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**THE POVERTY REDUCTION ROLE OF
RURAL DEVELOPMENT CENTRES:
A CASE STUDY OF GIBEON CONSTITUENCY, NAMIBIA**

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DECLARATION

I, Gabriel Kamanya Hatutale, declare that the master's degree research dissertation or interrelated, publishable manuscripts/publishable articles, or coursework master's degree mini-dissertation that I herewith submit for the master's degree qualification Master of Development Studies at the University of the Free State is my independent work, and that I have not previously submitted it for a qualification at another institution of higher education.”

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31 January 2020

ABSTRACT

The study explored the role of rural development centres in rural poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap region in Namibia. A qualitative research approach was utilised, using semi-structured interviews and in-depth interviews using a questionnaire as an instrument to collect data. The purposive sampling technique was used to select a sample to participate in the study.

The research participants were selected based on the consideration that they can give rich information and able to share their understanding of what and how they feel and see rural poverty, what causes it in their own views and perceptions, and what rural poverty means to them.

The study findings have shown that the community in the Gibeon Constituency, mostly the rural inhabitants, are in fact poor due to lack of social services (education, health care, housing and transportation), poor service delivery, limited services, insecurity of land tenure, overcrowding in the communal land, limited opportunity for farming, vastness and remoteness in terms of service delivery. Rural poverty is on the increase, irrespective of the Namibian social services (education, health care, housing and public transportation) being subsidised. About two thirds of the Namibian population are found in the rural areas in a situation where they are excluded from the provision of social and economic needs which are being delivered by the government. The limited access to service provision such as access to better road networks, electricity, water, housing, rural markets, banking, credit facilities, as well as the limited access to low level of agricultural technology and the slow pace of the decentralisation process, remain a challenge to rural development. There is high level of unemployment in the Gibeon Constituency.

The study recommends that the Gibeon Constituency, through the regional government (Hardap Regional Council) should speed up the process of service delivery by decentralising the key ministries dealing with poverty and social well-being of the community. Both the old-age grant and children's grant should be increased and the pro-poor policies should take into account local and regional factors when designing interventions to address poverty in line with the sustainable development principle of subsidiarity.

Key terms: Rural development centre; rural poverty reduction; social protection; social services, livelihood, rural markets, desirable services, itemize services, extension services, and access to land.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CDS	Centre for Development Support
FAO	Food Agriculture Organization
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
MAWF	Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry
Nampost	Namibia Post Office
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPC	National Planning Commission
NSA	Namibia Statistics Agency
ReCAP	Research for Community Access Partnership

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The challenge of poverty and ways to improve it remains the most persistent dilemma of the international development debate (International Fund for Agricultural Development [IFAD], 1993:1; United Nations Population Fund, 2019:19; World Bank, 2019: 262-263). Poverty and inequality remain one of the pressing challenges in developing countries (Namibia Statistics Agency [NSA] & World Bank, 2017:iv; Schmidt, 2009:4). Namibia is not an exception; therefore, poverty is everyone's business and it affects both developed and developing countries. Generally, poverty is severe in rural areas (Ravallion, 2007:15; Schmidt, 2009:3). Although there considerable efforts have been taken to end world rural poverty by the United Nations through the Millennium Development Goals, which has ceased in the year 2015, and the current Sustainable Development Goals (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations [FAO], 2018:vii), to this end, the pace was very minimal. Sustainable Development Goal 1, ending poverty in all its forms, everywhere, is the most ambitious goal set by the 2030 Agenda (FAO, 2018:vii). The central question confronting the world is: How can this target 1.1, aiming at eradicating extreme poverty by 2030 be achieved?

In 2015, about 736 million people – which is about 10% of the global population – were living in extreme poverty. Furthermore, the extreme poor are those individuals earning less than US\$1.25 per day (FAO, 2018: vii). The majority of the extreme poor – that is 75% of the total population – live in rural areas (FAO, 2018: vii; Ravallion, 2007:15).

Most African countries have experienced worsening poverty, hunger, high unemployment and ill health (Yahie, 2000:15). Africa is the only continent in the world where poverty is steadily going up. In the sub-Saharan Africa region, poverty in terms of a proportion of the poor, continues to increase, and comparing to the rest of the world, they are the worse off (Statistical, Economic and Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries, 2007:6; Republic of Namibia, n.d:6). The Gross Domestic Product per capita for 2018, as measured in US dollar stand at US\$5627 and the Gini Index at 59.1 (Micro Poverty Outlook, 2019:262-263). The weak per capita growth has been fuelled up by the high rate of unemployment among women

and the youth. The percentage of unemployed women in Namibia stand at 38.3%, whereas the youth is at 43.4%, respectively (World Bank, 2019:263).

Namibia has a population of approximate 2 113 077 and statistically 57% of the population lives in the rural areas (Republic of Namibia, National Planning Commission [hereafter referred to as NPC], 2015:2). The United Nations Population Fund (2019:19) stated that the global numbers of people living in poverty has declined from the year 2000 to the year 2015. Although this might be the case from a global reporting perspective, the incidence of poverty in Namibia is currently estimated at 28.7% of the population, with more women (32%) than men (26%) being poor (NSA, 2012:5). About 37.4% of the poor live in rural areas, compared to 14.6% in urban areas (NSA, 2012:5). The country is classified as an upper middle income country, with an estimated annual Gross National Income per capita of US\$5 693. A total of 65% of the total population falls within the age category of 15 years and above. Of these, 71% comprises the labour force, with the unemployment rate estimated at 29.6% of the total labour force (NPC, 2015:2). Namibia depends largely on the primary sector which is dominated by mining, agriculture and fishing, followed by the secondary sector comprising manufacturing, construction, and electricity and water. The final sector is the tertiary sector which is dominated by wholesale, retailer trade, hotels and restaurants, transportation and communication, real estate and business services (Namibia University of Science and Technology, 2018). Most of the labour force in Namibia are employed in agriculture and as such the labour force is mostly made up of poor people who mostly survive on subsistence farming with large stock and small stock animals and doing mostly small-scale dryland crop production. As of 2017, agriculture has employed 30% of the workforce (Namibia University of Science and Technology, 2018).

Eradication of poverty has been high in the Namibia national policy formulation and planning process (NPC, 2015:2). Since 1998, the government adopted the Poverty Reduction Strategy and its action plan. In addition, the National Rural Development Policy was adopted in 2012. The central aim of this policy is to promote systematic and coordinated development planning and respond to the plethora of development challenges facing the rural population.

The Hardap region is one of the 14 regions in Namibia, located at the southern part of the country. The Hardap region has a population of 79 705 and is the least densely populated. Sixty percent of the population lives in urban areas and 40% reside in the rural areas (NPC, 2016:24). The poverty rate in the region is at 17% (13 675 people), having declined by 3% between 2001 and 2011 (NPC, 2016:24).

Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap region is one of the poorest constituencies, with a poverty incidence at 25%, followed by Rehoboth Rural Constituency and Mariental Rural Constituency (NPC, 2016:24). The population of the Gibeon Constituency is 12 122, of which 5 833 are females in comparison to 6 289 males. The main sources of income in Gibeon Constituency comes from wages and salaries at 44%, pension at 20%, farming at 18%, cash and remittance at 10%. The main economic activities in the Constituency is agriculture, construction, wholesale, and retail trade, having employed about half of the economically active population (NPC, 2016:23). The people in the community are poor, more than half of the population are not educated and they lack social services in the Constituency (NSA, 2012). Lack of education and lack of access to social services in the Constituency are the major contributing factors to rural poverty (NSA, 2012:5). The census statistic results of Gibeon in terms of sanitation (number of people without toilet facilities) did not change at all in the 10 years between 2001 and 2011 (NPC, 2007: i). The main sources of income (percentage wise) between the interval of the two corresponding years were wages and salaries that were high in both years even though it has slightly decreased with 3%. In 2001, salaries and wages scored 47%, whereas in 2011 it has decreased to 44%. Subsequently, the farming percentage increased with 1% from 18% to 19%; non-farming businesses decreased from 5% to 4% and pension remained the same in both census surveys of 2001 and 2011 with 20% (NSA, 2014:iv).

In all likelihood some of the above profiles have been externally influenced. For instance, with farming there has been a consistent drought since 2015 in the country, and the effect of urban–rural migration as evidence is demonstrated by the remittances sent from urban to rural families (NSA, 2014:iv). Wages and salaries are the predominant sources of income in the Gibeon Constituency. The literacy rate shows significant improvement from 2001 to 2011, yet most Grade 10 and 12 youths cannot speak English well (NSA, 2014:iv). The percentage of students has only increased with 2% in 10 the year period from 2001 to 2011 and the unemployment rate has not really changed. In the 2001 Census, the unemployment rate was at 38% and by the 2011 Census at 37%. This thus far, was the last national census up to now.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The Hardap region is characterised by challenges which make livelihoods difficult. These shortcomings range from remoteness, insecurity of land tenure, unemployment, lack of income, poor health services, safe drinking water and availability of market services (NPC, 2007:ii). Sanitation remains a problem as well as access to electricity to some communities, but

“development efforts will be fruitless if we do not put the poor people on our agenda”, as stated in the Hardap Regional Poverty Profile (NPC, 2007: i). The Hardap Regional Poverty Profile further restated that the main sources of income have been the sales of livestock, old-age pension and to some extent, remittance sent to elderly parents back home by children who work in towns.

The Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap region is one of the poorest constituencies with a poverty incidence at 25%, followed by Rehoboth Rural and Mariental Rural Constituencies (NPC, 2016:24). Abject poverty and inequality still exist in Namibia after 30 years of independence (The Namibian, 2019:7). More than half of the population are not educated and they lack social services (NSA, 2012:5). Gibeon is one of the largest communal areas in the Hardap region. There is only one town (peri-urban) in the constituency of Gibeon. Also, five recognised traditional authorities have been established, both with responsibilities to manage and administer communal land to their respective community. The Gibeon communal area in totality is 769 056 ha of land and is home to approximate 12 000 people, and 79 farms span the region (Republic of Namibia, 2016:41).

This study sought to explore the role of rural development as central in the rural poverty reduction strategy. In this study the Rural Development Centre refer only to those as envisaged in the Namibia Vision 2030 and the National Rural Development Policy 2012. For instance, there are four operational Rural Development Centre in Namibia. The Ben-Hur RDC in Omaheke, Okashana RDC in Oshikoto, Ongwediva RDC in Oshana regions. In Ohangwena region, Eembaxu RDC is almost completed and the one in Hardap is still in the process to be established. The Tsumis Arid Zone Agricultural Centre as well as the Mashare Agricultural Development Institute are not to be compared with the current establishment of the RDC as per the Namibia Vision 2030 and the National Rural Development Policy. Since the Rural Development Centres are in the process to be established and thereafter become operational, this study cannot answer the associated broader question, whether the establishment of Rural Development Centres will contribute to rural poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency. At a later stage, an evaluation should be undertaken once the Rural Development Centre is fully operational to do so.

Rural poverty is a dominant feature of life in Namibia as well as all rural areas of the regions in the entire world (IFAD, 1993:1). It has limited rural people to realise their potential (IFAD, 1993:23). The rural poverty conditions can generate population pressure, breed social and

political conflict, contribute to degradation of the environment, undermine basic human values and erode the status of women and the welfare of the family (IFAD, 1993:23). High inequality between rural and urban areas in terms of accessibility of services is a challenge to rural poverty reduction. Insufficient socio-economic services are contributing to the amelioration of poverty in the rural areas.

1.3 Aim of the study

The aim of this study was *to explore the poverty reduction role of a rural development centre in the Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap region.*

1.4 Objectives of the study

To achieve the aim of the study, the following research objectives were formulated:

1. To determine how the Constituency can contribute to rural poverty reduction in Gibeon.
2. To investigate the contributing factors to rural poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency.
3. To highlight the interventions to reduce poverty in the Gibeon Constituency.
4. To conclude which institutions are involved in rural poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency.
5. To examine the coping mechanisms and livelihood strategies in the Gibeon Constituency?
6. To explore which measures should be put in place to reduce rural poverty in the Gibeon Constituency.
7. To contribute to more consolidated data on rural poverty and poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap region.

1.5 Significance of the study

The National Income and Expenditure Survey of 2009/2010 and the Hardap Regional Poverty Profile of 2005/2006, indicated that the Gibeon Constituency is one of the poorest constituencies in the Hardap region. As mentioned before, Gibeon being the first one, followed by the Mariental and Rehoboth rural constituencies. The given reasons for the Constituency's

poverty is said to be due to lack of basic services and facilities, low literacy level, lack of opportunities for employment particularly among the youth and women, and the community of Gibeon being the largest communal land in the region with a high level of rural characteristics and thus being excluded from the main stream of economies (NPC, 2011:1).

This study aimed to explore and see if the envisaged Gibeon rural development centre will contribute to rural poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency. The findings of the study may be useful to the Gibeon Constituency, the Hardap Regional Council and the ministries offices involved in upliftment programmes of the community's living conditions. The results may be used to design appropriate programmes and projects that are able to address the people's problems and challenges. Strategies that are local and unique to the area may be better, rather than the universal approach which has previously been employed, yet did not improve the conditions of the community for better and "is line with the sustainable development principle of subsidiarity" (Keles, 2003:111-112). The households and families should be given priority to make decisions as far as their well-being is concerned in developmental efforts, for example, a poverty reduction strategy. Institutions from both central government to local government should be empowered with all necessary support to make decisions and fulfil their responsibility in their autonomous capacity.

The National Poverty Reduction Strategy for Namibia of 2004/2005 is argued to be centralised; thus, it should have been decentralised to the regional constituencies and to local government for better implementation and to respond to the issues on the ground (Basson, personal communication, 12 December 2019). The outcome of this study is to represent the voices and perceptions of the poor people and offer guidance or direction on the formulation of policy decisions and development of appropriate rural poverty reduction strategies at both levels of planning.

1.6 Conceptual framework

A number of factors have been identified as causes of rural poverty in Gibeon Constituency. These factors include the lack of basic services (schools, primary health care), provisions and availability of safety nets, market services and road networks (transportation), extension services, appropriate technology and effective rural poverty reduction strategies. A rural development centre is envisaged to contribute or help to reduce the challenging effects of rural poverty. The study is exploratory in nature whereby the focus is opinions, perceptions and

understanding of the phenomenon of rural poverty from the people who live and experience it every day of their lives.

1.7 Scope of the study

The study focused on the Gibeon Constituency and its entire community. The rural development centre is expected to be constructed in the Gibeon Constituency. The rationale is to see to it that the living conditions of the people of Gibeon improve for better once these kind of services are brought closer to them. In fact, the rural development centre is a designed intervention to be a business hub for the region and to serve the people of the region as a whole. However, the scope of the study is limited to the Gibeon Constituency only. The assumption is that, by bringing services closer to the people in Gibeon Constituency, their livelihoods will be at least be improved by the availability of the services and the opportunities the services will offer. The sample is considered representative enough of the community residing in the Gibeon community.

1.8 Limitation of the study

The following limitations were experienced:

- To match and translate lay knowledge into the world of science and scientific research was a difficult task for a first-time researcher. As narrated by Mouton, it is almost impossible to produce scientific results that are infallible and ‘absolutely’ true for all times and contexts (Mouton, 2001:138). One has to rely on the responses given by the research participants (respondents) in the field. It was also not easy to determine honesty apart from observation and individual expression which compel a researcher to write down what is spoken out, irrespective of the epistemology.
- Not much research has been done on the subject of rural poverty in Gibeon Constituency. As such, the selected literature was universal and not location-based or specific to the country of Namibia but was still relevant enough to give a theoretical background on the subject.
- The Gibeon Constituency is remote, the poor road network made it difficult to access all places and locations with a sedan-type vehicle, and because fieldwork was conducted during the November/December rainy season, places such as Amperbo, Klein Heimat, and Heimat post could not be reached.

- There is a probability that idiomatic nuance, meaning and relevance might have been missed through translation or omitted due to translation. The research respondents could not speak English but are comfortable in Afrikaans and Nama (Khoekhoegowab). The researcher's efforts to conduct the fieldwork in the community had to rely on the help of an interpreter.

1.9 Structure of the study

The first chapter begun by giving an introduction and background of the study. A conceptual or theoretical framework has been outlined and the rest of the chapters are organised as follows.

Chapter 2 presents the literature review of prior studies on rural poverty and reduction strategies. The chapter also looked at the role of a rural development centre as anticipated to mitigate the rural poverty in the constituency of Gibeon.

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology that was used to undertake this research. It describes the population of the study, sampling methods, interviewing tools as well the way and methods the data was presented and analysed.

Chapter 4 presents the analysed data and discussion of the findings.

Chapter 5 outlines the conclusions of the study and recommendations for future study.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the literature on rural poverty, the programmes and strategies to reduce rural poverty, and rural poverty reduction approaches. Also, how the role of the rural development centres can contribute to the reduction of poverty in the rural areas of Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap region once established.

2.2 Theoretical framework of rural poverty and rural poverty reduction

2.2.1 Poverty in general terms

2.2.1.1 Definition of poverty

Poverty is multidimensional. It means different things to different people, gender, age and class (Narayan, Patel, Schafft, Rademacher & Koch-Schulte, 1999:31). According to Narayan (1999:31), poverty refers to a lack of that what is necessary to make a living. It entails materials for well-being such as food, housing, land and other assets, implying lack of multiple resources that lead to hunger and physical deprivation. When an individual or family/household is poor, they are subjected to exploitation because they do not have the right of choice or freedom – they are powerless, voiceless, and vulnerable to humiliation and rudeness (Narayan et al., 1999:31).

Fields (1994:1) viewed poverty as the inability of an individual or family to command enough resources to meet their basic needs. Bradshaw (2006:4) viewed poverty as lack of necessity, relating poverty to the basic needs a human being must have in order to survive or make a living such as basic food, shelter, land, safety and medical care. Abebe and Quaicoe (2014:112) referred to the fact that poverty is not just lack of income but is more than economic status, which goes beyond educational attainment and inequality in society.

According to Rank (2011:1), the *Individual Explanation of Poverty* means that people are poor because they choose to be poor by lacking motivation and not working hard enough, whereas, the *Structural Poverty Explanation* means that people are poor because they are living in a

society that is unequal, confronted by high inequality, lacking opportunity both in terms of employment opportunities and job provisions.

Kabuya (2015:79) defined poverty with a multidimensional meaning: it does not only constitute lack of material necessity but equally the manner in which decisions are made by those who make them. In this definition, the issues of participation in decision-making processes, when lacking, especially to poor people, contributes to poverty just like a lack of income where there is no employment opportunities. The poor people are characterised by social exclusion, living mostly in remote rural areas, are less educated, have fewer assets and have less access to markets (Von Braun & Gatzweiler, 2014:86).

2.2.1.2 Types of poverty

Now that a basic understanding of what poverty is has been established in the previous section by different scholars in the literature, it is worth examining the types of poverty that prevail, how are they are linked or related to the individual, family or community. According to Kabuya (2015:79), poverty can be categorised into four types: absolute poverty, relative poverty, chronic or generational poverty, and transient poverty.

Absolute poverty refers to lack of all basic needs, such as water, land, shelter, food, choice, clothing, sanitation services, and adequate health care. *Relative poverty* is in relation to other individuals or families in a given society (Kabuya, 2015:78-79). Relative poverty happens in terms of ownership of property and assets, household expenditures, family budgets, animals, land for farming and food production, and may be educational attainment. The *generational or chronic poverty* is referred to when an individual or family inherited poverty from the generation before them and continues living in such chronic poverty. There is no opportunity and means to get out of such poverty. *Transient poverty* occurs as a result of events or circumstances (Kabuya, 2015:79). For instance, a breadwinner lose job or passes on, and there is nobody else to support the household or family. Transient poverty is understood to be temporary, though sometimes it becomes permanent. Should the opportunity be secured, people can work harder to make a living and get out of poverty, If there is no opportunity, people may live permanently in poverty and die in poverty.

2.2.1.3 Causes of poverty

In order for appropriate strategies to be designed to curb or reduce poverty, poverty being multidimensional, one needs to understand what the causes of poverty are. Bradshaw (2005:5-

15) discussed the causes of poverty in a series on the theory of poverty and anti-poverty programmes in community development. For Bradshaw, poverty is caused by individual deficiencies, cultural belief systems that support the subculture in poverty, economic, political, and social distortion or discrimination, geographical disparity and poverty caused by cumulative and cyclical interdependence. For this study, the focus will be on poverty caused by geographical disparities, intertwined with factors such as education, lack of socio-economic services, and assets.

2.2.2 Poverty measurement

Any government, non-governmental organisation (NGO), civil society or international body who attempts to reduce or alleviate poverty without a fair measurement of understanding of who are the extreme poor, where they are located, how deep their poverty is, what it means to them and how such poverty can be dealt with, is likely to fail (Olinto, Beegle, Sabrodo & Uematson, 2013:2).

As poverty is a multidimensional issue, single solutions are not viable; it requires a multi-dimensional approach. From an economist point of view, in most literature, poverty has been measured by income, for which Abebe and Quaicoe (2014:112-118) believed it is not wrong, but very inadequate. Abebe and Quaicoe (2014:112) supported the shift from a one-dimensional approach to a multidimensional approach in measuring poverty. These measurements entail the gross national product and human development index. The poverty nexus shows that knowledge of where the poor live, how severe their poverty is, and other characteristics is critical for designing policies to meet their needs and improve their welfare (Von Braun & Gatzweiler, 2014:63).

In the United Kingdom, poverty is measured using indicators such as lived experience, drivers of future poverty, and what is likely to cause poverty but not in terms of social mobility, income inequalities or wider measures of economic well-being, but in terms of lived experience and future drivers of poverty (Social Metrix Commission, 2019:11).

A recent study conducted by the International Women's Day Agency in Australia, titled "Exploring Multi-Dimensional Poverty in Fiji", measured poverty using individual deprivation measures (Fisk & Crawford, 2017:1). The measure was done at individual level and in relation to social deprivation, intersectionality, multidimensional, inequality, gender and household inside matter. Fisk and Crawford (2017:127) showed that poverty may not be measured only

in materials but is also relational. To measure individual poverty would be inadequate because one need to take into account not only estimation of intra-household resources allocation, but inclusive of needs among individuals living in that particular household, size and within.

The United Nations Development Programme and the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative measured poverty using a multidimensional poverty index (Lehohla, 2019:18). The multidimensional poverty index is conducted in three dimensions of poverty: health, education and living standards. The *health dimension* constitutes of nutrition and child mortality; *education* constitutes school attendance; and the *living standard* dimension constitutes cooking oil, sanitation, drinking water, electricity, housing and assets (Lehohla, 2019:18). The merits of the multidimensional poverty index, above other poverty measurement tools is that monetary-based poverty measures can miss a lot of relevant information. Secondly, economic growth does not always reduce poverty or deprivation, because people describe their experience of poverty as multidimensional. Other applicable methods to measure poverty for other given purposes can be the Alkire-Foster method (Conconi, 2015:27-32). This method is evidence-based and relevant for policymakers in designing and addressing poverty reduction strategies.

The appropriate way to measure poverty can be through poverty head counts (Fields, 1994:87). However, there are some shortcomings with the poverty headcount measurement because poverty headcount does not articulate the intensity of poverty for individuals or a family or of households. The World Bank Group (2017:111-112) measures poverty using the International Poverty Line. The World Bank has shifted from using the Human Development Index to measure poverty to multidimensional poverty due to the fact that poverty is multidimensional and as such it reflects multiple deprivation. The International Poverty Line and multi-dimensional poverty measure is being included in poverty measurement and it does go beyond consumption and or income.

In Namibia, poverty is measured every five years by the NSA with the poverty line of cost of basic needs through the Namibia Household Income Expenditure Survey (Schmidt, 2009:4).

2.2.3 Rural poverty

Poverty in rural areas is caused and perpetuated by a lack of assets (land and water), lack of socio-economic services, lack of road infrastructure, market opportunities, agricultural extension services and access to credit. The IFAD (2001: v) stated that rural poverty is a result

of lacking land and other assets because of bias and uneven distributions of resources, particularly in terms of institutions and of centuries of inequality with regard to accessing education, food nutrition, health care and other economic opportunities (IFAD, 2001:ii-vii).

The FAO argued that there is a huge gap between urban poverty and rural poverty and showed that 80% of the world population lives in extreme poverty in the rural areas as compared to urban areas (De la O Campos, Vilani, Davis & Tekagi, 2018:viii). On the one hand, poverty in the rural areas is because of dependency on agricultural activities for food production and security, income and employment. On the other hand, the dependency on agriculture makes the rural people vulnerable to climatic shocks and weather events, particularly the youth, elderly people, women, disabled people, minority groups and marginalised people who are the most at risk because of dependency (De la O Campos et al., 2018:viii). Investment opportunities in infrastructure services hardly reach the rural areas and lack of social protection, lack of basic services and public expenditure pushes the rural people into extreme poverty (Von Braun & Gatzweiler, 2014:11). Poverty is predominant in the rural areas because of inadequate education, fewer assets, and insufficient market opportunities, and much of the budget in the rural household is spent on food in relation to other expenditures (Ahmed, Hill & Naeem, 2014:86).

Clover (2003:14) mentioned that, according to the World Food Security and World Food Programme, 38 million people in Africa face an imminent threat of their peace, security and stability. This is a situation which has emanated from the effect of rural poverty. It is a common sense that whenever there is hunger and famine, certainly there will be no peace and stability, and the security of the people is at risk (Clover, 2003:14). The poorer households spend a relatively high budget on food in relation to other expenditure. The majority of the poor households that are food insecure are located in deep remoteness, far away from access to services such as roads, markets, schools, and health services in the rural areas, and the sources of living are primarily agriculture (Olinto et al., 2013:5). Children, particularly between birth and 12 years old, are considered as being the age group in the world history that are affected the most by poverty (Olinto et al., 2013:5). The children in the rural areas lack basic services, are susceptible to climatic shocks, lack assets and resource endowment. Apart from children, there are elderly people, and youth and people living with disabilities (De la O Campos et al., 2018:viii; Olinto et al., 2013:2; Von Braun & Gatzweiler, 2014:13,86; Yu, 2013:315). These kinds of conditions have placed African countries to be the all-time food aid and humanitarian aid recipients (Clover, 2003:14).

A study conducted by the Overseas Development Institute in the sub-Saharan region highlighted two main components as principle drivers and the maintainer of poverty. One is the socio-economic factor and the second is the political factor (Handley, Higgins, Sharma, Bird & Cammack, 2009:vi). Sub-Saharan Africa is one of a number of regions in the world with high inequality, and South Africa and Namibia takes up the first and second positions there (Handley et al., 2009:172).

Sub-Saharan Africa continues to occupy the top rank of poverty in the world because the majority of its people are living in rural areas (World Bank, 2007:1). Rural poverty is caused by a lack of economic, social, political and environmental assets and resources (Wilson, Kanji, & Braathen, 2001:4). These lacking components are in some instances influenced by colonial repercussions, urban–rural migration (migrant labour), like in the case where mine workers from Lesotho and Namibia migrate to South Africa for better job opportunities. Furthermore, the element of the state’s inability to direct development and misuse of financial resources into less prioritised developmental projects threatens the neediest developmental projects.

The rural areas in Namibia are confronted by multiple deprivation. These include deprivation in terms of materials, education, employment, health and living environments. The pockets of deprivation are mostly in rural areas (NPC, 2015:4). The Hardap region and the Kavango East and West regions are the most affected by poverty, and have not changed since the National Household Income and Expenditure Survey of 1993/1994 and the 2003/2004 up to the last 2009/2010. In the Hardap region is the Gibeon Constituency, followed by the Mariental Constituency and the Rehoboth Rural Constituency which is the poorest.

2.2.3.1 Assets (*land and water*)

Land can serve as means of employment creation, sources of food security, a source of income, and a requirement for people to start up farming activities (Goemans, 2014:20). It is extremely difficult for young men to own land and the difficulty is multiplied when it comes to young women because one can usually only acquire land through inheritance (Goemans, 2014a:20). One of the reasons why rural poverty is high is because of access to land. Land can usually only be owned by the old people, as well as those who are married and have been given a portion of land by the father or through inheritance once a father passed on. Land is often considered as an adult privilege (Goemans, 2014:20). The access of rights to land have a large bearing on the livelihoods and security of people in both rural and urban areas (FAO, 2002:1). Land is an important backbone for food production and on which shelters can be constructed.

When land and other related natural resources such as water are not carefully handled and access is provided, it may lead to inequalities in any given society (FAO, 2002:1).

Quan (2006:ii) stressed that access to natural resources is vital for sustainable poverty reduction. Natural resources are not only limited to land but it include forests, water, fisheries, and pastures which are the sources of rural people's livelihoods (Quan, 2006:ii). Without access to these natural resources, life will be difficult, vulnerable and expensive (Quan, 2006:3). Access to land creates more chances of food security, household's nutritional well-being, and resistance to natural and man-made elements (Quan, 2006:3).

Lack of safe drinking water and sanitation is another factor breeding poverty in the rural areas. The majority of rural dwellers do not have access to clean drinking water and basic sanitation services (WWAP, UNESCO World Water Assessment Programme, 2019:108). The burden of spending time fetching or collecting water is much felt by women and their daughters. Water scarcity is a major problem due to the fact that the rural people depend on agricultural productivities and equally the smallholder farms depend on rain-fed agriculture for food production, employment creation, wages and natural resources (WWAP, UNESCO World Water Assessment Programme, 2019:107).

Namibia's economy pre-and post-independence is agrarian. Land ownership in Namibia is still a pressing issue of national concern. Land is owned by private farmers on freehold, which constitute 75% of land in the Hardap region of which only 10% is managed by the traditional authorities and small-scale farmers who live alongside their dependents (Hardap Regional Council, 2008:i-ii). The food security has been affected by the unequal distribution of land (natural resources). This has made livelihoods very difficult, especially for the communal farmers and their dependents. Land parcels cannot exceed 20 ha of land according to the Communal Land Reform Act, Act 5 of 2000, except that written application may be made to the Minister of Land Reform. The land under the traditional authorities has resulted in the subdivision of land into very small holdings which limits the production from the land for one to produce beyond subsistence and sell any surpluses (Onyeiwu & Liu, 2011:4). Rural areas are the primary sources of food production and supposedly the backbone to food security (Niebel, 2010:4). One cannot expect economic growth if there is insufficient land for food production. Food security is defined to be when all people at all times have access to sufficient, safe, nutritious food to maintain a healthy and active lifestyle (Watson, 2013:2).

Financial and credit facilities may not be viewed as optional to rural economy but functional instruments to fight rural poverty (Niebel, 2010:2). It is evident and within acceptable norms that microcredit has significant impacts on individual's needs. It does help in expanding diversifying rural livelihoods, particularly the farmers, traders and service providers. It enhances people's opportunities to make savings from their diversification which they can spend on other social needs.

One way to increase livelihood coping strategies is through diversification. Diversification refers to both combined assets possessed by an individual household and activities undertaken to earn a living (Martin & Lorenzen, 2016:232). Households are supposed to have multiple adaptation strategies to increase opportunities of income generation and coping strategies to survive in the rural areas where poverty cases are high. However, it is not the case in Romania since the rural economy still depends entirely on farm activities (Camelia & Vasile, 2014:180).

Rural poverty results in food shortages and deprivation conditions whereby the rural populations do not have access to social welfare services such as health, education, security services, sport and recreation, safety nets and support to agriculture and economic development (Republic of Namibia, 2012:16-22). This kind of deprivation is perpetuated by lack of assets, market participation, sources of income and geographical location. Poverty is viewed as a complex issue and the way to deal with it is by breaking the effect and causes of poverty down into small, more manageable problems. It is argued that poverty cannot be solved only by economists, politicians, religions or professionals without the poor themselves, most of whom live in rural areas (Kabuya, 2015:78). It is asserted that the perpetuation of poverty in sub-Saharan Africa is a mismatch between where growth is occurring and where the poor are situated in the continent (Kabuya, 2015:78). The main reason why rural poverty continues is because of the exclusion of the rural poor from the mainstream economies (NPC, 2011:4).

2.2.3.2 Rural safety nets

Rural safety net services are supposed to be designed interventions to respond or mitigate the effects of undesirable conditions of the people in the rural areas. The social protection systems are important as means to offer a helping hand to the less fortunate or marginalised members of the society (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013:14; Dempers, 2016:12). Social protection worldwide is considered as a helping tool to mitigate the lives of the poor from extreme poverty-stricken households and families. It is meant to alleviate the situation of the poor, vulnerability to cope with risk and overcome deprivation. It can be both a cash and in-kind

transfer. Social protection varies and can be found in many forms. Often, the social protection targets both men and women, orphans, people with disabilities, the elderly (pensioners), widows and marginalised groups as well as indigenous people. According to the Independent Evaluation Group (2011:1), the social safety net objectives are to:

- reduce chronic poverty and inequality;
- encourage more and better human capital investments among the poor to provide an opportunity to exit poverty;
- enable the poor to manage risk from individual shocks;
- enable the poor to manage risk from systematic shocks;
- protect the poor, if necessary, during broader economic reform.

What should be noted during the design and provision of the social safety nets is the relevance to the targeted population, the efficacy to ensure that the project's objectives are achieved, and the efficiency by ensuring that those objectives are indeed achievable (Independent Evaluation Group, 2011:1).

It is a country's constitutional responsibility to develop legislation and policies that are anti-discriminatory, inclusive to empower the people of all races (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013:14). Policies that can tackle the issues of inequalities, social exclusion and adverse incorporation for all to benefit from public expenditure, like everybody else, access good quality services, economic opportunities and democratic rights.

A study conducted by the World Bank on social safety nets has shown that social safety nets have desirable effects on a household's consumption and poverty, whereas evidence from countries where social safety nets have been practiced have demonstrated impressive results (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013:13-15). Cash transfer has led to improved health status, local economic growth, reduced child mortality, reduced malnutrition and diarrhoea (Widerquist, 2013:63). The in-kind benefit reveals negative effects in terms of the demand for local products. People developed the tendency not to produce any local products but rather survive from handouts (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013:32). However, overall the social safety net is helpful in boosting family abilities and capacities to have food, send children to school, and to pay for medical bills. Increase food consumption as well improved the growth of children (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013:13). The uncertainty remains that even the provisions of social safety nets and protection in the wealthy states has not eliminated poverty but only reduced it (Widerquist, 2013:55-56).

The findings from an evaluation study conducted in Indonesia by Sumarto, Suryahadi and Widyanti (2004:25), the area of food security, employment creation, education, health and community empowerment revealed only the food security area where significant improvement was recorded. The subsidisation of food price has contributed to the household's ability of reducing chronic poverty through malnutrition. The rest of the social safety net area did not have tangible results. Other identified social safety nets that include land reform programmes, agricultural research, microcredits to the rural farmers and educational subsidy have had a positive impact on social protection in developing countries (Devereux, 2001:516). Another form of social safety net is social pensions. These universal social pensions in Africa are only found in small countries with income inequality, such as Botswana and Namibia, and not in large countries with predominantly poor populations such as Ethiopia and Sudan (Devereux, 2001:516). In Namibia, in particular, the available social protections schemes range from contributory schemes and non-contributory schemes (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013:14). The contributory schemes include maternity and sick leave; pension and medical aid fund; private pension fund; employee's compensation fund; death, disability and retirement benefits; development fund and the government institution pension fund. The non-contributory schemes entails old-age pension; disability grants; funeral benefits; foster parent allowances; food or cash for work; health and education; place of safety allowance; special maintenance; veteran subventions; motor vehicle funds and the Targeted Intervention Programme for Employment and Economic Growth (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013:14).

2.2.3.3 Markets and road networks

Markets for rural products are a prerequisite in reducing rural poverty. It is through markets that rural populations will have an opportunity to trade the goods and services produced from their smallholder farms. Accessibility and proximity to markets need to be sustainable for rural people to make business and improve local economic development to create an opportunity for supply and demands, and for consumers to meet and trade. Through the trading process, income can be generated, farm inputs and farm services can be acquired and agricultural outputs meet the buyer (Giuliani & Valle, 2014c:64). However, the problem is that financial service providers do not want to invest or finance projects in the rural areas due to the high risk associated with agricultural unique characteristics (Graf & Valle, 2014b:34). The characteristics depend on natural resources and seasonality, long production cycles, and vulnerability to variable weather conditions (Graf & Valle, 2014b:34).

According to ReCAP (2016:2), the markets are located quite a distance from rural areas with 45% in low-income countries. In Ethiopia, a study carried out on the impact of improved rural access on employment and poverty revealed that poverty incidences were reduced with 6.7% with an increased consumption growth of 16% (ReCAP, 2016:2). The partnership on sustainable low carbon transport, in a fact sheet titled “Rural Access to Market and Essential Services”, hold the views that rural poverty is caused by isolation (ReCAP, 2016:1). The rural areas are isolated from access to market, difficult travelling, and cannot be reached by any services (ReCAP, 2016). It is challenging to move goods and services in and out of those areas, with the process not being affordable and the access to all-season roads that contributes rural poverty (ReCAP, 2016). Road networks are poor in the rural areas. In most cases, the road networks are unpaved, narrow, single lane and with low numbers of vehicles per day – less than 200 vehicles (ReCAP, 2016:3). Road travel is often difficult and not comfortable due to the lack of earth road and track maintenance, where deterioration makes transportation costly.

When rural communities are engaged through markets, they can create employment and generate income through exchanging goods and services. The key resource the rural population possesses is labour, though in the twenty-first century its availability has started deteriorating because of the high rate of urban–rural migration (Page & Shimeles, 2015:20). For poverty to be reduced in the rural areas, the focus should be placed on support to create employment, and secondly, to create tangible investment in agricultural programmes which must be accessible and affordable to the rural communities (Page & Shimeles, 2015:20). Without accessibility and affordability to rural conducive markets, investment of any nature will be meaningless (Page & Shimeles, 2015:28). The provision of road construction and networks is very essential in the rural areas.

2.2.3.4 Extension services and appropriate technology

The rural dwellers, small-scale farmers, family farmers, peasants alone in the rural areas cannot survive and remain productive with the challenges of fast-changing technologies and the effect of climate change without the support of agricultural extension services. There should be consistent support to provide training to the farmers, advising on how best to make economic decisions, identify new and appropriate technologies, share and disseminate information, and design, formulate and adapt plans for the farmers and rural households, transfer of knowledge and educate in order for rural farmers to clarify their own goals and possibilities and to stimulate desirable agricultural development in their rural areas (Anderson & Feder, 2003:2).

Before the introduction of the Training and Visit Extension in the mid-1970s, there was a void in public extension services (Swanson & Samy, 2002:5). Swanson and Samy (2002:5) further posited that such void could only be solved when public, private and the NGOs are strengthened to provide technology transfer, human resources training and well-designed social capital development interventions. The private sector firms and NGOs seem to have the capacity and resources to facilitate the research and development activities. Public sectors alone are not enough (Swason & Samy, 2002:55). This innovative approach to extension services emphasised that the process and provision of the extension services should be participatory, inclusive and accommodating, for instance the farmer's participation in diagnosis, testing and dissemination, farmer to farmer dissemination, paraprofessional extensionist, extension through non-governmental intermediaries and innovative use of the media (Farrington, 1994:3-4).

Extension services and appropriate technologies refer to an entity which offers training, education, disseminate information, technology transfer, facilitation, advisory services and information services to private and public sector on the development of sound strategies and policies necessary to agricultural and rural development (Rivera & Qamar, 2003:7).

Davis and Terblanche (2016:23) felt that extension services should be unique and be context-specific to where it is to be implemented or provided. The one-size-fits-all approach may not be relevant due to the uniqueness of localities. The study by Davis and Terblanche (2016:246) revealed that education (particularly higher education) should train students pursuing a degree in agriculture in order to acquire the relevant skills, competencies and qualifications in extension and advisory services.

The establishment of information centres for information sharing, dissemination, learning, education for the illiterate smallholders and farmers, non-agricultural activities, nutrition, health and micro-enterprise development be designed in a manner to accommodate non-formal literate smallholder farmers. In other words, such centres should be customised to the specification of the desired and targeted groups or recipients (Davis & Terblanche, 2016:246).

Anderson and Feder (2003:2) contended that the overall goal of extension services are more prominent to rural areas, including both smallholder family farms and commercial farmers, to disseminate information, transfer knowledge from research academics, experts in the field and in the subjects, give advice to farmers to make informed and appropriate decisions, educate farmers and guide farmer to achieve their targeted farming goals and possibilities to hopefully

become successful and self-reliant agriculturalists in their environment of agricultural development (Anderson & Feder, 2003:2).

The FAO / World Bank referred to agricultural extension services as agricultural knowledge information systems and rural development, whereas the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development meant it to be agricultural information system (Rivera & Qamar, 2001:9). The agricultural knowledge information system and rural development is inclusive of bringing together agriculturalist educators, researchers and extensionist experts, knowledge and information to improve farming, both livestock rearing and crop production, to improve the livelihoods of the farmers (Rivera & Qamar, 2001:8). The need exists for flow of information, regular and continuous interaction between the farmers, agricultural educators, researchers and extensionists to basically improve farming practices in a sustainable manner. For this to be effective, there is a need for government to facilitate the process and deliver these advisory services and information dissemination to the rural areas.

A study conducted by the Africa Extension Reform Group in Africa (Agunga, 2017:59) concluded that extension agents must be well trained to be able to be effective and offer advice and assistance for coping with challenging development programmes. Such education and training should be done at tertiary level to equip the field base and ensure effective facilitation on rural development across the sector.

2.2.4 Rural poverty reduction strategies

In Vietnam, the government succeeded by reducing rural poverty first by reformation. The reformation entails revising the law related to access to land rights, freedom to make and operate businesses within limited state interventions (Ouyen, 2019:1). In another strategy used by the Vietnam government, they strengthened and improved labour productivity, developed and invested in infrastructures which, in turn, provided more employment opportunities (Ouyen, 2019:1). For Ouyen (2019:6), rural development policies and programmes should target poor households more intensively by addressing issues of land management, user rights, provision for micro-finance in the rural areas and secure subsistence.

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2019) pointed out that the effective way to reduce rural poverty is by having effective and committed political leadership to implement the policies that address the social exclusion and inequality to resources in the country, with sound mechanisms to monitor and evaluate those policies. The leadership must

be able to learn from the monitoring, evaluation and learning to improve for the better. Without agriculture, food security and land rights it will be difficult to achieve the Sustainable Development Goal 1, which is to eradicate poverty in all its forms (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2019:6).

The participatory planning approach is viewed as a powerful tool that will help to capacitate the rural stakeholders (youth, smallholder farmers and families, and rural work groups) through direct involvement and doing. The rural people, if empowered, can articulate their needs and aspiration, make decisions and own those decisions.

The Structural Adjustment Programme and Poverty Reduction Strategy introduced by the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank as strategies by the 1980s to reduce poverty has not achieved the intended results. However, the aid programmes have just improved the income growth, yet poverty and other deprivation is still on the rise (Handley et al., 2009:10). The Structural Adjustment Programme has been criticised that it is anti-poor (Handley et al., 2009:10). The Poverty Reduction Strategy during its implementation has been recorded with good success in some of the sub-Saharan African countries, namely in Burkina Faso and Uganda. Although the Poverty Reduction Strategy had worked in the reduction of rural poverty, the African political dynamic was not in its favour and thus could not be sustained (Handley et al., 2009). In the same light, the objective of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals to half poverty by the end of 2015, could not be achieved even by the countries which are well-governed in the continent of Africa (Handley et al., 2009:13). Part of the reason why countries did not achieve the objectives of the seven Millennium Development Goals is because of the cross-cutting issues of global concern such as conflict, climate change, human rights and inequalities that were not addressed (United Nations, 2015:8-9).

2.2.5 Pro-poor growth

It is shown globally that economic growth and improved productivity are critical for poverty reduction. Although this might contribute to reduction of poverty, it is not enough. The environment needs to be conducive so that poorer people are able to participate in, through agriculture, market demand-driven rural development and trade to enhance possibilities and opportunities to reduce rural poverty (Braunholtz-Speight, 2007:3).

Rural poverty continues to be a pressing and threatening issue in the rural areas of the developing world (Olinto et al., 2013:1-2). Most of the African countries such as Tanzania,

Kenya, Uganda and Malawi have adopted poverty reduction strategy papers to address poverty, its causes and effects in their respective countries. However, rural poverty continues to increase due to disparities between where growth is occurring and the location of the poor (Kabuya, 2015:78). The rural poverty strategy programmes hardly address the real problem rural people are experiencing or going through. The strategies deployed, often seem to be universal to rural poverty reduction than specific to the unique rural context (Ellis & Freeman, 2004:4). Empowering the rural poor to take part in the decision-making that affects their living conditions is among the solutions that all actors in poverty reduction interventions should enforce. The rural poor should be empowered in all aspects and should have a voice to speak on their own behalf to influence decision-making that mostly have to do with domestic investment, allocation of resources, internal and external assistance earmarked for them in their rural setup (Ellis & Biggs, 2001:443). Poverty can be reduced through designing interventions that address the constraints which affect people at their living places and through their surviving means (IFAD, 2001:vi).

The IFAD (2001:v) further stated that ending hunger and poverty should begin with enhancing women's access to social and economic services and decision-making. Women and children-headed households are more vulnerable to the effect of poverty. They lack access to assets such as water, land, and appropriate technology to improve agricultural production (IFAD, 2001:v). Another critical component is land reform and land redistribution in sub-Saharan Africa. Land reform and redistribution is essential if there is to be a major reduction in poverty. Access to credit, savings, and markets is equally critical in rural areas (IFAD, 2001:vii). There is no doubt that agriculture and rural development is a source of poverty reduction in the rural areas (Abebe & Quaiocoe, 2014:118; Bradshaw, 2016:4; Clover, 2003:14; Kabuya, 2015:78). It is up to all players to strengthen linkages to market opportunities in the rural areas, make provision and access to external and internal inputs, offer extension services to smallholder farmers, create better road infrastructure for transportation to market centres (Abebe & Quaiocoe, 2014:118; Bradshaw, 2006:4; Clover, 2003:14; Kabuya, 2015:78). Most, if not all, African countries' economies depend primarily on agriculture as main sources of income (Abebe & Quaiocoe, 2014:118; Bradshaw, 2006:4).

In order to ameliorate poverty in the rural areas within the pro-poor approach, certain requirements need to be met. These requirements are water and land. Water and land need to be readily available and accessible to the rural dwellers (Van den Broeck & Maertens, 2017:99). Secondly, there should be graduation of households in terms of activities from small-

scale into large-scale agriculture in relation to income and production. The evidence of graduation of small-scale into large-scale agriculture has been demonstrated in Tanzania. Agricultural transformation has boasted rural development by reducing the level of rural poverty in the rural areas of Tanzania. Page and Shimeles (2015:28) held the view that agricultural transformation can be effective when both entities such as public and private investors are both on the course of transformation. Both entities should be willing and be available to invest in the transformation. Apart from both combined private and public sector investors in rural development, the involvement of NGOs have been recognised in Nigeria to be very significant when it comes to poverty reduction in the rural areas. Agba, Akpanudoedehe and Ocheni (2014:11) held the view that NGOs in Nigeria has led to rural development and rural poverty reduction. Government institutions and NGOs should complement each other. The plans and programmes of NGOs should be aligned to the government programmes. The duplication of efforts, functions and waste of resources should be avoided at all cost (Agba et al., 2014:10). The World Bank (2013:2) reported that since the last decade the reduction of poverty in the rural areas has been slow, and rural people continues to live in rural poverty. A lot still needs to happen in order to implement effective poverty reduction instruments at both international, national, regional and local level to end extreme poverty in the world.

2.3 Rural development

Rural development refers to interventions collectively taken by the stakeholders such as the public sector, private sector and international agencies to make living conditions better in rural areas (Heyer, Roberts & Williams, 1981:1). These collective efforts can take place in many forms. The intervention can happen in the form of credit programmes, irrigation schemes, farm settlements, extension services, marketing and cooperatives (Heyer et al., 1981:1). The main idea about rural development is to have strategies that focus on defining activities such as agricultural activities, employment wages, farm labour and small-scale enterprises, including all resources used and activities undertaken to make a living in the rural areas (Scoones, 2009:172). Rural development should not be seen as a mere process but as a means whereby the individual rural dwellers are empowered and capacitated through resources and allocation of material.

The rural people should take stock of their priorities pertaining to their well-being and livelihoods. Such empowerment can only be achieved when planning and implementation of programmes and projects switch from a top-down to a bottom-up approach (Ellis & Biggs,

2001:444). The participatory planning approach in rural development (Chambers, 2013:117) has been an effective tool. It has empowered the rural community to make their voice heard. The poor can articulate issues pertaining to their well-being and development (Chambers, 2013:112). Sen, (1976:219-231); Clark (2005:4) complemented the participatory planning approach with the capability approach. Because the capability approach focuses more on individual liberties which is like participatory planning whereby individuals should propose and make changes for their own well-being. Both approaches deal with the well-being of the rural people in the improvement of their living conditions. The rural people understand their issues better than anyone else and can address issues more than outsiders (Chambers, 2013:105).

Ellis and Biggs (2001:438), in their study of rural development evolution, supported the concept of a rural development centre. In case of Tanzania, it was discovered that agriculture is not the only driver or solution to rural poverty. But community-based tourism has started making waves in Namibia as well South Africa. The fact that agriculture is not the only solution to rural poverty was derived from the fact that agriculture has been driven by large-scale farmers in Tanzania who are not necessarily poor (Pauw & Thurlow, 2011:796-804). The majority of the poor are those that are farming at small-scale and subsistence farming. In as much as the discussion is about rural development, other elements of rural transformation should be critically examined as well. Rural transformation is a prerequisite for rural development. It involves expansions of agricultural productivity, commercialisation and diversification of production patterns and livelihoods within the agricultural sector and the rural non-farming sector (IFAD, 2016:18).

Rural development is an engine for creating space within which the creation of employment opportunities are made for households to make and earn income, access to resources allocation and reducing poverty, access to basic needs such as food security, education and health (Dethier & Effenberger, 2012:14). Such opportunities should be made available by combining both agricultural development and rural development. In these instances, the roles and importance of the institutions should be defined so that all institutions can contribute fairly to the course of development. Dethier and Effenberger (2012:4) indicated that most of the rural poverty reduction strategies designed, such as community-based rural development and community development, have not been successful. In some areas the elites prevented the programmes to reach the poor, the resources given were not enough and the influences of power dynamics discouraged the donor communities. As a result, the goals to achieve the programmes and

strategies shifted to integrated rural development by donors such as the International Development Association, the World Bank and the United Nations Agency for International Development (known as USAID) (Dethier & Effenberger, 2012:16).

In some literature, rural development centres are equated to rural service centres and rural service systems (Robinson, 2005:360). While rural development centres have been in existence in Namibia since shortly after independence, the new initiative of the concept is in its early stages. The concepts have been developed and implemented in KwaNgwazane Village in Mozambique, as well in Kwazulu-Natal in South Africa. However, the implementation of these centres have not yielded good results because it was done without proper planning, implementation and an action plan, as well as lack of budgetary commitment from responsible institutions (Robinson, 2005:364). These centres were implemented on an ad hoc basis and not enough lessons were learnt from the pilot study of first implementation (Robinson, 2005:366). The rural development centres are very powerful instruments for rural economic growth; however, there should be an understanding of market forces and dynamics in support for rural development centre initiatives (Robinson, 2005:367). Perhaps, it may be of less significance to emphasise rural development when there are no rural development centres for which rural dwellers can trade and exchange rural products. Thus, rural development should be beneficial to rural communities when it does help to improve their living conditions and providing social services to the rural poor (Anriquez & Stamoulis, 2007:8).

The rural development centres in the Namibian context are designed to serve as a regional development economic hub for the regions (Ministry of Regional, Local Government, Housing and Rural Development, 2012:2). The National Rural Development Policy was designed by the government of the Republic of Namibia because of high inequality between rural and urban areas in terms of access and availability of services. It is affirmed that rural development can be driven by structural and agricultural transformation and both private institutions and public institutions should invest on a large and small scale (Van Den Broeck & Maertens, 2017:96). This investment will of course contribute hugely to household income and poverty reduction.

Ellis and Freeman (2004:22-25) argued that often the poverty reduction strategy programmes employed by countries, like the case of Tanzania, Kenya, Malawi and Uganda, could achieve the intended purpose had it not been influenced by the district councillors imposing rural taxes, even to those who cannot afford it. Ellis and Freeman (2004:24)-have shown that it is extremely difficult to reduce poverty in the rural areas when people do not own assets, such as land,

animals and even labourers. Markets that are trading and exchanging products allow different opportunities for the poor to escape poverty through both farms and non-farming activities through empowering of the rural economy and circulation of the economy.

The FAO (2017a:4-6) asserted that small-scale farmers and family farmers are key to reduction of rural poverty, and henceforth need to be strengthened and supported. The FAO reiterated that investing in agriculture by focusing more on small-scale agriculture would reduce poverty more than investing in other sectors because the poor in the rural areas benefit directly from land and labour as these are the main assets they owned. Furthermore, rural poverty requires a multisectoral approach that is able to deal with, and inclusive in addressing the social, economic and political aspects faced by the rural people (FAO, 2017a:5). An enabling environment must be created with policies and interventions that allow the poor to participate in, and meaningfully benefit from the economic activities and again change from the low labour status and low level of productivity to a high labour status and productivity (better employment conditions, and diverse income generating opportunities) (FAO, 2017b:8).

Poverty reduction strategies and rural productive sector assessment conducted between three countries (Malawi, Nicaragua and Vietnam) revealed that poverty reduction strategies in some instances have not managed to deal with poverty challenges because of the failure to link poverty reduction strategies with economic growth (Cromwell, Luttrell, Shephard & Wiggins, 2005:24-26). There was no proper consultation between the governments and the poor themselves and the role of civil society was not recognised; hence, the study has shown no accountability by the governments. The strategies benefitted the elites more at the expense of the poor for which the strategies were designed for as the core mandates of the Bretton Woods Institutions of 1999 set conditions for accessing debt relief and concession loans of the highly indebted poor country. Poverty reduction strategies by many governments was not included in their national development plans, although financial resources were given to that effect by donors to incorporate the rural strategies in the national development plans and implement them accordingly (Cromwell, Luttrell, Shephard & Wiggins, 2005:24-26).

2.4 Conclusion

Numerous literatures provided a rich insight into researcher done on poverty reduction strategies. The role of rural development centre may be the solution to reduce rural poverty, only if appropriately designed and accommodative of the rural people. Provision of adequate

social services is the catalyst for rural development. Access to assets such as (land and water), market services, credit facilities, good road network, plays a vital role to the development of the rural areas. Lack of social services and education was noted as one of the cause of rural poverty because the rural people are excluded from the mainstream of economy. The elements of biasness, inequality and uneven distribution of resources in the rural area as opposed to urban areas still prevailing.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented an overview of the literature concerning the rural poverty and poverty reduction role of rural development centres. This chapter documents the research design and methodology used in this study. This study is phenomenological based. A research design is a strategy which shows how the research was conducted in a concise and defined manner, whereas methodology gives account of the research tools and procedures used (Maree, 2016:36).

The aim of this study was to explore the poverty reduction role of a rural development centre as rural poverty reduction strategy in the Gibeon Constituency. The research questions of this study were how can the establishment of the rural development contribute to rural poverty reduction in Gibeon Constituency; what are the contributing factors to rural poverty in the Gibeon Constituency; which institutions are involved in the rural poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency; what has been the interventions to reduce rural poverty in the Gibeon Constituency; what are the coping mechanisms (livelihoods strategies) in the Gibeon Constituency; what measure can be put in place to reduce rural poverty in the Gibeon Constituency; to contribute more consolidated data on rural poverty and poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap region.

This dissertation hypothesised that rural poverty is caused and perpetuated by lack of access to social services, lack of education and insecurity of land tenure. To study the impact of these factors, semi-structured interviews and in-depth interviews using questionnaires were developed and self-administered with the assistance of an appointed translator. A recording device was used during the interview with the selected participants who could not speak English. The appointed translator performed the data transcription for the purpose of information analysis.

3.2 Research design

This research is phenomenological in nature which has to identify participants with experience concerning the phenomenon to be interviewed. A case study of the Gibeon Constituency was undertaken to explore ways to see if rural poverty can be reduced by the rural development centre which is in the process to be established. The Gibeon Constituency inhabitants based on the NSA are considered as very poor because of lack of access to social services and their low rate of literacy (NSA, 2012:5).

In order to determine the impact of the study, phenomenological study allows to seek for understanding, opinions, perceptions and experience of the participants from the study area. The study used a qualitative approach in examining the causes of rural poverty in the Gibeon Constituency. The data in the field was collected using semi-structured interviews, and in-depth interviews using a questionnaire with the selected participants. The sample population was the Gibeon Constituency and the sample size was 25 participants. The data was analysed using Excel, developed into themes and interpreted for results. The whole idea was to understand the meanings that are described as lived experience by participants themselves (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:75). The research being a phenomenological study in the Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap region attempted to understand, both from the individual's and the household's point of view, the essence of the poverty-related experience found locally.

3.3 Data collection strategy

The data for this study was collected using semi-structured interviews and in-depth interviews using questionnaires with purposively selected participants in the study area of the Gibeon Constituency. The detailed questionnaires were developed in advance prior to the interview. The main reasons were to be able to see the world through the eyes of the participants and how they construct their knowledge and social reality. Furthermore, the rationale for collecting data using the semi-structured interviews was that the researcher had control on the pace of the interview and ability to treat each interview in a standard and straightforward manner using the same set of questions for all participants. The interviews were not entirely limited to semi-structured questions but had some degree of flexibility which allowed questions and expansion (probing further as answers and follow-up questions were given). Primary interviews have been widely used in the social science research to collect primary data (Mbeche, 2004:68). The semi-structured interviews were conducted with the communal farmers, women, youths, business

community, and key informants in the Gibeon Constituency. The data collection period was nearly one month between the last week of November and third week of December 2019. Again, for the participants who could not speak English, a recording device was used by the appointed translator and the data was transcribed in English for the purpose of analysis.

3.4 Population and sampling

The interview was carried out in the Gibeon Constituency and the targets were women, youths, communal farmers, business community and the key informants in the study area. These participants were purposely selected because they were considered to give rich information and shared their understanding of what and how they felt and saw rural poverty, what causes it in their own views and perception, and what rural poverty meant to them.

The study used non-probability sampling. The sample size was designed between 15 and 25 participants to be determined by data saturation.

The Gibeon Constituency, for administrative purposes of services delivery, is divided in nine localities, namely Kriess, Amperbo, Vaaldam, Falkenhorst, Soutput, Tsub!gaos, Koherab, Heimat and Asab. These localities are clustered in four groups, and in total there are 34 small scattered places (villages, hamlets and homesteads) under the mentioned localities. Remoteness is one of the challenges in the Constituency, particularly when it comes to service provision, rural electrification being a fair example or demonstration.

Purposive sampling was conducted for selected participants in the study area. The Gibeon Constituency office assisted in guiding and directing participants to be interviewed, taking into account the purpose of the study and people who are likely to offer a wealth of information and experience on the phenomenon of rural poverty. Purposive sampling implies that the participants are purposely selected based on their knowledge of the area (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:77). Tongco (2007:7) cautioned against bias in purposive sampling and recommended to take note of unfairness and to document it in order to ensure the reliability and competency of the data (Tongco, 2007:7). Tongco (2007:7) further urged not to apply interpretation beyond the sample population. It is expressed that sample size in qualitative research does not have a standard size (Trotter, 2012:399). What matters most is reliability, validity and replicability.

According to Nastasi (2001:4), when constructing sample size in qualitative research/approach, two elements must be considered. These elements are what sample size will reach data

saturation, and how large a sample is needed to represent the variation with the targeted population.

Consent letters were written to the Gibeon Constituency office and approval to conduct the study in the Constituency was granted in writing. In addition, the Gibeon Constituency office provided the locality's names with a contact person from all the clusters and contact details for ease of communication and organising of the interviews.

3.5 Data presentation and analysis

Searching for the truthful knowledge is the responsibilities of the scientists through academic investigation. Thus, scientists are motivated to always do their work to find the truth and make documentation of it (Mouton, 2001:138). Therefore, it is critical to ensure that the instruments for data collection will yield factual information. In order to analyse the lived experience of certain phenomenon (rural poverty), the phenomenological data analysis was deemed appropriate to nuance understanding of the lived experience. The data collected was analysed using Excel through thematic analysis. The thematic analysis in qualitative research enables a researcher to analyse data by identifying a pattern in themes (Bengtsson, 2017:13). The process of analysing reduces the volume of text collected, identify group categories together and seek understanding of meaning (Bengtsson, 2017:1).

Thematic analysis is a method rather than a methodology. Main themes and sub-themes are constructed to reflect the interconnectedness of theoretical and collected data. The advantage is that thematic analysis is very flexible and is not tied to any particular epistemological or theoretical perspective (Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Also, thematic analysis is useful in guiding the research to avoid issues such as repetitions, paying attention to indigenous typologies or categories, metaphors or analogies, transitions, similarities and differences, taking notes of linguistics connectors, observe the missing data and always to relate themes to theories based on literature of the subject when doing analysis (Bengtsson, 2017:13). Thematic analysis is descriptive in nature and it fits in the qualitative research analysis (Patton & Cochran, 2002:5). To ensure data reliability and validity, the in-depth interview data were triangulated to increase the validity of the findings. It does help a researcher to examine common issues emanating from the data collected, identify themes and summarise all data that is collected. It allows the researcher to relate the emerging themes to research questions and develop codes from the field notes. Themes should be able to contribute to the theoretical perspective as documented by the

literature (Bryman, 2016:456). Differences and similarities are compared from the emerging and developed themes in the research.

3.6 Measurement map

The measurement map (Table 3.1) indicates the data map that forms the basis of the interpretation of data.

Table 3.1: Measurement map

Objectives	Constructs	Variables	Data sources	Data analysis
Objective 1 To determine how the Constituency can contribute to rural poverty reduction	Textual/words	Documentation review	Interview with participants	Thematic analysis (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Bengtsson, 2016; Patton & Cochran, 2002)
Objective 2 To investigate the contributing factors to rural poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency	Textual	Communal farmers, youths, women, business community, key informants	Interview with participants	Thematic analysis (Baxter & Jack, 2008)
Objective 3 To highlight the interventions to reduce poverty in the Gibeon Constituency Objective 4 To conclude which institutions are involved in the rural poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency	Textual	Key informants, business community, women, and youths, communal farmers and field notes	Interview with participants	Thematic analysis (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Bengtsson, 2016; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017; Patton & Cochran, 2002; Starman, 2013)
Objective 5 To examine the coping mechanisms and livelihood strategies in the Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap region Objective 6 To explore which measures should be put in place to reduce rural poverty in the Gibeon Constituency	Textual	Communal farmers, youths, women, business community, key informants	Interview with participants	Thematic analyses (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Bengtsson, 2016; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017; Patton & Cochran, 2002; Starman, 2013)
Objective 7 To contribute more consolidated data on rural poverty and poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap region	Textual	Key informants	In-depth interview using questionnaire	Thematic analyses (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Bengtsson, 2016; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017; Patton & Cochran, 2002; Starman, 2013)

3.7 Ethical consideration

The fieldwork of data collection commenced after the ethical clearance was approved by the General Human Research Ethics Committee. It entailed the protection rights of the participants. There are three key issues that is very central to any project. These key issues are consent, confidentiality and anonymity. The participation in the study was voluntarily, without coercion or being pressurised (Patton & Cochran, 2002:5). The identity of the participants is protected throughout and after the study. Participants will be informed of the results and conclusions of the study on its completion and examination as they were assured. Participants were allowed an opportunity to ask questions. The study interviewed people from the ages of 20 and above. As emphasised by Patton & Cochran (2002:11), the community should be respected, and respect for persons, justice and beneficence should prevail. Anonymity refers to awareness and knowledge of a particular issue (Patton, 2015:200). Particular issues must be discussed without revealing the identity of the disclosure. The interviews are treated as anonymous. The responses from the in-depth interview and semi-structured interviews were treated anonymously.

3.8 Limitations

The following limitations were foreseen to affect the research study as research ethics refer to the conversation between the interviewer and interviewee (Patton & Cochran, 2002:11). Communication barriers were anticipated – the research targeted participants who speak Afrikaans and Nama (Khoekhoegowab), while the researcher does not speak those languages. In this regard, a translator was appointed. The translator used a recording device and transcribed the data from Afrikaans and Nama to English. Although in Namibia, the medium form of communication is English, the majority of the people from the south speak Afrikaans and Nama with only a few who can speak and understand English. Financial constraints were the biggest limitation. However, the researcher managed to solicit financial resources to accomplish the research objectives. Time dimension was one of the critical components of the study. The researcher is a full-time employee which might have hindered the progress of the researcher to conduct the research interviews. For this, the researcher applied for leave from his employer to concentrate on the research.

The research commenced from March 2019 until the beginning of the year 2020. Table 3.2 shows the projected timeline for the research accordingly.

Table 3.2 Timeline

Outcome	Responsibility	Time frame
1. Finalisation of proposal	Submit to study leader	March 2019
2. Literature study	Submit to study leader	April 2019
3. Methodology and measurement instrument (Questionnaire/ interview schedule)	Submit methodology to study leader	May 2019
4. Ethical clearance	Monthly opportunities to load ethical protocol onto RIMS system before continuing with fieldwork	First of every month
5. Results, data analysis and discussion	Submit results and discussion to study leader	September/October 2019
6. Conclusions and recommendations	Submit conclusions and recommendation to study leader	November
7. Draft dissertation	Submit copy of draft mini-dissertation to study leader	End of November – Final draft
		(May if graduating in December)
8. Editing	Have dissertation language edited as well as spending time on style editing	January 2020
		End of June if graduating in December
9. Final dissertation	Submit copy of final thesis to the Centre for Development Support (CDS) and supervisor to be assessed	End January 2020
		End of June if graduating in December
10. External moderation	CDS forward the final thesis to be external assessor	End of February
		End of July if graduating in December
11. Final mark	CDS forward final mark to be captured	End May
		End of October if graduating in December
12. Binding of dissertation	Submit electronic copy of final mini-dissertation to CDS office	One month before graduation ceremony
	Students bind three/four copies of final dissertation	

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter painted the picture on how the study was conducted on rural poverty and a rural poverty strategy in the Gibeon Constituency. The entire methodology was clearly indicated, beginning with the research design and approach, data collection strategies, population and sampling, data analysis and interpretation. Ethics consideration in conducting this study and

limitations have been acknowledged. The next chapter will present the results and findings of the data collected from the field.

Chapter 4

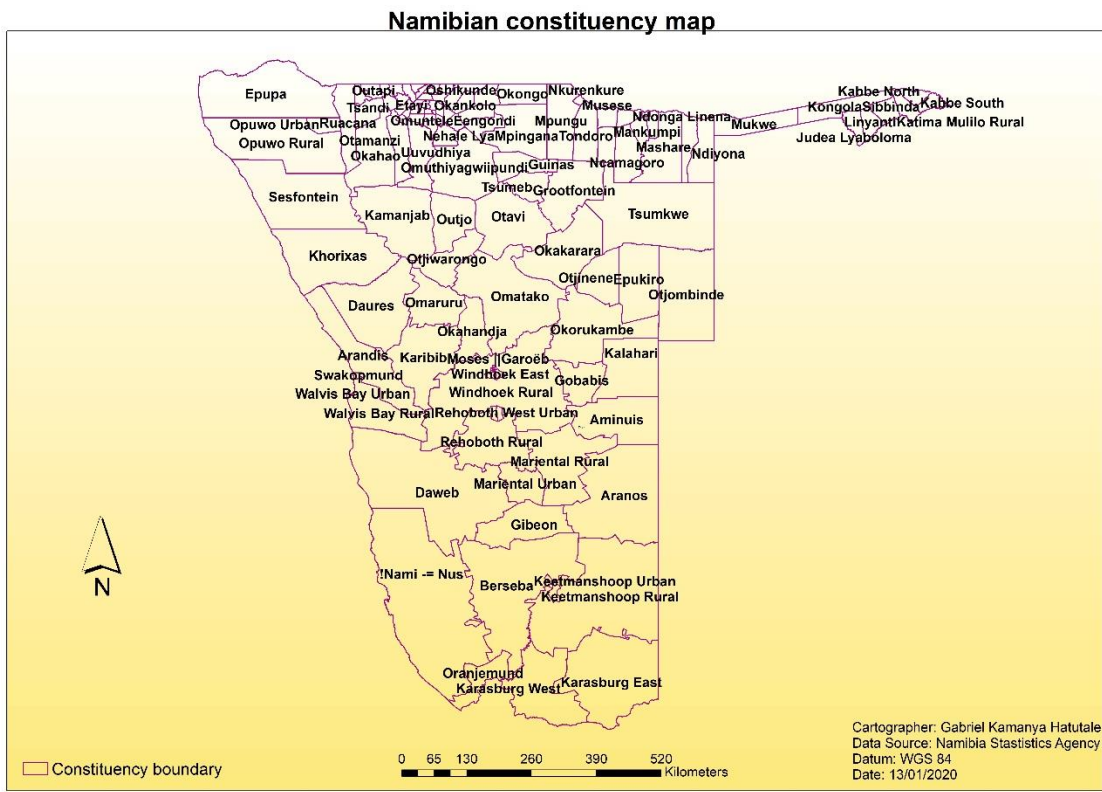
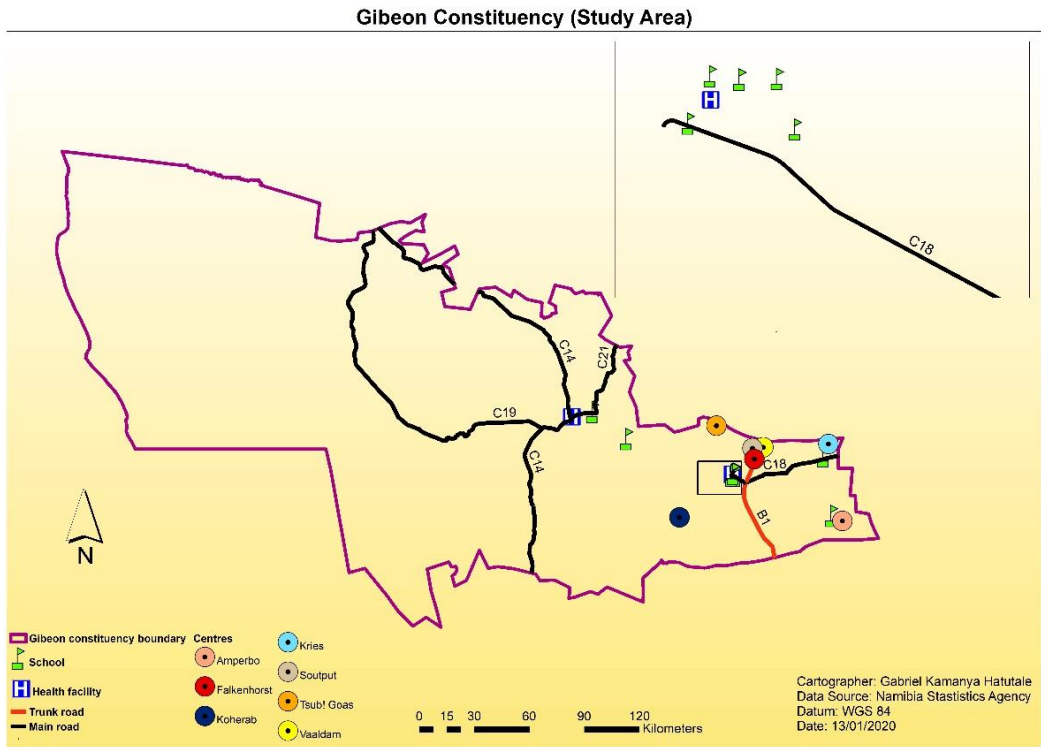
RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and analysis from the data collected during fieldwork using semi-structured interviews and in-depth interviews using questions. The study findings are presented in thematic form. The main themes derived from the study included employment types, household livelihoods, safety nets (social protection), assets, markets and road network, extension services, institutions involved in poverty reduction, interventions made and a rural development centre as strategy to reduce rural poverty. The identification of the main themes provided an understanding of what is breeding rural poverty and how the mitigating role of a rural development centre can be realised or effected. The findings are discussed in line with the literature review, the problem statement, research questions, and objectives. The findings are presented in the form of tables and graphs. The discussion below is a true reflective view of the participants, which were obtained through fieldwork (the interview). To recap, the aim of the study was to explore the rural poverty reduction role of a rural development centre in the Gibeon Constituency.

The Gibeon Constituency is found in the Hardap region, bordering //Kharas region in the south, the Omaheke region in a westerly direction, with the Khomas region in the north, and Erongo region in an easterly direction. Gibeon is one of the eight constituencies in the Hardap region. Other constituencies in the Hardap region are Daweb, Mariental urban, Mariental rural, Aranos, Rehoboth rural, Rehoboth urban west, Rehoboth urban east.

Figure 4.1 shows the extent of the study area constituencies in the country.



Source: Author's own compilation (2019)

Figure 4.1 Extent of the study area constituencies in the country

4.2 Results and analysis

4.2.1 Demography

A total of 25 interviews, including three key informants, were conducted using semi-structure interviews and in-depth interviews using questionnaires.

Figure 4.2 depicts the entire study population in terms of gender, showing that 56% males and 44% females participated in the research interview.

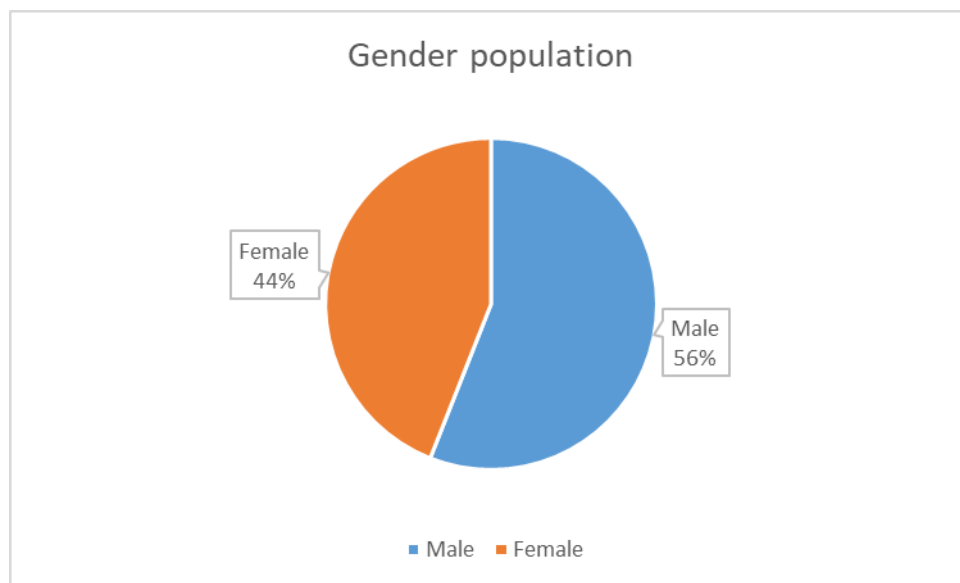


Figure 4.2 Study population in totality

The research respondents were not equally distributed because the majority of the respondents were male. The attempted made to eliminate male bias was through asking the male respondents indirect questions to determine some sense of honesty. Taylor (2019) suggested that in order to avoid or limit participants bias, one must ask indirect questions because it foster honest answers from the participant. As a result, there is 56:44% age distribution. The participants varied in terms of age groups. The study targeted the age group from 18 and above. In the case of Namibia, a person with the age of 16 and above is considered not a minor but an adult. Therefore, the age categories were as follows:

16–35:	Youth
35–59:	Adult
60 and above:	Pensioner

Figure 4.3 presents the age categories of the research participants.

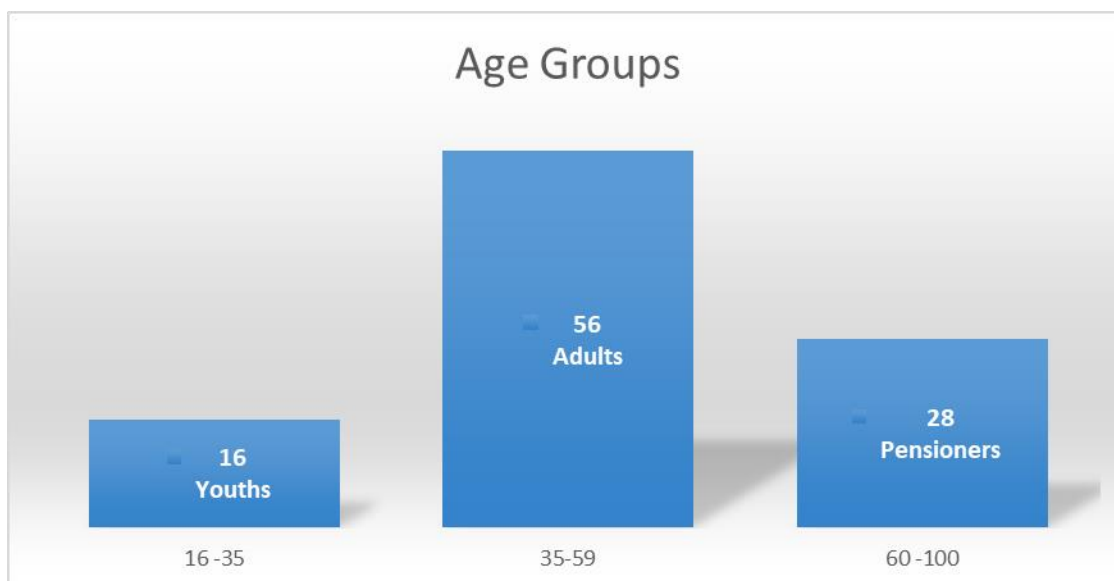


Figure 4.3 Age categories of research participants

The figure presents the age categories of the research participants. In the age groups, 16% represent the youths, 56% the adults and 28% represents the pensioners in the study.

4.2.2 Educational background

Table 4.1 gives an account of the educational background and attainment of the research participants.

Table 4.1: Educational background

Types of education	Educational level	Percentage
Tertiary education	University/College	8
Lower primary education	Grade 1-4	64
Upper primary education	Grade 5-7	20
Never attended school		8

It is evident that the majority of the research participants were adults from the age of 35 to 59 and in terms of education, 64% have only attended lower primary education, followed by 20% who attained only upper primary education. In terms of tertiary education, only 8% of the study participants obtained education at university or college, and the last 8% of the participants have never attended school in their lives. According to the NSA (2012:5), the rural community of the Gibeon Constituency are poor because of lack of education and access to social services and this is a major contributing factor to rural poverty.

4.2.3 Employment opportunity

This section outlines the employment types and opportunities of the research participants. Figure 4:4 illustrates the employment types of the research participants.

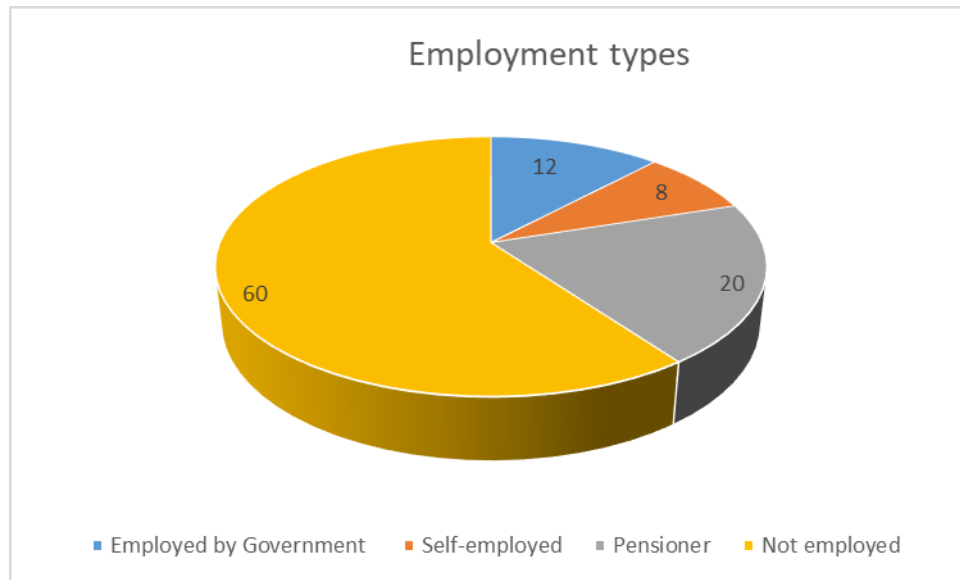


Figure 4.4 Employment types

The 60% of the study population were unemployed before and during the research period. When asked for the reasons of not being employed, they stated the following reasons.

- *No employment opportunity in Gibeon Constituency.*
- *I do not have good education or any qualification. Nowadays employment is demanding for someone to at least have a diploma or a degree.*
- *I am crippled.*
- *I tried my best to search for employment but I did not succeed.*
- *Retired.*
- *I am a housewife; my husband is providing for the family (money and food).*
- *I am unemployed since 2004, 2013, 2014, 2015, for a year now.*

In the entire constituency of Gibeon, out of the research participants, only 12% were employed by government institutions, 8% have indicated they are self-employed. Self-employed implies that they are self-employed through small-scale home businesses as well through farming with animals and others through selling handcrafts. Another 20% consisted of pensioners who were 60 years and older. Some of the pensioners were individuals who are considered crippled, disabled, orphaned and vulnerable people. Pension in Namibian terms is a form of grant given

by the government to the elderly people who are 60 years and older and also those who are physically challenged.

4.2.4 Household livelihoods

The intention of this question was to ascertain how families or households make a living and what coping mechanisms participants of the research used to survive (see Figure 4.5).

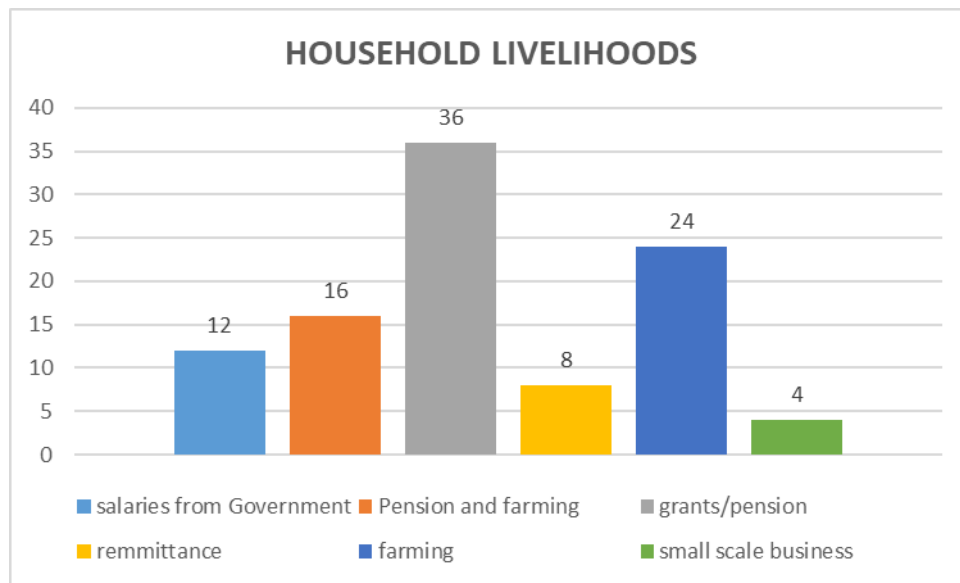


Figure 4.5 Household livelihoods

The results reveal that 36% of the study population were making a living from the pension grant provided by the government. In Namibia, pension grants are covered under what is called social protection. It consists of cash or in-kind transfers and non-contributory pensions (Schade, La & Pick, 2019:15), that are meant for families or households with children that are considered poor by their surrounding community, community leaders, church leaders and local and regional council leaders. These grants vary from Vulnerable Children Grant, Foster Care Grant, Maintenance Grants and Special Maintenance Grant given to the children and is administered by the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare. The Vulnerable Children Grant is a poverty-targeted benefit meant for parents with total income per month of N\$100 or less, who have children up to the age of 16 (Schade et al., 2019:15). The Maintenance Grant targets parents who earn less than N\$1 000 monthly, with one child under the age of 18 years, unemployed, old-age pension recipient or disabled (Republic of Namibia, 2016: 37-41). The Maintenance Grant is also applicable to parents or spouses who have not been working for at least six months or more. The Special Maintenance Grant is payable to parents with children who are crippled or disabled and the Foster Care Grant is cash transferred to orphaned children

(Republic of Namibia, 2016: 37-41). The old-age and disability grants are given monthly to individuals aged 60 and above. whereas disability grants are for people with disabilities between the age of 16 and 59 (Republic of Namibia, 2016: 37-41). Once an individual turns the age of 60 years, then automatically turn to old-age grants. The last type of grant offered is the Veteran Subvention Grant which is paid monthly to any war veteran. The war veteran benefits depend on the number of years being involved in the liberation struggle and includes a farm, a house, a lump sum of N\$200 000 and N\$2 200 monthly, as well as the old-age grants (Schade et al., 2019:17).

The second source of household livelihoods is farming, with 24%, followed by pension and farming being 16%, salaries from government with 12% and remittance being 8%. The results depict that the community of Gibeon Constituency are largely depending on the government social protection (safety nets) and farming. The formal jobs or public and private sector are not that visible in the Constituency to fill up the gap left by the grants assistance. It also tells a different story when it comes to remittance, that most of the youths and adults were either not sending money back home to the parents or the youths are sitting at home with their parents and surviving from the old-age grant and children grants. Few people are involved in small-scale home businesses, only 4% in the entire sampled population. There are no booming business opportunities or entrepreneurial opportunities in the Constituency.

4.2.5 Social protection (grants)

This section presents the types of grants offered by the government to the community, not only in the Gibeon Constituency but country-wide. The types of grants provided to the people in the study area are depicted in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Depicting the types of grants provided to the people in the study area

Grant types	Institution names	Percentage
Not receiving any grant		44
Veteran Grant	Ministry of Veteran Affairs within the office of the Vice-President	8
Old-age Grant	Ministry of Poverty Eradication and Social Welfare	16
Disability Grant	Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare	8
Normal Retirement	Government Institution Funds	4
Children's Grant	Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare	4
Drought Relief Programme	Hardap Regional Council – Gibeon Constituency office	16

The social protection systems are important as means to offer a helping hand to the less fortunate or marginalised members of the society (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013:14; Dempers, 2016:10). Social protection worldwide is considered as being a helping tool to mitigate the lives of the poor in extreme poverty-stricken households and families (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013:14). It is meant to alleviate the situation of the poor, their vulnerability to cope with risk, and to overcome deprivation. It can be both as cash and in-kind transfer. Social protection varies and can be found in many forms. Often, social protection targets both men and women, orphans, people with disabilities, the elderly (pensioners), widows and marginalised groups as well as indigenous people. The research participants indicated these are the types of grants they are receiving from the government. The results revealed that in most cases it was only the elderly people, children, veterans, and the physically challenged people who were benefiting from the grants as well those who have retired and were still getting their retirement pension fund from the Government Institution Pension Funds. The drought relief programme is a monthly programme which has two components. On one hand, is the food package component, meant for the destitute and vulnerable communities. The food basket is made up of 20 kg of maize meal, 750 ml of cooking oil, and relish (mainly four by 400 g of tinned fish). On the other hand is the animal fodder (livestock) meant for the farmers who are farming with less than a 26 large stock unit (cattle) and 130 small stock unit (goats and/or sheep). The animal fodders and licks are provided free to the identified farmers (Iikela, 2019:L3).

In addition to the drought relief programme, in 2010 the Cabinet took a decision titled “Cabinet Decision on the Socio-Economic Plight of the people of the South” with implementation strategies attached to the Cabinet decision (Decision No. 23, 09.12.08/010). The implementation committee consisted of eight government ministries. Among the chief programmes to be implemented was the German Special Initiative Programme and Rural Poverty Reduction Programme spearheaded by the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry (MAWF), since 2008 up until 2012. These programmes benefitted 83 households/families for which 32 were male and 50 were female from the Gibeon Constituency. A total amount of 1 639 ewes and 74 rams were given to the beneficiaries during the period stated earlier (Amakali, 2019:1). Each household or family selected based on the set criteria by the MAWF, received 20 ewes and 1 ram for a five-year period. Then, it was intended that whatever production that family or household have produced in the five years would be kept, while the

initial flock would be taken back and given to a secondary family. Therefore, the programme would be a revolving one. It has, however, been put on hold due to the long dry spells of drought and economic recession in the country. Some of the beneficiaries are still waiting to benefit once the programme is reactivated and funds secured.

4.2.6 Assets, properties and land ownership

The access of rights to land have a big bearing on the livelihoods and security of people in both rural and urban areas (FAO, 2002:1). Land is an important backbone for food production and on which shelters can be constructed. When land and other related natural resources such as water are not carefully handled and access provided, it may lead to inequalities in any given society (FAO, 2002:7). In terms of assets, community members do own animals and houses where they are living. Animals vary from goats, sheep, cattle, donkeys, horses and chickens. Most of the houses in the study population were constructed with iron zinc sheets, only within the Gibeon Village Council jurisdiction where there are houses built with standard bricks and cement. The rest outside the Village Council are just from iron sheet or zinc. This may symbolise the magnitude and prevalence of poverty in the rural area of Gibeon Constituency. In some parts of the localities, for instance in Kriess, Amperboo, Gibeon Stasie and Asab, there are individuals in the families or households who own a vehicle, donkey cart, and some furniture.

The skewed types of land ownership in Namibia since independence remains an unanswered question since the National Conference on Land and the Land Question of 1990 up until the second National Land Conference of October 2018. The redistributive land reform programme has been viewed as an answer to land ownership, and many people felt it was a vehicle which will ultimately transform and facilitate rural development and reduce rural poverty (Republic of Namibia, 2018:2). The noble idea was to redistribute land to the Namibians, irrespective of where they live, economic development, produce for food security and equity but yet, this idea is still far from the dream.

In the entire Gibeon Constituency, land rights are owned through leasehold, with only 32% under customary land rights; 40% of the study population were landless (living with their families), 20% through Permission to Occupy in Urban areas and 8% through the resettlement programme in the former commercial farms which the government purchased through the willing-buyer, willing-seller approach.

Figure 4.6 illustrates the land ownership in the Gibeon Constituency.

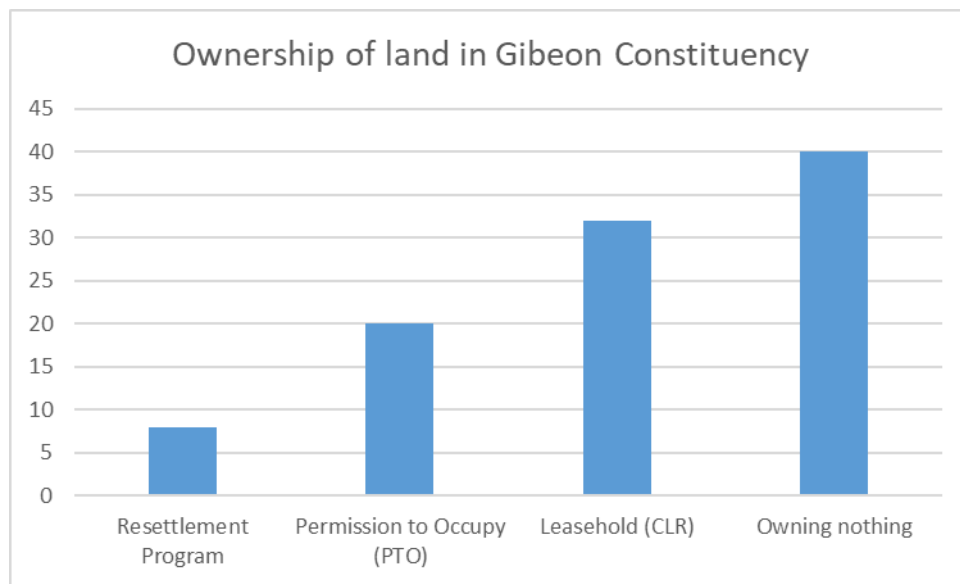


Figure 4.6 Land ownership in the Gibeon Constituency

Article 100, Sovereign Ownership of Natural Resources, states that land, water and natural resources below and above the surface of the land and in the continental shelf and within the territorial waters and the exclusive economic zone of Namibia shall belong to the State if they are not otherwise lawfully owned (Republic of Namibia, 2010:52). Land is owned through leasehold in the communal land. Freehold is only applicable to those who are farming commercially. The issue of insecurity of land tenure and overcrowding in the communal land is one of the sources of poverty in the Gibeon Constituency (Republic of Namibia, 2007:44). The situation is hastened by poor service delivery, lack of education and vocational skills, limited opportunities for livestock farming as well as remoteness and inadequate services (NCP, 2007:44). It appears from the findings that since the Hardap Regional Poverty Profile of 2005–2006, the situation regarding poverty has not really changed.

4.2.7 Market services and road networks

It is through markets that rural populations will have an opportunity to trade the goods and services produced from their smallholder farms. Accessibility and proximity to markets need to be sustainable for rural people to do business and improve local economic development, to create an opportunity for supply and demand, and for consumers to meet and trade.

Figure 4.7 shows the market services and proximity.

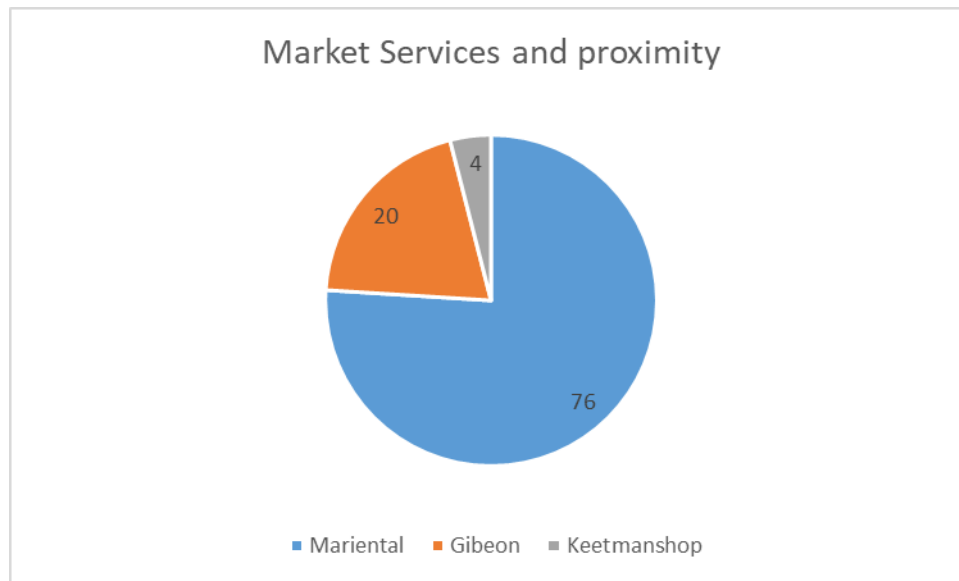


Figure 4.7 *Market services and proximity to markets*

Figure 4.7 depicts the situation of market services and proximity of the Constituency inhabitants in accessing markets for buying and selling goods (trading or bargaining). Most of the research participants were travelling to Mariental for shopping. There were no market services and the proximity to the nearest market where people can make transactions is a 70 km single trip. For a second trip is another 70 km that one has to travel in order to do business. There are costs involved when undertaking a trip to town (the nearest market), even when hitch-hiking. The price per trip is N\$40.00 to Mariental and to Keetmanshoop it is N\$80.00 per single trip or when hitch-hiking. The products or goods one can buy from Gibeon Village is more of basic goods, for example milk, sugar, tobacco, bread, salt, flour, butter and some beverages. At least the road network in the Constituency is adequate, although it is difficult to drive a small car (sedan) during the rainy seasons. Most of the internal roads are gravelled and well-compacted and the National B1 road that links Windhoek, Rehoboth and Keetmanshoop to South Africa, passes through the Constituency.

4.2.8 Extension services and appropriate technology

Extension services refers to an entity which offers training, education, disseminate information, technology transfer, facilitation, advisory services and information services to private and public entities? on the development of sound strategies and policies necessary to agriculture and rural development (Rivera & Qamar, 2003:7). Davis and Terblanche (2016:232) stressed that extension services should be unique and be context-specific to where it is to be implemented or provided. The one-size-fits-all approach may not be appropriate due to the

uniqueness of localities. Based on the response rate from the sampled population, 72% of the respondents indicated that they did not receive any agricultural services from the government (MAWF). The MAWF has five directorates which composes the Directorate of Agriculture, Production, Extension and Engineering Services, the Directorate of Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Coordination, the Directorate of Veterinary Services, the Directorate of Forestry and the Directorate of Research and Development.

Only 28% of the respondents have indicated that they were receiving some extension services from the extension officer from the Directorate of Agriculture, Production, Extension and Engineering Services, the Directorate of Veterinary Services and the Directorate of Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Coordination. The research participants who were receiving extension services, pointed out that they received information on farming, particularly how to farm with Karakul sheep, and how to avoid cross-breeding when intending to farm with a specific breed. The MAWF extension officers, through the research station in Gibeon Constituency, did offer training which is more farming related. Also, the farmers were educated on how to read the early warning signs of climate change and how to cope with both large stock and small stock during heavy droughts. Also, the Directorate of Veterinary Services were periodically providing veterinary services to farmers, whether communal, emerging or commercial. The Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Coordination Directorate has the responsibility for maintaining, and rehabilitating water infrastructure (earth dam, borehole, windmill, solar pump, and providing water tanks where they are needed) in the rural areas.

Anderson and Feder (2003:2), contended that the overall goal of extension services is to disseminate information to both smallholder family farms and commercial farms, to transfer knowledge in the various subjects, give advice to farmers to make informed and appropriate decisions, to educate farmers and guide farmers to achieve their farming targeted goals and possibilities. Hopefully, thereby farmers will become self-reliant agriculturalists in their environment of agricultural development (Feder & Jock, 2003:2). In Gibeon, some farmers benefitted from boer goat and sheep provided by the German Special Initiative Programme and the Rural Poverty Reduction Programme as subsidy.

This innovative approach to extension services emphasised that the process and provision of the extension services must be participatory, inclusive and accommodating. This, for instance, includes the farmer's participation in diagnosing, testing and dissemination, farmers to farmer

dissemination, para-professional extensionist, extension through non-governmental intermediaries and innovative use of the media (Farrington, 1994:5).

4.2.9 Organisations supporting livelihoods in the Gibeon Constituency

Organisational support is necessary to sustain human livelihood, sometimes even as basic as cultural lifeways and more. More sophisticated human living is dependent on other complex support systems (Krantz, 2001:7-8). Furthermore, Table 4.3 depicts some of the organisations, ascertained by this research, which support livelihoods in the Gibeon Constituencies. There may be others which have not been drawn to the attention of this research.

Table 4.3: Organisations supporting livelihoods in the Gibeon Constituency

Organisations	Assistance provided
Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Extension services ▪ Veterinary services ▪ Research and development ▪ Rehabilitation and maintenance of water infrastructures ▪ Training and dissemination of information on farming ▪ Subsidising for buying of sheep and goats ▪ Animal fodders (particularly now during the declared drought as state of emergency by the Head of State in May 2019) ▪ Rural sanitation and coordination ▪ German Special Initiative Programme and Rural Poverty Reduction Programme
Ministry of Education, Arts and Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Primary education services
Gibeon Village Council	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Providing all basic services (water, electricity, sewerage)
Nampost (Namibia Post Office)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Banking services (deposit and withdrawal) of money
Ministry of Gender, Equality Child and Welfare	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Early Childhood Education ▪ Social Protection (grants) ▪ Micro-projects ▪ Counselling
Kohena (Advanced Community Health Care Services – Namibia)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Community based TB/STD/HIV/Aids response ▪ Health education
Ministry of Health and Social Services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Primary health care services
Ministry of Safety and Security	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Maintaining law, peace and order
Gibeon Constituency office	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Delivering public services ▪ Bringing services closer to the people (decentralisation) ▪ Rural Development Programmes (Food and Security, Nutrition Programme, One Region One Initiative, Cash/Food for work) ▪ Gardening materials

All five recognised traditional authorities in the communal area of Gibeon	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Administering and managing land affairs
Women Action for Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Gender mainstreaming ▪ Advocacy on legislation, support for both men and women aspiring to take up the leadership role in both national, regional and local governance.

4.2.10 Available services in the Gibeon Constituency

The services listed in Table 4.4 are the only access to social services that are available in the entire Gibeon Constituency. The rationale behind the question was to examine the social services available to the community. The options given in the question was, for instance, if the community has access to banking services, shopping services, market services, schools and clinics.

Table 4.4 Access to social services

Social services access	Services
Namibia Post Office (Nampost)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Banking services (depositing and withdrawal of money)
Business Industrial Park	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Offering business stalls for business people to exhibit their products and goods ▪ Accommodation facilities ▪ Laundry ▪ Internet Cafe
Small home-based business	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Basic commodity, for example sugar and milk
One standing clinic and monthly mobile one	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Primary health services
Five schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Primary and secondary educational services
Namibian Police	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Maintaining law and order ▪ Community policing and patrolling
Mobile judicial service	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Prosecution ▪ Holding cells for offenders
Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Coordination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Rehabilitation of water infrastructures ▪ Rural sanitation

The Hardap Regional Poverty Profile (NPC, 2007:44) indicated that there was poor service delivery, lack of education and vocational skills, inadequate services and remoteness of the Constituency. It is evident in these findings that there are only five schools, one clinic and, alternatively, a monthly mobile clinic in the entire Constituency with a population of 12 122 people. There are no banking facilities or services and the respondents have indicated that when

they want to do banking, they either have to hitch-hike to Mariental or Keetmanshoop. The Nampost available in the town of Gibeon is very inadequate and, in most cases, they have limited funds to dispense to their clients. Marketing services is another constraint facing the community of Gibeon. The Business Industrial Park has not been constructed at a strategic location for access by the majority of the community and the charges to rent a business stall is not at all affordable by the residents because of purchasing power. The majority of the community views the Business Industrial Park as a white elephant because of its location and affordability issues. During the fieldwork when the park was visited, it was found to be entirely underutilised.

4.3 Interventions on rural poverty reduction

This section of the research examined the role of government in improving the living conditions of the people in the Gibeon Constituency. Below are the summarised narratives of the respondents.

- *Ever since the independence, the government has done a fair deal. More still needs to be done. At least, we have safe drinking water although not all parts of the Constituency, like Amalia and Asab, they are struggling with safe drinking water. Their location is considered the saline water block. The water to some extent is not even fit for animal consumption, needless to talk about human being.*
- *The government has at least decentralised some ministerial functions and offices to the Constituency. Most of the localities (rural areas) have been electrified and household connection has been completed too. Yet, there are some households/families who are still waiting for rural electrification and connection of households. All public institutions in the Constituency are electrified. Rural sanitation has been dispensing to all rural areas and most of the elderly people, people living with disabilities have been given the first option to benefit from the rural sanitation. The rural sanitation is ongoing in both rural areas and urban areas where the government is depending on people using the bucket toilet system while replacing it with full-fledge flush toilets.*
- *The drought relief programme is another progress made by the government to at least assist the destitute and vulnerable communities with food basket and also the farmers with animal foddors for free. The government through the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare, Ministry of Poverty Alleviation and Social Welfare through the Office of the Prime Minister, the Ministry of Veteran Affairs, Hardap Regional Council – Gibeon Constituency are all giving grants to the community to better and improve their living condition. In proclaimed settlement*

and town areas, the government is continuously improving and funding for infrastructure development (construction of services). Furthermore, the government introduced free primary education in all public schools. Some people countrywide in the communal areas have been resettled through the redistributive land reform programme by the Ministry of Land Reform (through National Resettlement Programme). Last but not least, the Old Age Grant was increased from N\$600.00 to N\$1 300:00.

The observation from the respondents shows that the government has done a lot to improve the living conditions of the people. However, the respondents felt that a lot still needs to be done, particularly in the area of Amalia and Asab where there is no safe drinking water at all for the people and animals. The MAWF (Department of Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Coordination) takes too long to bring water to their tanks for drinking. There dilemma for employment opportunities is still an undebated issue.

4.4 Rural development centre

This section of the research intended to sensitise and stimulate the thinking, opinions, perceptions and views of the community towards the establishment of a rural development centre as strategy to improve the living conditions of Gibeon Constituency people. For Ouyen (2019:6), rural development policies and programmes should target poor households more intensively by addressing issues of land management, user rights, provision for micro-finance in the rural areas and secure subsistence.

Below are the views, opinions and perceptions of the research respondents as to how the rural development centre being established could strategically improve their living conditions:

- *It will be of great assistance (only if they bring a service station), cut on travelling cost to go get fuel from Mariental.*
- *Good initiative and designed but it's located at a place which is not strategic and be accessible by the community, doubting if people will be able to support business happening there, maybe we will see if the [rural development centre] will contribute to reduction of high unemployment rate in the Constituency, community were not consulted toward the planning of the RDC, therefore, the likelihoods of the centre turning into a ghost area is highly positive.*
- *Hopefully it will give people hope to make business and generate income.*
- *Allowing selling and trading of services and products to train youths in areas of interest.*

- *Hospitality, needle work, women right, information on issues of democracy, human trafficking and women empowerment.*
- *Location is strategically located, possibility for more NGOs to come to the community.*
- *Might be a good initiative to bring closer to the community, but it will not reduce rural poverty.*
- *There is no population and purchasing power to support this kind of development, market is what is needed.*
- *The centre is very far from the people access, especially the elders. Environment not conducive and competition to already existing business park in the Gibeon Village, no consultation prior to planning.*
- *Zero, white elephant expected, 2/3 of the population are elder people on pensioner, travelling 8 km to the centre will be a challenge.*
- *Might help people in terms of business transactions, cost of travelling to Mariental and services will be brought closer to the people.*
- *Travelling cost to Mariental is N\$170, there shall be employment opportunity especially for the grade 10 & 12 dropouts.*
- *Will minimise renting in town as one go search for services and will also slow down the urban-rural migration.*
- *The community will have opportunity to buy their goods and services at the centre, save on the travelling cost to Mariental, battering system will take place.*
- *Major boast to the Constituency and the region at large, it might improve the living condition of the rural people and people lives will change.*
- *Will be the centre of attraction; vast opportunity of business development and economic growth.*
- *To ensure cost cutting on travelling, local trading and marketing excessiveness, promote sustainable, exposure of local and regional resources.*
- *Will provide opportunity to the rural people to be able to engage in business activity.*
- *In terms of accessibility (distance), the centre may only be useful to the immediate surrounding Gibeon Village.*
- *As for us from Amalia, we are very far, but the idea is very good.*
- *Might not be an answer to rural poverty but it is a good initiative, no consultation was done prior to the planning and design of the centre.*

- *I do not know what the centre entails, who is meant to benefit from it, hopefully for elite and connected people, zero practice.*
- *It will be a good thing.*
- *Once the RDC is operational, perhaps it will provide employment to the youths.*
- *It will be helpful to us and also, we might have the potential to benefit from the tourists passing by.*
- *Good idea from the government to bring services closer to us, the poor rural people.*
- *Never heard of it but will see once the operation start.*
- *Never heard of it but will see once the operation start, hopefully it might change our lives for Better.*
- *It would have been a good idea if the RDC was to be constructed in Gibeon itself, where it is now being.*
- *Very far from our reach.*
- *We are already faced with transportation challenges, hopefully it will only benefit the surrounding people who are closer to the RDC.*
- *Have never heard of it but it's likely to bring a positive change to the community at large.*
- *It will perhaps bring development and employ the youths from the Constituency (provide employment).*
- *It would be great if it is something that will bring positive change to the community.*

Rural development should not be seen as a mere process but as a means whereby the individual rural dwellers are empowered and capacitated through resources and material allocation. The rural people should take stock of their priorities pertaining to their well-being and livelihoods. Such empowerment can only be achieved when planning and implementation of programmes and projects switch from a top-down to a bottom-up approach (Ellis & Biggs, 2001:444). The participatory planning approach in rural development has been an effective tool (Chambers, 2013:117). The views on the rural development centres presented here say a lot of things. Some of the views were positive and welcomed by the respondents and gave hope for better living conditions once the rural development centre is operational. Some of the views were so negative that it did not mean anything to them, and some pointed to the issues of participatory planning and the need to start practicing the bottom-up planning approach rather than the top-down planning approach. Other respondents felt the rural development centre might help to

improve the living conditions but it will not reduce rural poverty for as long as poor service delivery is alive, vastness and remoteness of the Constituency and the lack of social services and education. Unemployment is very high, particularly among the youths and those who are not receiving any grants from the government.

Although some of the respondents appreciated the rural development centre design and interventions, the manner in which the rural development centre had been designed may not reduce rural poverty of the Gibeon Constituency but rather mitigate it. Given the persisting lack of social services such as health care, education, housing and transportation, the market services are regarded as very critical to economic development and business transaction.

The entire complex of the rural development centre, is designed to accommodate an administration block, workshop yard, conference facilities, lodges of 10 double-room and bed-and-breakfast facilities.

The types of services to be offered in the rural development centre are: Conference Hall, which will be used by both public and private communities when conducting training, information training, farming workshop and other conference proceeding, whereas, bed and breakfast services has been designed with approximate 15 to 20 rooms for accommodation. The Workshop yard, which is a place where they will be doing farming implements and repairs. It is available for the agricultural extension officer for their dissemination of information, demonstration as well as training (M. Michael, personal communication, December 2019).

4.4.1 Programmes to be added to the rural development centre

The research participants felt that the following programmes should be added or be incorporated in the rural development centre design. They would like to see services and facilities such as banking services (at least an automated teller machine), and the Nampost services should rather be expanded. Shopping centres (with agricultural products and goods, as well as furniture and clothing) is among the required services in the rural development centre design. The rest of the issues are, for instance, a petrol station for vehicle petrol, training programmes for the youth and for women, such as needlework. Programmes dealing with counselling and mentorship. The community are appealing to the government through the Directorate of Veterinary Services to retain the veterinary and auction services to the Constituency because of the distance they are compelled to undertake to Mariental whenever they are taking animals for auction.

4.5 Itemised services

All the itemised services listed below to some extent reflect novel ideas from the literature and can contribute positively to the well-being of the communities if they are provided adequately. These include a community development worker, social worker, rural development facilitator and legal-aid clinic. The respondents were asked to choose as to which service is very pertinent in a hierarchical order to improve their living conditions in the Constituency. Surprisingly enough, the respondents believed that some itemised services are not available in the rural areas. Mostly, they are experiencing those kind of services in urban (town) areas. Legal-aid-clinic is not provided to them in their respective localities in the rural areas. What they see is the health extension worker who they normally see in Amperbo, Amalia, Asab and also Grundorin. She has been alone and the region is very vast for one health extension worker. The Gibeon Constituency, through the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare, have had a social worker. This implies that the social worker has been around and has worked quite a lot with the teachers from schools, the police and judicial officials when dealing with or addressing referrals. Social workers are basically responsible to deal with children under the age of 18, who are considered to be adults. They pay particular attention to children who are being abused or going through trauma because of gender-based violence in the society and also those who are dropping out of school because of behaviour problems, pregnancy and drug abuse. The respondents were concerned that the social worker may be office-bound due to the shortage of vehicles and funds within the Ministry to execute its mandates and services. The vastness and remoteness is a major challenge to rural development in the Gibeon Constituency. The respondents further agreed that all these itemised services are critical to their well-being but these are not available to them in the rural areas but concentrated in the urban areas. In addition, the concept of a community development worker was newly introduced. Community development workers are governed by the New Child Care and Protection Act, Act 3 of 2015, which only started to be implemented in 2019. The ‘rural development facilitator’ in Namibian terms are equated to ‘community liaisons officer’. They are from time to time engaged with the community on community projects particularly, those from the Hardap Regional Council in the Gibeon Constituency, and the extension officer from MAWF, in the Directorate of Agriculture, Production, Extension and Engineering Service.

Figure 4.8 shows the rated services in the Constituency by the respondents.

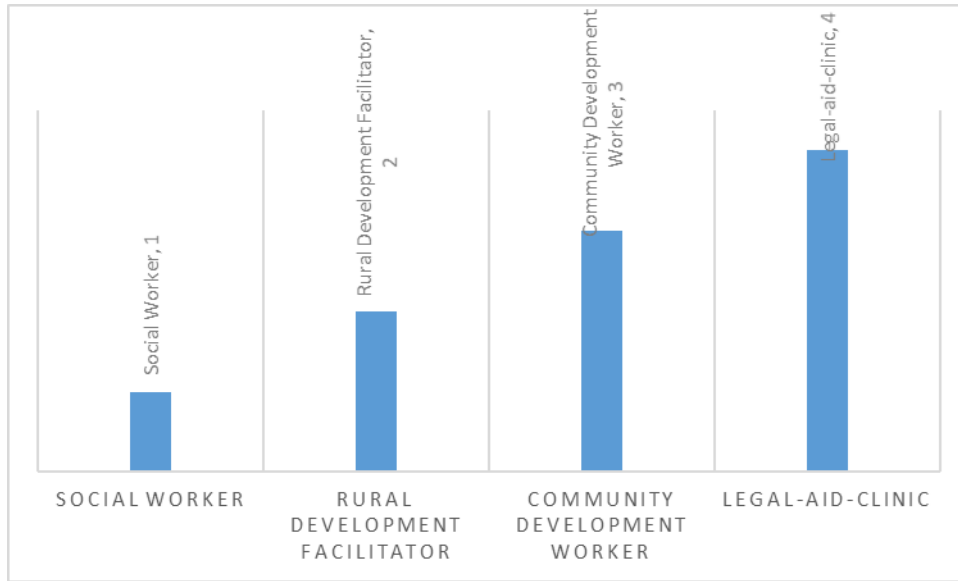


Figure 4.8 *Rated services in the Gibeon Constituency*

After the respondents carefully thought of their desirable services, they made a choice of the services they would want as first priority and in terms of hierarchical order. It appears that respondents were more familiar with the functions of the social workers and their responsibilities in the society. A legal-aid clinic was rated zero due to the fact that respondents in the rural areas have never experienced such services. A community development worker is yet to be implemented because the Act was just implemented in 2019. The second highest to be rated is the rural development facilitators, whom in the case of Namibia, are called community liaison officers. They seem to be doing quite well with community projects and guidance. Figure 4.9 shows the services of choice for the respondents.

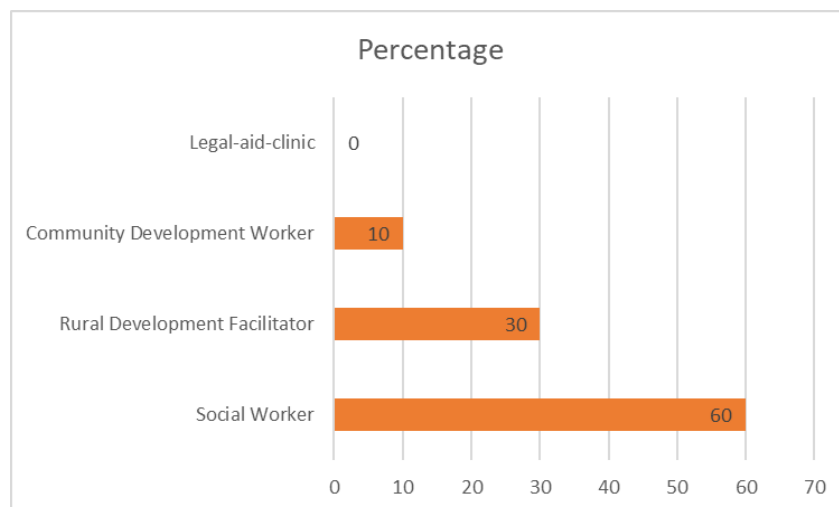


Figure 4.9 *Services of choice*

The section provides concluding remarks and make recommendations as to how the role of a rural development centre can contribute to rural poverty reduction based on the findings and discussions presented in this chapter.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the findings obtained from the fieldwork as presented above. This section sought to respond to the objectives and research questions of the study as articulated in the preceding chapters. The study findings have shown that the community in the Gibeon Constituency, mostly the rural inhabitants, are in fact poor due to lack of social services (education, health care, housing and transportation), poor services delivery, limited services, insecurity of land tenure, overcrowding on the communal land, limited opportunity for farming, as well as vastness and remoteness in terms of service delivery. Rural poverty is on the increase, irrespective of Namibian social services (education, health care, housing and public transportation) being subsidised.

My conviction is that the Millennium Development Goals of halving poverty by the end of 2015 has not been met and the Sustainable Development Goal 1 to eliminate poverty in all its forms will remain a vision for as long as rural poverty is still on the increase, particularly in Africa and the sub-Saharan African region. A sample of 26 participants were purposively selected for this study which included women, youth, communal farmers, the business community and key informants. The study scored a 100% response rate from 44% female and 56% male participants.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

About two thirds of the Namibian population are found in the rural areas in a situation where they are excluded from the provision of social and economic needs which are being delivered by the government. This delivery is not on an even pace if one is to compare the regional development gap (Republic of Namibia, 2012:ii). The issues of limited access to development funding, inadequate infrastructure facilities and services provision including access to roads, electricity supply, water supply, rural markets, rural housing, transportation system, banking and credit facilities, high level of poverty, poor community participation and ownership in rural development interventions, low level of agricultural technology and diversification, climate change and weak environmental management, and the slow pace of the decentralisation implementation process in rural areas remain a challenge to rural development (Republic of Namibia, 2012:8). Rural areas remain isolated from urban areas in terms of service provision. The argument bringing forth here is that the Millennium Development Goals of halving poverty by the end of 2015 has not been met and the Sustainable Development Goal 1 to eliminate poverty in all its forms will remain a vision for as long as rural poverty is still on the increase, particularly in Africa and Sub-Saharan African region.

The NPC report on causes of poverty in Namibia states that a large proportion of the Namibian population still lack access to basic amenities and services (NPC, 2011:56). Further highlighted is the fact that the *“importance of access to decent housing, clean water, and sanitation for health, education, and labour market outcome, puts a large part of the population at disadvantage in terms of their ability to participate in the economic mainstream”* (NPC, 2011:56). In terms of access to services between urban and rural areas, the degree of access to services and distance from service providers differs considerably. As a result, the prevalence of insufficient access to services in order of extent is higher in rural areas than it appears in urban areas. Poverty remains twice as high in rural areas than in urban areas (Schmidt, 2009:3).

5.2 Conclusion

As enunciated in Chapter 1, the aim of the study was to explore the poverty reduction role of rural development centres in the Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap region. To achieve the study aim, the research specific objectives were highlighted:

- To determine how the Constituency can contribute to rural poverty reduction in Gibeon.
- To investigate the contributing factors to rural poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency.
- To highlight the interventions to reduce poverty in the Gibeon Constituency.
- To conclude which institutions are involved in the rural poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency.
- To examine the coping mechanisms and livelihood strategies in the Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap Region.
- To explore which measures should be put in place to reduce rural poverty in the Gibeon Constituency.
- To contribute more consolidated data on rural poverty and poverty reduction in the Gibeon Constituency in the Hardap Region.

Taking into account the literature review on the subject, the study concludes that the community of the Gibeon Constituency are poor because of lack of social services and education (NSA, 2012:5). Evidence emerged during the research that there is limited access to development funding, inadequate infrastructure facilities and services provision, including access to roads, electricity supply, water supply, rural markets, rural housing, transportation system, banking and credit facilities, high level of poverty, poor community participation and ownership in rural development interventions, low level of agricultural technology and diversification, climate change and weak environmental management, and the slow pace of the decentralisation implementation process in rural areas remain a challenge to rural development (Republic of Namibia, 2012:8).

In terms of employment, the study found that there is a high level of unemployment. The majority of the unemployed are adults (youths). The contributing factor to unemployment chief among all is attainment of education because 64% of the respondents have only attained a lower

primary education, which is grade 1–4 and 20% attained an upper primary education level which is Grade 5–7. They are not employable due to the low level of educational attainment.

The respondent's sources of livelihood are more farming-based, followed by salaries and grants from the government, which are mostly beneficial to the elderly people, the disabled and the children. Thus far, the grants have been considered as the best interventions by the government in efforts to uplift the living conditions of the people, not only in the Gibeon Constituency but country-wide, due to persistent deteriorating conditions of the destitute and vulnerable communities.

Land is more frequently acquired through leasehold agreement for 99 years; some is acquired through Permission to Occupy in urban areas and through resettlement under redistributive land reform. However, 40% of the respondents, particularly youths, do not own any piece of land but do live with their families. In the entire constituency of Gibeon, there are no market services and social services remain a challenge, apart from access to the road network. The agricultural extension services are well provided. About 72% of the respondents indicated that they are receiving extension services, although it was not at the desired pace. In contrast, 28% of the respondents replied that they were not receiving any agricultural extension services.

Organisations in the constituency that support the living conditions of the community are just government ministries and parastatals. Apart from home-based businesses, there are no private sector activities. Services are limited or do not exist at all.

The rural development centre, which is in the process to be established as per the Cabinet decision that all 14 regions in Namibia must have rural development centres to curb and address rural poverty in order to deliver services closer to the people, does not seem to be an answer to rural poverty. The component of appropriate technology is totally missing from the design of the rural development centres. This is so due to limited social services and employment opportunities and slow service delivery by the government. The educational attainment of adults, which is the highest population in the Constituency, is very low to enable them to get decent employment.

The study results have demonstrated that in terms of social services availability, there are only five schools and one clinic in the entire Constituency. Some of the respondents were of the view that the rural development centre would perhaps contribute to their living conditions once it became operational but it may not reduce rural poverty. The purchasing power to support the

rural development centre operation is very low in the Constituency, given the fact that the rural development centre is designed to work as an independent entity and should sustain itself.

5.3 Recommendations

The study recommends that the Gibeon Constituency, through the regional government (Hardap Regional Council), should speed up the process of service delivery by decentralising the key ministries dealing with poverty and social well-being of the community. Furthermore, the study recommends banking facilities, or at least automated teller machines, if not a branch of a bank, a vocational training centre in the rural development centre to provide opportunities to the youth and women to manufacture and market hand-made goods and services. A petrol service station and market (shops which will be offering furniture, clothes, farming tools and equipment) are necessary for economic development and business transactions. The Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry should retain the veterinary services and auction service to the Constituency. At least a second clinic will ease the burden faced by the Constituency community or else a mobile clinic should be available at a regularly basis of at least every second week as it presently operates on a monthly basis. The social worker, community development worker and rural development facilitator should not be office-bound but be flexible to regularly engage with the rural community. Both the Old-age Grant and the Children Grant should be increased. The pro-poor policies should take local and regional factors into account when designing interventions to address poverty.

5.4 Implications for future research

The study focused on the poverty reduction role of a rural development centre in the Gibeon Constituency. Since the Hardap Regional Poverty Profile of 2007 has indicated that there is poor service delivery in the Constituency (NPC, 2007), it would be worthwhile to:

- investigate the causes of poor service delivery in the Constituency because poor service delivery contributes to poverty in many ways;
- investigate the factors prohibiting the learners/students to complete their education up to university level and possibly the influence of a vocational training centre to the grade 10 and 12 dropouts; and
- examine the rationale behind the removal of the auction services from the communal area of the Gibeon Constituency.

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Appendix A:

INTERVIEW TOOL

INTRODUCTION

RESEARCH TITLE

“The poverty reduction role of rural developments Centre’s: a case study of Gibeon Constituency, Namibia”

The interview will take approximately 25 minutes to complete. Kindly answer all the questions correctly and appropriately. The information gathered here from you is treated confidential and only applicable to this research. The effects of ethics are highly considered in this research and you have the rights to withdraw at any time from the interview process. You are being interviewed because you are purposively selected to participate in this study area.

The research is sponsored by the student, Mr. Hatutale, Gabriel Kamanya, towards a Master Degree of Development Studies, at the University of the Free State. The Faculty of Economic and Management Science (Centre for Development Support).

Section A: Demography

1. What is your gender?
2. How old are you?
3. What is your educational background?

Section B: Socio-economic

4. Are you employed? If Yes, what types of employment?
If No, how long have you been unemployed and Why?
5. How do you survive or earning a living?
6. Do you receive any form of grants from the government? If, Yes, what are those grants and from which government ministry?
7. What do you own (assets or properties)?
8. Do you own a piece of land? Elaborate more?
9. Where do you buy or sell your goods?
10. Do you receive agricultural services support in your constituency? If Yes, What are those service supports and who provides them? Please elaborate more?

11. What other organisations are involved in your constituency in supporting people living conditions? Elaborate more?
12. What types of assistance have they provided in the constituency of Gibeon Constituency?
13. what are the types of services do you have in the constituency, e.g, banking services, shopping services, market services, school, clinics, etc.?
14. What has the government done to improve the living condition of the people in the Gibeon Constituency? Please elaborate more?
15. What is your view on the rural development centre which is in the process to be established by the government here in the Gibeon Constituency, in terms of improving the living conditions of the Gibeon Constituency people?
16. What programme do you think should be included in the rural development centre to improve the living condition of the people in the Gibeon Constituency?
17. Question 17 is to itemize services in a list that reflect novel ideas from the literature and other sources which respondents can choose from?
 - a) Community development worker
 - b) Social worker
 - c) Rural development facilitator
 - d) Legal-aid clinic
18. Now that you have thought of desirable services what would be your final service of choice that would make a real difference to the quality of your life?

The end of interview

Thank you very much for your participation in this research. Do you have any question that you would like to ask? Is there anything that you would like me to revisit again?

If you have further questions or information about any aspect of this research, please do not hesitate to ask me or contact me during the course of this research at the following cellphone number: 0812366931

Appendix B:

ETHICS APPROVAL



GENERAL/HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (GHREC)

12-Nov-2019

Dear Mr Hatutale, Gabriel GK

Application Approved

Research Project Title:

The Poverty reduction role of rural development centers: a case study of Gibeon Constituency, Namibia

Ethical Clearance number:

UFS-HSD2019/0976

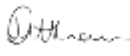
We are pleased to inform you that your application for ethical clearance has been approved. Your ethical clearance is valid for twelve (12) months from the date of issue. We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your study/research project be submitted to the ethics office to ensure ethical transparency. Furthermore, you are requested to submit the final report of your study/research project to the ethics office. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension. Thank you for submitting your proposal for ethical clearance; we wish you the best of luck and success with your research.

Yours sincerely

Prof Derek Litthauer

Chairperson: General/Human Research Ethics Committee

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by Derek
Litthauer
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Appendix C: LOCALITY CONTACT DETAILS



HARDAP REGIONAL COUNCIL

GIBEON CONSTITUENCY OFFICE

Tel: (063) 251404

Fax: (063) 251406

P. O. BOX 14 GIBEON

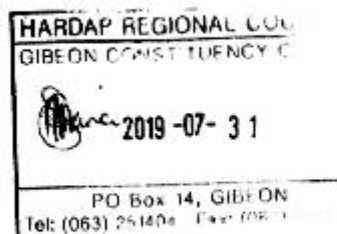
ENQUIRIES: Mrs. R. S. Smaritz

Our ref:

31 July 2019

Re: AREAS ZONING GROUPING

Groupings	Centers	Places/Areas	CDC Members
Cluster 1			
	Kries	Swartdam, Glencoc, Kameelhaar, Khore-gorabes, Verloorsveld,	Settlement Office
	Amperbo	Goamus, Lemoen pos, Oskop	Dirk Kharigub 0813142420
Cluster 2			
	Vaaldam		Ms. Suzette Fritz 0812083380
	Falkenhorst		Dawid Kauena 0815954141
	Soutput Tsublgaos	Anisgubeb, //Guguruames Rossenhof, Vrystaat, Tierkloof, Canaus pos, Lekkerwater, Kinachas, Ubiamis	Hlde Garoes 0815570331 Nikodemus Ixua 0817373929
Cluster 3		Swarttraand Areas:	
	Koherab	Koherab, Dochaih, Kaitzub, Kabias N/S, Hatzuim, Lorencia pos	Markus Afrikaner 0816913787
	Heimat	Klein Heimat, Heimat pos	Hendricks Skrywer 0812415288
Cluster 4			
	Asab	Amalia, Grundorin, Nico-Noord, Sakses, Gibeon stasie, Tafelkop	Katharin Fransman 0813072374



All official correspondences are to be addressed to the Chief Regional Officer