents of the CoW. Furthermore, the target population is made up of the total number of officials from the Local Economic Development Agency (LEDA) division in the Ministry of Urban and Rural Development (MURD); total number of officials from the Directorate of Planning, and also from the Directorate of Social Protection Services both under the Ministry of Gender Equality, Poverty Eradication and Social Welfare (MGEPESW). The reason for including all the residents of Windhoek in the target population was because the phenomenon of poverty has various dimensions and it affects all people from different parts of the city in different ways. Therefore, to get a diverse community perspective on poverty would require inclusion of all residents of the CoW regardless of their age, gender, education level, ethnic origin or their social class. The total target population estimation for the study is shown in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1: Target population composition

Phases	Entities that make up the target population	Estimated population size
Phase 1	Residents of the CoW	422 638
Phase 2	Officials from the CoW Department of Economic Development and Community Services	35
	Officials from MGEPESW Directorate of Planning and Directorate of Social Protection Services	50
	Officials from MURD Division of LEDA	5
Estimated total target population size for the study		422 728

Source: NSA (2021); CoW (2021); MGEPESW (2021) and MURD (2021). These statistics were given through personal communications.

6.6 SAMPLE

Bryman (2012:715) defines sample as the segment of the population that is selected for research. Majid (2018:3) explains that sampling is the process of selecting a statistically representative sample of individuals from the target population. Sampling is an important tool for research studies because the target population usually consists of too many individuals for any thesis to include as participants. Majid (2018:3) advises that a good sample is a statistical representation of the target population and is large enough to answer the research questions.

During phase 1, participants were identified by making use of the simple random sample technique. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:647), a simple random sample is a type of a probability sample in which the units composing a population are assigned numbers. A set of random numbers is then generated, and the units having those numbers are included in the sample. Taherdoost (2016:21) argues that simple random sample entails that every case of the population has an equal probability of inclusion in the sample. This sampling technique was used because it does not require maximum knowledge of the target population, and it is also free from subjectivity and personal error, hence it provides data that are a representative of the areas being investigated.

A sample size of 384 residents from a population estimate of 422 638 of Windhoek was drawn up using the sample size calculator on Google. This calculation is based on 80% response rate, with a margin of error of 5% and a confidence level of 95%. This sample size allows generalisation to be made with regards to the prevailing condition of poverty in the CoW.

To identify the participants from the sample size, the researcher followed these steps: Step 1, the researcher obtained a list of all the households in Windhoek from the municipality. Step 2, the researcher assigned each household a number. Thereafter, the researcher used the random number function (RAND) in Microsoft Excel programme to generate random numbers. Step 3, the researcher and the fieldworkers collected data from one person in each of the identified households.

During phase 2, participants were selected by means of a purposive sampling technique. According to Taherdoost (2016:23), purposive or judgemental sampling is

an approach to sampling in which particular persons or events are selected deliberately in order to provide important information that cannot be obtained from other choices. In other words, it is when researchers include participants in the sample because they believe that the people warrant inclusion. Bryman (2012:714) defines purposive sampling as a form of non-probability sampling in which the researcher aims to sample cases or participants in a strategic way, so that those sampled are relevant to the research questions that are being posed. This sampling technique was used to identify participants that are knowledgeable on local economic development strategies as well as on measures in place to alleviate poverty. The sample size for the officials of stakeholder organisations was 35 participants from various directorates, departments and divisions of the identified institutions. The total sample size for each organisation is presented in Table 6.2 below. Therefore, the total sample size for the study is 419 people.

Table 6.2: Sample composition

Phases	Entities that makes up the sample	Sample size
Phase 1	Residents of the CoW	384
Phase 2	Officials from the CoW Department of Economic Development and Community Services	18
	Officials from MGEPEWS Directorate of Planning and Directorate of Social Protection Services	12
	Officials from MURD Division of LEDA	5
Total sample size for the study		419

Source: Author, 2022

6.7 RESEARCH METHODS

Research methods are specific tools, techniques or specific procedures for collecting and analysing data (Walliman, 2011:4). This section explains the methods, tools as well as various procedures followed by the researcher while conducting the study.

6.7.1 Pilot study

According to Hassan, Schattner and Mazza (2006:70), a pilot study is concerned with carrying out a small study to test research protocols, data collection instruments, sample recruitment strategies, as well as other research techniques as a preparation for a larger study to follow. Similarly, Lowe (2019:117) perceives a pilot study as a small feasibility study that is done to test numerous aspects of the methods planned for a larger rigorous study. Luton (2010:32) recommends that it is vital to make service of someone with pertinent experience to provide inputs on research instruments.

A pilot study was carried out prior to the collection of primary data to test the questionnaires for the residents of the CoW as well as officials. The questionnaires were given to selected officials from each of the institutions that participated in the study. The aim was for the officials to test whether the statements contained in the questionnaires and the options provided are well aligned before administering the questionnaires to all the participants. All the comments and suggestions were analysed and those that were vital were incorporated in both questionnaires.

6.7.2 Data collection

Data collection is about gathering, measuring and analysing accurate information for research, utilising authorised techniques (Bhandari, 2020:online). Data collection is also defined as the process of collecting and measuring information on variables of interest in an established systematic fashion that enables one to answer the identified research questions, test hypotheses, and evaluate outcomes. The component of data collection is common in all fields of study, but the methods of data collection differ according to disciplines, though they all put emphasis on cautioning researchers to ensure accuracy and honesty in the process (McLaughlin, 2020:online).

The data collection process in this study was divided into three phases. Phase 1 and phase 2 focused on collecting empirical data from the residents of the CoW as well as from officials from selected institutions. Phase 3 focused on collecting data from different literature sources. The methods and instruments for data collection under each phase are discussed below.

6.7.2.1 Survey

A survey refers to a data collection tool for carrying out survey research (Glasow, 2005:1). Pinsonneault and Kraemer (1993:77) define a survey as a “means for gathering information about the characteristics, actions, or opinions of a large group of people”. Salant and Dillman (1994:2) argue that surveys can also be used to assess needs, evaluate demand, and examine impact. A survey is one of the best methods available and reliable for collecting primary data on socio-economic trends from the population that is too large to observe directly (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:232). Moreover, a survey makes provisions for the collection of demographic information that describes the sampled group. Surveys are inclusive in the types and number of variables that can be studied. They require minimal investment to develop and administer, and they are relatively easy for making generalisations. They can also be used to elicit information about attitudes that are otherwise difficult to measure using observational techniques (Bell, 1996:68; McIntyre, 1999:74-75).

During phase 1 and phase 2, a survey was used because of the nature of the topic being studied and the type of the research questions posed by the study. Firstly, the topic required the researcher to gather information about the socio-economic conditions of the residents of the CoW in order to analyse their poverty plight. Secondly, the population of the CoW is large and therefore it required the selection of a sample group that is a fair representation of the target population. Lastly, a survey was used because it enables the researcher to collect accurate information on poverty alleviation and local economic development strategies from the officials within a short time frame.

The instruments used to collect data during phase 1 and phase 2 were structured survey questionnaires. Two sets of questionnaires were developed for each phase to allow the collection of accurate data from both the residents and officials. Both questionnaires were divided into different sections and each section contained predetermined answers. The participants were asked to choose the correct answer from the given options in some sections, while in other sections they had to rate the extent to which they strongly disagree, disagree, uncertain, agree, and strongly agree with the given statements.

During phase 1, the questionnaire enabled the participants to provide responses to statements that outline the residents' perspective on poverty. The data collected from the participants under this phase cover biographical information, information on income and how it is used, information on service delivery, and information on the CoW involvement on poverty alleviation among others. During phase 2 the questionnaire was designed in such a way that the officials had to give their perspectives on what is being done to alleviate poverty in the CoW. Information collected from the officials was on issues pertaining to the poverty situation in the CoW, the local economic development strategies, better quality of life, and the effective ways to alleviate poverty.

The closed-ended statements were used in this study because they provide a greater uniformity of responses and can be more easily processed. Moreover, participants answer on the statements under various sections are important because they address the problem statement and provide answers to the research questions posed by this study which helps to fill the knowledge gaps that were discovered in the literature review chapters.

During phase 1 the questionnaires were administered by the researcher and two fieldworkers due to the larger sample size of the residents of the CoW. Each fieldworker signed a confidentiality agreement. During phase 2, the questionnaires were only administered by the researcher on the set appointment date with the officials. The whole data collection process started from 1 April 2021 to 30 July 2021. It took approximately 20-30 minutes per participant to complete a questionnaire under both phase 1 and phase 2.

6.7.2.2 Document analysis

Corbin and Straus (2008) and Rapley (2007, cited in Bowen, 2009:27) define document analysis as a methodical procedure for studying or assessing documents in their different formats. Since document analysis is part of qualitative research, its focal point necessitates that data should be scrutinised and interpreted in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding, as well as develop empirical knowledge. Wilsom (2019:3) sees document analysis as a form of qualitative research whereby the

researcher has to interpret documents in order to give voice and meaning around an assessment topic. Altheide et al. (2008:127) clarify that qualitative document analysis entails combining numerous steps in investigation with a vigilante eye in order to peruse concepts, data, and other information sources that emerge in the context of thinking and discovering research process. Bowen (2009:28) explains that the process of analysing documents includes coding content into themes, like how one analyses focus group or interview transcripts.

When conducting document analysis, the types of documents to be analysed include agendas, attendance registers, and minutes of meetings; manuals; background papers; books and brochures; diaries and journals; event programmes; letters and memoranda; maps and charts; newspapers; press releases; programme proposals, application forms, and summaries; radio and television programme scripts; organisational or institutional reports; survey data; and various public records (Wilson, 2019:4-5). Some of the advantages associated with using document analysis as a method of data collection within a qualitative research is that it is an efficient method because it is less time-consuming and therefore more efficient than other research methods. This is mainly because it requires data selection, instead of data collection. Many documents are in the public domain which makes them easily available and accessible especially since the advent of internet (Bowen, 2008:27-28; International Rescue Committee, 2015:6; Wilson, 2019:5). The other rationale for choosing document analysis through the analysis of documents such as textbooks, journals, annual reports and strategic plans among others, was to gather comprehensive supplementary information to the primary data collected through a survey. Therefore, documentary analysis in this study was used to gather information on what is currently being done to alleviate poverty in the CoW. The study also used documentary analysis to identify the components that can be measured in order to determine whether people's quality of life are getting better or worse. As such, the information collected from the questionnaires was supported with the findings from documentary analysis.

6.7.3 Procedure

The following procedures were followed. Firstly, the researcher applied and obtained an ethical clearance certificate from the Department of Public Administration and Management Research Ethics Committee of the College of Economic and Management Sciences at UNISA (see Annexure F). Secondly, the researcher and the fieldworkers familiarised themselves with the participants' information sheet, participants' consent form as well as the general rules on the questionnaire for easy explanation of these documents to the participants. Thirdly, the researcher made copies of the participants' information sheet, participants' consent form and the ethical clearance certificate and attached them to all the questionnaires. Fourthly, the researcher made appointments with officials from various directorates, divisions and departments of the selected stakeholder organisations. After the appointments were set, the researcher and the fieldworkers started to collect data from the residents of the CoW. However, the researcher needed to take some days off during phase 1 of empirical data collection process to collect data from the officials based on the set appointment dates.

As alluded to previously, empirical data in this study were collected through the use of two different sets of questionnaires which contained closed-ended statements. This led to the development of various phases of the study, whereby phase 1 is the collection of data from the residents of the CoW, phase 2 the collection of data from officials. Phase 3 represents the collection of data by means of document analysis.

Prior to administering the questionnaire to the participants, the researcher and the fieldworkers explained the information contained in the participants' information sheet, the participants consent form as well as the general rules that were contained in the questionnaires. Thereafter, participants were requested to enter their full names in the participants' consent form and to sign it and this form remained with the researcher/fieldworkers. During the process of data collection, the following procedures were adhered to by the fieldworkers as well as the researcher at all instances: The researcher and the fieldworkers had to introduce themselves and show their national identify documents (ID/Passport) to all the participants. After the process of data collection was done, all the questionnaires were stored by the researcher in a safe at home.

During phase 3, the researcher created themes based on the research questions posed by the study. In line with the themes, the researcher started with the research for documents on the internet and in libraries that deal with poverty alleviation and socio-economic conditions, local economic development strategies and poverty as well as those on poverty alleviation and better quality of life. Furthermore, the researcher visited the official websites of the CoW, MURD and MGEPEWSW in order to retrieve their official documents, see their mission statements as well as their strategic plans. In instances where the official websites did not contain sufficient information, the researcher approached the office of the public relation officers of these stakeholder organisations and requested for the required documents.

After all the required literature were identified, acquired and stored, the researcher analysed the documents rigorously by creating codes that emerged from the themes. Thereafter, the codes were analysed for relevance and the selected ones were included in the study. As soon as the data analysis was done, the information is stored for 5 years in accordance with the Information Act 2 of 2000. After this period, all information relating to data collection process would be shredded.

6.7.4 Data analysis and interpretation

According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016:2), data analysis is the classification and interpretation of linguistic or visual material to make statements about implicit and explicit dimensions and structures of meaning-making in the material and what is presented in it. Data analysis includes the goals; relationships; decision making; and ways of working with data to support the work, goals and plans of the programme (Richmond, 2006:13). The manner in which data are analysed is influenced by the research approach as well as the design of the study. Richmond (2006:13) and Onwuegbuzie and Combs (2011:3) state that quantitative data are analysed using quantitative techniques and qualitative data are analysed using qualitative techniques

Adu-Febiri (2019:7) outlines three important research concepts that the researcher needs to follow after the data collection process in order to answer the research objectives/questions in their thesis. First, *analyse it* and this refers to the processing of the data, which is when the researcher needs to examine and synthesise or break

down the data to discover the message or units, category units, themes and patterns in them. Second, *display it* which is when the researcher creates visuals (diagrams, flow charts, maps, taxonomies, tables, graphs, figures, images, etc.) to display the connections among the category units, themes and patterns. Third, *interpret it* and this is the stage when the researcher needs to make sense of (assign significance or coherent meaning to) the displayed integrated category units, themes and patterns the data reveal.

Data analysis therefore deals with the issues such as what do the data say? What message do the data communicate? Technically, what message or meaning units, category units, themes or patterns do the data reveal? While data interpretation or interpretation of results is concerned with issues such as what is the meaning of the voice/message/pattern the data reveal? To be more explicit, data analysis is when data speaks – meaning that the researcher allows the data to speak for themselves. Whereas, data interpretation is researcher speak – meaning the researcher speaks for the data (Chilisa, 2012:214; Adu-Febiri, 2019:12-13).

In this study, empirical data collected through questionnaires were analysed by making use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 27 software. Frequency distribution, graphical and numerical values were used to present data in the form of tables, bar graphs, line graphs and pie charts. Thereafter, descriptive statistics was used to allow the researcher to describe and summarise data in a way that allowed patterns to emerge from the data.

The data collected through document analysis were analysed in a descriptive manner, as follows:

- a) *Familiarisation* - this involved a detailed reading and review of the documents.
- b) *Inducing themes* - the collected data were reduced to relevant data, based on the key themes coming out of the study research questions.
- c) *Coding* - by marking the data according to its relevance. Subthemes may be created.

- d) *Elaboration* - which is about finding meaning on themes, categories and codes.
- e) *Interpretation* - by using categories to write interpretations.

Thereafter, key findings from both empirical and literature review data strands were presented according to the themes that emerged from the research objectives. Afterwards, the overall portraits of different issues were constructed, conclusions were drawn and recommendations were made based on the findings.

6.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is a discipline that deals with what is good and bad or right and wrong with moral duty and obligations. In other words, ethics are norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about our behaviour and our relationships with others. The goal of ethics in research is to ensure that no one is harmed or suffers adverse consequences from research activities. The upholding of ethical guidelines refers to whether a researcher has demonstrated competency, maintained honesty in the management of the resources, acknowledged sources and the inputs of supporters during the study and presents an accurate report of the findings.

Before collecting data, an ethical clearance certificate was obtained from UNISA, thereafter permission was sought from the CoW, MPESW and MURD. An introductory letter was attached to the questionnaires, explaining the purpose of the study and the general rules where contained on each of the questionnaires. Before administering the questionnaires, participants were also informed that they had the right to withdraw from the study without any penalties and that all their information was going to be kept confidential.

In addition to the above, the researcher endeavoured to guarantee confidentiality, anonymity and honesty. Confidentiality was ensured by keeping the data collected confidential. The collected data was kept safe and only the researcher had access to the data. Anonymity was ensured by keeping all the participants anonymous in the reporting of data. To ensure honesty, the researcher relied on the truthful acknowledging of sources and reporting of data by avoiding falsifying of information.

Other ethical issues observed in this thesis are outlined and discussed in the section below.

6.9 ENSURING THE QUALITY OF THE STUDY

The issue of quality of the study in qualitative and quantitative research is one of the topics that is widely deliberated by scholars in contemporary literature. This is reflected in studies by Sale and Brazil (2004:354); O’Cathain, Murphy and Nicholl (2008:96); Heyvaert et al., (2013:303) and Fa`bregues and Molina-Azori´n (2017:2847) which conducted systematic reviews of literature on the quality of qualitative and quantitative studies. These studies were focused on criteria for ensuring quality in qualitative and quantitative research. Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole (2013:236-238) argue that reliability, validity and objectivity determine quality in a quantitative research, whereas trustworthiness, credibility, transferability, dependability, triangulation and confirmability are for qualitative studies. Wassenaar (2006:70) states that these rigorous concepts and practices provide valid answers to the research question.

In this thesis, the following standards of quality and appraisal criteria were observed: The first standard is veracity which refers to credibility in qualitative research and internal validity in quantitative research. Veracity is concerned with true value of the findings or the degree to which the results accurately and precisely represent the phenomenon under study. In this thesis, there was a triangulation of methods by using survey questionnaires and documentary analysis. Moreover, explanation of the internal logic of the research questions, study design, the data collection methods and the approach to data analysis used in the thesis are provided under various relevant sections of the study. The researcher also ensured that data were collected from the sample that is a fair representation of the population (see section 6.6). Secondly, the empirical results were supported with the literature.

The second standard is consistency which refers to dependability in qualitative research and reliability in quantitative research. To ensure consistency in the study, the researcher conducted a piloting of the questionnaires and ensured that the conceptualisation and interpretation of the study is aligned to the research objectives. Moreover, in order to ensure that the research could yield the same or similar findings

if it were to be repeated under the same/similar context, a methodological coherence and rigour was ensured by a proper audit of the process, well documented and audited.

The third standard is applicability which addresses transferability in qualitative research and generalisability (or external validity) in quantitative research. In general, the applicability of a given study is the level to which one can take what is learnt in one study and using the findings in another settings or population. To ensure transferability, the researcher indicated the aim of the study and offered a comprehensive explanation of the research approach used, the rationale for the qualitative research approach as well as the justification of all the components under the research methods section of the study. Furthermore, a sufficient description of the data, findings and context was provided in order to illustrate that all the relevant considerations are done and the findings are 'saturated' (thick description). The researcher used a simple random sampling technique to select a sample which is a fair representation of the target population which allows for generalisation of the data from the residents of the CoW.

The final standard is neutrality which denotes confirmability in qualitative research and objectivity in quantitative research. The concept of neutrality addresses whether the researcher has prior assumptions that there might be some bias in the implementation of the study or interpretation of results. The researcher focused on fair implementation of the study by following the guidelines within the selected qualitative research design. Furthermore, the researcher ensured a fair interpretation of the data based on the participants' answers without integrating the researcher's prior knowledge of poverty in the CoW. The above discussed standards of quality and appraisal criteria for qualitative and quantitative research are depicted in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Standards of quality and appraisal criteria for qualitative and quantitative research

Standard	Qualitative appraisal criteria	Quantitative appraisal criteria
Veracity	Credibility – The degree to which the findings plausibly explain the phenomenon of interest or cohere with what is known; attention paid to alternative explanations; correspondence between the researcher’s and respondent’s portrayal of respondent experience	Internal validity – The degree to which the findings represent a “true” reflection of a causal relationship between the variables of interest in the population under study
Consistency	Dependability – The degree to which the researchers account for and describe the changing contexts and circumstances during the study	Reliability – The degree to which observations, measures or results can be replicated (for the same participant or in different studies)
Applicability	Transferability – The degree to which findings or research protocols can be transferred to other settings, contexts, or populations as determined by the reader	Generalisability (or external validity) – The degree to which the study results hold true for a population beyond the participants in the study or in other settings
Neutrality	Confirmability – The degree to which the findings of a study are shaped by respondents and not researcher bias, motivation, or interest	Objectivity – The degree to which the researchers can remain distanced from what they study so that findings reflect the nature of what was studied rather than researcher bias, motivation, or interest

Source: Sale and Brazil (2004:354); O’Cathain et al., (2008:96); Polit and Beck (2010:1452); Bless et al., (2013:236-238); Heyvaert et al., (2013:303).

6.10 CONCLUSION

The chapter discussed the methodological aspects of the study. The study used a qualitative research approach and the philosophical worldviews that supported the study is pragmatism. Simple random sampling and purposive sampling techniques

were utilised to identify participants from the residents of the CoW. Simple random sampling allows for the selection of the sample that is a fair representation of the CoW population. The methods, instruments and procedures of data collection were explained in the chapter. The manner in which both the empirical and literature review data were analysed was explained as well as the ethical considerations adhered to. The standards of quality and appraisal criteria used in this thesis are veracity, consistency, applicability and neutrality.

The next chapter focuses on data analysis and interpretation of the results.

CHAPTER SEVEN: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the research methodology that supported the conduct of the study. This chapter focuses on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data captured through structured questionnaires from the residents of the CoW as well as officials from the following institutions: CoW's Department of Economic Development and Community Services; MGEPEWSW Directorate of Planning and Directorate of Social Protection Services; and MURD Division of Local Economic Development Agency (LEDA).

Responses from the survey conducted with the residents of the CoW is presented first. The presentation is arranged according to the sections and statements in the questionnaire that were used to solicit data from the participants. The questionnaire is attached as annexure A. Data from officials from selected stakeholder organisations is presented together based on the order of the questionnaire used. The questionnaire is attached as annexure B. Secondary data collected from literature is presented in line with the themes that emerged from the literature review and research questions. Thereafter, both primary and secondary data are merged and differences and similarities within the data sets are identified and discussed.

7.2 RESPONSES FROM THE RESIDENTS OF THE CITY OF WINDHOEK

The purpose of conducting a survey to collect data from the residents of the CoW was to get the community perspectives on their poverty plight. This is important because residents are able to give primary data on poverty through the rating of statements provided to them by the researcher. As alluded to earlier on in this thesis, the questionnaire used to collect data from the participants during phase 1 was divided into six sections. Section A focused on collecting biographical information of the participants. This information was deemed important because it helps to provide an overview of the participants' gender, age group, highest qualification, nationality, ethnic origin, employment status, years of service and their marital status. These types

of information are important when one is studying poverty because as Innocent et al. (2014:98) record, poverty is a global phenomenon which affects continents, nations, and people differently. All statements under section A the results are summarised under Table 7.1.

Sections B and C concentrated on income/benefits and how it is used in the CoW. The main purpose for these sections was to determine how much the participants get per month, the sources of income and how they spend the income they get. These types of information are important for any study on poverty because how much a person earns can determine disposable income, where the person is most likely to live and how much he/she can afford to spend on basic goods and services. The results from statements under sections B and C are presented separately and for each statement the results are presented in tables and figures.

Section D focused on service delivery in the CoW. The purpose of this section was to establish the length of period participants have been living in the area to determine whether they have experienced any improvement in service delivery within their areas as well as to identify what the participants experience is the biggest service delivery challenge in their view. These types of information are vital since it made the study to provide the best recommendations that can be used by the CoW to mitigate the biggest service delivery challenge that were mentioned by most of the participants. Section E focused on the CoW's involvement in poverty alleviation. The aim for this section was to determine whether participants understand the goal of every local authority organisation in relation to residents' quality of life as well as to establish the extent to which participants were involved in the poverty alleviation programmes and activities of the CoW. The last section (section F) of the questionnaire tested the impacts of Covid-19 on the lives of the participants. The 2019 outbreak of Covid-19 in China subsequently saw the World Health Organisation (WHO) declare it a Public Health Emergency of International Concern in 2020. The virus spread worldwide and by December 2020, more than 74 million cases had been confirmed worldwide with more than 1.6 million fatalities (WHO, 2020). This section was therefore seen as important because Covid-19 is a pandemic that has affected people worldwide, therefore statements under this section were meant to examine the efforts made by the CoW to assist the residents in response to Covid-19 as well as the events that happened in the lives of residents as a result of Covid-19.

The target for this phase was to administer the questionnaire to the selected 384 residents of the CoW. A 100% response rate was achieved under this phase, therefore the frequency for the residents of the CoW is N=384.

7.2.1 Biographical information

Table 7.1 shows the results of the participants' biographical information. The first column contains the statements asked to the participants, while the second column shows the frequency which is the actual number of the participants who chose a particular statement. The last column emerged from the second column and it presents the percentage of the participants under each statement.

Table 7.1: Biographical information (N= 384)

Statements	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Participants' gender		
Male	142	37
Female	242	63
Total	384	100
Participants' age		
Under 28 years	114	30
29-40 years	132	34
41-55 years	80	21
56-65 years	34	9
66+ years	24	6
Total	384	100
Participants' highest qualification		
Doctorate	6	2
Masters' degree	11	3
Honours' degree	108	28
Bachelor's degree	43	11
Diploma	46	12
Certificate	73	19
Matric/Grade 12	36	9
None of the above	61	16
Total	384	100
Participants' nationality		
Namibian	333	87

Angolan	12	3
South African	0	0
Zimbabwean	19	5
Zambian	11	3
Other	9	2
Total	384	100
Participants' ethnic origin		
Aawambo	173	45
Kavango	25	7
Herero	55	14
Damara	31	8
Nama	4	1
San	5	1
Caprivian	18	5
Tswana	0	0
Baster	0	0
Other	73	19
Total	348	100
Participants' employment status		
Full-time employee	191	50
Part-time employee	6	2
Self-employed	84	21
Unemployed	38	10
Student	38	10
Retired	27	7
Total	384	100
Participants' years of service		
0-5	165	43
6-10	47	12
11-15	99	26
16-20	40	10
21-25	18	5
26 +	15	4
Total	384	100
Participants' marital status		
Married	115	30
Living together	35	9
Single	215	56
Divorced	11	3

Widow	7	2
Widower	1	0
Total	384	100

Gender

The results for gender as indicated in Table 7.1 above show that 63% of the participants were female, while 37% were male. These results are supported by the Namibia Labour Force Survey (NLFS) of 2018 which found that males made up 48.6% of the population of Namibia while women constituted 51.4% (NSA, 2018:27). The NLFS further revealed that for Khomas region which is home to Windhoek, males constituted 49.5%, while females were 50.5%. These results are not surprising since literature reveals that in most societal settings there are often more females than males (Rajaram, 2009:1). The NLFS also revealed that females constituted 56.5% of Namibia's economically inactive population, whereas males made up 43.5%; for Khomas region females made up 58.1% and males 41.9% (NSA, 2018:39). These results have implications since a study by Rajaram (2009:1) found that once poverty is measured based on the standard of living index measure of poverty, female headed households were found to be marginally poorer than their male headed counterparts (Rajaram, 2009:1).

The inclusion of gender categories in the study was deemed important because poverty is a global phenomenon which affects continents, nations and people differently (Innocent et al., 2014:98). The results clearly illustrate that in all three instances, namely: national and Khomas regional results based on the 2018 NLFS, and the results from the survey conducted in this study, females were more than males. This means that there are more females than males in the CoW. It could also be inferred that females constitute a large proportion of the economically inactive population in Windhoek and Namibia at large. Therefore, females, especially female headed households, are more affected by poverty than their male counterparts; thus government poverty alleviation programmes such as the food bank should be channelled towards assisting females to uplift them from poverty.

Age

The results on age categories as displayed in Table 7.1 above reveal that the majority (34%) of the participants were between the age ranges of 29 – 40 years, followed by those under 28 years which was 30%. Those between 41-55 years made up 21%, while those between 56-65 years made up 9% and those older than 66 years were 6%. In order to establish a clear context for the remainder of this thesis and to demonstrate the relevance of these classifications in this thesis, it is imperative to give an overview of some of the main core values and attributes of the people in the above listed age categories. Literature reveals that people that are younger than 28 years are known as Generation Z (GZ); they are educated and extremely techno savvy; they are eager to spend money and they have a strong sense of entitlement (Kahn, 2013:4; Kahn & Louw, 2016:747; Çelik & Gürcüoğlu, 2016:121-122). Those that are between 29-40 years are Millennials or Generation Y (GY); they are also highly educated, they are collaborators and team players, and they possess entrepreneurship characteristics (Salkowitz, 2008:117; Sheahan, 2007:13). Those between 41-55 years are Generation X (GX); they seek life balance, they have the highest number of divorced parents, they are self-sufficient and they are always willing to take on responsibility (Çelik & Gürcüoğlu, 2016:122). Those between 56-65 years are Baby Boomers (BB), they are of the perspective that anything is possible, they are extremely loyal to their children and they have the ability to handle crisis (Çelik & Gürcüoğlu, 2016:122). The Silent Generation or Traditionalist constitutes of those that are retired and this is a group that is older than 66 years in Namibia or those that are older than 69 years in other societies. Additionally, the human capital theory predicts that wages will be affected by age, where young and older individuals are expected to have lower wage rates (McKernan & Ratcliffe, 2002:17).

Since the results show that a total combined 64% of the participants are younger than 40 years or are GY, it means that the CoW is viewed as a place of work by those who are in the labour market as well as a place of study by university and college students. Since GZ and GY are not only the future workforce and parents, but also the future leaders and managers of government and public and private institutions, it is therefore important that these generations are provided with a conducive environment so that they can use their entrepreneurial skills to improve their lives. The results also indicate

that the CoW is made up of a younger generations (GZ and GY) and these generations differ from previous generations because the younger generations want to be better than the former. It also shows that the government needs to improve the lives of these people in order to meet their needs and expectations.

Academic qualifications

The results on highest qualification in Table 7.1 above show that 28% of the participants had a bachelor honours degree as their highest qualification, followed by those with a certificate at 19%, while those with a diploma made up 12%, followed by those with a stand-alone bachelor's degree at 11%. Participants with matric/grade 12 as their highest qualification made up 9%, whereas the masters and doctorate degree holders consist of 3% and 2% respectively. However, 16% of the total participants indicated that they did not have any of the qualifications in the abovementioned categories. The highest level of academic qualification obtained was seen as important in this study because it shows the highest level of education that a participant has obtained which is one of the determinants of poverty in qualitative terms as contained in Lister (2004:5) and Du Toit (2005:2). Human capital theory predicts that individuals with higher levels of education and training will have higher wages (McKernan & Ratcliffe, 2002:17). Literature reveals that poverty is most likely to affect those with a minimal level of education such as a certificate, grade 12 and below since these categories will find it difficult to get a better paying job (Rajaram, 2009:2).

The results clearly show that most of the participants have some level of academic qualification from a certificate up to a PhD and only 16% were without qualifications. This is not surprising because the majority of the residents of the CoW are GZ and GY and these generations consist of people that are educated. Those without any qualification could mean that they possibly only have secondary educations up until grade 10 or they have primary educations or in a worst case scenario it could mean that they never went to school. This means that people with no level of education are most likely to find themselves trapped in the vicious cycle of poverty as discussed in chapter four of this thesis, thus the government should intervene to alleviate poverty for these people. For those with academic qualifications, it means that they have skills

and knowledge. Therefore, what the government through its structures (central, regional and local) needs to do is to create an enabling environment where they can easily get employment opportunities and use the money they get from employment to improve their lives. For those with no qualifications, it means that they do not possess the necessary skills and knowledge required in most of the lucrative industries in the labour market, therefore they will find it difficult to get a better paying job, thus the government should focus on setting up agricultural projects and recruit these people as labourers.

Nationality and ethnicity

The results on nationality in Table 7.1 show that the majority (87%) of the participants were Namibians, followed by 5% who were Zimbabweans, while the Angolans and Zambians constituted 3% each. Other nationalities consisted of 2% and none (0%) of the participants were South African. While the results on the ethnic origins show that the majority (45%) of the participants were Aawambo, followed by other at 19%, the Herero constituted 14%, followed by Damara with 8%, Kavango had 7% and Caprivan had 5%. The Nama and San constituted 1% each and there was 0% for both the Tswana and Baster.

The results on nationalities are underscored by the 2011 Namibia Housing and Population Census which found that the majority of people enumerated (96.8%) were Namibians (NSA, 2011:34). A study by Africa 101 Last Tribes (2021:online) found that during the colonial era, the colonial master used to get cheap labourers from the northern part of Namibia to Windhoek through the contract labour system. These people were predominantly Aawambo and they were not allowed to bring their families with to Windhoek but their families soon joined them after independence (see chapter 5, section 5.2).

This means that there are more Namibians living in the CoW in comparison to other nationalities. Aawambo are the majority tribe in Namibia and since they were the majority in the study, this could mean that they are more in the CoW than other ethnic tribes. Based on these results, one could infer that the CoW consists of people of different nationalities and ethnicities. This could mean that different nationalities and

ethnicities have different expectations from the government, thus the CoW should strive to discover the expectations and aspirations of these residents. Moreover, Aawambo tribe are the dominant in the informal sectors such as taxi businesses, vendors and construction labourers among others, therefore the government should issue more taxi permits to the people that are operating taxi business as this would enable them to have their own permits instead of renting which is costly.

Employment

The results on employment status in Table 7.1 above reveal that the majority (50%) of the participants were full-time employed, followed by 21% who were self-employed, while those that are unemployed and students constituted 10% for each category. Those that are retired constituted 7% and the part-time 2%. These results are supported by the NLFS of 2018 which found that 52.6% of people in Khomas region were employed (NSA, 2018:45).

The employment status of the participants was deemed important because it helps to determine whether the residents of the CoW are capable of fighting the social phenomenon of poverty on their own. Since the results reveal that half of the participants were full-time employees, this could be because most of the government ministries and parastatals headquarters are in the CoW. Moreover, since the population of the CoW is large and diverse, it could mean that some of the residents have decided to be self-employed and this explains why Windhoek is seen as the economic hub of Namibia. Overall, the results demonstrate that 80% of the participants have means of income and only 20 which comprises of the unemployed and students with no means of income. This means that the CoW should endeavour to provide educational training and seminars to its residents on the importance of living within their means as well as on investing some of their incomes to improve the lives of their children so that they would not grow up in poverty. With regards to the group without income, the CoW should urge students who have the extra capability to balance studies and work to take up part-time and holiday jobs and to use their refunds conservatively.

Years of service

The years of service show that 43% of the participants had 0-5 years of service. They were followed by 26% with 11-15 years, followed by 12% with 6-10 years. Those with 16-20 years were 10%, whereas those with 21-25 years of service constituted 5% and those with 26 and more were 4%. These results are supported by Kahn and Louw (2016) who argue that work experience of less than 15 years is mostly associated with GY since they are younger than 40 years. A comparison of these results with the results on age reveals that 64% of the participants were GY and the years of service shows that 81% of the participants have less than 15 years of experience, which means that they are mostly GY. GY has an important role to play in the future workforce and leadership of the country. It is therefore imperative that due diligence is done to invest in their future because they are the future of Namibia. Overall, the results on years of service show that the CoW consists of residents who have worked for numerous years, ranging from those with lesser to longer periods of service who might have sufficient savings to improve the quality of life for their households. Furthermore, it could be inferred that with regards to those with less than 5 years of work experience, some are unemployed, while those that are employed are still paying off student loans, hence they would barely have sufficient income to improve the livelihood of their households. This means that the alleviation of poverty by the residents of the CoW themselves would be a gradual process because most of the residents have not worked long enough to have savings that could pull themselves and their households out of poverty.

Marital status

The last statement on Table 7.1 outlines participants' marital status. The results reveal that the majority (56%) of the participants were single, followed by those that are married with 30%, and those that were cohabiting (living together) constituted 9%. Those that are divorced constituted 3%, while the widowed had 2% and widowers were 0%. A study by Van Bruggen, Kantartzis and Rowan (2010:23) found that single-parent families and families with many children or elderly people, as well as disabled people among others are more at risk of poverty. Moreover, studies by Blank (1997);

Furstenberg (1990); and White and Rogers (2000, cited by Anyanwu, 2013:4) found that unmarried individuals and single-parent families are more likely to live in poverty than their married counterparts. They claim that this is because compared to unmarried couples, married people save much higher portions of their income and accumulate more assets. This means that those who are single could be constrained by poverty if they are the ones heading their households, while the married couples are in a better position to fight off poverty. This means that single parent headed households with five children or more would need assistance from the government, especially through the food bank programme in order for them not to fall into the vicious cycle of poverty.

7.2.2 Income

The first column in Table 7.2 below contains the income range brackets, the second column records the actual number of the participants, while the last column displays the percentage of the participants. Income range is important because it reveals how much participants are earning per month, which is significant in determining whether participants are experiencing income poverty or not. According to Botchway (2013:87), income poverty is the lack of money and inability for a person to gain access to income generating employment.

Table 7.2: Income (N= 384)

Income range	Frequency	Percentage (%)
N\$00. 00 – N\$3500. 00	175	46
N\$3 600. 00 – N\$6 600. 00	28	7
N\$6 700. 00 – N\$9 700. 00	16	4
N\$9 800. 00 – N\$12 800. 00	42	11
N\$12 900. 00 – N\$15 900. 00	17	4
N\$16 000.00 – N\$19 000. 00	18	5
N\$20 000. 00 +	88	23
Total	384	100

Table 7.2 shows that 46% of the participants indicated that they had an income range of N\$00. 00 – N\$3 500. 00 per month, whilst 23% indicated that they had an income range of N\$20 000. 00 and above. Moreover, 11% of the participants indicated that they had an income range of between N\$9 800. 00 – N\$12 800. 00, whereas 7% had between N\$3 600. 00 – N\$6 600. 00. Those with an income range between N\$16 000.00 – N\$19 000. 00 constituted 5%, whilst those with N\$6 700. 00 – N\$9 700. 00 and N\$12 900. 00 – N\$15 900. 00 income categories constituted 4% each. These results reveal the inequality in the income distribution among the residents of the CoW as some people are earning less than N\$3 500. 00 per month while others are above N\$20 000. 00. Gould (2014:1) found that inequality is one of the major causes of persistent poverty. Although the results show that most of the participants were well earning above the poverty lines as depicted in chapter five, Table 5:1, since 46% of the participants are between N\$00. 00 – N\$3 500. 00 per month, which could imply that there are those with no income at all and these will be severely affected by poverty.

This means that the group that is earning less than N\$3500. 00 per month would find it difficult to afford the physiological needs (water, food, shelter, clothes etc) and hence they would not have the energy to work hard towards attaining other needs such as safety up until the self-actualisation based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Therefore, this group needs to increase their income either by means of working an extra job, for example, working in a restaurant at night or they should start businesses such as plaiting or cutting hair at home to get an extra income. The government should also intervene and help these people by means of creating employment for them.

7.2.3 General expenditures

Participants were requested to indicate what they spend most of their income on. In answering this statement, the researcher and the field workers observed two things. One, Group A found it difficult to pick between the options provided as they were not sure what they spend most of their income on. Two, Group B knew right away from the onset and they were already mentioning housing before all the options were presented to them. What participants spend their income on is important in

understanding their efforts to alleviate poverty. A further analysis suggests that Group A does not budget or the necessary items varies thus their spending fluctuates on a monthly basis. For Group B, it means that they are overwhelmed by their monthly mortgaged bond deductions, hence it was the first thing they mentioned. Figure 7.1 below displays the results.

Figure 7.1: Goods and services

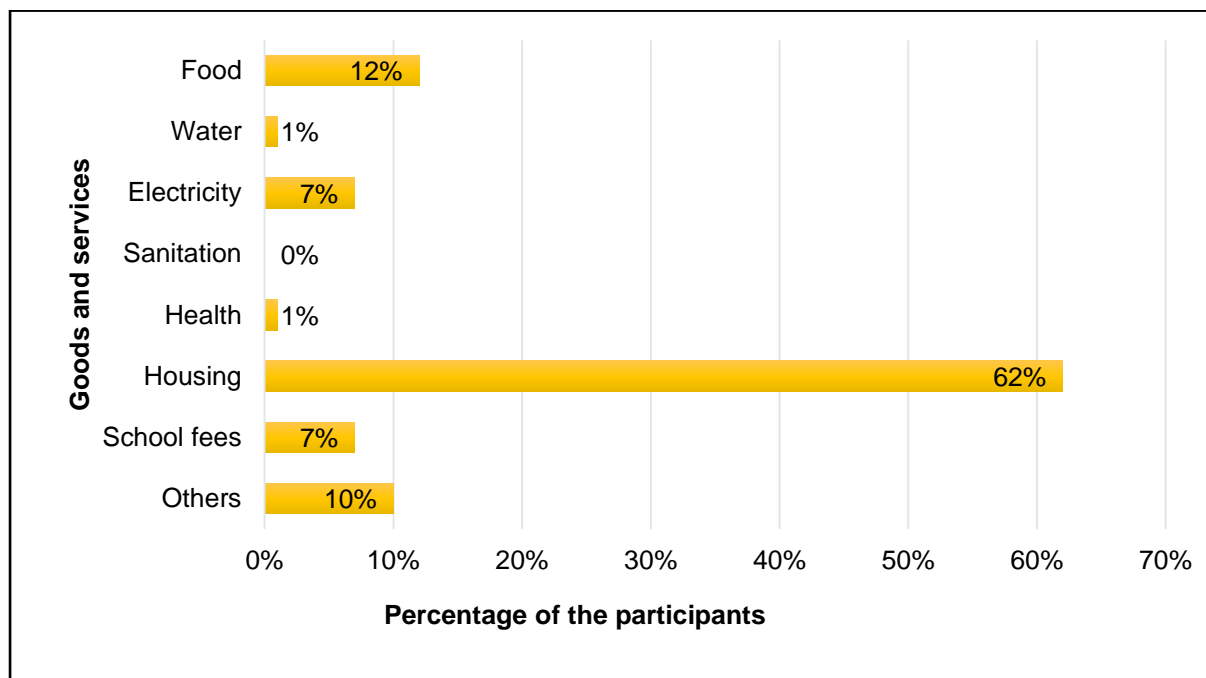


Figure 7.1 reveals that the majority (62%) of the participants spend their income on housing, while 12% spend on food supplies and 10% on others. Electricity and school fees constituted 7% each, and there was a 1% apiece for water and health, however there was 0% for sanitation. These results may imply the following: One, since the majority of the participants are spending most of their income on housing this reaffirms the challenge of the provision of affordable housing that has been facing the CoW for several years now. Two, given that most participants are spending most of their incomes on housing, this could mean that they have less income to invest or spend on nutritious food that would sustain a balance diet. Three, the spending on food supplies may be influenced by the total number of people that are living in a household; the bigger the household, the more money is spent on food and other groceries. Four, the category of others could imply that 10% may be the only portion of income that is spent on lifestyle. Things that they can enjoy and get pleasure from, besides the 1% on health and 7% of education, is the future of their children. However, in a worst case

scenario, it means that some of the money may be spent on loan repayments for vehicles and other related high depreciating commodities. For Group B, it could be because of the fear of losing the only valuable possession that provides security because without this, who are they, nothing from their perspective when compared with those who have. Therefore, it is important that the CoW should find an alternative way of providing affordable houses to residents of different income groups within the city. Moreover, the CoW can provide the residents with serviced plots and allow the residents to construct their own houses as this might be cheaper.

7.2.4 Households

The participants were asked to indicate how many they were in the household. This is important when one is measuring the nature and extent of poverty in a particular household. This is because the more the people are in a household, the harder it will be to provide sufficient nutritious food for everyone if the total combined income for the household is less. The results are presented in Figure 7.2.

Figure 7.2: Households

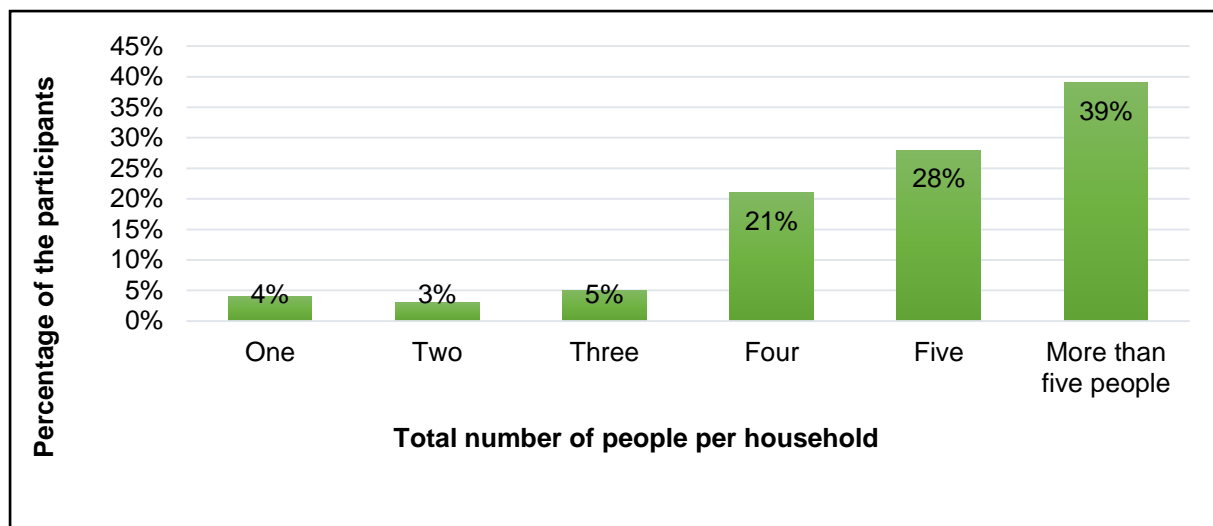


Figure 7.2 illustrates that 39% of the participants indicated that they were more than five in the household, whilst 28% stated that they were 5, and 21% said they were 3. Moreover, 5% indicated that they were 2 in the household, 4% revealed that they were staying alone and 3% indicated that they were two in the household. Several things could be associated as contributing factors to a large percentage of households having

5 people and more. Cultural factors could be one of them whereby it is believed that once you have more children they will help you with work at the farm and they will also take care of you when you get older (Rupnarain, 2020:online). It could be due to religious beliefs whereby children are seen as blessings from God (Noakes, 2019:online). It could be due to the push and pull factors since a study by the NPC (2015:31) found that some people are leaving rural areas due to economic hardships and they are coming to the CoW in search for better employment opportunities. When some of these people arrive in the CoW, not all of them are fortunate to find employment, hence some will end up squatting with their relatives or friends until they can find a job. Some citizens are students who moved to the CoW due to studies. Additionally, Becker's (1991:8) theory of the demand for children, claims that household size depends on household income, the cost of children, wages, government transfers, and preferences. Becker claims that income plays a role in determining family size because families with higher incomes are more able to afford additional children. Becker's sentiments maybe true for the Europeans, but a study done on African countries, namely: Guinea, Mali, Namibia and Zambia found that the household wealth index was negatively associated with desired family size (Upadhyay & Karasek, 2012, cited by Conteh-Khali, 2014:7). Additionally, Anyanwu (2013:5) found that that large households (seven and more people) are associated with high levels of poverty.

There is a need for the government to intervene to ensure that households constitute of a number of people that they can sustain themselves. This means that the government needs to educate the citizens on the risk of falling into a vicious cycle of poverty if they have large families of more than five people and less income. The importance of having a smaller family should also be highlighted in relation to the household income because it is cheaper to sustain a smaller household even if the income is less. The government needs to educate the citizens on the importance of family planning and they should ensure that contraceptives are easily available at all clinics and health facilities within the city.

7.2.5 Food expenditure

Participants were requested to indicate how much they spend on food per month. The researcher opted to use the per month measurement as opposed to per day measurement because Namibia uses the Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) methodology in compiling poverty lines using the per month estimates (NSA, 2016:104). This statement was seen as important because it helps to categorise the participants' answers according to the three poverty lines that are used in Namibia, namely: food poverty line, the lower bound poverty line and the upper bound poverty line. The results are shown in Figure 7.3 below.

Figure 7.3: Food expenditure

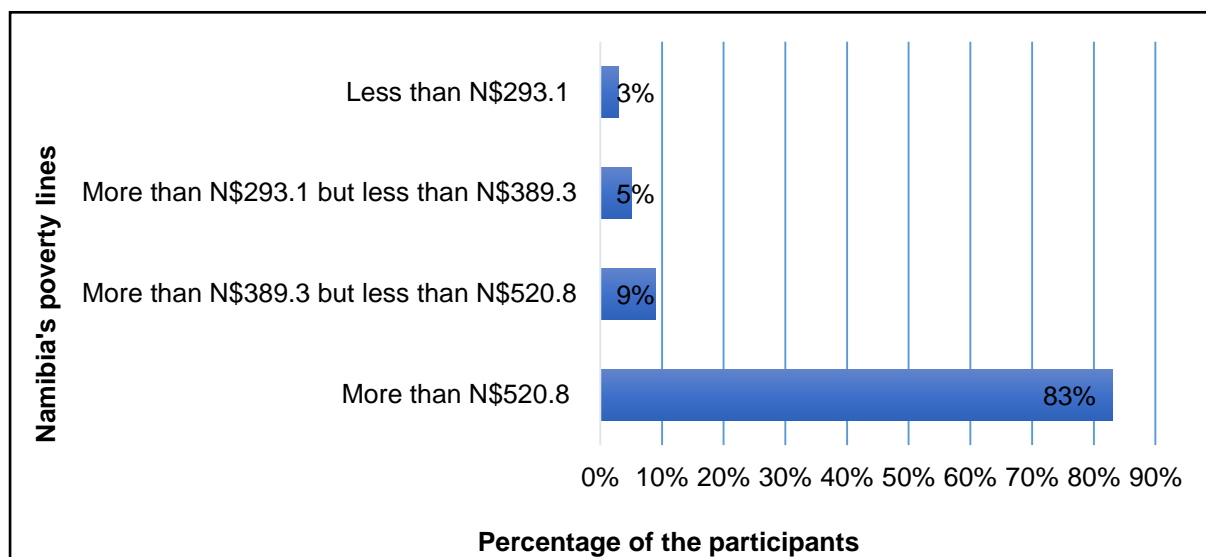


Figure 7.3 indicates that the majority (83%) of the participants spend more than N\$520.8 on food, whilst 9% spend more than N\$389.3 but less than N\$520.8, followed by 5% that spend more than N\$293.1 but less than N\$389.3 and only 3% spend less than N\$293.1 on food. These results mean that according to CBN methodology used in Namibia, 3% of the participants are food poor since they fall under the food bound poverty line and this is a 1.8% increase from the 1.2% in the NHIES 2015/2016 survey (NSA, 2016:104). While 5% are severely poor since they are between the lower and up upper bound poverty lines and this is a 2.8% increase from 2.2% in the NHIES 2015/2016 survey (NSA, 2016:104). Whereas 9% are poor since they fall under the upper bound poverty line which is a 4.2% increase from the 4.8% in the NHIES 2015/2016 survey (NSA, 2016:104). However, 83% are not poor since they are above the poverty lines. The results show an increase in all the poverty lines and this may be

due to the economic hardships that Namibia has been facing over the past five years as well as the impact of Covid-19 especially on the business and health status of residents.

This means that government needs to reduce the income tax brackets for individuals as well as for businesses even by 2% in order to assist the residents to have more disposable income per month. The 17% that cannot afford to spend more than N\$520.8 per month on food needs to receive free food distribution from the government on a monthly basis as a short-term solution. As part of the long-term solution, the government needs to set up agricultural projects that can absorb some of the people as employees and also sell harvests at subsidized prices for residents to afford them.

7.2.6 Effects of poverty

Participants were asked to rate how poverty affects them on a scale of 1 to 4, where 1 means that they are not affected by poverty at all, 2 indicates that they are slightly affected, 3 means they are moderately affected and 4 implies that they are greatly affected by poverty. The results are shown in Figure 7.4.

Figure 7.4: Effects of poverty

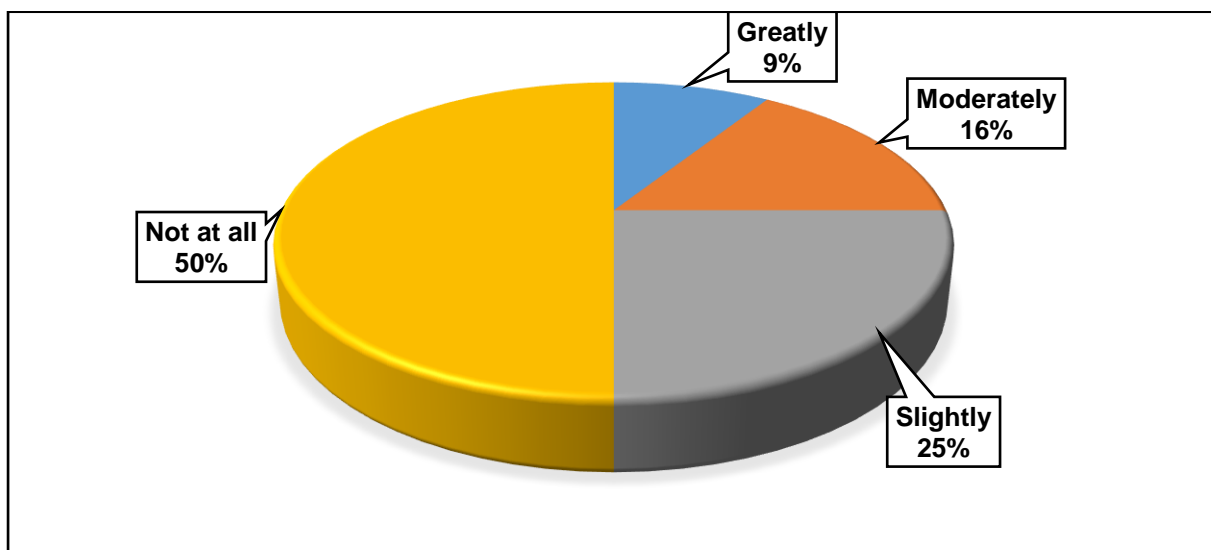


Figure 7.4 portrays that majority (50%) of the participants are not affected by poverty at all, 25% claimed that they were slightly affected, 16% indicated that they were moderately affected and 9% stated that they were greatly affected by poverty. A

comparative analysis of Figures 7.4 and 7.3 show that although 83% of the participants live above the upper bound poverty line as used in Namibia, only a substantial number of 50% of the participants indicated that poverty does not affect them at all.

This difference of 33% affirms the definition of poverty by the United Nations (1995:10), that:

Poverty includes lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by lack of participation in decision making and in civil, social and cultural life.

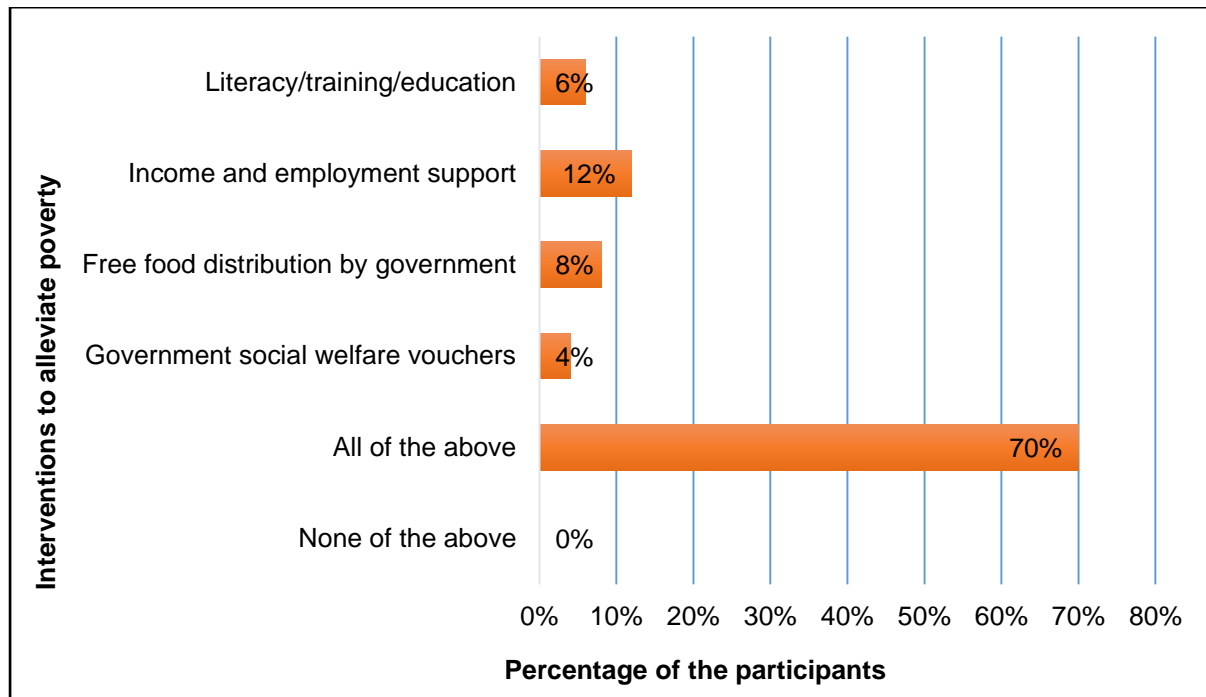
These results may also suggest that participants understand the different dimensions of poverty and not just income and food poverty since poverty consists of issues such as social discrimination and exclusion as well among others. Since 9% of the participants are greatly affected by poverty, this is worrisome since this could mean that these people are experiencing all dimensions of poverty. To assist the residents that are affected by poverty the CoW should ensure that all residents have access to basic needs and services such as water and shelter among others by providing such services at affordable prices. The government should ensure that all citizens have access to free education up to a secondary school level and that no Namibian should be denied access to medical attention even if they cannot pay for them. The satisfaction of these psychological needs would enable the residents to pursue the other needs such as safety and participation in social dialogue on matters concerning their livelihoods.

7.2.7 Interventions to alleviate poverty

Participants were given a list of possible poverty alleviation interventions that could be used to alleviate poverty. They were then asked to choose one option which they think could effectively alleviate poverty. Figure 7.5 reveals that 4% of the participants opted for government social welfare vouchers, 6% chose literacy/training/education, 8% preferred free food distribution by the government and 12% indicated that income and

employment support would be the best intervention to alleviate poverty. The majority (70%) of the participants indicated that all of the aforesaid options would alleviate poverty effectively, whilst none (0%) of the participants selected none of the options.

Figure 7.5: Interventions to alleviate poverty



The results of Figure 7.5 are supported by Collier (2007:5); Sarker and Rahman (2006:9); McKague, Wheeler and Karnani (2015:131) and Long (2018:1) who recommended an integrated framework for poverty alleviation consisting of the private sector, the civil society as well as the government. However, Stark (2009:21) claims that since poverty is not only painful for the poor, but for the larger society of which they are a part off, the government should therefore take the lead in alleviating poverty.

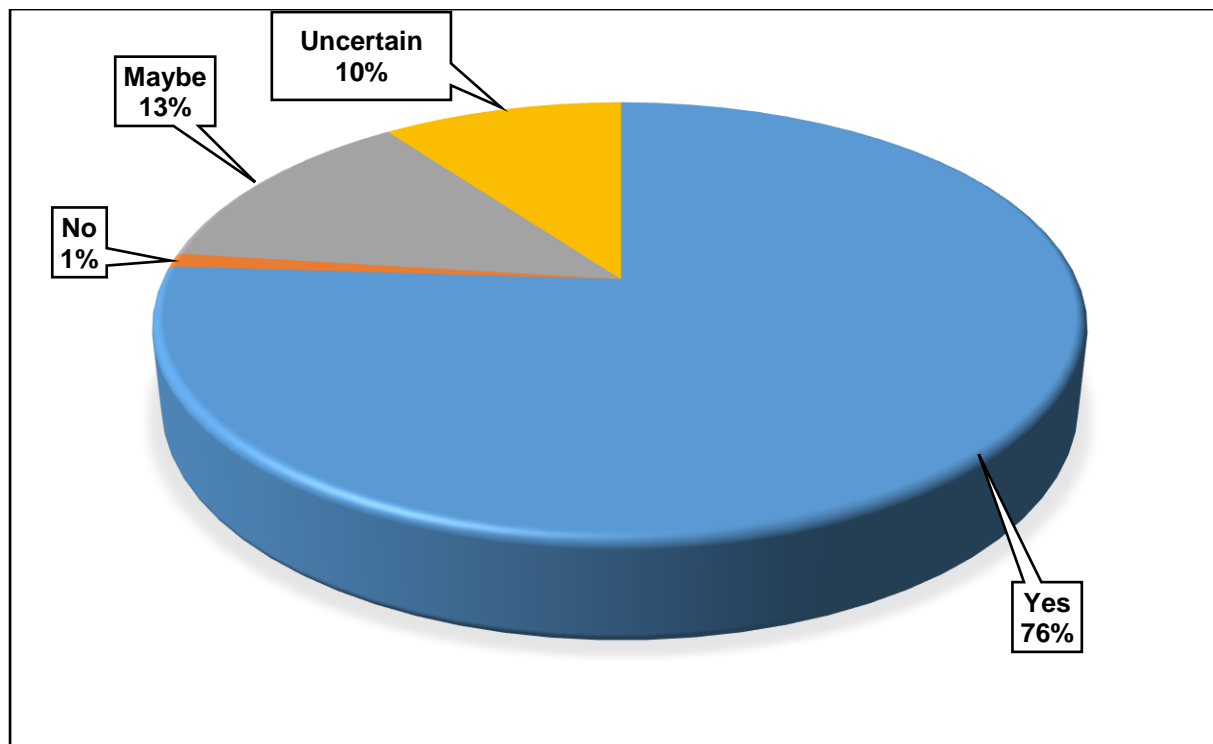
Since the majority of the participants are calling for a multidimensional approach to alleviate poverty, this is an indication that poverty is a multifaceted phenomenon that requires interventions from numerous stakeholders such as the government through its layers (central, regional and local), non-governmental organisations and the private sector. Stark (2009:21) appears to suggest that even within the integrated framework as recommended by the scholars above, the government should play an integral role in getting other role players involved. This role should entail the government creating an enabling environment for the other role players to operate in and this should include among others the provision of all the necessary latest statistics on the socio-economic

conditions of the residents through the conducting of regular surveys or any other information as maybe required by the NGOs and the private sector organisations.

7.2.8 Alleviation of poverty and better quality of life

Participants were requested to indicate whether alleviation of poverty can translate into a better quality of life for them. This statement was deemed necessary because it answered one of the specific research objectives of this study. The results are shown in Figure 7.6 below.

Figure 7.6: Alleviation of poverty and better quality of life



The outcomes indicate that 76% of the participants believe that poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for them, 13% indicated that maybe it might translate into a better quality of life for them, 10% were uncertain and 1% rejected that poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for them. The results in Figure 7.6 are supported by Robeyns and Veen (2007, cited by Alkire, 2008:2) who argue that the notion of quality of life is complex and there is no universally accepted definition of what constitutes quality of life. Similarly, Galloway, (2005:10) claims that scholars from different academic disciplines describe quality of life differently. The integrative theory of quality of life puts forth the subjective aspects of quality of life

(well-being, satisfaction with life, happiness, and meaning in life), while the objective aspects focus on the fulfilment of needs and realisation of life potential among others (Ventegodt et al., 2003:1032). The above nature of quality of life, coupled with the multifaceted manifestations of poverty explains why not all participants indicated that poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for them. Importantly, wealth can improve citizens' subjective attributes of quality of life, especially the physiological and safety needs in Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Hopper, 2020:online), while poverty on the other hand can undermine quality of life for everyone in an economy and not just the poor (Gorman, 2003:online).

This means that since 76% of the participants revealed that poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for them should motivate the CoW to intensify its efforts to alleviate poverty. In this case, the CoW should focus on the creation of employment opportunities through its LED strategy as this would give residents income which they can spend on improving their material living conditions such as sanitation and nutritious food among others.

7.2.9 Occurrences and their impacts

Participants were asked to indicate whether there were any occurrences such as marriage, divorce, children born, new job, and death among others that happened in their lives in the last two years that had significant changes in their standard of living and their income. The results are shown in Figure 7.7.

Figure 7.7: Occurrences and their impacts

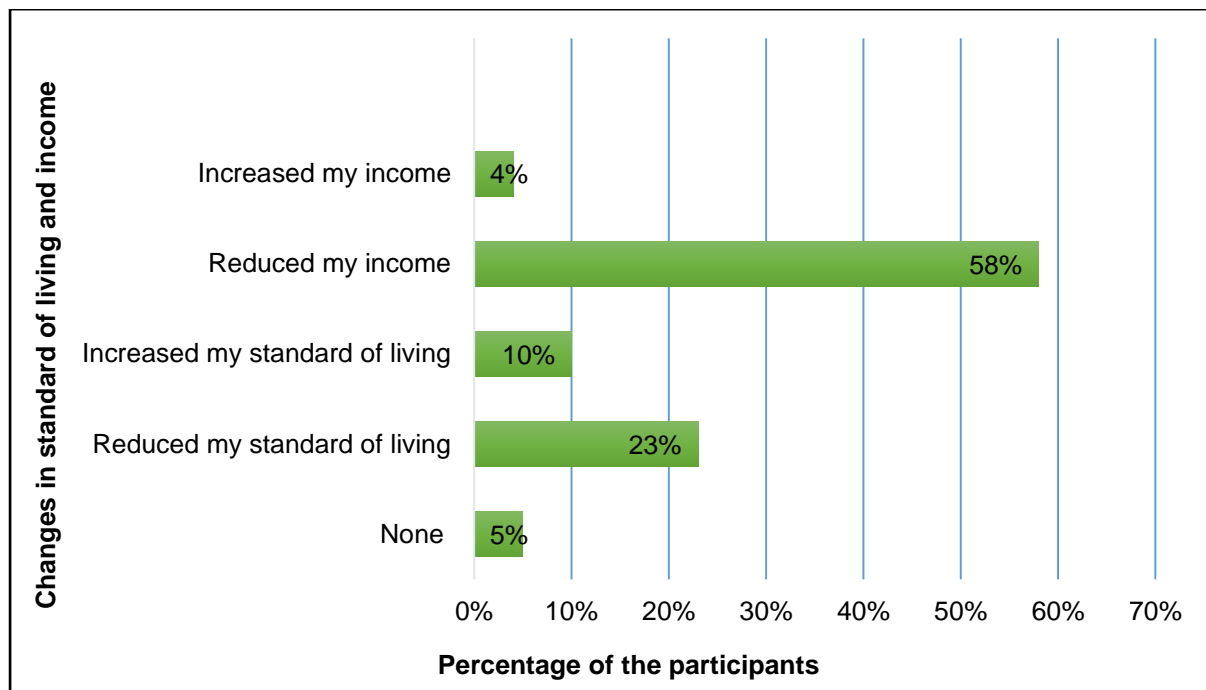


Figure 7.7 shows that 58% of the participants indicated that their income was reduced and 23% stated that their standard of living was reduced. However, 10% of the participants indicated that their standard of living was increased or improved, 4% indicated that their income was increased and 5% choose none – meaning that they did not experience any changes in their standard of living and income in the last two years.

Events that may lead to increases in income and improved standard of living for the participants are such as getting a new job, getting married to a rich or relatively well-off partner or business booming. In contrast, occurrences such as a death of a partner that was a bread winner as well as the birth of an unplanned baby and Covid-19 could have negative impacts on the lives of families and a possible reduction in the standard of living. For instance, McKernan and Ratcliffe (2002:1) claim that changes in household composition, employment status, disability status, or economic status are some of the events that make people to enter or exit poverty. The socio-economic events in Namibia that may have influenced the results in Figure 7.7 are such as the low fish catches and corruption in the fishing sector (De Klerk, 2017) which is one of the most lucrative industries in Namibia in the sense that it is a source of employment for the unskilled, semi-skilled as well as skilled Namibians. Furthermore, the State of Emergency that was declared by the President of the Republic of Namibia from 17

March 2020 to 17 September 2020 (Republic of Namibia, 2020) resulted in the introduction of strict measures such as the closing down on nonessential businesses for some days which as a result may have contributed immensely to the loss of income for some citizens.

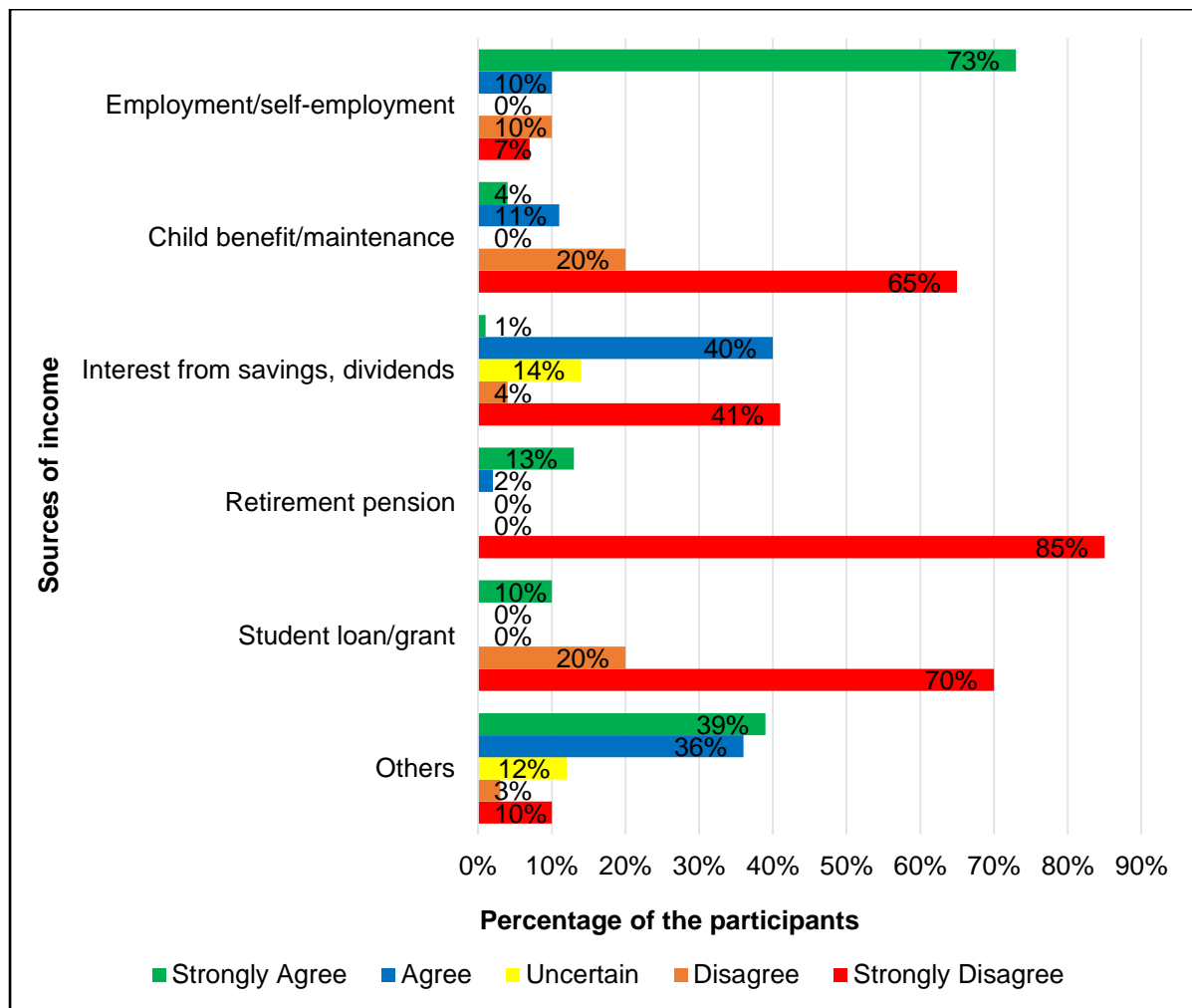
This means that income is a crucial factor that influences people's socio-economic conditions and as such some people will be moving out of poverty while others will be moving in poverty because of changes in their income status. Thus residents should make wise and thoughtful decisions regarding events that are under their control such as marrying spouses that are not having any source of income or giving birth to unplanned children as these events might constrain their finances and hence some would end up falling into poverty. To deal with occurrences that are out of their control such as retrenchment, residents should develop a culture of living within their means, having emergency funds with at least a minimum of six month worth of living expenses, and by avoiding debt such as the credit card debt through buying with cash.

7.2.10 Sources of income

Participants were given a list of possible sources of income for households and they were requested to rate the extent to which they believe that they are sources of income in their household as well. Household income in this context refers to cash flow or monies that come into a household on a consistent basis, either earned through a salary or wages from employment or it is given as a means of support (Thomson, 2018:1). This question was deemed important because identifying the source of income for households can assist in determining the households' level of poverty as well as to ascertain whether they can pull themselves out of poverty without external interventions from third parties such as the government and NGOs among others.

The rating was done using a Likert scale, whereby 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = uncertain, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree. The results are shown in Figure 7.8.

Figure 7.8: Sources of income



The results on employment/self-employment as a source of income for the household as depicted in Figure 7.8 show that 73% of the participants strongly agree with the statement, 10% agree, another 10% disagree, 7% strongly agree and 0% were uncertain. With regards to child benefit/maintenance as a source of income for households, 65% of the participants strongly disagree, 20% disagree, 11% agree, 4% strongly agree and 0% were uncertain. On interest from savings, dividends, among others as a source of income for households, 41% of the participants strongly disagree, 40% agree, 14% were uncertain, 4% disagree, 1% strongly agree. With regards to retirement pension as a source of income for the household, 85% of the participants strongly disagree, 13% strongly agree, 2% agree and there were 0% for uncertain and disagree respectively. With regards to student loan/grant as a source of income for the household, 70% of the participants strongly disagree, 20% disagree, 10% strongly agree, uncertain and disagree each had a 0%. Last but not least on sources of income for households, as displayed in Figure 7.8 above, other sources of

income include issues such as income from rent among others. In response to this statement, 40% of the participants strongly disagree, 39% strongly agree, 36% agree, 12% were uncertain and 3% disagree.

According to Thomson (2018:2), salaries or wages is the most common source of income for households. This is a good indication because 83% of the participants were in agreement that the source of income for their households are from employment/self-employment. While the results on this statement illustrate that the most prominent source of income for households in the CoW are from salaries or wages, it is imperative to contrast this with Table 7.2 whereby it was revealed that 46% of the participants are earning N\$3500 per month or less. Furthermore, it is important to note that how much a person gets per month is important because it can determine the type of lifestyle you can afford. Since 85% of the participants gave negative responses towards child benefits/maintenance as a source of income for their household, this may suggest that there are few parents that receive this benefit or those that receive the benefit only use it for the intended purpose and they do not view it as a source of income.

Additionally, interest from savings and dividends illustrates that only 41% of the participants have savings that are high enough to generate income for their households. The outcomes on the retirement pension are not surprising that 85% of the participants strongly disagree that this is a source of income in their households. This is despite the fact that every Namibian who is 60 years and older gets an old aged pension grant of N\$1300 per month (Matthys, 2019:1) from the government. Some citizens do not view Windhoek as a place of permanent residents as they only come to Windhoek for work and after retirement they go and stay at the village (Seckelmann, 2001:15; Selenius & Joas, 2004:10). Furthermore, the results of retirement pension are in conformity with Table 7.1 which illustrates that only 15% of the participants were 56 years and older which shows that there are few from the Silent Generation in the CoW. Taking into account that the main source of income in Table 7.8 for most of the participants is earning from employment/self-employment, what the government needs to do is to encourage the residents to have good work ethics so that they can safeguard their jobs and those that are self-employed also need to maintain good customer services in order for their businesses to grow from strength to strength.

7.2.11 Duration lived in the area

Participants were requested to indicate how long they have been staying in their respective areas. This is important because it helps to determine whether participants have settled in their homes for a long time or they are new. It is most likely that those who are setting up their homes may have more expenses in comparison to those who have been living on their homes for two years or more. The duration is further useful when one needs to establish whether there has been improvements in the service delivery from the CoW. The responses are shown in Figure 7.9 below.

Figure 7.9: Duration lived in the area

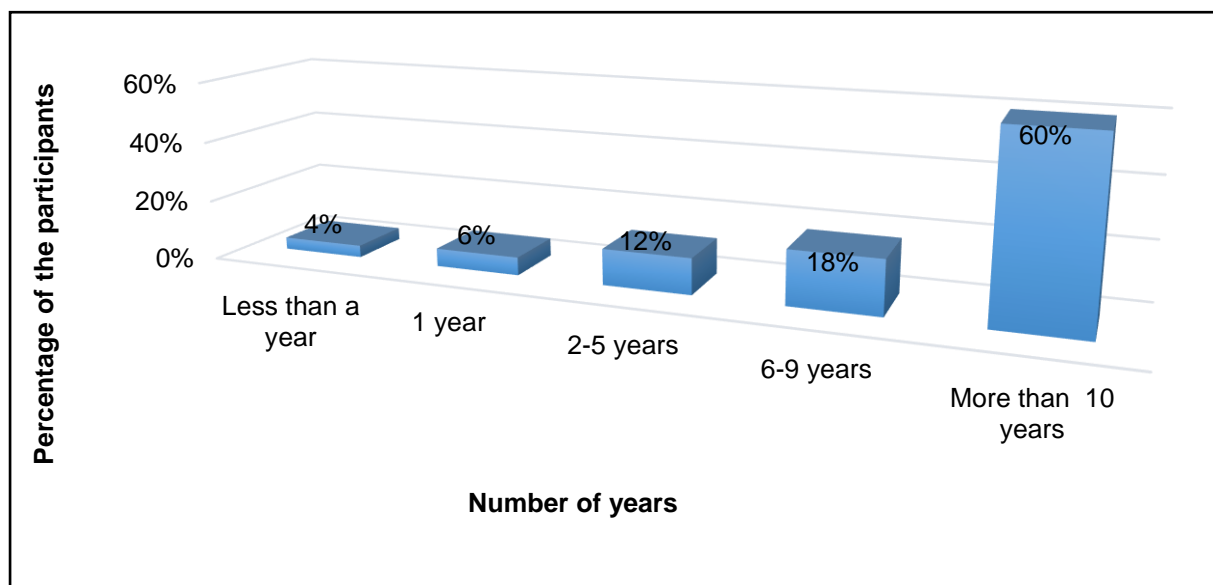


Figure 7.9 shows that 60% of the participants have been staying in their respective area for more than 10 years, 18% indicated that they have been staying in their area between 6-9 years. Whereas 12% of the participants revealed that they have been staying in their area between 2-5 years, 6% said it was 1 year and 4% stated that they have been living in their area for less than a year. Chapter 3, Article 21 (h) of the Constitution states that “all persons shall have the right to reside and resettle in any part of Namibia...” (Constitution of Republic of Namibia, 1990:13). The results illustrate that citizens have been exercising this clause as some have moved into the CoW recently, while others have been staying in different suburbs within the CoW for more than 10 years. Therefore, since more people have been staying in their area for 6 years and more, this is important because these participants have been contributing to the GDP of Windhoek and they will also be able to reveal whether they have experienced any improvement in service delivery in their area in the next statement.

7.2.12 Improvement in service delivery

Public service delivery is one of the core duties for local authorities around the world and the CoW is not exemption. Local authorities have a mandate to provide services such as running water, roads, housing, electricity, solid waste disposal, and environmental protection among others to the residents within their areas of administrative jurisdiction (Kalonda & Govender, 2021:5; Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended). Although the Act mandates the provision of services to the residents, local authorities in Namibia have been criticised for poor service delivery (Kalonda & Govender, 2021:2). Participants were therefore asked to indicate whether they have experienced an improvement in service delivery for the time they have been staying in their respective areas. The responses are displayed in Figure 7.10.

Figure 7.10: Improvement in service delivery

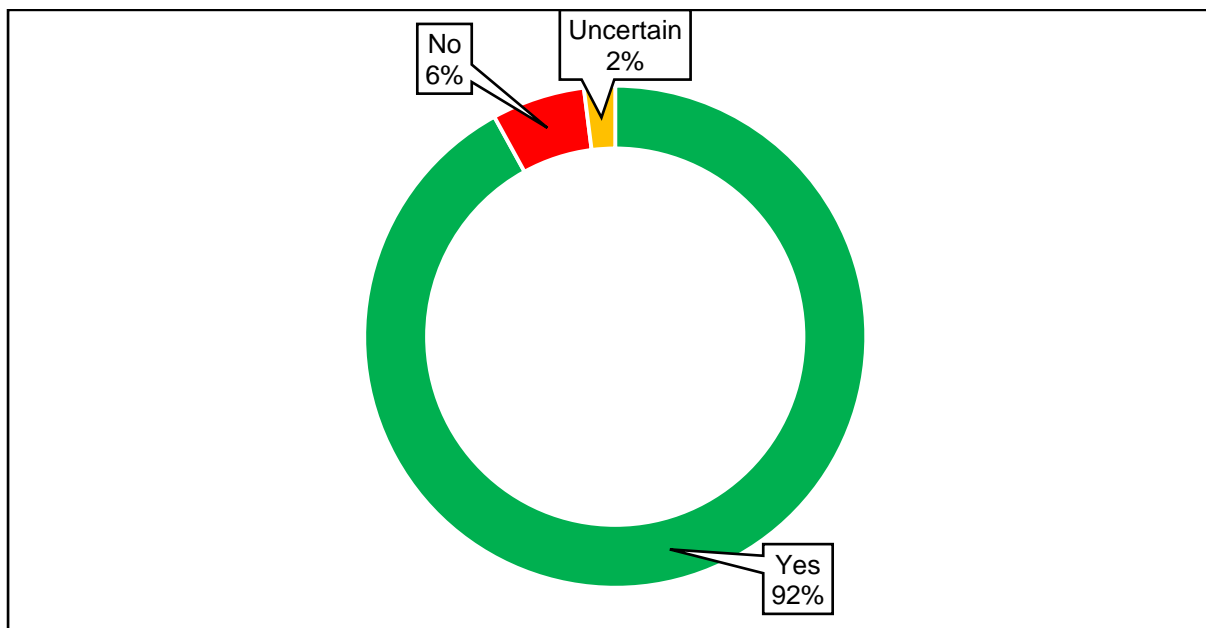


Figure 7.10 illustrates that majority 92% of the participants revealed that they have experienced improvement in service delivery, 6% indicated that they did not and 2% were uncertain whether they have experienced an improvement or not. A critical analysis of the results of Figure 7.10 indicates that the CoW is striving to improve the quality of life for its residents through continuous improvement in the delivery of municipal services as required by the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended. It is important that municipal services are provided to the residents at affordable prices as this may improve the residents' standard of living and alleviate some of their poverty plight.

7.2.13 Biggest service delivery challenge

The main service delivery of municipalities were listed and participants were asked to choose which of them they consider is the biggest service delivery challenge at the moment. The responses are displayed in Figure 7.11 below.

Figure 7.11: Biggest service delivery challenge

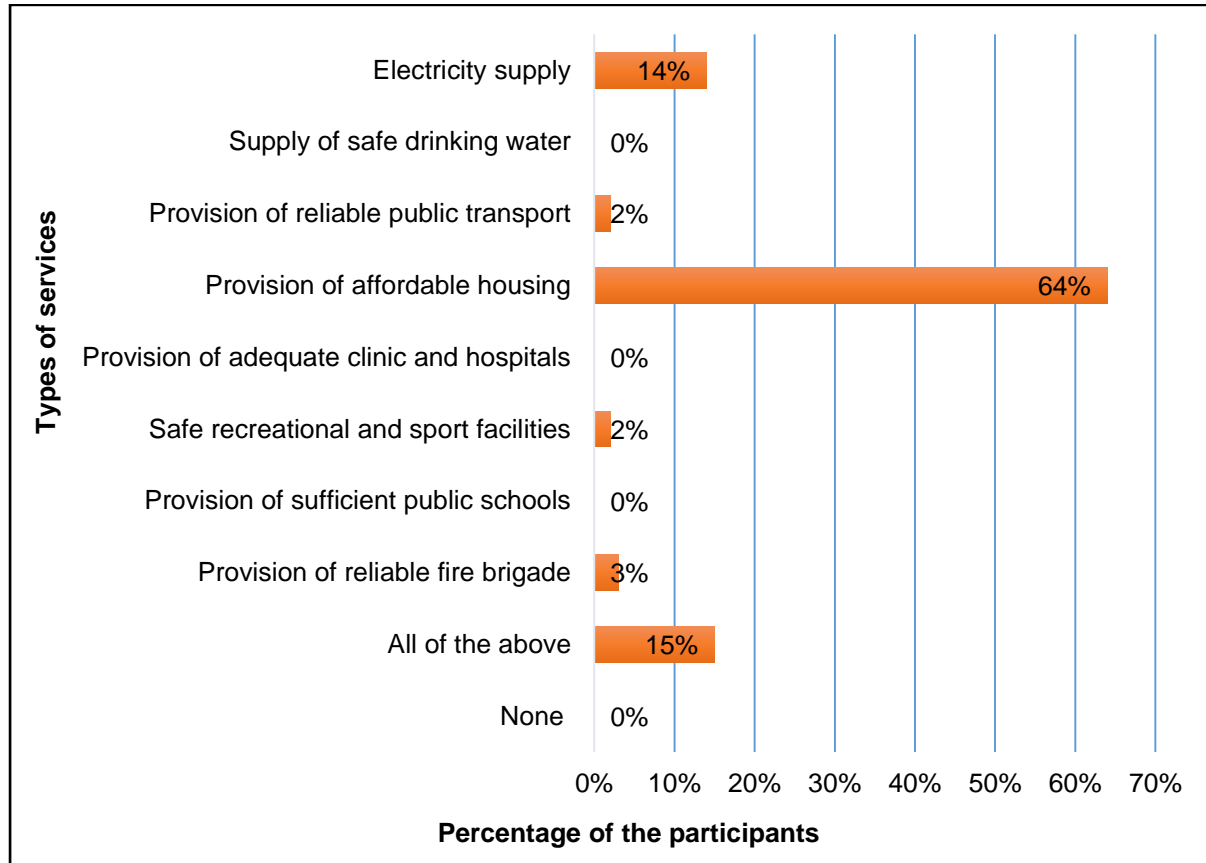


Figure 7.11 reveals that 64% of the participants indicated that the provision of affordable housing was the biggest service delivery challenge that they were experiencing, while 14% indicated that it was electricity supply, 3% said that it was the provision of reliable fire brigade, 2% said it was provision of recreational and sport facilities and another 2% indicated that it was the provision of reliable public transport. Furthermore, supply of safe drinking water, provision of adequate clinic and hospital facilities and provision of sufficient public schools each had 0%. However, 15% of the participants were of the opinion that all of the items in the list were service delivery challenges to them and none (0%) of the participants said they were not service delivery challenges. This is underscored by Rogerson (1999:512) who found that poor people usually have limited access to services, which is exacerbated by the design

and standards of the services which may exclude the poor, due to the unaffordability and rigidity of the service structures which do not allow for incremental changes to accommodate the poor. The World Bank (2003:2) found that access to municipal services such as water, sanitation, road network, public transport and street lighting is key to improving the asset base of the poor.

A contrast of Figures 7.11 and 7.1 affirms that the provision of affordable housing is a challenge in the CoW since 62% of the participants in Figure 7.1 indicated that they spend most of their income on housing. Moreover, based on the results in Figure 7.11, one could infer that service delivery challenges are influenced by the location where one is staying. For instance, those that are living in the informal settlements where there is no electricity view electricity supply as a service delivery challenge, while those that are renting in a formal settlement would most likely view provision of affordable housing a biggest service delivery challenge. To solve the challenge of affordable housing, the government can provide incentives to housing supply institutions such as tax reductions and other benefits/subsidies that encourage them to use cost saving technologies and materials for the construction of affordable housing.

7.2.14 Local authority councillors

Participants were asked to indicate how often they see their local authority councillors. This information is important because of the nature of the issue being investigated. Residents need to see those that are leading them so that they can engage in dialogues with them regarding the best solutions to improve their quality of life. Local authority councillors in Namibia are elected indirectly based on the number of seats that their political parties or associations have won in the elections (Electoral Commission of Namibia, 2018:7). As a good and democratic leader, it is expected of the councillors to be seen around their constituency, observing the living conditions of their residents and engaging the residents openly. This practice may enable the councillors to get primary information about the poverty plight of their residents. The responses are presented in Figure 7.12.

Figure 7.12: Local authority councillors

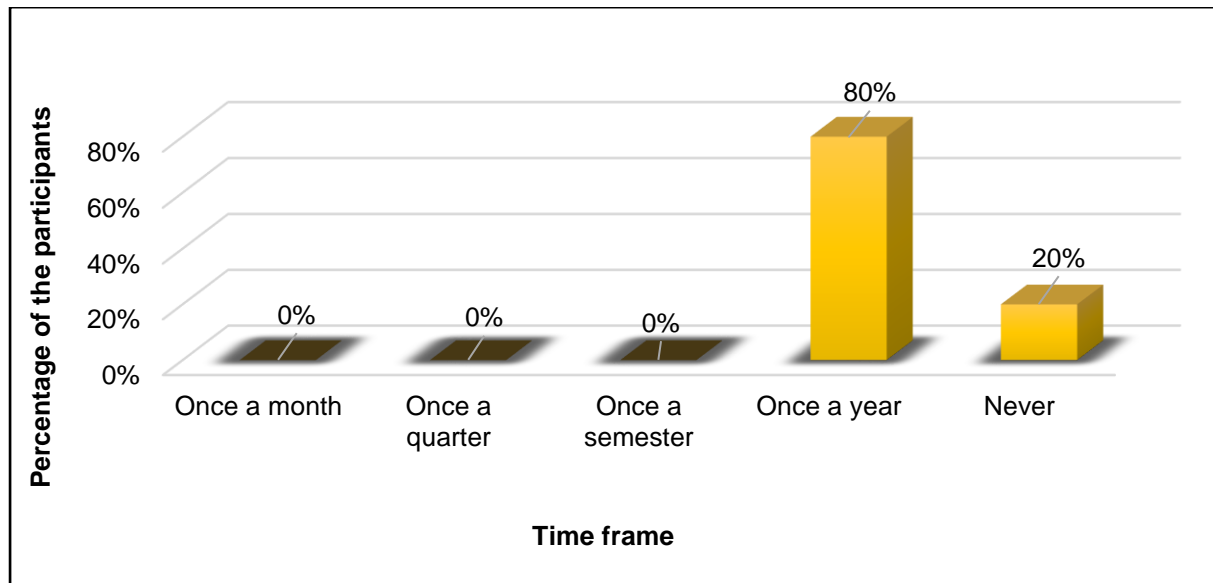


Figure 7.12 portrays that 80% of the participants revealed that they see their local authority councillors at least once a year and 20% indicated that they have never seen them. None (0%) of the participants indicated that they see their councillors once a month, once a quarter and once a semester. It is encouraging that 80% of the participants have indicated that they see their councillors at least once a year. This may further explain why the level of poverty in Windhoek is less in comparison to other towns in Namibia (NPC, 2015:13). Residents should make use of the opportunities once they see their councillors to discuss the socio-economic issues that are affecting them. This would make the councillors to be aware of the social problems such as the provision of affordable housing that would need attention and make them agenda points in the Council's meeting for discussion to find amicable solutions.

7.2.15 Public meetings

Participants were requested to specify how often they have public meetings to discuss matters of public interest. This information was seen as important because it helps to determine whether residents are involved in public meetings with the representatives of the government that are closer to them to discuss issues such as poverty. Moreover, the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended, Part XVIII, states that the chairperson of the local authority council: "(a) shall convene at least three public meetings annually; and (b) shall convene, a meeting to which the public is invited for

purposes of discussion of any matter of public interest...”. The results are depicted in Figure 7.13.

Figure 7.13: Public meetings

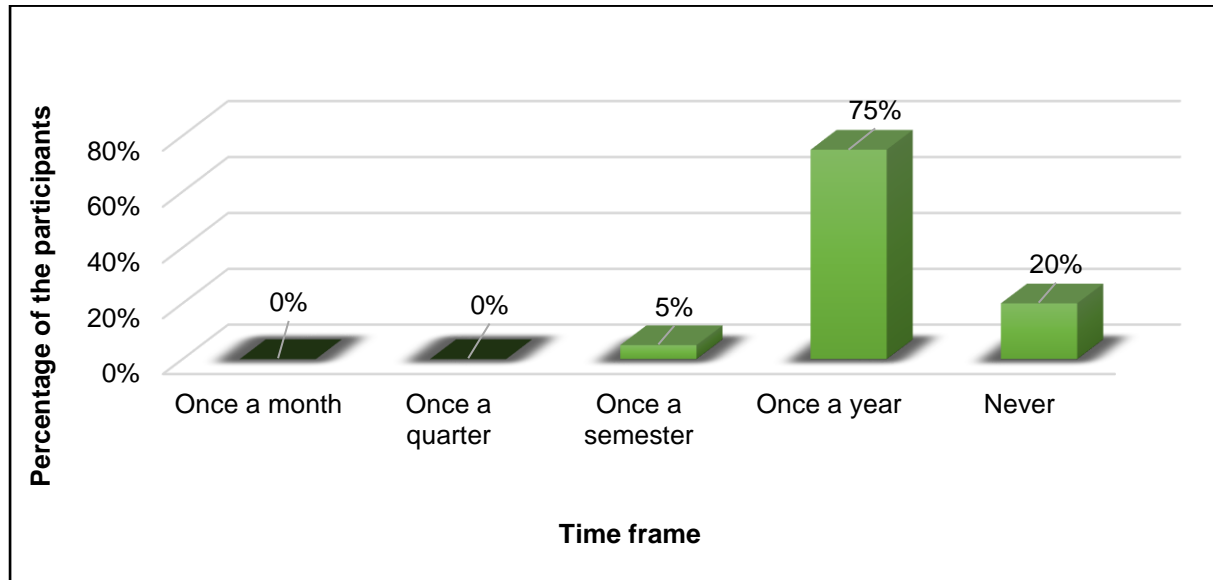


Figure 7.13 illustrates that 75% of the participants indicated that they have public meetings once a year, whilst 20% indicated that they never had public meetings and 5% indicated that they have meetings once a semester. None (0%) of the participants indicated that they have meetings once a month, and once a quarter. Municipal public meetings are crucial because they enable citizens to influence the municipal actions (Baker, Addams & Davis, 2005:490). The results are encouraging since 75% of the participants revealed that they have meetings at least once a year. This is an indication that the CoW makes time to engage their residents on affairs of public interest, therefore citizens need to indicate the issues that need attention in this meeting and those with solutions and suggestions to some of the problems should also say them in this meetings.

7.2.16 CoW involvement in poverty alleviation

This section deals with the CoW interventions to alleviate poverty. Participants were given a list of nine (9) statements and they were asked to rate them using a Likert scale, whereby 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = uncertain, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree. The results are shown in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3: CoW involvement in poverty alleviation

Number	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	The goal of every local authority is to provide a satisfactory quality of life to its citizens	0%	0%	6%	11%	83%
2	Provision of essential services such as water, electricity, housing and sanitation at an affordable prices can improve my quality of life	0%	6%	14%	22%	58%
3	My municipality invites residents to community meetings	0%	4%	15%	21%	60%
4	My municipality provides public education on the mandate of local authorities which is the provision of affordable water and electricity among others to the residents within their areas of administrative jurisdiction	70%	22%	8%	0%	0%
5	My municipality holds community meetings in Civic halls where matters of community interest are discussed	0%	2%	10%	25%	63%
6	During the community meetings in Civic halls, residents' inputs are listened to	0%	2%	10%	20%	68%
7	I know my municipality has a policy on poverty reduction	7%	0%	10%	23%	60%
8	My municipality implements residents' suggestions regarding how to reduce poverty in their poverty alleviation strategies	0%	3%	4%	53%	40%
9	My municipality's strategies have made progress in reducing poverty in my area	0%	0%	12%	22%	66%

The results on statement number 1 indicate that the majority (83%) of the participants strongly agree that the goal of every local authority is to provide a satisfactory quality of life to its citizens, 11% agree, 6% are uncertain and none (0%) disagree or strongly disagree with the given statement. The results further illustrate that 94% of the participants gave positive responses (strongly agree and agree) with the statement. This is in line with Gildenhuis (1997:2) who argues that the goal of a modern local government is to create the necessary conditions within its municipality and within the limits of its legal jurisdiction for promoting a satisfactory quality of life for each of its citizens. The results clearly show that the residents of the CoW understand that the municipality has a duty to provide them with a satisfactory quality of life. Whilst the statement did not include the modalities on how the municipality should improve the residents' quality of life, it should encourage the residents to continuously engage the CoW officials on affairs that can improve their quality of life.

With regards to statement number 2, the majority (58%) of the participants strongly agree that the provision of essential services such as water, electricity, housing and sanitation at an affordable price can improve their quality of life, 22% agree, 14% are uncertain, 6% disagree and 0% strongly disagree. A further analysis of the results shows that a combined 80% of the participants were in agreement with the given statement. Quality of life is a complex concept and it depends on the lenses that one is looking at it from and this has seen scholars such as Ruževičius (2014:319) argue that the physical and mental aspects of an individual as well as their degree of independency and social relationship with the environment can influence the quality of life tremendously. Since quality of life can be subjective (Ventegodt et al., 2003:1032), it is not surprising that some participants were convinced that the provision of municipal basic services such as water, electricity, housing and sanitation at affordable prices can improve their quality of life, while others have rejected this idea. It may therefore be inferred that residents of the CoW have a different conception on what constitutes quality of life.

On statement number 3, the majority (60%) of the participants strongly agree that their municipality invites residents to community meetings, 21% agree, 15% are uncertain, 4% disagree and 0% strongly disagree. This shows that at least 81% of the participants are in agreement that the CoW invites all the residents to community meetings. This is a good sign, since a study by Hussey (2021:2) recorded that community engagement enables better understanding of communities' needs and aspirations, and it can also lead to improved outcomes. The results illustrate that the CoW views the residents as key stakeholders since they extend the invitation to community meetings. A contrast of statement number 3 in Table 7.3 with Figures 7.10 and 7.11 may mean that during the community meeting residents were able to indicate the improvements they needed with regards to service delivery, thus 92% of the participants were able to express that they have experienced improvements in service delivery. On the other hand, it may also mean that despite inviting residents to community meetings, the challenge of the provision of affordable housing still persists to haunt the residents, thus 64% of the participants indicated that this was the biggest service delivery challenge in their view. Therefore, there is a need for collaboration and good working relationship between the residents and the officials to find solutions to local problems.

With regards to statement number 4, the majority (70%) of the participants strongly disagree that their municipality provides public education on the mandate of local authorities which is the provision of affordable water and electricity among others to the residents within their areas of administrative jurisdiction. Similarly, 22% of the participants disagree, while 8% are uncertain and none (0%) agree or strongly agree with the statement. A further analysis of these results revealed that a combined 92% of the participants provided negative responses (strongly disagree and disagree) towards public education on the mandate of local authorities. It is disheartening that the CoW does not provide public education to the residents regarding its mandate. Since not all the residents are educated, those with no academic or civic education might not know what they are entitled to from the municipality by virtue of them residing within the area of jurisdiction. It is therefore imperative that the CoW should provide public education to the residents on mandates of the local authority so that all the residents can be informed and be in a better position to make rightful demands from the municipality.

Responses on statement number 5 reveal that 63% of the participants strongly agree that the CoW holds community meetings where matters of community interest are discussed, 25% agree, 10% are uncertain, 2% disagree and 0% strongly disagree. The results are an indication that the CoW is complying with the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended since it requires the holding of public meetings to discuss matters of public interest. However, Baker et al. (2004:491) observe that community meetings sometimes do not achieve their intended goals, hence they end up frustrating both agencies as well as the communities. Baker et al.'s sentiments are better suited to explain why residents are still in poverty despite the holding of community meetings where issues such as poverty are supposed to be dealt with amicably. Since a total combined 88% of the participants provided positive responses to this statement, this suggests that the CoW holds their residents in high regard when it comes to matters that are concerning their livelihood. This is reflected by the mere reason that the municipality invites residents to meetings, therefore it is important that much of the discussion in these meetings should revolve around what can be done to improve service delivery, address local problems and soliciting of residents' expectations in order to improve their socio-economic conditions.

With regards to statement number 6, a majority (68%) of the participants strongly agree that residents' inputs are listened to during community meetings, 20% agree, 10% are uncertain, 2% disagree and 0% strongly disagree. These results further illustrate that a combined total of 88% of the participants believe that their inputs are listened to. When residents believe that their inputs are listened to, this does not only strengthen the relationship between the municipality and the residents, but it can also lead to improved service delivery that could enhance the residents' quality of life. This means that residents would feel encouraged to attend the meetings and to make contributions during these meetings and this is a good remedy for democracy building and a prosperous CoW in the near future since there is a good understanding between residents and officials.

The results on statement number 7 reveal that 60% of the participants strongly agree that they know that their municipality has a policy on poverty reduction, 23% agree, 10% are uncertain, 7% disagree and 0% strongly disagree. The above results illustrate that a total combined of 83% of the participants know that the CoW has a strategy aimed at alleviating poverty. This is true because the CoW has a local economic development strategy that aims to revive and sustain economic growth; create more employment opportunities; reduce poverty; and promote economic empowerment (CoW, 2010:6). With residents knowing the poverty alleviation strategy for the CoW is good, but it does not improve their quality of life if residents themselves are not carrying out their end of responsibilities. Thus it is imperative that the poverty alleviation programmes should be clearly explained to the residents in all the languages that they best understand.

With regards to statement number 8, a majority (53%) of the participants agree that the municipality does implement residents' suggestions in their poverty alleviation strategies, 40% strongly agree, 4% are uncertain, while 3% disagree and 0% strongly disagree. Given that a combined total of 93% of the participants trusts that their suggestions and recommendations are implemented, which suggests that residents have probably seen them in the strategies of the CoW. However, since there is still poverty within the residents of the CoW, this explains the multifaceted nature of poverty and the need to conduct further studies that may help to permanently alleviate

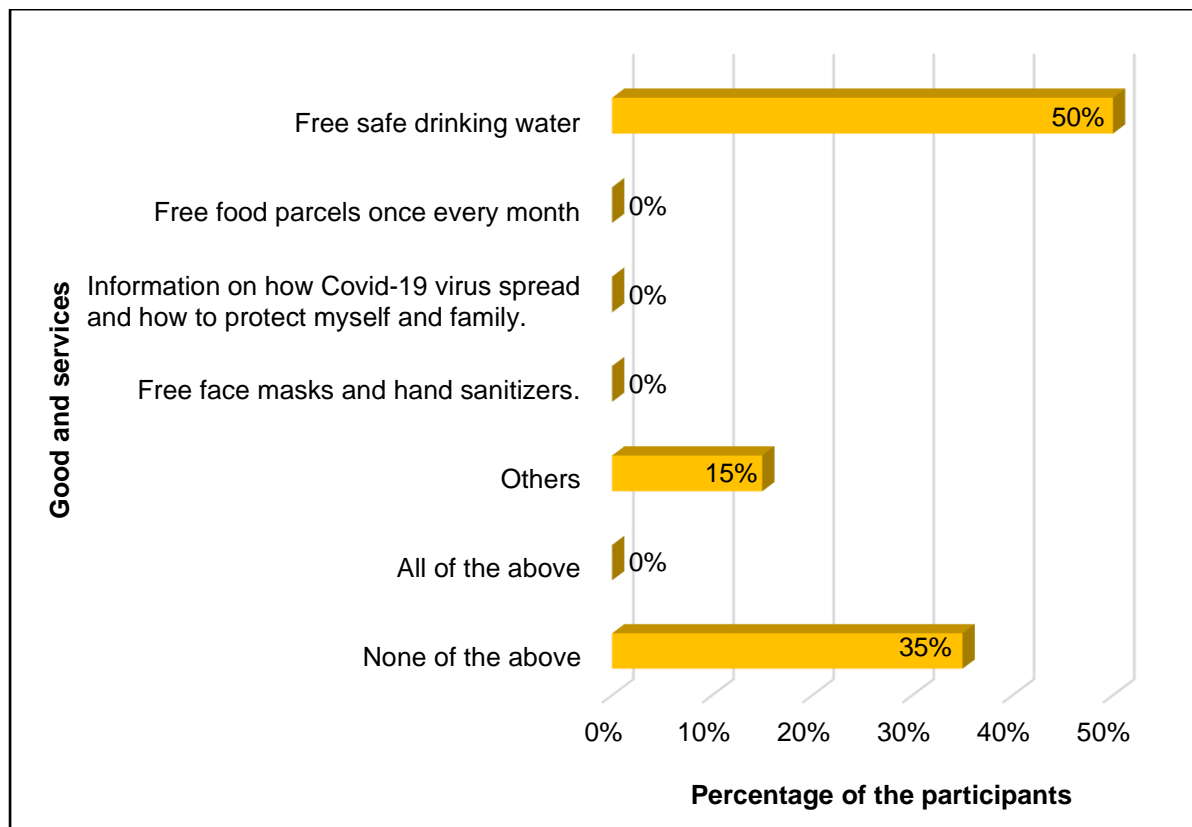
poverty. This does not mean that residents' inputs are not good enough to alleviate poverty, however it shows that poverty affects people differently.

The results on statement number 9 reveal that 66% of the participants strongly agree that their municipality's strategies had made progress in reducing poverty in their area, 22% agree, 12% are uncertain, while none (0%) disagree or strongly disagree. This demonstrates that a combined total of 88% of the participants gave a positive response. This explains why a study by NPC (2015:31) found that Khomas region, which is home to the CoW, is the least poor region in the country. It is a good sign that the strategies of the CoW have made progress with regards to reducing poverty. However, it is imperative to note that other factors such as a change in the socio-economic conditions in the country like economic recession due to Covid-19 may increase the levels of poverty of the residents and thus overshadowing the progress made by the CoW strategies in reducing poverty. Thus an increase in the level of poverty within the residents of the CoW does not mean that the CoW strategies are not alleviating poverty, but it rather illustrates the multifaceted nature of poverty and the need to have an integrated framework consisting of different societal actors such as the government, NGOs, private sector organisations and community members working together to discover ways to alleviate poverty in all its forms.

7.2.17 Provisions from CoW during Covid-19

Since the study was carried out during the time when societies were dealing with the Covid-19 pandemic, it was significant to gather data on services rendered to the residents by the CoW in response to the pandemic. Figure 7.15 illustrates that 50% of the participants indicated that they received free safe drinking water, while 15% indicated that they received other forms of assistance. None (0%) of the participants indicated that they received free face masks and hand sanitizers, information on how the Covid-19 virus spreads and how to protect themselves and their families and free food parcels once every month. Additionally, 35% of the participants revealed that they did not receive any of the listed good and services.

Figure 7.15: Provisions from the CoW during Covid-19

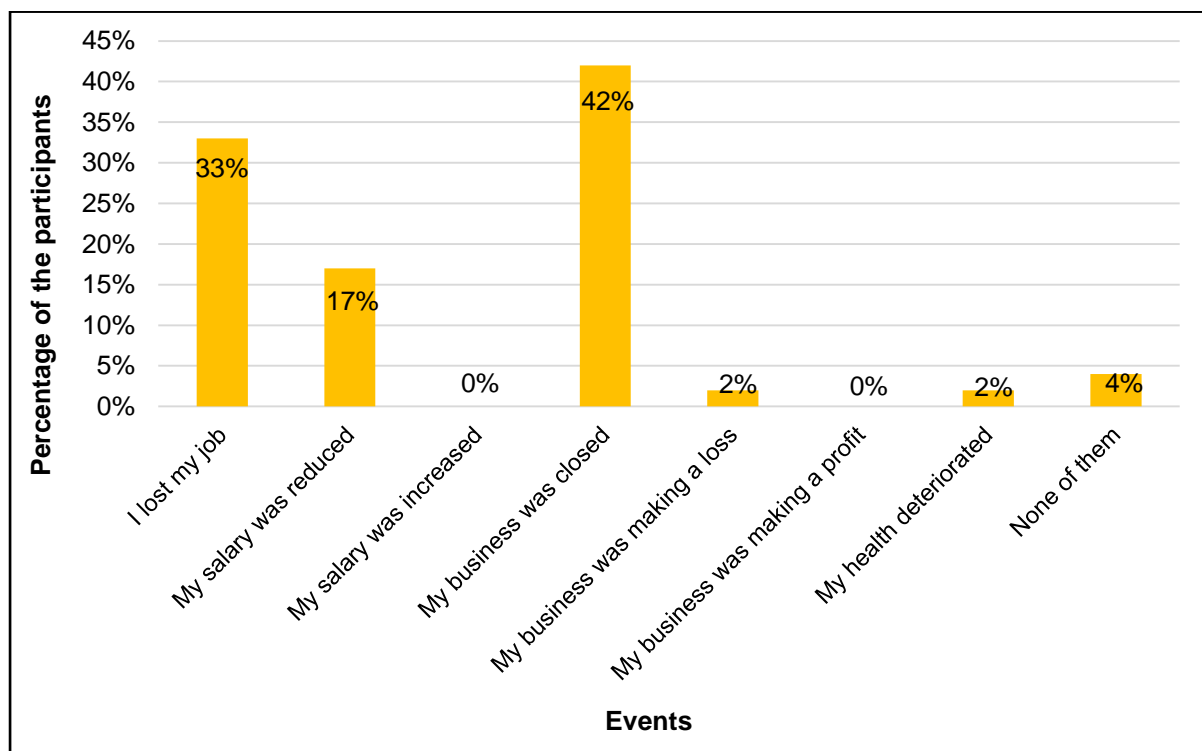


Since 50% of participants indicated that they received safe drinking water, this is in agreement with Nel (2020:1) who reported that the CoW approved an N\$8.9 million budget as part of its efforts to mitigate the risks associated with the Covid-19 pandemic. Among other things that were carried out by the CoW was the provision of free running water to the residents of informal settlements during the pandemic. This is a positive sign because a service such as water is exclusive in nature, meaning that it is provided based on the ability of the consumer to pay for it (Gildenhuys (1997:8), despite its importance in curbing the spread of the virus, thus it was provided free of charge to those in the informal settlement during the Covid-19 pandemic. The results indicate that the focus of the CoW during the pandemic was on providing assistance to the needy in the informal settlements. This is good because residents residing in the informal settlement are the neediest and this good gesture from the city thus illustrates that the city knows the residents' challenges, needs and problems and the city is thus doing its utmost best to ensure that these residents had means to navigate through the pandemic.

7.2.18 Events that happened due to Covid-19

Participants were asked to indicate the events that occurred in their lives due to Covid-19. This statement was meant to analyse the impact of Covid-19 on the livelihoods of the participants with the ultimate purpose of determining the extent to which Covid-19 has contributed to an increase or decrease in the levels of poverty. Figure 7.16 reveals that because of Covid-19, 42% of the participants revealed that their businesses were closed, 33% lost their jobs, 17% said that their salaries were reduced, 2% indicated that their businesses were making a loss and another 2% indicated that their health had deteriorated. None (0%) of the participants indicated that their salaries were increased or their businesses were making a profit as a result of Covid-19. However, 4% of the participants revealed that none of the aforesaid events happened in their lives due to Covid-19. The results are shown in Figure 7.16 below.

Figure 7.16: Events that happened due to Covid-19



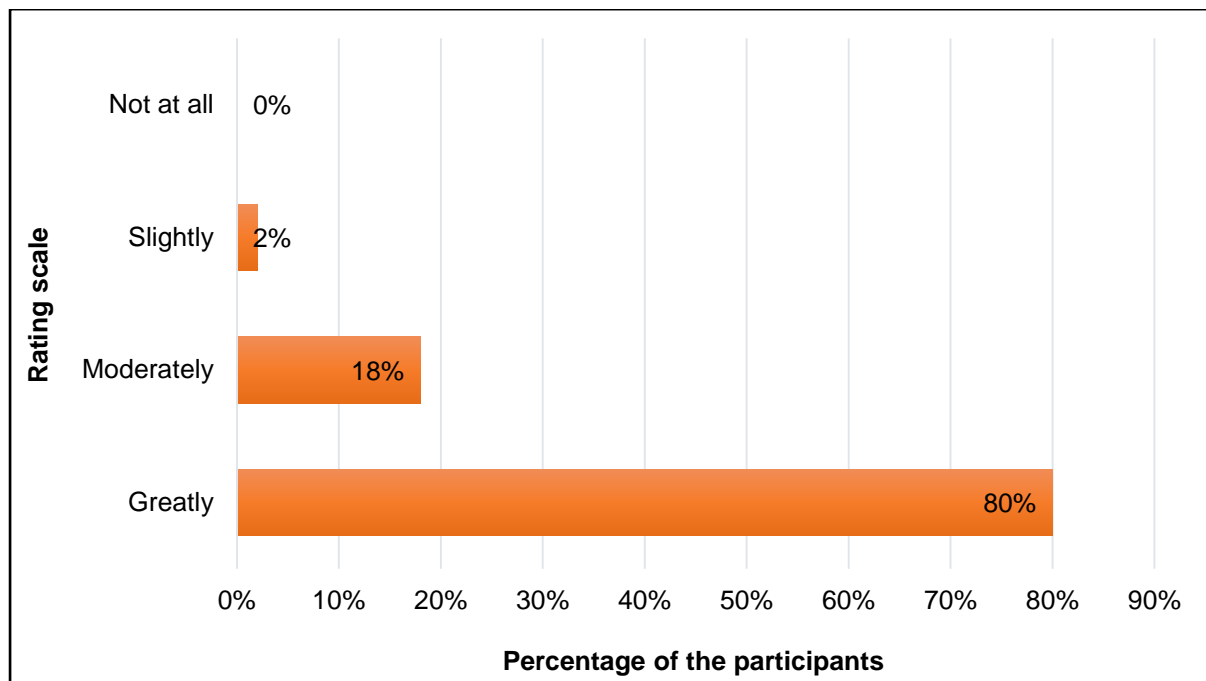
As a response to Covid-19, President Hage Geingob declared a State of Emergency (SoE) on 17 March 2020 to 17 September 2020 (Republic of Namibia, 2020). During the SoE, Khomas region was one of the regions in the country that went under lockdown and businesses that were not selling essential services were closed. Moreover, when the business such as liquor shops opened, they were operating within a limited time frame and they were prohibited to sell alcohol during weekends at some

point (Republic of Namibia, 2020). The results are supported by Kharas and Dooley (2021:1) who found that due to Covid-19 measures such as lockdowns and social distancing, people lost jobs and livelihoods, leaving them unable to pay for housing and food. These measures led to the reduction in the profits that businesses used to make before the outbreak of Covid-19, consequently some employees were laid-off, while others had their salaries reduced significantly. Therefore, this means that Covid-19 has contributed to an increase in poverty within the residents of the CoW and thus this might have overshadowed the efforts made by the city to improve the socio-economic conditions of its residents.

7.2.19 Effects of Covid-19

Participants were also asked to rate how Covid-19 affected their lives using a scale of 1 to 4, where 1 means that they were not affected by Covid-19 at all, 2 indicates that they were slightly affected, 3 means that they were moderately affected and 4 implies that they were greatly affected by Covid-19. The results indicate that 80% of the participants indicated that they were greatly affected by Covid-19, 18% were moderately affected, 2% were slightly affected and 0% were not affected at all. The results are not surprising as it was observed that Covid-19 has led to dramatic loss of human life, disruption of the food systems, and tens of millions of people are estimated to be at risk of falling into extreme poverty by the end of 2021 (Chriscaden, 2020:online). Kharas and Dooley (2021:1) claim that Covid-19 has caused a decline in socio-economic conditions at all levels. The results are depicted in Figure 7.17.

Figure 7.17: Effects of Covid-19



The results show that Covid-19 has affected the residents of the CoW. The effects of Covid-19 range from health deterioration, loss of income and loss of loved ones among others, thus since none of the participants indicated that they were not affected by the virus, it means that all the residents were affected, though this might be in different ways. Therefore it is important that residents should adhere to the set Covid-19 regulations such as washing of hands regularly with running water and soap, using of hand sanitizer and keeping a social distancing of 2 meters among others. If all residents can adhere to the set regulations it could lead to a decrease in the spread of Covid-19 which then could lead to improved living standards of the residents because their sources of income would be restored and thus they could do things for themselves to improve their lives.

In summary, the results from the community members reveal that there are more female residents than males in the CoW, and GZ and GY are dominant in the city. A majority of the residents are spending their incomes on housing and hence they view the provision of affordable housing as the biggest service delivery challenge in the city. Most of the community members are convinced that poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for them. The CoW holds community meetings to discuss matters of public interest and residents are invited. The Covid-19 pandemic added to

the already struggling socio-economic challenges that the community of Windhoek faced and this has affected the residents of Windhoek in numerous ways.

7.3 RESPONSES FROM STAKEHOLDER ORGANISATIONS

The reason for using a survey to collect data from selected officials of the CoW, MGEPEW and MURD was to get the official perspectives on poverty in the CoW as well as what is being done to alleviate it. The questionnaire used to collect data from the participants during phase 2 was divided into 5 sections. Section A focused on collecting biographical information of the participants. Section B explored the poverty situation in the CoW. Section C focused on local economic development strategies. Section D explored the effective ways to alleviate poverty. While the last section, section E focused on the better quality of life. The target for this phase was to administer the questionnaire to a combined number of 35 selected officials, however, due to the busy schedules of the officials, some of them were unfortunately not able to participate in the study. Consequently, only 28 officials participated in the study which makes the frequency for phase 2 to be N=28.

7.3.1 Biographical information

The biographical information of the participants was deemed important because it helps to provide a factual profile that contains data on gender, age, highest qualification, nationality, ethnic origin, years of service, and marital status of the officials that are spearheading poverty alleviation policies and strategies aimed at improving the quality of life for the residents. The results are presented in Table 7.4 below, whereby the first column contains the statements asked to the participants, the second column displays the frequency which is the actual number of the participants who chose a particular statement. The last column emerged from the second column and it presents the percentage of participants under each statement.

Table 7.4: Biographical information

N=28

Statements	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Participants' gender		
Male	16	48
Female	12	42
Total	28	100
Participants' age		
Under 28 years	7	25
29-40 years	13	46
41-55 years	8	29
56-65 years	0	0
66+ years	0	0
Total	28	100
Participants' highest qualification		
Doctorate	0	0
Masters' degree	14	50
Honours' degree	9	32
Bachelor's degree	4	14
Diploma	0	0
Certificate	1	4
Matric/Grade 12	0	0
Total	28	100
Participants' nationality		
Namibian	28	100
Angolan	0	0
South African	0	0
Zimbabwean	0	0
Zambian	0	0
other	0	0
Total	28	100
Participants' ethnic origin		
Aawambo	12	43
Kavango	3	11
Herero	5	18
Damara	4	14
Nama	0	0
San	0	0
Caprivian	0	0
Tswana	0	0

Baster	0	0
Other	4	14
Total	28	100
Participants' years of service		
0-5	7	25
6-10	5	18
11-15	12	43
16-20	2	7
21-25	2	7
26 +	0	0
Total	28	100
Participants' marital status		
Married	14	50
Living together	0	0
Single	14	50
Divorced	0	0
Widow	0	0
Widower	0	0
Total	28	100

Gender

The results on gender show that 48% of the participants were male, while 42% were female. This is underscored by the NLFS of 2018 which found that males continue to outnumber their female counterpart in the country in terms of employment ratio (NSA, 2018:45). This indicates that both genders participated in the study, but males were more than females. Since officials were purposively selected based on the knowledge they possess in relation to the research topic which is reflected by the position they occupy in their respective institutions, it could be inferred that males were occupying positions that were targeted for the study and they were willing to take up the challenge of participating in the study.

Age

The results on age categories reveal that 46% of the participants were between the age ranges of 29 – 40 years, 29% were between 41 - 55 years and 25% were under 28 years. None (0%) of the participants were between 56- 65 years or 66 years and older. The results indicate that officials are generations Z, Y and X (Kahn & Louw, 2016). Generation Y in particular, is for those that are younger than 40 years and they are motivated and bring numerous skills to the workplace. They have unique perceptions of learning and relationships hence they are capable of transforming the workplace as well as the world at large (Voller et al., 2011:107; Salkowitz 2008:189, cited by Kahn, 2013:4). This means that on both ends the greater majority (64%) of community members are GY (see section 7.2.1, Table 7.1) and the greater majority (71%) of the officials are GY, thus they are at the same reasoning level and they can work better together to improve the socio-economic conditions of the community. This generation is full of energy hence it should perform well.

Academic qualifications

With regards to the highest qualifications, 50% of the participants revealed that they had masters' degrees, 32% had honours degrees, 14% had bachelor's degrees and 4% had certificates. None (0%) of the participants had a doctorate, diploma or matric/grade 12 as their highest qualifications. A research conducted by the International Labour Office (2011:8) found that education is one of the significant determinants of economic growth. The research further revealed that highly educated employees contribute to a more skilful and productive workforce which can produce goods and services of high quality standards which are the basis for good economic growth and improved living standards. Taking into account that 50% of the participants are in possession of a master's degree is impressive and it shows that poverty alleviation initiatives are spearheaded by officials that are educated. Moreover, the results clearly indicate that overall officials are well educated therefore they should be able to achieve strategic goals.

Nationality and ethnicity

The results on the nationality show that all (100%) of the participants were Namibians. With regards to ethnic origin, 43% of the participants were Aawambo, 18% were Herero, 14% were Damara and 11% were Kavango. None (0%) of the participants were Nama, San, Caprivian, Tswana or Baster. However, 4% of the participants indicated that they were from other ethnic groups that were not included in the list. Given that all participants were Namibians is not surprising because Namibians are always given the first priority when vacancies are advertised. Moreover, this is an indication that we have Namibians that are qualified in the field of Social Sciences and since they are given the first priority, it is an indication that the government wants to address unemployment by ensuring that all Namibians are employed. Therefore, these Namibian officials should serve the country with a sense of patriotism by converting the energy and skills they possess towards the alleviation of poverty. The results also mean that since these officials are from different ethnic groups and the residents of the CoW are also made up of people from different ethnic origins, they would be able to communicate well without language barriers and hence they should be able to address the phenomenon of poverty amicably.

Years of service

The results on the years of service reveal that 43% of the participants had 11-15 years of service, while 25% had 0-5 years, 18% had 6-10 years, 7% had between 16-20 years and another 7% had between 21-25 years of service. None (0%) of the participants had served for 26 or more years. This means that a total combined of 75% of the participants had more than 6 years of work experience. This is a positive sign to have experienced people dealing with the alleviation of poverty. Furthermore, this is an indication that this is a young workforce that can do much to transform the institution and turn poverty around.

Marital status

On the marital status, the results disclose that 50% of the participants were married and 50% were single. None (0%) of the participants were living together, divorced, widows or widower. It is not surprising that 50% of the participants are still single because the majority would be GZ and GY. This means that since half of the officials are not married, it could be argued that they do not have much responsibility that comes with being a married couple, thus they should devote much of their time and energy to researching and discovering effective ways to alleviate poverty in all its forms.

7.3.2 Poverty situation in the CoW

This section explains the poverty situation in the CoW by focusing on its nature and causes. Participants were given a list of seven (7) statements and they were asked to rate the extent to which they strongly disagree, disagree, uncertain, agree and strongly agree with the statements. The rating is based on Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = uncertain, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree. The results are shown in Table 7.5.

With regards to statement number 1, a majority (50%) of the participants strongly agree that poverty in the context of the CoW is the inability of people to attain a minimum standard of living and to obtain adequate nutritious food, housing and clothing among others and 32% agree. While 18% of the participants are uncertain and none (0%) disagree, and strongly disagree with statement number 1. This indicates that a combined total of 82% of the participants in Table 7.5 were in agreement with the definition of poverty provided in statement number 1 and this definition has been endorsed by Haralambos, Holborn and Heald (1991:32); European Commission (2005:10); and Davis and Sanchez-Martinez (2014:7).

This means that most of the officials are of the opinion that if the residents were to be given income and food support needed to obtain a minimum standard of living they might view poverty differently. This conception of poverty is narrow because it is only based on income. Thus it is important that poverty in the context of the CoW should be viewed beyond income and instead it should include aspects of homelessness and

inadequate housing, unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion as well as a lack of participation in decision making. It is imperative that officials view poverty from the later perspectives because when poverty is viewed from the later perspectives it means that there is a lot that the government, NGOs and private sector organisations can do to alleviate poverty.

Table 7.5: Poverty situation in the CoW

Number	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Poverty in the context of the City of Windhoek can be classified as the inability of people to attain a minimum standard of living and to obtain adequate nutrition, housing and clothing	0%	0%	18%	32%	50%
2	People are responsible for their poverty plight and with better choices such as living within their means and opening of small and medium enterprises they can get out of poverty	18%	25%	18%	25%	14%
3	People are struggling to get out of poverty due to lack of better income and employment opportunities	0%	11%	14%	29%	46%
4	Individuals spend most of their income on basic needs such as food, water, shelter and clothing	0%	0%	0%	43%	57%
5	The city provides food parcels to people living in dire poverty on a monthly basis	32%	25%	29%	41%	0%
6	The number of people living in poverty has decreased	36%	39%	25%	0%	0%
7	The poverty income bottom line in the city is N\$293.1 per month	0%	7%	64%	29%	0%

The results on statement number 2 show that 25% of the participants disagree that people are responsible for their poverty plight and with better choices such as living within their means and opening of small and medium enterprises they can get out of poverty, another 25% agree, 18% strongly disagree, 18% are uncertain and 14% strongly agree with the statement. A further analysis of the results illustrates that negative answers (strongly disagree and disagree) made up a total of 43% of the participants, while positive answers (strongly agree and agree) make up a combined total of 39%. This means that 39% of the participants hold the views of the individual deficiency theory of poverty which blames individuals in poverty for creating their own problems and argue that with hard work and better choices, the poor could have avoided their problems (Bradshaw, 2006:6). While 43% of the participants support the theory which holds that individuals are not responsible for their poverty plight.

According to this theory, poverty is rather caused by economic, political, and social distortions or discrimination which causes people to have limited opportunities and resources with which to achieve income and wellbeing (Bradshaw, 2006:10). This means that officials have different views of the causes of poverty in the CoW as well as what can be done to alleviate poverty. This could be a serious challenges in the quest of the officials to alleviate poverty. Therefore, it is important that stakeholder organisations diligently examine the phenomenon of poverty in the context of the CoW and agree on the best possible ways to help the residents to get out of poverty.

On statement number 3, the majority (46%) of the participants strongly agree that people are struggling to get out of poverty due to lack of better income and employment opportunities, 29% agree, 14% are uncertain, 11% disagree and 0% strongly disagree. These results show that a total of 75% of the participants gave positive responses, which means that they are in agreement with Rank (2005:20), who claims that people are struggling to get out of poverty due to the economic and political inadequacies and structures that are hindering the provision of sufficient opportunities for all the people in a country, thereby perpetuating poverty. This is an indication that there is a need to address the social, economic and political factors within the society that are limiting people to get out of poverty. The governments need to intervene and together with the CoW, they should ensure that all people have access to social amenities such as water and shelter and that there are sufficient employment opportunities with better income for all the residents.

In terms of statement number 4, a majority of the participants (57%) strongly agree that individuals spend most of their income on basic needs such as food, water, shelter and clothing, whilst 43% agree and none (0%) of the participants disagree, strongly agree or are uncertain. The findings further illustrate that 100% of the participants were in agreement with the provided statement. This is underscored by Schanzenbach et al. (2016:3) who claim that low-income households tend to spend a higher portion of their income on basic needs such as food, water, housing, transportation and health expenses among others. This is not surprising because these are essential things in life. However, it is important that individuals should also spend a large portion of their income on investments as well as on savings for retirement. This is important because if individuals do not accumulate sufficient assets while they are working, the old aged

pension grants might not be sufficient to keep them out of poverty for a long time. Therefore, the CoW should provide public education to the residents on the importance of savings and investments so that the residents can increase their net worth in the long run.

The results on statement number 5 reveal that 32% of the participants strongly disagree that the city provides food parcels to people living in dire poverty on a monthly basis, while 29% are uncertain, 25% disagree, 14% agree and 0% strongly agree. A further analysis of these results demonstrates that positive responses constituted 57% of the participants. This is because the distribution of food to the people living in dire poverty is mainly done by the MGEPEWSW through the food bank programme, in collaboration with the regional councils and local authorities who make storage facilities available (MGEPEWSW, 2019:9-12). This is an indication that poverty and especially hunger is being fought by the government through free distribution of food to the neediest. This means that the CoW should keep an updated list of the neediest people that need food in various constituencies within the city.

Statement number 6 illustrates that 39% of the participants disagree that the number of people living in poverty has decreased, 36% strongly disagree, while 25% indicate that they are uncertain and none (0%) agree or strongly agree with the statement. Furthermore, combined negative responses illustrate that 75% of the participants were in disagreement with the statement. This could be because data on poverty estimates in Namibia are collected after every five years through the NHIES, and the latest available data are those of 2015/16 since the 2020/21 survey was postponed. The available data shows that 2.2% of the Khomas region's population is severely poor, 1.2% is food poor, and 4.8% is poor (NSA, 2016:104). According to the World Bank (2021:online), poverty rates in Namibia are estimated to rise to about 64% by 2022 due to the impacts of Covid-19. While this statistic is for the whole country, it could be inferred that there would also be an increase in the poverty rates in the CoW, especially due to the impact of Covid-19. Therefore, there is a need for combined efforts from the government and the CoW to improve the socio-economic conditions of the community through the provisions of the needed basic services.

With regards to statement number 7, a majority (64%) of the participants were uncertain whether the poverty income bottom line in the city is N\$293.1 per month,

29% agree, 7% disagree and none (0%) strongly disagree or strongly agree. Although the results show that most of the participants were not sure of the income bottom line in the city, Namibia's poverty income bottom line per household is N\$293.1 per month (NSA, 2016:104; Ngatjiheue, 2019:1). This means that officials who are dealing with the affairs of improving the livelihood of the residents have a do not care attitude since they are not aware of the poverty income bottom line. It is important that officials familiarise themselves with this information because it is crucial and could be useful during planning and decision making processes on matters concerning poverty.

7.3.3 Local economic development strategies

This section explores issues surrounding the LED strategies. Participants were given a list of nine (9) statements and they were requested to rate them using a Likert scale, whereby: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = uncertain, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree. The findings are presented in Table 7.6.

Responses on statement number 1 in Table 7.6 reveal that 46% of the participants agree that they understand the steps involved when their department instituted poverty alleviation action, while 33% strongly agree, 14% disagree, 7% indicated that they are uncertain and 0% strongly disagree. A further analysis of the results show that a total of 79% of the participants gave positive responses that they understand the steps involved when their departments instituted poverty alleviation actions. It is important that officials understand the steps involved in the process because this helps to achieve reliable results and reduces inappropriate or unintended variation (Siriwardena & Gillam, 2013:180). Based on the results, this is a good indication because officials are the ones implementing the poverty alleviation action, therefore it is integral that they have full knowledge of the steps involved in order to implement the actions successfully. This means that the poverty alleviation actions and programmes will be successful because they are spearheaded by GY which is highly educated, technology savvy, full of energy and has a desire to transform the world. Therefore, since the respondents understand the steps involved when the poverty alleviation actions and programmes were instituted, this makes it easier for the officials to implement them with ease and a sense of ownership.

Table 7.6: Local economic development strategies

Number	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I understand the steps involved when my Department instituted poverty alleviation action	0%	14%	7%	46%	33%
2	My Department provides training to local community structures in poverty alleviation action	0%	7%	14%	50%	29%
3	My Department monitor the poverty alleviation	4%	14%	18%	39%	25%
4	The local community structures implement poverty alleviation activities	0%	14%	36%	46%	4%
5	I know the poverty alleviation policies and procedures of the CoW	0%	25%	32%	43%	0%
6	I know the poverty alleviation policies for the CoW are effective / making a difference to the lives of communities	0%	7%	50%	29%	14%
7	My department regularly visits communities to monitor the progress of poverty alleviation programmes / activities	4%	21%	25%	36%	14%
8	I have attended the poverty alleviation training workshop and seminars	11%	25%	0%	14%	50%
9	The unions are involved in poverty alleviation activities	14%	25%	54%	7%	0%

With regards to statement number 2, a majority (50%) of the participants agree that their departments provide training to local community structures in poverty alleviation action, 29% strongly agree, 14% are uncertain, 7% disagree and 0% strongly disagree. The results further reveal that 79% of the participants gave positive responses that their department provides training to local community structures in poverty alleviation action. McClelland (2002:7) found that training is vital because it increases productivity, motivates and inspires those being trained and it enriches them with the information that is necessary to execute the tasks. The results are encouraging since the training of local community structures empowers the local people and gives them a sense of ownership in executing the poverty alleviation action within their area. This clearly shows that the local people are imparted with valuable knowledge and skills which would be essential in assisting them to permanently get out of poverty.

The results on statement number 3 show that 39% of the participants agree that their department monitors the poverty alleviation action, 25% strongly agree, 18% are uncertain, 14% disagree and 4% strongly disagree with the statement. The results further reveal that 64% of the participants gave positive answers that their department monitors poverty alleviation action. The African Development Bank Group (2006:1) submits that monitoring and evaluation are significant because they help to ensure a

successful implementation of the poverty reduction strategy. According to Chitembo and Silumesii (2011:7), the second step under the strategy review stage within the LED planning process is monitoring. It is a good thing that the greater majority (64%) of officials indicated that their departments monitor the poverty alleviation actions because monitoring is one of the important steps that an implementing entity or person should embark upon if they want their programmes to be successfully implemented. However, since a combined total of 18% of the participants gave negative responses, this is worrisome and it means that much still needs to be done to ensure that all the implementing departments are involved in monitoring. Therefore, the CoW should urge all the stakeholders that are involved in the alleviation of poverty within the city to embark upon a regular monthly monitoring of their programmes because lack of monitoring can lead to failure of programmes that were not supposed to fail if the monitoring was done on a regular basis.

The results on statement number 4 reveal that 46% of the participants agree that the local community structures implement poverty alleviation activities, 36% are uncertain, 14% disagree, 4% strongly agree and 0% strongly disagree. A further analysis of the results shows that a total of 82% of the participants gave positive responses. It is important to have local community structures implementing poverty alleviation activities because they understand communities' problems better and this also gives them a sense of ownership. Thus they will be dedicated and committed towards making the implementation process successful which is what is required in order to alleviate poverty.

With regards to statement number 5, a majority (43%) of the participants agree that they know the poverty alleviation policies and procedures of the CoW, 32% indicated that they are uncertain, 25% disagree and none (0%) strongly agree or strongly disagree. The CoW has an LED strategy which aims to: revive and sustain economic growth; create more employment opportunities; reduce poverty; and promote economic empowerment (CoW, 2010:6). Given that there are those officials that know the poverty alleviation policies and procedures for the CoW is encouraging. However, it is a challenge since 25% of the participants do not know the policies and procedures, while 32% are not sure whether they know them or not. Knowing the policies and procedures of the CoW is important for officials dealing with the aspects of poverty

alleviation within their respective organisations as this can help to sharpen their planning skills. Therefore, the CoW should share its poverty alleviation programmes and strategies with all the stakeholders that are involved in the alleviation of poverty within the city in order to avoid the duplication of duties and ensure that poverty alleviation is a success story in the city.

In terms of statement number 6, a majority (50%) of the participants were uncertain as to whether the poverty alleviation policies for the CoW are effective in making a difference to the lives of communities, 29% agree, 14% strongly agree, while 7% disagree and 0% strongly disagree with the statement. The results on statement number 6 are an indication that officials are really not sure whether the current poverty alleviation procedures are making a significance difference in the lives of the residents. Moreover, this clearly means that there is little on the ground with regards to inspection. In fact, there is a do not care attitude, therefore more involvement of the officials is needed.

Statement number 7 shows that 36% of the participants agree that their department regularly visits communities to monitor the progress of poverty alleviation programmes/activities, 25% are uncertain, 21% disagree, 14% strongly agree and 4% strongly disagree. The results further show that a total of 50% of the participants gave positive responses towards the statement. However, it is worrisome to note that a total of 18% of the participants gave negative answers towards the statement. Monitoring and evaluation are significant because they help to ensure a successful implementation of the poverty reduction strategy (African Development Bank Group, 2006:1). It is worth mentioning that GZ and GY like interaction and goodwill deeds for communities. Therefore, management should create such opportunities for the young officials as this may increase community engagement and foster a good relationship between officials and the community and together they can solve challenges. Furthermore, the visiting of communities to monitor the progress of the poverty alleviation programmes is important because this helps the implementing organisation to evaluate whether the current programmes are in line with the set goals and objectives.

With regards to statement number 8, a majority (50%) of the participants strongly agree that they have attended the poverty alleviation training workshop and seminars,

14% agree, 25% disagree, 11% strongly disagree and none (0%) are uncertain. The results further reveal that a total of 64% of the participants have attended poverty alleviation workshop and seminars. Training workshops and seminars are a backbone for the successful implementation of any strategy (McClelland, 2002:8). The results are pleasing and they show that these stakeholder organisations are striving to ensure that their officials are well equipped with the necessary skills and knowledge needed for effective crafting and implementation of poverty alleviation programmes/activities. Therefore, what is required from the officials is action; they need to implement what they have learnt from training because without proper implementation, the poverty alleviation programmes and strategies would not yield the desired results and the residents would remain in poverty.

Statement number 9 reveals that 54% of the participants were uncertain whether unions were involved in poverty alleviation activities, 25% disagree, 14% strongly disagree, 7% agree and none (0%) strongly agree. A further analysis of statement number 9 shows that while 54% of the participants were not sure whether unions were involved, a total of 39% gave negative responses right away. Swinburn et al. (2004:4) recommend that for LED to succeed, it needs combined efforts from the government, businesses, and NGOs including trade unions among other actors. Overall, the results show a poor relationship between officials and unions. Officials should extend an olive leaf to unions. It is imperative that officials remember the bigger picture which is about labour relations, which includes employers, employees, the government and unions. Failure to see a bigger picture as highlighted above could result in inaccurate poverty alleviation results as some stakeholders might feel that there are aspects of poverty that are not adequately dealt with.

7.3.4 Effective ways to alleviate poverty

Participants were given a list of possible options that could be used to effectively alleviate poverty. The statements included what can be done as well as what is currently being carried out by the CoW. A Likert scale was used to provide the rating whereby: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = uncertain, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree. The results are shown in Table 7.7.

The results on statement number 1 in Table 7.7 show that 50% of the participants agree that the provision of literacy/training/education can alleviate poverty, 36% strongly agree, 7% are uncertain, another 7% disagree and none (0%) strongly disagree. A further examination of the results shows that a total of 86% of the participants were in favour of the statement. The results are supported by Giovetti (2020) and Kulild (2014:3) who found that education and literacy are essential in breaking the vicious cycle of poverty which affects people from one generation to another. They further reveal that basic skills such as reading, writing as well as numeracy which are acquired from education have positive effects on the incomes of the marginalised residents. This means that education is one of the effective ways that can be used to alleviate poverty, therefore the government should ensure that all citizens have access to free education at least up to secondary school level. This is because education can equip people with the necessary knowledge that can enable them to take advantage of the opportunities surrounding them by setting up their businesses and improving their socio-economic conditions.

With regards to statement number 2, a majority (61%) of the participants strongly agree that there is a need for the government, non-governmental organisations as well as the private sector to intervene in order to alleviate poverty, 39% agree and none (0%) are uncertain, disagree or strongly disagree. The results further show that all participants gave positive responses on the statement. This is an indication that participants acknowledge that poverty alleviation requires an integrated framework consisting of different stakeholders. The results confirm those by Smith (2005:31); Barrett et al. (2008:2); McKague, Wheeler and Karnani (2015:131), that the government, non-governmental organisation as well as the private sector have various roles to play in the alleviation of poverty. It is good that all officials acknowledge that poverty alleviation is not just a responsibility of the central government alone, but the government should collaborate with other societal actors such as NGOs and private sector organisations in the efforts to alleviate poverty. This means that there is a need for a good working relationship among stakeholders involved in poverty alleviation. Thus the government or a government structure such as the CoW should take the lead in fostering and nurturing good working relationships by means of organising and inviting all stakeholders to constructive dialogue regarding the role of different societal actors in poverty alleviation.

Table 7.7: Effective ways to alleviate poverty

Number	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Provision of literacy/training/education can alleviate poverty	0%	7%	7%	50%	36%
2	It will take intervention by government, non-governmental organisations and private sector to alleviate poverty	0%	0%	0%	39%	61%
3	One of the effective ways to alleviate poverty is the creation of a conducive environment by government structures (central, regional and local) to attract investors to create employment opportunities	0%	0%	0%	46%	54%
4	My community is involved in economic alleviation programmes	0%	4%	39%	50%	7%
5	Economic alleviations programmes are making a difference to the lives of poor citizens	0%	7%	0%	54%	39%
6	Some of the economic activities that are generated by the city to ensure the alleviation of poverty includes developing the competitiveness of the small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) sector through the creation of a conducive environment; provision of infrastructure, relevant business support interventions and stimulation of an entrepreneurial attitude	0%	0%	14%	36%	50%
7	The provision of various trading sites such as 16 permanent markets which includes the Oshetu community market; and opportunistic markets for vendors such as newspaper sellers, car guards, food carts, barbeque sites among others by the city can aid in alleviating poverty in the city	0%	0%	7%	39%	54%
8	CoW have sections such as Research and Information Management; Micro Entrepreneurial Development; SME Development and Promotion; Business Development; and Tourism that are aiming to facilitate the growth of the local economy through sustainable and responsible development interventions with the ultimate goal of alleviating poverty in the city	0%	0%	14%	50%	36%

Statement number 3 illustrates that 54% of the participants strongly agree that one of the effective ways to alleviate poverty is through the creation of a conducive environment by government structures, 46% agree and none (0%) are uncertain, disagree or strongly disagree. A further analysis of the results reveals that all participants gave positive responses. This is consistent with the NDP5 as well as Gildenhuys (1997:2), who claim that the role of the government is to create favourable circumstances which can enable personal development. However, the current leadership of the CoW holds that the city should adopt an “interventionist character to drive economic development” (CoW, 2021:8). This is the opposite of what officials believe is one of the effective ways to alleviate poverty as well as what the NDP5 is

advocating for. Therefore, this means that there is a need for consultation between the CoW leadership with officials that are spearheading the poverty alleviation initiatives in the city concerning the best approach to alleviate poverty within the city.

Statement number 4 reveals that 50% of the participants agree that the community is involved in economic alleviation programmes, 39% are uncertain, 7% strongly agree, 4% disagree and 0% strongly disagree. A further examination of the results shows that a total of 59% of the participants gave positive responses towards the statement. It is important to have community members involved in the economic alleviation programmes because they are able to suggest better ways that can assist them to permanently get out of poverty.

With regards to statement number 5, a majority (54%) of the participants agree that the economic alleviation programmes are making a difference to the lives of poor citizens, 39% strongly agree, 7% disagree and none (0%) are uncertain or strongly disagree with the statement. The results further show that a total of 93% of the participants gave positive responses which implies that they believe that the economic alleviation programmes are making a difference in the lives of poor citizens. This means that residents' lives are getting better although there are socio-economic events at the national level such as unemployment, corruption and Covid-19 that may overshadow the progress made by the economic alleviation programmes.

The results on statement number 6 show that 50% of the participants strongly agree that the development of SMMEs; provision of infrastructure; and stimulation of an entrepreneurial attitude among others are some of the activities that are generated by the CoW to ensure the alleviation of poverty. Similarly, 36% of the participants agree, while 14% are uncertain and none (0%) disagree or strongly disagree with the statement. Gildenhuys (1997:2) proffers that the creation of favourable circumstances allows personal development. This means that residents should make use of the conducive environment created by the CoW such as the tarred roads and open markets for them to do businesses and get income that they can use to improve their socio-economic conditions and achieve a satisfactory quality of life.

On statement number 7, the results reveal that 54% of the participants strongly agree that the provision of various trading sites in the city is contributing to the alleviation of

poverty within the CoW, 39% agree, 7% are uncertain and none (0%) disagree or strongly disagree with the statement. Since a total of 93% of the participants gave positive responses, this suggests that participants are of the opinion that the role of the CoW is to 'steer the boat, rather than to row the boat'. This is illustrated in the sense that the city needs to create a favourable environment that can enable the residents to do their business and improve their livelihood. This is an indication that both the residents and the CoW have roles to play in the alleviation of poverty, therefore both should fulfil their end in order for poverty to be alleviated successfully.

With regards to statement number 8, a majority (50%) of the participants agree that the CoW sections such as Research and Information Management; Micro Entrepreneurial Development; SME Development and Promotion; Business Development; and Tourism that are aiming to facilitate the growth of the local economy through sustainable and responsible development interventions with the ultimate goal of alleviating poverty in the city. Similarly, 36% of the participants strongly agree, while 14% were uncertain and none (0%) disagree or strongly disagree with the statement. Statements number 6, 7 and 8 in Table 7.7 above illustrates what is currently being done by the CoW to stimulate the economic activities in the city in order to ensure the alleviation of poverty. The results clearly show that officials are in support of what the CoW is doing to ensure the alleviation of poverty. Furthermore, this is an indication that the approach in these statements is a market-led approach whereby the CoW plays a limited role in the economy but ensures that there is a conducive environment, and expects the residents to make use of the favourable circumstances to improve their quality of life.

7.3.4 Better quality of life

Last but not least, officials were given statements about better quality of life and the Likert scale was used to provide the rating as well, whereby: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = uncertain, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree. The results are published in Table 7.8.

The results on statement number 1 in Table 7.8 indicate that 54% of the participants agree that the goal of every local authority is to provide a satisfactory quality of life to its citizens, 46% strongly agree and none (0%) were uncertain, disagree or strongly

disagree with the given statement. These results further reveal that all participants were in agreement with the given statement. It is good that even the participants from the CoW acknowledge that the goal of every local authority is to provide a satisfactory quality of life to its citizens as this can motivate them to ensure improved service delivery to the residents.

With regards to statement number 2, a majority (50%) of the participants strongly agree that poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for the residents, 46% agree, 4% are uncertain and none (0%) disagree or strongly disagree. A further analysis of the results shows that a total of 96% of the officials believes that poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life. These results support those of the residents of the CoW under Figure 7.6, whereby 76% of the participants claim that poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for them. This is an indication that both officials and residents have the same perspective as to whether poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for the citizens, therefore they should work together to alleviate poverty so that the residents can enjoy a better quality of life.

With regards to statement number 4, a majority (46%) of the participants strongly agree that they know that the CoW provides social development intervention programmes such as OVCs soup kitchens, after school programmes, holiday programmes, and youth development and training sections among others. Likewise, 43% of the participants agree, whereas 11% are uncertain and none (0%) disagree or strongly disagree with the statement. The soup kitchens and after school as well as holiday programmes are important because they help the less privileged children to get meals instead of going to bed hungry. Moreover, they can be helpful to slow learners and those that cannot afford to have private tutors to improve their school grades which would be beneficial in the long run in the fight against poverty.

The results on statement number 5 reveal that 50% of the participants agree that the CoW has a social entrepreneurship programme which is earmarked to provide start up materials and ingredients to residents who participate in this programme, who can then run their own income generating projects. Whereas, 25% of the participants are uncertain, 21% strongly agree, 4% disagree and 0% strongly disagree with the statement. A further analysis of the results reveals that a total of 71% of the

participants gave positive responses. This is a good indication because with the CoW being the capital city of Namibia, there are many people of different skills who are moving to the city, therefore once the city has created such an environment, the people will be able to set up their businesses and improve their livelihoods.

In terms of statement number 6, the results indicate that 54% of the participants strongly agree that the CoW has an Emergency Management Division which provides services that include fire prevention, emergency medical services, water rescue, hazardous material response, and community awareness safety education in an effort to enhance the safety and quality of life for the residents. Also 39% of the participants agree, while 7% are uncertain and none (0%) disagree or strongly disagree with the statement. The results on this statement are important and encouraging because the CoW consists of both formal and informal sector residential suburbs. The informal sector is prone to fire break outs and flooding during rainy seasons hence the emergency division would deal with the disasters of these nature, which is an indication that the social welfare of the residents is upheld.

With regards to statement number 7, the results indicate that 50% of the participants strongly agree that they know that the CoW has a Parks and Recreation Division which focuses on the provision of professional horticultural services, establishing and maintaining exceptional parks, cemeteries, and sport and recreational facilities for physical the betterment of the community. Similarly, 43% of the participants agree, while 7% are uncertain and none (0%) disagree or strongly disagree with the statement. Parks and sport facilities are important because they help the residents who will be utilising them to keep fit which in the long run will improve their quality of life. Gill et al. (2013:33) found that physical activity contributes to all aspects of quality of life and not just the physical. Moreover, they claim that the social and emotional benefits may be the primary motivators for community participants. Parks and recreational facilities are crucial in improving people's quality of life, therefore it is important that the CoW ensures that there are more than two parks and playgrounds in each of the suburbs within the city. Moreover, since residents of different ages would be utilising the facilities, they should ensure that there is security for the residents to train without any fear of harm.

Table 7.8: Better quality of life

Number	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	The goal of every local authority is to provide a satisfactory quality of life to its citizens	0%	0%	0%	54%	46%
2	Poverty alleviation can translate into better quality of life for the residents	0%	0%	4%	46%	50%
3	Allocation of plots to residents, particularly those in the informal areas; installation of pre-paid water and electricity meters; provision of water and sanitation to underserved areas; and construction of affordable housing in informal areas by the CoW can ensure better quality of life of poor residents/communities	0%	0%	7%	39%	54%
4	I know that the CoW provides social development intervention programmes such as Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) soup kitchens, after school programmes, holiday programmes, and youth development and training sections among others	0%	0%	11%	43%	46%
5	The CoW has a social entrepreneurship programme which is earmarked to provide start up materials and ingredients to residents who participate in this programme, who then run their own income generating projects. E.g. bead making, bakery, and gardening skills	0%	4%	25%	50%	21%
6	The CoW has an Emergency Management Division which provides services that include suppression, fire prevention, emergency medical services, heavy rescue, water rescue, hazardous material response and community awareness safety education in an effort to enhance the safety and quality of life for the residents.	0%	0%	7%	39%	54%
7	I know that the CoW has a Parks and Recreation Division which focuses on the provision of professional horticultural services, establishing and maintaining exceptional parks, cemeteries, sport and recreational facilities for the physical betterment of the community	0%	0%	7%	43%	50%
8	The CoW provides the following educational opportunities: pre-primary and preschool preparation for children	0%	7%	14%	43%	36%

The results on statement number 8 reveal that 43% of the participants agree that they know that the CoW provides pre-primary and preschool preparation for children, 36% strongly agree, 14% are uncertain, 7% disagree and 0% strongly disagree with the statement. Since a total of 82% of the participants gave positive responses, this is a good sign because studies have found that early childhood years are an important period in terms of both social, emotional, cognitive development and for required prior knowledge, skills and experiences of children to start school (Kleeck & Schuele, 2010:341; Pekdoğan & Akgül, 2017:144).

In summary, the results show that officials from stakeholder organisations are highly educated and mainly comprise of GZ, GY and GX. This means that they can better

connect and understand the community. They may also commit to solving community challenges. Poverty in the context of the CoW is the inability of the residents to obtain a minimum standard of living. Furthermore, residents are struggling to get out of poverty due to low income and lack of employment opportunities. Therefore, youths from stakeholder organisations should work together, meaning that the youth can use academic abilities and skills to create opportunities. An understanding of the steps involved when a department was instituting poverty alleviation actions/programmes as well as the monitoring of such programmes are of utmost importance in the quest to alleviate poverty, therefore action is what is needed.

7.4 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

This section focuses on reviews of secondary data as additional information to the primary data collected during phase1 and 2 of the study. The documents reviewed were textbooks, journal articles, annual reports, speeches and newspaper articles. The researcher had to read through the identified documents several times and while reading, codes were created based on the research questions posed by the study. The research questions which guided the collection of data under this section are:

- What is the relation between poverty alleviation and socio-economic conditions of poor communities?
- Does LED strategies alleviate poverty?
- Can the alleviation of poverty translates into a better quality of life for the citizens of the CoW?

A codebook was developed and all codes from different documents were arranged based on the themes that emerged from the research questions. The codes were thereafter presented as summaries under relevant sections.

7.4.1 Poverty alleviation and socio-economic conditions

The conceptualisation of poverty alleviation was discussed in detail in Chapter two of this thesis. This section aims to provide a summary of the key findings from the literature pertaining to the relations between poverty alleviation and the socio-

economic conditions of poor communities. Poverty is a concept that encompasses a lack of various socio-economic conditions that are essential for an individual to have a minimum standard of living (Botchway, 2013:85). These aspects are such as not having sufficient resources for one to sustain a livelihood, limited or lack of access to basic services such as water, health and education, hunger and malnutrition among others (Eldis, 2009:1). In general, poverty can be conceptualised as a state of affairs thereby perceived as a condition affecting the socio-economic conditions of individual and community in absolute or relative terms (Mufune, 2011:100). Absolute poverty is when a person is so poor to an extent that his/her next meal may determine whether he/she will live or die (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:12). Relative poverty on the other hand is the opposite of absolute poverty. It denotes a perceived standard of living that is established based on societal expectations of the community where one lives, which makes it a comparative measurement of poverty (Mufune, 2011:101). As such, a person may be considered as not poor in absolute terms, but may still be considered poor in relative terms when compared to other members of his or her society. This means that poor socio-economic conditions of the community illustrate the presence of poverty within that community. Therefore, it can be deduced that poverty alleviation is associated with taking the poor out of poverty while in the process improving the socio-economic conditions of poor communities. The absolute definition of poverty describes poverty better than the relative definition of poverty because the former looks at the critical situations in which people find themselves, whereas the later describes poverty based on a perceived set standard of a particular community.

There are numerous theories within contemporary literature that are addressing the phenomenon of poverty. These theories explain the root causes of poverty as well as what needs to be done to end poverty. One theory holds that poverty is caused by individual deficiency, meaning that individuals are responsible for their poverty situations (Bradshaw, 2006:6). The theory claims that with hard-work and better choices, individuals could have avoided their poverty plights, hence individuals should be forced to work-hard so that they can get out of poverty (Bradshaw, 2006:6). Another theory states that poverty is caused by cultural belief systems that support sub-cultures of poverty. In other words, poverty is created by the transmission over generations of a set of beliefs, values, and skills that are socially generated, but individually held (Bradshaw, 2006:8). Another theory maintains that poverty is caused

by economic, political, and social distortions or discrimination. Here theorists do not look at individuals as a source of poverty, but they blame the economic, political, and social system which causes people to have limited opportunities and resources with which to achieve income and well-being (Bradshaw, 2006:10). Another theory holds that poverty is caused by geographical disparities. The central point for this theory is that people, institutions and cultures in certain areas lack the objective resources needed to generate well-being and income, and that they lack the power to claim redistribution (Bradshaw, 2006:12). Another theory argues that poverty is caused by cumulative and cyclical interdependencies. According to this theory, once problems start to dominate, they close other opportunities and they create a cumulative set of problems that make any effective response nearly impossible (Bradshaw, 2006:14). The last theory is known as the human capital theory. This theory focuses on individuals' decision to invest in human capital (education and training) and the pattern of individuals' lifetime earnings (McKernan & Ratcliffe, 2002:5). According to this theory, individuals' various levels of investment in education and training are clarified in line with what they expect to get from the investment. It could be argued that all theories of poverty are important in describing poverty according to different societies. This is primarily because different circumstances have contributed to poverty in different societies and as such, the theory of poverty caused by economic, political, and social distortions has more relevance in this study than the other theories.

Poverty alleviation therefore, is about reducing the negative impacts of poverty on the lives of poor people, in a sustained and permanent way and it includes the state's social grant programmes which alleviate the impact of poverty for many people (Kraai (2015, cited by Ahmadu & Edeoghon, 2018:54). Poverty alleviation is also the means by which governments and various organisations both local and international seek to improve the standard of living of the poor (The World Bank, 2015c, cited by Hakirii, 2015:xiv). The African Development Bank (1998, cited by Nkwede, 2014:155) posits that poverty alleviation can only be realised through sustained and broad-based economic growth complemented by efficient provision of social services such as education, health-care, clean water, sanitation and nutrition. Therefore, to reduce poverty means to improve the socio-economic conditions of the masses in order to enhance their living standards. Poverty alleviation does not just mean increasing the income levels, but rather creating conditions in which all humans live healthy and

creative lives with sufficient food, shelter, clothing, and are guaranteed freedom, dignity, self-esteem, and being free from unfair treatment by the government and the community, and getting the opportunity to participate in the society (Nkwede, 2014:155; Ahmadu & Edeoghon, 2018:56). From the above discussion, it is clear that poverty alleviation includes what the structures of government do to take people out of poverty permanently.

Researchers and policymakers believe that access to microfinance in developing countries empowers the poor (women in particular) while supporting income-generating activities, encouraging the entrepreneurial spirit, and reducing vulnerability. They further advise that for microfinance to be more effective, services like skill development training, technological support, and strategies related to better education, health and sanitation, including livelihood enhancement measures need to be provided to the poor (Bakhtiari, 2006:66; Vatta, 2003:432; Durani et al., 2011:139-141; Singh & Chudasana, 2020:2). Additionally, Rice and Sumberg (2007:102) argue that local government is a social institution which is run according to the idea of oneness. As the level of government gets closer to the people at the periphery level, the local government gives the masses an opportunity to express their ideas and to have their voices heard and through the process of interaction, the local people can bring to the forefront the basic needs (food, shelter, clothing and water) of people that need to be improved. The economic dimension of local government views a municipality such as the CoW as an economic institution with a leading role to play in promoting the economic well-being of the people within their areas of jurisdiction. Municipalities are described based on their economic feasibility, therefore revenue generation becomes the main function of municipalities. Tonwe (2011:67) further reveals that municipalities that are not economically strong will find it difficult to advance the economic conditions of the people within their area of jurisdiction.

It can be deduced that access to microfinance can assist people to improve their livelihoods, therefore taking into account that the greater majority of the community are young, it is imperative that community members should be given free access to microfinance. This would enable them to use their energy and entrepreneurial skills to set up businesses that can improve their socio-economic conditions and in the process creating employment for other community members. The CoW should therefore create

a conducive environment that can allow the community members to operate their business with ease.

7.4.2 Local economic development strategies and poverty

LED strategies were discussed in detail in Chapter three of this thesis. This section aims to highlight key findings from the literature that can illustrate whether LED strategies can alleviate poverty. LED comes about when a community's standard of living can be preserved and increased through a process of human and physical development that is based on principles of equity and sustainability (Blakely & Leigh, 2010:75). LED is also seen as a process by which public, business and non-governmental partners work collectively to create better conditions for economic growth, employment generation and sustainable development as a whole (Sbisi, 2009:5).

LED is made up of four main strategies, namely: community economic development; locality development planning; enterprise development and human resources development (Helmsing, 2001:64; Blakely & Leigh (2010:217). The main goal for any LED strategy is the provision of quality jobs for the contemporary population (Blakely & Leigh, 2010:215). Community economic development is a type of development that begins from the inside to the outside and it aims to ensure the development as well as the empowerment of the individual and community (McLaughlin & Davidson, 1994, cited by Musakwa, 2008:32). Community economic development is spearheaded by the local people whereby they endeavour to build organisations as well as partnerships that can bring about interconnectedness of profitable companies with other interests and values, for instance, skills and education, health, housing and the environment (Helmsing, 2001:64-65). The focus of the enterprise development strategy is on improving the economic base of an area (Helmsing, 2001:68). The locality development strategy deals with the issues of planning as well as the attaining of the needed infrastructures plus the appropriate economic and social overhead capital. Locality development also addresses the issue of managing the whole local area with the aim of constructing physical infrastructure as well as the economic and social overhead capital in a manner that would bring up equitable development in terms of land uses and the minimisation of negatives (congestion, pollution), while maximising

the positive externalities (agglomeration economies) (Helmsing, 2001:73). Last but not least, the human resources development strategy forges connections between the employment needs of certain segments of the local population and the job-formulation process. The aim is to alter the human resources system in ways that increase opportunities for good jobs for the unemployed and underemployed in the community (Blakely & Leigh 2010:219-220). These strategies are important in assisting local authorities to create employment opportunities, which is influential in improving the quality of life for their residents.

The UN-HABITAT (2005:4) argues that LED is now recognised as an important component in broader efforts to alleviate poverty. However, it is also pointed out that there is also an emerging consensus that LED cannot achieve effective poverty alleviation without incorporating explicit poverty reduction actions. Therefore, the vital component in this regard is the development of an inclusive economic development strategy that caters for both the promotion of local wealth creation and poverty alleviation. The inclusiveness entails the recognition of both the formal and informal sectors of economies.

In the formal economy, explicit actions could include targeting the expansion of business aimed at creating sufficient jobs for the poor as well as prioritising the poor as an unskilled labour force for training and placement assistance. Additionally, LED strategists have pointed out that the formalisation of the informal economy ensures the alleviation of poverty as well as health and safety in the long-term, accompanied with by an increased revenue base through taxation. Abrupt attempts to regulate the informal economy prematurely should be avoided though, as this might lead to more poverty and marginalisation. In this regard, local authorities are therefore advised to consider actions that tolerate and support the informal economy while they seek to strengthen the skills and resources of people engaged in the informal economy (UN-HABITAT, 2005:4).

Additionally, economic growth is one of the main instruments for poverty alleviation and for pulling the poor out of poverty through productive employment. This is based on the findings from Africa, Brazil, China, Costa Rica and Indonesia, which illustrate that rapid economic growth lifted a significant number of poor people out of financial poverty between 1970 and 2000. Economic growth generates revenues required for

expanding poverty alleviation programmes while enabling governments to spend on the basic necessities of the poor including healthcare, education, and housing (Bhagwati & Panagariya, 2012:34; Singh & Chudasana, 2020:2).

This means that although LED strategies are an integral component in the process of poverty alleviation, it is important for a local authority to firstly ensure that the local economy is growing tremendously. The local economy is built on both the formal and informal sectors. Thus the CoW should ensure that both sectors are operating at the maximum capacity through the provision of the necessary infrastructure such as tarred roads, telecommunications services and the necessary buildings within the city that businesses can use. Once the local economy has grown, it would mean more tax that the government would receive and this would mean that the government would have money to spend on the provision of basic services and social safety nets to the neediest citizens.

7.4.3 Alleviation of poverty and better quality of life

The notion of better quality of life was discussed in detail in Chapter four of this thesis. The aim of this section is to present a summary of the main findings from literature that would aid in establishing whether the alleviation of poverty can translate into a better quality of life for the citizens. Keith (2001:5, cited by Galloway, 2005:10) argues that many researchers believe that there is no exact definition of quality of life, therefore scholars have opted to study different facets and dimensions of quality of life rather than to attempt to define it explicitly. Glatzer (2015:8) observes that the concept of quality of life in literature is often used interchangeably with wellbeing: quality of life in the sense of wellbeing, and wellbeing in the sense of quality of life. However, Smith (1973, cited by Theofilou, 2013:151) suggests that the concept of wellbeing should be used to refer to objective life conditions that apply to a population generally, whereas quality of life should be shortened to individuals' subjective assessments of their lives because of what is believed to be the evaluative nature of the concept.

Brown, Bowling and Flynn (2004:13-14) provide a summary of the main models of quality of life that illustrate the key indicators that can be looked at when examining people's quality of life. These are presented below:

- **Objective indicators** focus on aspects such as standard of living, health and longevity, housing as well as the characteristics of the neighbourhood. The above are measured in relation to indicators such as cost of living, mortality rates, health service provision, education levels, neighbourhood structure and density, socio-economic structure and indicators of inequality and crime in the neighbourhood.
- **Subjective indicators** include life satisfaction and psychological well-being, morale, individual fulfilment, happiness, measured using indicators of life satisfaction, morale, balance of affect, and self-worth (esteem).
- **Satisfaction of human needs indicators** which put emphasis on objective circumstances (housing, security, food, warmth) and opportunities for self-actualisation, reminiscent of Maslow's (1954; 1962) theory of human needs (physiological, safety, security, social and belonging, ego, status, self-esteem), measured by indicators of the individuals' subjective satisfaction with the extent to which these have been met.
- **Psychological models** include aspects such as personal growth, cognitive competence, efficiency and adaptability, level of dignity, perceived independence; social competence, control, autonomy, self-efficacy or self-mastery.
- **Health and functioning models** focus on measurements of the broader health status.
- **Social health models** measure with indicators of social networks, support and activities and integration within local community.
- **Social cohesion and social capital** include elements such as societal, environmental and neighbourhood resources fostered by the availability and type of community facilities and resources. Measures include objective indicators of indices of crime, pollution, cost of living, shopping facilities, access to areas of scenic quality, cost of owner occupied housing, educational facilities, policing, employment levels, wage levels, unemployment levels, climate, access to indoor/outdoor sports, travel to work time, access to leisure facilities, quality of council housing, access to council housing, cost of private rented accommodation.

- **Environmental models** are concerned with studying aging in one's place of residence and the importance of designing and enabling internal and external environments in order to promote the independence and active social participation of older people.
- **Ideographic** or individualised hermeneutic approaches based on the individual's values, interpretations and perceptions, satisfaction with their position, circumstances and priorities in life.

Better quality of life is associated with the value that one desires to attach to different dimensions of life according to his or her own preferences or the comparison of the overall wellbeing across countries (OECD, 2011:14-27; Lutz et al., 2018:4). Indicators that are crucial in determining whether people's quality of life are getting better or worse are material living conditions such as housing, income and job or quality of life aspects like community, education, health, environment, governance, life satisfaction, safety and work-life balance. These indicators are more accurate in studying people's quality of life in comparison to GDP as an indicator of quality of life (OECD, 2011:14-27; Lutz et al., 2018:4). The above is supported by Gildenhuis (1997:2) who concluded that the attainment of a better quality of life by all citizens demands an urban environment that provides equal opportunities for each individual to develop, maintain and enjoy a better quality of life, without threats and constraints from outside his or her personal environment (Gildenhuis, 1997:2). The above reviewed literature suggests that once certain basic human needs such as food, water, shelter and clothing among others are met, they could improve some aspects of people's quality of life.

Better quality of life is a desired life that all human beings would love to enjoy. It is created around the fulfilment of basic needs and wants in life. Furthermore, it is important to note that better quality of life would have some aspects that are going to be different from generation to generation and this is because the young generations (GZ and GY) want different things in comparison to the older generations (GX and silent generation). Therefore, the CoW should ensure that provisions are made to meet the expectations of different generations residing within its area of jurisdiction in order to ensure that citizens can enjoy a satisfactory quality of life.

In summary, poverty influences the socio-economic conditions of community and it affects the quality of life of residents. The need to alleviate poverty is imminent

because it improves the socio-economic conditions of poor communities and the quality of life for the residents. Local authorities should therefore ensure that they have LED strategies that can aid to alleviate poverty and improve the living standards of their residents. This could be through the strengthening of the community and local authority relationship, partnership among others that would enable them to find common solutions to these challenges. Thus emphasis should be placed on making resources available to take advantage of educated and the young community who has the skills and abilities to make a difference.

7.5 CONCLUSION

The chapter presented and interpreted the results of the study. The results collected from the residents of the CoW through a survey were presented and analysed first, followed by the results from the officials and lastly the findings from the literature. The major issues from each data strand are as follows: Empirical data from the residents of the CoW reveals that the majority of the participants were female with 63% and 62% of the participants spend a large portion of their income on housing. Whereas, 92% of the participants indicated that they have experienced improvements in service delivery in their area and 64% revealed that the provision of affordable housing is the biggest service delivery challenge faced by the CoW. More so, 80% of the participants revealed that Covid-19 has affected them greatly.

Empirical data from officials of stakeholder organisations revealed that 50% of the participants were Masters' degree holders and their nationality were 100% Namibians. In addition, 100% of the participants indicated that individuals spend most of their income on basic needs such as food, water, shelter and clothing, and 79% of the participants gave positive responses that they understood the steps involved when their departments instituted poverty alleviation actions.

The chapter revealed that poverty can be described in absolute or relative terms. In its general sense, poverty denotes a lack of basic life necessities that are required to maintain a minimum standard of living. The individual deficiency theory of poverty holds that individuals are responsible for their poverty plights and they could have avoided it with better choices. LED strategies are important in stimulating economic

activities. It was also discovered that poverty can impact the quality of life of the residents.

The next chapter presents the findings, recommendations and conclusion of the research.

CHAPTER EIGHT: FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the results. This chapter presents and discusses the main findings of the study as discovered from the empirical data as well as the literature. Thereafter, it provides a summary of all the chapters in order to provide a recap of what was discussed in the chapters and what were the main discoveries. The findings from the primary and secondary data sets are presented and discussed under the main themes that emerged from the research questions and objectives of the study. Furthermore, the chapter presents and recommends a model for effective poverty alleviation as well as the directions for further research based on the findings and conclusions of the study.

8.2 SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS

In general, the study sought to explore whether the CoW can alleviate poverty through its LED strategies to improve the lives of its citizens. Through a summary of chapters in this section of a thesis, a reflective approach is undertaken to determine whether the entire thesis has focused on the objectives and research problem. In this regard, sections 8.2.1 to 8.2.8 provide a synopsis of chapters.

8.2.1 Chapter one

Chapter one introduced the research problem that led to the conducting of the study. The chapter explained that poverty is a global phenomenon that affects continents, nations and people differently, making it difficult for any country to be completely exempted from poverty (Innocent et al., 2014:98). To provide a clear context of the study, definitions of poverty and poverty alleviation were presented in the introduction. As part of the background and rationale for the study, the chapter reviewed relevant legislature, Acts and policies that contain information pertaining to the topic. In this context, the Constitution is the highest legislature reviewed and Chapter 11, Article 95 points out the importance of promoting the welfare of the people (Constitution of the

Republic of Namibia, 1990:45). The chapter indicated that local authorities in Namibia are regulated by the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended. Part 5(30) of the Act requests local authorities to deliver numerous services such as the provision of water and electricity, sewerage and drainage systems among others to the people within their area of jurisdiction.

Furthermore, it was indicated in the chapter that as part of the endeavour to improve the standard of living for Namibians, Vision 2030 was established in 2004. The Vision is carried out through NDPs and the country is currently on NDP5 which focuses on economic progression, social transformation, environmental sustainability and good governance. The chapter pointed out that the LED strategy under the MURD was adopted in 2009 in order to encourage social progression and to take the citizens out of poverty and improve their quality of life. Moreover, other initiatives such as the HPP among others by the government to alleviate poverty were discussed.

The chapter further claimed that since the CoW is the administrative capital of the country, it is well poised to deal with the phenomenon of poverty within its area of jurisdiction. To explore whether the CoW can alleviate poverty, various research objectives were presented in the chapter. A research hypothesis which aims to assess whether the CoW through its LED strategy can be a catalyst for poverty alleviation within its area of administrative jurisdiction was presented.

8.2.2 Chapter two

This chapter focused on the conceptual, theoretical, and legislative and policy framework for poverty alleviation. The chapter discovered that there are various definitions of poverty within literature. However, existing definitions can be classified into three main categories, namely: the historic, the contemporary economists and contemporary institutional definitions of poverty. The working definition adopted in the chapter had elements of all categories. Moreover, literature showed that poverty can take various forms which include absolute poverty, relative poverty, income poverty, human poverty, food poverty, case poverty, community poverty, chronic poverty and transient or transitory poverty, urban poverty, and rural poverty.

The chapter illustrated that poverty can be measured either quantitatively or qualitatively. When poverty is measured quantitatively, the instruments used are such as the HHS and poverty lines among others. While the qualitative measurement of poverty uses instruments such as the HDI and the CPM among others.

The chapter discussed relevant theories of poverty, which aided in pointing out the root causes of poverty and proposed strategies that can be used to alleviate poverty. The chapter illustrated that there are different approaches to poverty alleviation, namely: lack of income; inadequate resources to satisfy basic needs; social exclusion; human development; and sustainable livelihoods. Moreover, the chapter discovered that societal actors such as the private sector, the government as well as civil society can play an important role in the alleviation of poverty. The last section of this chapter focused on the conceptualisation of local government from multidimensional perspectives with the aim of exploring how a local government structure relates to the alleviation of poverty. Overall, the literature reviewed illustrated that poverty contributes significantly to the socio-economic conditions of poor communities. The chapter analysed the various international and local legislative and policy frameworks for poverty alleviation in Namibia.

8.2.3 Chapter three

Chapter two originated from the second research objective and it provided a conceptual and theoretical analysis of poverty through the review of numerous literature. This chapter was meant to examine whether LED strategies can alleviate poverty. In so doing, numerous literature were reviewed to conceptualise LED and to analyse the theories of growth and development. The chapter revealed that LED was formulated as a response to social and economic problems. It was explained in the chapter that LED is a development strategy envisioned to assist cities to make use of their potential and prevent urban migration from creating longer-term economic decline. The goal for creating an LED strategy is to improve the social and economic activities within a city as well as to ensure the provision of quality jobs (Blakely & Leigh, 2010:2150). The chapter confirmed that for an LED strategy to be a success, participation and partnerships are critical components that should be carried out by

the implementing entity. The chapter revealed that the LED planning process is complex and it consists of five stages and 25 steps.

8.2.4 Chapter four

This chapter emerged from the third research objective and it aimed to establish whether poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for the residents. To achieve the above, the chapter discussed the social phenomenon of the poverty deprivation traps as well as how residents can escape them. In the quest to determine whether poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for the residents of the CoW, the chapter deliberated on the meaning and measurement of quality of life. The chapter confirmed that quality of life can be defined and measured from subject or objective lenses referred to as an integrated theory of quality of life. The theory expounded that when quality of life is measured from the subjective lenses, emphasis is placed on elements such as wellbeing, satisfaction with life, happiness, and meaning in life. The objective view of quality of life assesses features such as cultural norms, fulfilment of needs, realisation of life potential and the biological order. The chapter found that household income and wealth are essential elements of assessing better quality of life.

8.2.5 Chapter five

This chapter focused on the local environment through analysing local literature on poverty. The chapter examined the organisation of local government in Namibia. It also investigated what resulted and caused poverty in the CoW and what is being done to alleviate it. The chapter confirmed that poverty in the CoW cannot be separated from the historical context of the city. It further revealed that at independence, the historical inequities were not addressed hence, this led to the proliferation of informal settlements at the outskirts of the city.

This chapter also presented statistics on the poverty situation in the CoW, thereby providing a justification as to why the CoW is a part of the title of the study. Moreover, the chapter also acknowledged that the CoW has the means to deal with the

incidences of poverty faced by its residents hence she becomes a good case study for other municipalities in the country to benchmark with. The chapter analysed the approaches used by the CoW to alleviate poverty. These approaches include among others the use of the LED strategy as well as the WERI among others.

8.2.6 Chapter six

In Chapter six, the research methodology that supported the conducting of the study was explained and justified. It was alluded in the chapter that the study used a qualitative research approach to answer the research questions posed by the study. The chapter also pointed out that the philosophical worldview followed by the study is interpretivist. The target population as well as the sample for the study were clearly explained in the chapter.

Additionally, the chapter also explained the research methods used in the study, whereby it indicated that empirical data were collected by means of a survey, while the instrument used to collect data was a structured questionnaire. Document analysis was done to collect data from the relevant literature. The chapter explained that a pilot study was conducted to test the correctness and relevance of the statements in the structured questionnaires used to collect data from the participants. Moreover, the procedures followed, the manner in which data were analysed as well as the ethical measures adhered to during the conducting of the study were explained in the chapter.

8.2.7 Chapter seven

This chapter focused on the presentation and analysis of the data collected through a survey as well as the review of the relevant additional literature. The data was analysed based on the statements contained in the questionnaires. There were two sets of structured questionnaires, whereby one set collected data from the residents of the CoW and the other collected data from officials of selected stakeholder organisations. Data from the residents were presented and analysed first, followed by those from officials and lastly the reviewed literature. The actual process of data

analysis saw data being presented through tables, charts as well as graphs. The interpretation of what the data signified was provided and literature were quoted to support the empirical data where relevant. Data from literature were presented based on the themes that emerged from the research objectives.

8.2.8 Chapter eight

In Chapter eight the key findings from the data sets in chapter seven were presented and discussed based on the themes. The merging and presentation of the findings based on the themes made it easier to answer the research questions posed by the study. Thereafter, recommendations were made based on the findings and conclusions drawn from the presentations.

8.3 FINDINGS

In this section, the findings of the study are discussed in relation to the objectives of the study. The findings from the literature review are presented first because they are used to set a context of each research objective which would pave a clear path for the empirical findings from the community members as well as the officials of the selected stakeholder organisations to fit in.

8.3.1 Poverty alleviation and socio-economic conditions

The heading of this section is derived from the first research objective which aims to explore the relation between poverty alleviation and the socio-economic conditions of poor communities. In an endeavour to address this objective, both primary and secondary data were utilised. Before establishing whether poverty alleviation improves the socio-economic conditions of poor communities, it is imperative to revisit the working definition for poverty adopted in Chapter two of this thesis (see section 2.2). According to the United Nations (1995:10):

Poverty includes lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by lack of participation in decision making and in civil, social and cultural life.

The above definition contains the social aspects such as hunger and malnutrition, health and education among others which are crucial when one is measuring the level of poverty within a community. There are also economic aspects such as having inadequate income and resources which are pre-requisites for one to achieve a standard of living which is considered acceptable in the society in which they live (European Commission, 2005:10). Having established the above, the findings are therefore presented and contextualised to various aspects of the socio-economic conditions of poor communities.

Literature revealed that poverty is a multi-dimensional phenomenon with various dimensions and it affects countries, cities and everyone differently at some point in their lives (Innocent et al., 2014:98). The manifestations of poverty include lack of productive resources to sustain livelihoods, limited or no access to basic services such as water, health and education, hunger and malnutrition, increased morbidity and mortality, living in an unsafe or insecure environment, poor or no housing, lack of participation in social, cultural and political life and social discrimination or exclusion (Eldis, 2009:1; Botchway, 2013:86).

Literature also revealed that poverty alleviation is about reducing the negative impact of poverty on the lives of poor people in a sustained and permanent way by means of social grants or other amenities from the government or various local and international organisations (Kraai, 2015, cited by Ahmadu and Edeoghon, 2018:54; see sections 4.3 and 4.4). Poverty alleviation is also the means by which governments and various organisations both local and international seek to improve the standard of living of the poor (The World Bank, 2015c, cited by Hakirii 2015:xiv). Literature revealed that zero efforts to alleviate the dimensions of poverty could consequently result in poverty deprivation traps which can further turn into a vicious cycle of poverty (see section 4.2). The literature further disclosed that to alleviate poverty means to improve the

socio-economic conditions of poor communities in order to enhance their living standards (The African Development Bank, 1998, cited by Nkwede 2014:155). Moreover, poverty alleviation does not just mean increasing the income levels, but rather creating conditions in which all humans live healthy and creative lives with sufficient food, shelter, clothing, and they are guaranteed freedom, dignity, self-esteem, and being free from unfair treatment by the government and the community, and getting the opportunity to participate in the society (Nkwede, 2014:155; Ahmadu & Edeoghon, 2018:56).

Theories of poverty outlined the main causes of poverty and proposed strategies to alleviate poverty (see section 2.3). The theory of poverty caused by individual deficiency claims that individuals have created their own poverty plight and therefore they should be held responsible for it. In order for these individuals to get out of poverty, they should start making better choices and they should also be pushed to work (Bradshaw, 2006:6). The theory of poverty caused by culture claims that children born in dysfunctional families end up following the behaviours of their parents and hence they end up making poor choices which keeps them in poverty (Davis & Sanchez-Martinez, 2014:20). The theory of poverty caused by economic, political, and social distortions or discrimination claims that since individuals are not responsible for poverty, there is a need for a community development response to change the systems that have caused people to fall into poverty. The theory of poverty caused by geographical disparities claims that there are people, institutions and cultures in certain areas that lack the resources required to generate well-being and income. While the theory of human capital claims that poverty is associated with individuals' decision to invest in human capital (education and training). It further illustrates that people who do not expect to work more in the labour market and who do not have more labour market opportunities would most likely not invest fully in human capital, hence they end up with low wages and salaries (McKernan & Ratcliffe, 2002:5).

The above findings illustrate that poverty alleviation by its definition is aimed at improving the socio-economic conditions of poor communities. Further literature revealed that local governments by default of their multidimensionality are required to address the social and economic needs of the community. The economic dimension of local government views a municipality such as the CoW as an economic institution

with a leading role to play in promoting the economic well-being of the people within their areas of jurisdiction. However, Tonwe (2011:67) claims that municipalities that are not economically strong will find it difficult to advance the economic conditions of the people within their area of jurisdiction (see section 2.6). Moreover, the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended; Part 5(30) of the Act mandates local authorities to render services such as the provision of water and electricity, sewerage and drainage systems among others to residents. When a local authority such as the CoW is executing these duties, it is involved in the alleviation of poverty.

Biographical data of the empirical research findings from the community shows that women (63%) are more than men. Added to this is the claim of Rajaram (2009:1) who states that women households are more prone to poverty than their male counterparts. The findings on education revealed that the majority of community is well educated as they have qualifications ranging from Bachelor's degree to PhD. It means that they possess the necessary abilities and capabilities that they may use and employ to generate income for themselves, provided they are given opportunities. In short, the community has academic qualifications and skills to provide for their livelihood. The local government should just provide the means and opportunities.

Employment status indicates that the majority of the community (73%) were employed either full-time, part-time or self-employed. This means that they have a source of income with which they can use to improve their standard of living. Moreover, employment provides for the needs hierarchy of Maslow and finally self-actualisation. The 10% of the community that are unemployed would mean that they would struggle to make end means, therefore they can be taken under the wings of the community to assist them. Furthermore, what the CoW needs to do is to assist them with employment opportunities directly or indirectly by attracting foreign investors and persuading local companies within its area to employ the residents.

The study found that 39% of the participants were more than five in a household (see section 7.2.4, Figure 7.2). Added to this is the claim of Anyanwu (2013:5) who states that large households are associated with high levels of poverty (Anyanwu, 2013:5). In general, this is a challenge in Africa. As children grow, they begin to contribute to the well-being of the family. Children from these families avoid falling into poverty by making use of education as a means out of poverty.

Data on food expenditure revealed that although 83% of the residents can afford to spend more than N\$520.8 on food per month, 3% of the participants cannot afford to spend N\$293.1 on food per month, 5% cannot afford to spend more than N\$389.3 and 9% cannot afford to spend more than N\$520.8 on food per month (see section 7.2.5, Figure 7.3). Based on these findings, the study therefore argues that 3% of the residents of the CoW are food poor because they fall below the national food bound poverty line of N\$293.1 per month, while 5% are severely poor since they fall under the lower bound poverty line of N\$389.3 and 9% are poor because they fall below the upper bound poverty line of N\$520.8. The data further revealed that 50% of the participants were not affected by poverty at all, however 9% indicated that they were severely affected by poverty (see section 7.2.6, Figure 7.4). This implies that 9% of the residents of the CoW are severely affected by poverty, therefore they need interventions from third parties to assist them to get out of poverty. With regards to service delivery which is one of the important measures of the socio-economic conditions of poor communities as well as the level of poverty within a community, 92% of the participants indicated that they have seen improvements in the delivery of basic services such as water and electricity (see section 7.2.12, Figure 7.10). This is an indication that the CoW is striving to improve the living conditions of its residents through improved service delivery.

Additionally, empirical data from the community on the biggest service delivery challenge in the CoW revealed that apart from 64% of the participants who chose the provision of affordable housing, only 15% of the participants selected all of the above (electricity supply, supply of safe drinking water, provision of reliable public transport, provision of affordable housing, provision of adequate clinic and hospitals, safe recreational and sport facilities, provision of sufficient public schools and provision of reliable fire brigade) which implies that they viewed them to be challenges at the same level. This means that there is a need for the CoW to eradicate these challenges as part of its economic and social dimensions responsibility (see section 2.7) as well as their duties and functions as per the Local Authorities Act 23 of 1992 as amended. The eradication of the challenges would therefore signify the alleviation of poverty by the CoW which would consequently improve the socio-economic conditions of the residents. The findings on the CoW's involvement in poverty alleviation (see section 7.2.16, Table 7.3) illustrated that citizens understand the role of the CoW in the

alleviation of poverty which is the creation of a conducive environment and it also shows that the CoW in turn is striving to improve the living standards of its residents.

The biographical data from the officials of stakeholder organisations revealed that the majority (71%) of the officials are young and they are educated because they have Bachelor to Master's degrees (see section 7.3.1, Table 7.4). This means that the officials have the skills and knowledge to implement the different poverty alleviation programmes and strategies within their organisations. Therefore, management within their respective institutions should just give them the resources to do so.

The study in section 7.3.3, Table 7.5 found that a combined 82% of the participants gave positive responses, which means that they view poverty in the context of the CoW as the inability of people to attain a minimum standard of living and to obtain adequate nutrition, housing and clothing. The study also found that some officials (39%) hold the view that residents of the CoW were responsible for their poverty plight, however, 43% rejected the above view which confirms they were of the opinion that residents of the CoW should not be held responsible for their poverty plight (section 7.3.3, Table 7.5). The study also found that a total combined of 75% of the participants further gave positive responses which implies they were convinced that residents are struggling to get out of poverty due to lack of better income and employment opportunities. Furthermore, all participants (100%) indicated that individuals spend most of their income on basic needs such as food, water, shelter and clothing.

In a nutshell, the above findings demonstrates that there is poverty within the residents of the CoW. However, the good news as discovered in the reviewed literature is that alleviating poverty can improve the socio-economic conditions of poor communities. Therefore, CoW needs to intensify its efforts to alleviate poverty as this would help to improve the socio-economic conditions of poor communities.

8.3.2 Local economic development strategies and poverty

This section is based on the second research objective which aims to examine whether LED strategies can alleviate poverty. The findings from both the secondary and primary data are used to address this objective. The findings from the literature

review reveals that definitions of LED by Zaaier and Sara (1993:129); Blakely (1994:xvi); Canzanelli (2001:9); Nel (2001:6); Scheepers and Monchusi (2002:82); World Bank (2003:4); Rueker and Trah (2007:15); Sbisi (2009:5) and Blakely and Leigh (2010:75) point out that LED is a process that is concerned with the management of existing resources, venturing into partnerships, stimulation of the local economy and the creation of employment opportunities with the ultimate goal of improving the quality of life of the residents (see section 3.2). The agents involved in the LED process are local authorities, community based organisations, private sector as well as the residents. The literature reviewed further showed that LED strategy is made up of community economic development; locality development planning; enterprise development as well as human resources development (Helmsing, 2001:64); Blakely & Leigh, 2010:217). The main goal for any LED strategy is the provision of quality jobs for the contemporary population (Blakely & Leigh, 2010:215). The UN-HABITAT (2005:4) argues that LED is now recognised as an important component in broader efforts to alleviate poverty. However, it also pointed out that there is also an emerging consensus that LED cannot achieve effective poverty alleviation without incorporating explicit poverty reduction actions. Therefore, the vital component in this regard is the development of an inclusive economic development strategy that caters for both the promotion of local wealth creation and poverty alleviation (see section 7.4.2).

Empirical data from the community on interventions to alleviate poverty revealed that the majority of the participants (70%) were of the opinion that poverty alleviation requires numerous activities such as literacy, income and employment support, free food distribution and social welfare vouchers by the government among others (see section 7.2.7, Table 7.5). The creation of employment opportunities is one of the main reasons for the creation of the LED strategy by the CoW. The study found that 60% of the participants have been staying in their respective area for more than 10 years, 18% indicated that they have been staying in their area for between 6-9 years (see section 7.2.11, Figure 7.9). This means that these residents have lived long enough in their areas to be able to evaluate whether the CoW strategies have made progress in alleviating poverty or not. The results in section 7.2.16, Table 7.3 revealed that a combined total of 88% of the participants provided positive responses which is an indication that the CoW holds community meetings where matters of community

interest are discussed. A combined total of 88% of the participants were convinced that their inputs used to be listened to during community meetings, and 83% of the participants know that the CoW has a strategy which is aimed at alleviating poverty. A combined total of 93% of the participants believes that their suggestions and recommendations are implemented in the strategy for the CoW. The study also found that of 66% of the participants strongly agree and 22% agree that their municipality's strategies such as the OVC had made progress in reducing poverty in their area.

Empirical data from officials from the stakeholder organisations under section 7.3.3, Table 7.6 reveals that a combined total of 79% of the employees dealing with the alleviation of poverty understood the various steps involved when the poverty alleviation actions were instituted. The study also found that a combined total of 79% of the participants indicated that departments within various stakeholder organisations provide training to local community structures involved in poverty alleviation and 64% of the participants indicated that they monitor the progress of the poverty alleviation programmes. The data further exposed that a combined total of 82% of the participants knows that the local community structures implement poverty alleviation activities. Moreover, 50% of the participants were uncertain whether the poverty alleviation policies for the CoW are effective or making a difference to the lives of communities, 29% agree, 14% strongly agree, while 7% disagree.

Empirical data from officials from the stakeholder organisations under section 7.3.4, Table 7.7 revealed that all participants (100%) supported that there is a need for the government, non-governmental organisations as well as the private sector to intervene in order to alleviate poverty. Furthermore, 100% of the participants maintained that one of the effective ways to alleviate poverty is through the creation of a conducive environment by government structures. This entails the local government ensuring that there are tarred roads and telecommunications services, and that there is safety and security within its area among others. The data revealed that 59% of the participants reinforced that the community is involved in economic alleviation programmes such as the build together programme among others. The study further found that 93% of the participants confirmed that as part of the poverty alleviation interventions, the CoW has established numerous trading sites within the city such as Oshetu open market among others.

In a nutshell, the above findings illustrates that LED strategies can alleviate poverty provided that it has taken into consideration the inclusive economic development approach which implies that provisions are made for the local wealth creation.

8.3.3 Alleviation of poverty and better quality of life

The aim of this section is to present the findings from secondary and primary data that addressed the third research objective, which is to investigate whether the alleviation of poverty translates into a better quality of life for the citizens of the CoW. The literature reveals that quality of life is a notion consisting of numerous social (the person's ability to communicate with others), environmental (individual's ability to exercise and perform daily activities which are observable), psychological (balance and harmony of the person with himself/herself and others) as well as physical values (physiological performance of the body and one's perception of his/her abilities) (Theofilou, 2013:150; Rahiminia, Rahiminia & Sharifirad, 2017:94). The study found that quality of life consists of subjective and objective lenses. The subjective dimension focuses on elements such as wellbeing, satisfaction with life, happiness, and meaning in life. While the objective dimension dwells on aspects such as cultural norms, fulfilment of needs, realisation of life potential and the biological order (see section 4.5). The literature further reveals that to establish whether people's quality of life is getting better or worse, one needs to evaluate the material living conditions of people such as income, health and education among others (see section 4.6). This implies that people with high income, good health status and those with a high level of education will have a better quality of life if one uses the subjective dimension. Some of the indicators for quality of life include the objective indicators which focus on standard of living, health and longevity, measured in relation to cost of living, mortality rates and health services provision. The subjective indicators focus on life satisfaction and psychological well-being, morale, individual fulfilment, and happiness, measured using indicators of life satisfaction, morale, balance of affect, and self-worth among others (Brown et al., 2004:13-14). Better quality of life is associated with the value that one desires to attach to different dimensions of life according to his or her own preferences or the comparison of the overall wellbeing across countries (OECD, 2011:14-27; Lutz et al., 2018:4). Moreover, literature reveal that the goal of a modern

local government is to create the necessary conditions within its municipality and within the limits of its legal jurisdiction for promoting a satisfactory quality of life for each of its citizens. The local government cannot be expected to create a satisfactory quality of life and neither should it be expected to develop people. It is the task of the people to pull themselves up by their bootstraps, develop themselves and create their own satisfactory quality of life according to their personal, physical and mental abilities. The task of a local government in this process is to create favourable circumstances to allow such personal development (Gildenhuys, 1997:2).

Empirical research findings on biographical data of the community under section 7.2.1, Table 7.1, reveals that the city consists of people of different levels of education and employment status. The findings on income reveals that 46% of the participants were earning less than N\$3500. 00 per month (see section 7.2.2, Table 7.2). This is an indication that there is income poverty within the residents of the CoW. However, since the vast majority of community is young, all it needs is to take up extra jobs to increase its income, and therefore, what the CoW should do is to create opportunities within its area of administrative jurisdiction. The study found that on the sources of income, which is one of the important determinants of poverty, 73% of the participants indicated that their income was coming from being employed or self-employment (see 7.2.10, Figure 7.8). The study found that with regards to expenditures on goods and services, 62% of the participants spend their income on housing, while 12% spend on food supplies and 10% on others. Electricity and school fees constituted 7% each, and there was a 1% apiece for water and health. However, there was 0% for sanitation (see section 7.2.3, Figure 7.1). The study further found that a majority (76%) of the residents agrees that poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for them, while 23% were not sure whether poverty alleviation can translate into better quality of life for them (see section 7.2.8, Figure 7.6). The study found that a combined total of 94% of the participants were of the opinion that the goal of every local authority is to provide satisfactory quality of life to its citizens, but 6% were uncertain. The data on the occurrences and their impact revealed that 58% of the participants indicated that their income was reduced and 23% stated that their standard of living was reduced. The data on the impacts of Covid-19 revealed that 80% of the participants indicated that they were greatly affected by Covid-19, 18% were moderately affected, 2% were slightly affected and 0% were not affected at all.

The data from the officials from stakeholder organisations under section 7.3.4, Table 7.8, reveal that all participants (100) were of the opinion that the goal of every local authority is to provide satisfactory quality of life to its citizens. Moreover, 96% of the participants indicated that poverty alleviation can translate into better quality of life for the residents. This means that both the majority of the community members and officials agrees that poverty alleviation can translate into better quality of life for the citizens. Therefore, efforts should be made by all the societal actors such as public sector institutions including the government and its structures, NGOs, private sector organisations and the community members themselves to alleviate poverty.

8.4. RECOMMENDATIONS

The previous section dealt with the findings of the study. This section presents the recommendations of the study based on the findings.

8.4.1 Poverty alleviation and socio-economic conditions

To assist the residents to get out and stay out of poverty, CoW should grow the local economy by means of urging its residents to support the locally owned businesses and encourage the residents to bank locally. Supporting locally owned business can help to create local employment and once the local people have jobs they will be able to afford to pay for municipal services and use the money to improve their socio-economic conditions. While banking locally would enable the circulating of money in the local economy and the banks would be able to engage in their corporate social responsibility.

In order to improve the socio-economic conditions of poor communities, CoW should through consultative meetings, explain to the central government, regional council, the private sector and civil society organisations, the importance of working together on projects through such means as PPPs to assist the poor people.

8.4.2 Local economic development strategies and poverty

To encourage local employment by the private sector in the area, it is suggested that the CoW should give tax exemptions of 5% to businesses operating within its area of jurisdiction that have 90% or more of staff members that are local employees.

To encourage and promote self-employment, it is proposed that the city should set up more open markets where local vendors can sell their products by opening markets in areas such as Otjomuise and Khomasdal where there are none at the moment. The fees to operate on these spaces must be affordable as a way to attract local vendors.

8.4.3 Alleviation of poverty and better quality of life

It is recommended that the CoW officials that are dealing with the social welfare of the people should go to the community after every three months to see if residents' lives are getting better or worse. The aspects that should be evaluated to determine whether people's quality of life is getting better or worse are such as income, health status and work-life balance among others. An increase in income, good health status and the ability to strike a balance between work and life means that residents' quality of life is getting better and the opposite would mean that their lives are getting worse.

To ensure that the residents increase their income, CoW should urge the residents to take up extra jobs and become entrepreneurs. With increased income the residents can invest in their health which is one of the important aspects of a better quality of life.

To ensure that all residents of the CoW have access to affordable housing which is one of the crucial element in determining a better quality of life, the city should provide the residents with serviced erven/plots and give residents sufficient time, example three years to construct their houses.

8.5 CONTRIBUTION TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE

Poverty is a phenomenon which affects the socio-economic conditions of the community in a negative manner and it consequently diminishes people's capability to achieve a better quality of life. When a person cannot afford to buy nutritious food, it means that the person is experiencing food poverty (Botchway, 2013:87). This makes a person not to have energy to go look for job or to take up an extra job to improve his/her income (Smith, 2005:31). As such, this person would not be able to afford to pay for basic services inclusive of those rendered by local authorities. Consequently, this person would live in isolation, can barely participate in constructive dialogue and would most likely remain in this situation unless there are interventions from a third party (Smith, 2005:33).

This means that there is a dire need to alleviate poverty in all its forms, however, there is no way a local authority can completely alleviate poverty on its own. What a local authority such as the CoW can do is to assist the residents to permanently pull themselves out of poverty by implementing the IDP sequential model for poverty alleviation by local authorities. The IDP model (Figure 8.1 below), consists of three stages that each implementing local authority should follow in a chronological order.

Stage 1: Identify the cause of poverty

This stage deals with the identification of the root causes of poverty and it is made up of three steps. These steps should be followed in a sequential order.

Step 1: Adopt/develop an inclusive definition of poverty

It is important to define poverty first because it provides the framework which can be used to identify different traits within the residents that characterise the presence of poverty. Poverty is a social phenomenon that affects continents, nations, and people differently and there is no nation that is absolutely free from poverty (Innocent., 2014:98). Since the effect of poverty is diverse, institutions and scholars have come up with many definitions of poverty.

The United Nations (1995:10) defines poverty as:

“...lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by lack of participation in decision making and in civil, social and cultural life”.

Under this step, the city can either adopt the above definition or it can construct its own definition of poverty that would serve as a road map in the next step.

Step 2: Gather information on the poverty plight of the residents

Under this step, the local authority should gather information on the poverty plight of the residents. Namibia only gathers information on poverty estimates of all the citizens after five years through the NHIES (NSA, 2016:104). This means that the NHIES should contain useful information that the CoW can use under this step. However, since data on the poverty plight of the residents should be collected after three years, it is suggested that the implementing local authority should conduct a survey every three years to gather first-hand information. The information to be gathered from the residents should include the following aspects: gender, age, marital status, academic qualification, employment status, employment sector, sources of income, income per month, number of people per house, food expenditure, health status, housing structures, affiliation status to pressure interest groups, and public participation in community dialogue among others. These aspects are important in determining the level of poverty.

Step 3: Analyse information and identify the cause of poverty

Under this step, information collected under step 2 above is analysed to identify the cause of poverty for the residents. Here the implementing local authority, for example, looks at the employment status for the majority of the residents, in which sector they work and how much they are earning per month. This information may help the

implementing local authority to identify which of the aspects listed under step 2 are main contributors to the level of poverty for the residents.

Stage 2: Develop a local economic development strategy

This stage builds on the first stage and it involves the development of the LED strategy. LED is a process by which local governments or community based groups manage their existing resources and enter into partnership arrangements with the private sector, or with each other, to create new jobs and stimulate economic activities that facilitate and enable an improvement of quality of life (Nel, 2001:6). The main goal for any LED strategy is the provision of quality jobs for the contemporary population (Blakely & Leigh, 2010:215). This stage is made up of five steps. These steps should be followed in a sequential order.

Step 1: Organise the efforts

This is where the planning takes place and it involves the assigning of responsibilities to different departments within the implementing local authority and the identification of stakeholders that should be involved in the LED strategy (Chitembo & Silumesii, 2011:3; Swinburn et al., 2004:4). The stakeholders should be the central government, regional council, private organisations, NGOs, community members, and think-tanks among others. The manager for the Department of Economic Development and Community Services at the CoW should take the lead in organising and planning the LED strategy. To encourage the involvement of the stakeholder and to get the political support, the political head of the local authority, the Mayor, should be placed as the leader of the LED strategy. The political leader should engage the other levels of government (central and regional) to work together with the local authority to establish an enabling environment such as giving of tax-breaks and investments in infrastructure development that can enable the LED strategy for the municipality to operate smoothly.

Step 2: Asses the local economy

Under this step, the implementing local authority together with the stakeholders should asses the characteristics of the local economy using a SWOT analysis. This means that they should identify the local assets that are at the disposal of a local authority (strength), obstacles that would most likely hinder the growth of the local economy (weakness), issues that are concerned with the favourable environment (opportunities) and unfavourable exogenous threats (Swinburn et al., 2004:5). The assessment should also take cognisance of LED opportunities across the main sectors including the formal, informal and community sectors. Moreover, the information collected under step 2 of stage 1 can be used as part of the opportunities and threats that are facing the implementing local authority.

Step 3: Make a strategy

Under this step, the strategy should be formulated to stimulate the local economic activities. The World Bank (2003:9) states that strategy can help practitioners in a local authority as well as the principal stakeholder groups to balance the LED with environmental as well as social needs. Here the vision, goals, objectives, programmes, projects and action plans should also be created (Swinburn et al., 2004:6). The vision should reflect the desired economic future for the community that the local authority and stakeholders would want to achieve in the near future, for example zero poverty among the residents of the CoW in 3 years. Thereafter, goals should be set to achieve the vision, objectives to achieve the goals, programmes to achieve the objectives as well as projects and action plans to carry out the set programmes.

Part of the programmes that should be in the LED strategy towards the alleviation of poverty is the opening of market spaces in areas such as Otjomuise and Khomasdal, where local vendors can sell their goods. Moreover, it should make provisions for the residents to come up with various business ideas based on their set of skills and knowledge that would assist them to improve their standard of living.

Step 4: Implement the strategy

Under this step, implementation and action plans should be created by the implementing local authority together with the stakeholders. The implementation plan focuses on budgetary and human resource requirements, and institutional as well as procedural implications of implementing the LED strategy (World Bank, 2003:10). The action plan provides specific details on project components including a hierarchy of tasks, responsible parties, a realistic delivery timetable, human resource and financial needs, sources of funding, expected impacts, results, performance measures and systems for evaluating progress of each project (World Bank, 2003:10).

Step 5: Review the strategy

During this step, the LED strategy should be reviewed every year to enable adjustments where necessary in order to meet the changing needs of the local conditions. Begin-Gillis et al. (2014:28) suggest that the review should take into consideration the availability of resources, especially those needed for the delivery of the strategy inclusive of the established and agreed upon monitoring and evaluation indicators of the local economy. Monitoring and evaluation should be treated as an important part of this step and thus there should be a consistent monitoring of the progress being made by a strategy after every three months. Where it has become apparent that there is no progress, further investigations should be done to identify the causes of impasse and necessary actions should be taken to solve the identified problem.

Stage 3: Improved socio-economic conditions and better quality of life

This stage consists of two steps.

Step 1: Conducive environment

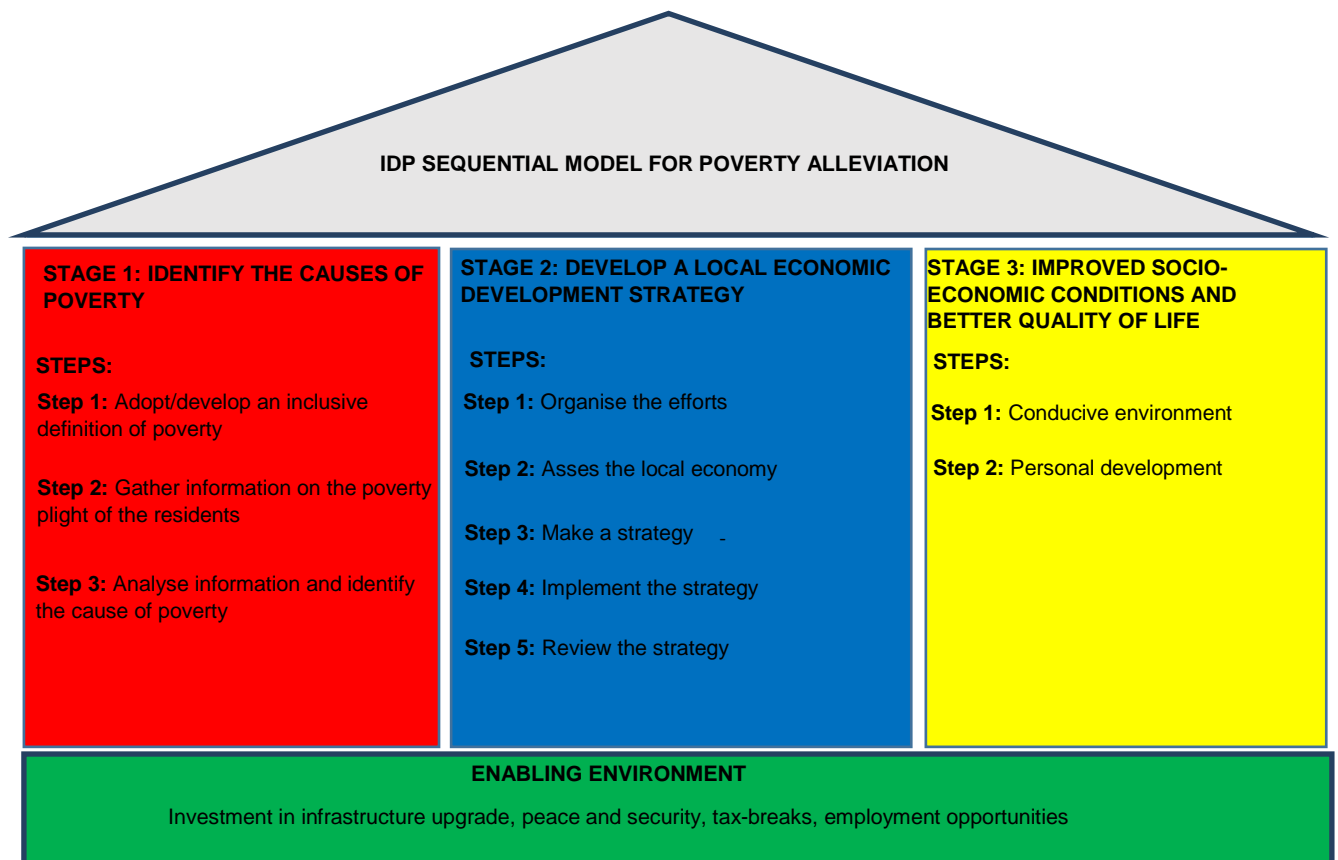
Gildenhuis (1997:2) advises that local authority should strive to create the necessary conditions within its municipality and within the limits of its legal jurisdiction for

promoting a satisfactory quality of life for each of its citizens. Under this step, the CoW should focus on ensuring that all the necessary conditions are in place for the residents to achieve better quality of life. These conditions include investments in infrastructure upgrades, peace and security, tax-breaks, employment opportunities.

Step 2: Personal development

Under this step, the CoW should urge the residents to work hard and develop themselves according to their personal, physical and mental abilities. The LED strategy has stimulated the local economic activities which include job creation for the residents. The CoW should therefore urge the residents to live within their means, save some money and spend on basic needs that can improve their socio-economic conditions and improve their quality of life.

Figure 8.1: IDP sequential model for poverty alleviation



8.6 CONCLUSIONS

The Government of the Republic of Namibia inherited a country dominated by income inequality and it was estimated that two thirds of the population was living in conditions of absolute poverty at independence in 1990, and since then, reducing the incidences of poverty in Namibia has been on the government's agenda. The levels of poverty were discovered to be high among people with less access to basic services such as safe drinking water, proper sanitation, health and school facilities, public transport and local markets. Namibia uses the CBN methodology to measure the levels of poverty using three poverty lines, namely: the food poverty line, the lower bound poverty line and the upper bound poverty line. These poverty lines are monthly thresholds below which a person will be classified as food poor, severely poor or poor, respectively. Most of the residents of the CoW and officials of the stakeholder organisations are GY and they are educated. A large number of residents of the CoW (62%) are spending most of their income on housing and 64% of the residents holds that the provision of affordable housing is the biggest service delivery challenge faced by the CoW. A majority (64%) of the officials from stakeholder organisations were uncertain of the poverty income bottom line in the city.

8.7 FURTHER RESEARCH

While this study focused on investigating poverty alleviation in the CoW, future research can analyse the intergovernmental relations between the spheres (central, regional and local) of government in relation to poverty alleviation. Future researchers may also analyse the role of stakeholders in enhancing the LED strategies of local authorities in improving the socio-economic conditions of the residents within their areas of administrative jurisdictions.

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ANNEXURE A: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE RESIDENTS OF CITY OF WINDHOEK

Dear Participant,

INSTRUCTIONS TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

- Do not write your name, surname or any other personal details or numbers on this questionnaire.
- The questionnaire will not take longer than 30 minutes to complete.
- There is only 1 (one) answer per question.
- Please note that the information you provide in this questionnaire will remain confidential and will only be used for research purposes.

GENERAL RULES:

1. You have been invited to participate in this study because of your extensive experience about the topic under study.
2. You are kindly requested to answer the questions as honestly and completely as possible.
3. It will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.
4. Participation is anonymous: You are not requested to disclose your identity. Your privacy will be respected.
5. No one will be able to connect you to the answers you give.
6. The information collected from you will be treated with strict confidentiality and used for research purposes only.
7. You have the right to withdraw your participation at any time. Hence, your participation is regarded as voluntarily.
8. You will not receive any payment or reward, financial or otherwise, and the study will not incur undue costs to you.
9. The data will be stored in a locked cupboard and the data stored in a computer will be protected by the use of an encrypted password. The data will be destroyed when it is no longer of functional value (after five years).
10. A copy of the thesis will be available in the library at the Muckleneuk Ridge Campus of the University of South Africa (Unisa), Pretoria.

PLEASE TICK THE FOLLOWING BOX IF YOU CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE:

I hereby consent and understand that my participation is voluntary and anonymous and that the information will be kept strictly confidential.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

(Indicate your choice at each of the statements listed below with an **X**)

1. Indicate your gender.

1	Male	
2	Female	

2. Indicate your age.

1	Under 28	
2	29-40	
3	41-55	
4	56-65	
5	66 +	

3. Indicate your highest qualification.

1	Doctorate	
2	Masters' degree	
3	Honours' degree	
4	Bachelor's degree	
5	Diploma	
6	Certificate	
7	Matric/Grade 12	

4. Indicate your nationality.
status.

1	Namibian	
2	Angolan	
3	South African	
4	Zimbabwean	
5	Zambian	
6	other	

5. Indicate your ethnic origins.

1	Aawambo	
2	Kavango	
3	Herero	
4	Damara	
5	Nama	
6	San	
7	Caprivian	
8	Tswana	
9	Baster	
10	Other	

6. Indicate your employment status.

1	Full-time employee	
2	Part-time employee	
3	Self-employed	
4	Unemployed	
5	Student	
6	Retired	

7. Indicate your years of service.

1	0-5	
2	6-10	
3	11-15	
4	16-20	
5	21-25	
6	26 +	

8. Indicate your marital status.

1	Married	
2	Living together	
3	Single	
4	Divorced	
5	Widow	
6	Widower	

SECTION B: INCOME/BENEFITS AND HOW IT IS USED IN THE CITY OF WINDHOEK

(Indicate your choice at each of the statements listed below with an **X**)

1. My income fall into the people following bracket.

1	N\$00-N\$3500	
2	N\$3600-N\$6600	
3	N\$6700-N\$9700	
4	N\$9800-N\$12 800	
5	N\$12 900-N\$15 900	
6	N\$16 000-N\$19 000	
7	N\$20 000 +	

2. I spend much of my income on the following.

1	Food	
2	Water	
3	Electricity	
4	Sanitation	
5	Health	
6	Housing	
7	School fees	
8	Others	

3. Indicate the number of that lives in your household.

1	1 person	
2	2 people	
3	3 people	
4	4 people	
5	5 people	
6	More than 5 people	

4. Indicate how much you spend on food on per month.

1	Less than N\$293.1	
2	More than N\$293.1 but less than N\$389.3	
3	More than N\$389.3 but less than N\$520.8	
4	More than N\$520.8	

5. Indicate how poverty affects you.

1	Greatly	
2	Moderately	
3	Slightly	
4	Not at all	

Scale: 1=Not at all
2=Slightly
3=Moderately
4=Greatly

6. The following could help to alleviate poverty.

1	Literacy/ training/ education	
2	Income and employment support	
3	Free food distribution by government	
4	government social / welfare vouchers	
5	All of the above	
6	None of the above	

7. Poverty alleviation can translate into a better quality of life for me.

1	Yes	
2	No	
3	Maybe	
4	I don't know	

8. The following has happened (e.g. marriage, divorce, children born, new job) in the last 2 years in my life and has:

1	Improved my standard of living	
2	Reduced my standard of living	
3	Increased my income	
4	Reduced my income	
5	None of the above	

SECTION C: THIS SECTION DEALS WITH INCOME FOR THE HOUSEHOLD

PLEASE CHOOSE AN APPROPRIATE ANSWER ON THE FOLLOWING SCALE

- 1= Strongly disagree 4= Agree
 2= Disagree 5= Strongly agree
 3= Uncertain

The following are sources of income for your household.

Number	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree	For Office Use only
1	Earnings from employment or self-employment	1	2	3	4	5	
2	Child benefit/maintenance/support	1	2	3	4	5	
3	Interest from savings, dividends, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	
4	Retirement pension	1	2	3	4	5	
5	Student loan refunds/grant	1	2	3	4	5	
6	Other sources of income e.g. rent	1	2	3	4	5	

SECTION D: THIS SECTION DEALS WITH SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE CITY OF WINDHOEK

(Indicate your choice at each of the statements listed below with an **X**)

1. How long have you been living in this area

1	Less than a year	
2	1 year	
3	2-5 years	
4	6-9 years	
5	More than 10 years	

2. Have you experience an improvement in service delivery?

1	Yes	
2	No	
3	Uncertain	

3. Which of the following is the biggest service delivery challenge in your view.

1	Electricity supply	
2	Supply of safe drinking water	
3	Proper maintenance of sewerage and drainage systems	
4	Provision of reliable public transportation services	
5	Provision of affordable housing	
6	Provision of adequate medical clinic and hospital facilities.	
7	Provision of safe recreational and sport facilities	
8	Provision of sufficient public schools	
9	Provision of reliable fire brigade	
10	All of the above	
11	None of the above	

4. How often do you see your local authority councillors?

1	Once a month	
2	Once a quarter	
3	Once a semester	
4	Once a year	
5	Never	

5. How often do you have public meetings?

1	Once a month	
2	Once a quarter	
3	Once a semester	
4	Once a year	
5	Never	

SECTION E: CITY OF WINDHOEK INVOLVEMENT IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION

PLEASE CHOOSE AN APPROPRIATE ANSWER ON THE FOLLOWOING SCALE

- 1= Strongly disagree 4= Agree
 2= Disagree 5= Strongly agree
 3= Uncertain

Number	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree	For Office Use only
1	The goal of every local authority is to provide a satisfactory quality of life to its citizens.	1	2	3	4	5	
2	Provision of essential services such as water, electricity, housing and sanitation at an affordable prices can improve my quality of life.	1	2	3	4	5	
3	My municipality invites residents to community meetings.	1	2	3	4	5	
4	My municipality provides public education on the mandate of local authorities which is the provision of affordable water and electricity among others to the residents within their areas of administrative jurisdiction.	1	2	3	4	5	
5	My municipality holds community meetings in Civic hall were matter of community interest are discussed.	1	2	3	4	5	
6	During the community meetings in Civic hall residents' inputs are listened to.	1	2	3	4	5	
7	I know my municipality has a policy on poverty reduction.	1	2	3	4	5	
8	My municipality implements residents' suggestions regarding how to reduce poverty in their poverty alleviation strategies.	1	2	3	4	5	
9	My municipality's strategies had made progress in reducing poverty in my area.	1	2	3	4	5	

SECTION F: THIS SECTION DEALS WITH THE IMPACTS OF COVID-19

1. I received the following from the CoW during the Covid-19 pandemic.

1	Free safe drinking water.	
2	Free food parcels once every month.	
3	Tax rebates on my business.	
4	Information on how Covid-19 virus spread and how to protect myself and my family.	
5	Free face masks and hand sanitizers	
6	Others	
7	All of the above	
8	None of the above	

2. The following happened in my life because of Covid-19.

1	I lost my job	
2	My salary was reduced	
3	My salary was increased	
4	My business was closed	
5	My business was making a loss	
6	My business was making a profit	
7	My health deteriorated	
8	None of the above	

3. Indicate how did Covid-19 affected you.

1	Greatly	
2	Moderately	
3	Slightly	
4	Not at all	

Scale: 1=Not at all
2=Slightly
3=Moderately
4=Greatly

ANNEXURE B: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STAKEHOLDER ORGANISATIONS

Dear Participant,

INSTRUCTIONS TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

- Do not write your name, surname or any other personal details or numbers on this questionnaire.
- The questionnaire will not take longer than 30 minutes to complete.
- There is only 1 (one) answer per question.
- Please note that the information you provide in this questionnaire will remain confidential and will only be used for research purposes.

GENERAL RULES:

1. You have been invited to participate in this study because of your extensive experience about the topic under study.
2. You are kindly requested to answer the questions as honestly and completely as possible.
3. It will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.
4. Participation is anonymous: You are not requested to disclose your identity. Your privacy will be respected.
5. No one will be able to connect you to the answers you give.
6. The information collected from you will be treated with strict confidentiality and used for research purposes only.
7. You have the right to withdraw your participation at any time. Hence, your participation is regarded as voluntarily.
8. You will not receive any payment or reward, financial or otherwise, and the study will not incur undue costs to you.
9. The data will be stored in a locked cupboard and the data stored in a computer will be protected by the use of an encrypted password. The data will be destroyed when it is no longer of functional value (after five years).
10. A copy of the thesis will be available in the library at the Muckleneuk Ridge Campus of the University of South Africa (Unisa), Pretoria.

PLEASE TICK THE FOLLOWING BOX IF YOU CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE:

I hereby consent and understand that my participation is voluntary and anonymous and that the information will be kept strictly confidential.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

(Indicate your choice at each of the statements listed below with an **X**)

1. Indicate your gender.

1	Male	
2	Female	

2. Indicate your age.

1	Under 28	
2	29-40	
3	41-55	
4	56-65	
5	66 +	

3. Indicate your highest qualification.

1	Doctorate	
2	Masters' degree	
3	Honours' degree	
4	Bachelor's degree	
5	Diploma	
6	Certificate	
7	Matric/Grade 12	

4. Indicate your nationality.

1	Namibian	
2	Angolan	
3	South African	
4	Zimbabwean	
5	Zambian	
6	other	

5. Indicate your marital status.

1	Married	
2	Living together	
3	Single	
4	Divorced	
5	Widow	
6	Widower	

6. Indicate your years of service.

1	0-5	
2	6-10	
3	11-15	
4	16-20	
5	21-25	
6	26 +	

7. Indicate your ethnic origins.

1	Aawambo	
2	Kavango	
3	Herero	
4	Damara	
5	Nama	
6	San	
7	Caprivian	
8	Tswana	
9	Baster	
10	Other	

SECTION B: THIS SECTION EXPLORES POVERTY SITUATION IN THE COW

PLEASE CHOOSE AN APPROPRIATE ANSWER ON THE FOLLOWOING SCALE

- 1= Strongly disagree 4= Agree
 2= Disagree 5= Strongly agree
 3= Uncertain

Number	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree	For Office Use only
1	Poverty in the context of City of Windhoek (CoW) can be classified as the inability of people to attain a minimum standard of living and to obtain adequate nutrition, housing and clothing.	1	2	3	4	5	
2	People are responsible for their poverty plight and with better choices such as living within their means and opening of small and medium enterprises they can get out of poverty.	1	2	3	4	5	
3	People are struggling to get out of poverty due to lack of better income and employment opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	
4	Individuals spends most of their income on basic needs such as food, water, shelter and clothing.	1	2	3	4	5	
5	The city provides food parcels to people living in dire poverty on a monthly basis.	1	2	3	4	5	
6	The number of people living in poverty has decreased.	1	2	3	4	5	
7	The poverty income bottom line in the city is N\$293.1 per month.	1	2	3	4	5	

SECTION C: THIS SECTION FOCUSES ON LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

PLEASE CHOOSE AN APPROPRIATE ANSWER ON THE FOLLOWOING SCALE

- 1= Strongly disagree 4= Agree
 2= Disagree 5= Strongly agree
 3= Uncertain

Number	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree	For Office Use only
1	I understand the steps involved when my Department instituted poverty alleviation action.	1	2	3	4	5	
2	My Department provides training to local community structures in poverty alleviation action.	1	2	3	4	5	
3	My Department monitor the poverty alleviation.	1	2	3	4	5	
4	The local community structures implements poverty alleviation activities.	1	2	3	4	5	
5	I know the poverty alleviation policies and procedures of the CoW.	1	2	3	4	5	

6	I know the poverty alleviation policies for CoW are effective /making a difference to the lives of communities.	1	2	3	4	5	
7	My department regularly visit communities to monitor the progress of poverty alleviation programmes / activities.	1	2	3	4	5	
8	I have attended the poverty alleviation training workshop and seminars.	1	2	3	4	5	
9	The unions are involved in poverty alleviation activities.	1	2	3	4	5	

SECTION D: THIS SECTION EXPLORES EFFECTIVE WAYS TO ALLEVIATE POVERTY

PLEASE CHOOSE AN APPROPRIATE ANSWER ON THE FOLLOWING SCALE

1= Strongly disagree

4= Agree

2= Disagree

5= Strongly agree

3= Uncertain

Number	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree	For Office Use only
1	Provision of literacy/training/education can alleviate poverty.	1	2	3	4	5	
2	It will take intervention by government, non-governmental organisations and private sector to alleviate poverty.	1	2	3	4	5	
3	One of the effective ways to alleviate poverty is the creation of a conducive environment by government structures (central, regional and local) to attract investors to create employment opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	
4	My community is involved in economic alleviation programmes.	1	2	3	4	5	
5	Economic alleviations programmes are making a difference to the lives of poor citizens.	1	2	3	4	5	
6	Some of the economic activities that are generated by the city to ensure the alleviation of poverty includes developing the competitiveness of the Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) sector through the creation of a conducive environment; provision of infrastructure, relevant business support interventions and stimulation of an entrepreneurial attitude.	1	2	3	4	5	
7	The provision of various trading sites such as 16 permanent markets which includes the Oshetu community market; and opportunistic markets for vendors such as newspaper sellers, car guards, food carts, barbeque sites among others by the city can aid in alleviating poverty in the city.	1	2	3	4	5	
8	CoW have sections such as Research and Information Management; Micro Entrepreneurial Development; SME Development and Promotion; Business Development; and Tourism that are aiming	1	2	3	4	5	

	to facilitate the growth of the local economy through sustainable and responsible development interventions with the ultimate goal of alleviating poverty in the city.						
--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

SECTION E: THIS SECTION FOCUSES ON BETTER QUALITY OF LIFE

PLEASE CHOOSE AN APPROPRIATE ANSWER ON THE FOLLOWOING SCALE

- 1= Strongly disagree 4= Agree
2= Disagree 5= Strongly agree
3= Uncertain

Number	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree	For Office Use only
1	The goal of every local authority is to provide a satisfactory quality of life to its citizens.	1	2	3	4	5	
2	Poverty alleviation can translate into better quality of life for the residents.	1	2	3	4	5	
3	Allocation of plots to residents, particularly those in the informal areas; installation of pre-paid water and electricity meters; provision of water and sanitation to underserved areas; and construction of affordable housing in informal areas by the CoW can ensure better quality of life of poor residents/communities.	1	2	3	4	5	
4	I know CoW provides social development intervention programmes such as Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) soup kitchens, after school programmes, holiday programmes, and youth development and training sections among others.	1	2	3	4	5	
5	CoW have a social entrepreneurship programme which is earmarked to provides start up materials and ingredients to residents who participate in this programme, who then run their own income generating projects. E.g. bead making, bakery, and gardening skills.	1	2	3	4	5	
6	CoW have an Emergency Management Division which provides services that include suppression, fire prevention, emergency medical services, heavy rescue, water rescue, hazardous material response and community awareness safety education in an effort to enhance the safety and quality of life for the residents.	1	2	3	4	5	
7	I know CoW have Parks and Recreation Division which focuses on the provision of professional horticultural services, establishing and maintaining exceptional parks, cemeteries, sport and recreational facilities for physical betterment of the community.	1	2	3	4	5	
8	CoW provide the following educational opportunities: pre-primary and preschool preparation for children.	1	2	3	4	5	

ANNEXURE C: LETTER OF CONSENT FROM COW

Department of Human Capital & Corporate Services

☒ 59

Corner of 5378 Independence Avenue and Garten Street

WINDHOEK, NAMIBIA

Tel: (+264) 61 290 2911 • Fax: (+264) 61 290 3212 • www.cityofwindhoek.org.na



ENQ: Mr. MA Nikanor
DATE: 01 January 2020

PHONE: 09 264 61 290 2630
FAX: 09 264 61 290 3212
EMAIL: ark@windhoekcc.org.na

**RE: POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN THE CITY OF WINDHOEK – MR S. NDAPULAMO
(STUDENT NO: 64123219)**

This letter serves as confirmation that Mr S. Ndapulamo a student pursuing a PhD (Philosophy) in Public Administration at University of South Africa, Pretoria – South Africa has been granted permission to conduct his research on the above subject within Windhoek.

Respondents to the study are therefore requested to render Mr Ndapulamo their cooperation and assistance.

Should there be any queries, please feel free to contact the Organisational & Human Resources Development Division on the above contact details

Yours Sincerely

**M.A NIKANOR
MANAGER: ORGANIZATIONAL & HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT**



All official correspondence must be addressed to the Chief Executive Officer

ANNEXURE D: LETTER OF CONSENT FROM MURD



Republic of Namibia

Ministry of Urban and Rural Development

Tel: (+264 61) 2975099
Fax: (+264 61) 2975096

Government Office Park
Luther Street

Private Bag 13289
Windhoek, Namibia

Enquiries: Hilia Paulus

Our Ref.: S.28/3/1
Your Ref.:

Date: 10 January 2020

Mr. Salomo Ndapulamo
P.O Box 22135
WINDHOEK

Dear Mr. Ndapulamo

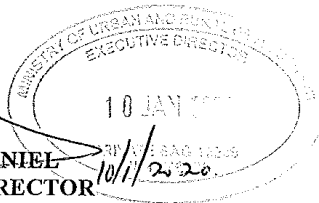
**SUBJECT: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN
THE MINISTRY OF URBAN AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

Kindly be informed that permission is hereby granted for you to conduct research in the Ministry of Urban and Rural Development as requested on condition that you will share your final research paper with the Ministry.

We wish you all the best with your studies.

Yours sincerely


NGHIDINUA DANIEL
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR



All official correspondence must be addressed to the Executive Director

ANNEXURE E: LETTER OF CONSENT FROM MGEPEWSW



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF POVERTY ERADICATION AND SOCIAL WELFARE

Tel No: (+264-61) 435 5000
Fax No: (+264-61) 435 5001
Enquiries: *MR. J. SIRONGO*
Our Ref:

Mutual Platz
Post Street Mall
Private Bag 13395
Windhoek

Your Ref:

13 January 2020

Mr. Salomo Ndupulamo
P O Box 22135
Windhoek

Dear Mr. Ndupulamo

RE: APPROVAL TO UNDERTAKE AN ACADEMIC RESEARCH ON POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN THE CITY OF WINDHOEK

Reference is made to your letter dated 13 November 2019.

The Ministry of Poverty Eradication and Social Welfare hereby grants approval to you to undertake your academic research study with our staff members in partial fulfilment for requirements of the PhD programme on; "Poverty Alleviation in the city of Windhoek".

Please be advised that highest standards of research ethics, including confidentiality of information and anonymity of sources should be adhered to as in terms of Statistics Act, (Act No. 9 of 2011).

Below are the names of the staff members that may assist you in your research.

1. *Ms. Niita Ipinge* – Director; Directorate of Poverty Eradication programme and Coordination
Email at: Niita.Ipinge@mpesw.gov.na
Tell: 061 4355127
2. *Mr. Tangeni Mwashekele* – Control Administrative Officer; Directorate of Poverty Eradication programme and Coordination
Email at: Tangeni.Mwashekele@mpesw.gov.na
Tell: 061 4355051


ESTHER LUSEPANI
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR



All official correspondence must be addressed to the Permanent Secretary

ANNEXURE F: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



**DEPARTMENT: PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT
RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE**

Date: 29 April 2020

Ref #: PAM/2020/007 (Ndapulamo)

Name of applicant: Mr S Ndapulamo

Student#: 64123219

Dear Mr Ndapulamo

Decision: Ethics Clearance Approval

Details of researcher:

Mr S Ndapulamo, student#:64123219, email: 6412319@mylife.unisa.ac.za tel: +264813582727

Supervisor: S Kahn, staff#: 90121244, email: kahnsb@unisa.ac.za,

Research project 'Poverty alleviation in the City of Windhoek'

Qualification PhD in Public Administration

Thank you for the application for **research ethics clearance** submitted to the Department: Public Administration and Management: Research Ethics Review Committee, for the above mentioned study. Ethics approval is granted. The decision will be tabled at the next College RERC meeting for notification/ratification.

For full approval: The application was **reviewed** in compliance with the *Unisa Policy on Research Ethics* and the *Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment*.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

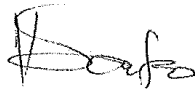
- 1) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.
- 2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to this Ethics Review Committee.



University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

- 3) The researcher will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
- 4) Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
- 5) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study, among others, the **Protection of Personal Information Act 4/2013**; **Children's Act 38/2005** and **National Health Act 61/2003**.
- 6) Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
- 7) Field work activities **may not** continue after the expiry date of this ethics clearance, which is 29 April 2023. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of the ethics clearance certificate for approval by the Research Ethics Committee.

Kind regards



Dr V Sambo

Chairperson: Research Ethics Review
Committee
Department of Public Administration and
Management
Research Ethics Review Committee
Office tel. : 012 429-4355;
Email : Esambovt@unisa.ac.za



Prof MT Mogale

Executive Dean:
College of Economic and Management
Sciences
Office tel. : 012 429-4805;
Email : mogalmt@unisa.ac.za

ANNEXURE G: LANGUAGE EDITOR'S CERTIFICATE

ACET Consultancy
Anenyasha Communication, Editing and Training
Box 50453 Bachbrecht, Windhoek, Namibia
Cell: +264814218613
Email: mlambons@yahoo.co.uk / nelsonmlambo@icloud.com

27 January 2022

To whom it may concern

LANGUAGE EDITING – SALOMO NDAPULAMO

This letter serves to confirm that a **DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY** thesis entitled ***POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN THE CITY OF WINDHOEK*** by SALOMO NDAPULAMO was submitted to me for language editing.

The thesis was professionally edited and track changes and suggestions were made in the document. The research content or the author's intentions were not altered during the editing process and the author has the authority to accept or reject my suggestions.

Yours faithfully



DR NELSON MLAMBO
PhD in English
M.A. in Intercultural Communication
M.A. in English
B. A. Special Honours in English – First class
B. A. English & Linguistics