



AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE AVAILABILITY OF URBAN LAND AND ITS  
IMPLICATIONS ON NATIONAL SECURITY OF NAMIBIA: A CASE STUDY OF  
WINDHOEK (KHOMAS REGION)

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BY

ERICKA SIMANEKA NAMANDJE

200900951

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SUPERVISORS: DR S B LWENDO

CO-SUPERVISOR: MR PHANUEL KAAPAMA

## DECLARATION

I, Ericka Simaneka Namandje, declare that this thesis is my own unaided work, any assistance that I have received has been duly acknowledged in the thesis. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Security and Strategic Study at the School of Military Science, University of Namibia. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at this or any other Institution of Higher Learning.

Signature ..... Date .....

### Supervisor's Certificate

I, the undersigned, hereby certify that the research and writing of this research paper was carried under my supervision.

Supervisor's signature: .....

Date: .....

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## **ABSTRACT**

The main aim of this thesis was to investigate the availability of the urban land and its implication for national security in Namibia using the case study of Windhoek (Khomas Region). The City of Windhoek has been faced with the problem of slower pace of allocating affordable land and servicing that has seen the gap between demand and supply widening drastically and the growing numbers of people from rural areas to Windhoek resulting in increased demands for serviceable land. The convenience technique was used to sample the participants for the study. Data was collected using questionnaires, interviews and observations to investigate, firstly, the availability of land in Windhoek. Secondly, the factors that lead to the slow process of allocating affordable urban land to Windhoek residents to build shelter were investigated. Thirdly, the study explored the implications that the unavailability of urban land has on national security. After analysing the data through the qualitative methodologies, the study found that the problem that low-income earners and landless people in Windhoek encounter in acquiring land is high price in purchasing land for dwelling, high interest rates on mortgage bonds to income and collateral requirements of financial institutions and serviced land in Windhoek benefits only the high-income earners. The study found that the major challenges that the City of Windhoek faces is the shortage of developable land, lack of technical capacity, limited financial resources embedded with cumbersome procedures in the process of preparation and approval of detailed plans as prepared by land experts has been a catalyst for the low capacity of the municipality in allocating land. The study further found that due to the unavailability of affordable land, most of the poor people in Windhoek live in very poor living conditions and overcrowded in informal settlement which is a threat to human security. The study recommends that there is a need to review the existing policies on land allocation to address issues of land scarcity in Windhoek, land servicing and delivery models need to be reformed to take into account the rapid population dynamics. The study further recommended that the City of Windhoek need to be empowered with both technical and financial capacity to facilitate in provision of effective and efficiency services of providing land for housing.

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## **DEDICATION**

I wish to dedicate this thesis to my late brother Tomas Tonata Kandongola Namandje.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

### 1.1. Introduction

This study investigated the availability of the urban land in Windhoek, the factors that hamper the process of allocating affordable urban land for building shelter. This study further investigated the implications that the unavailability of urban land has on the national security of Namibia, the factors that leads to slow process of allocating urban land to urban settlers and what can be done to address the issue of land scarcity in Windhoek.

### 1.2. Background of the Study

Land, a word that for some could mean just a physical asset, is for others a means of life. There is an intimate relationship between human being and land. Human has maintained a close contact with land which provides him with virtually all he needs for his sustenance. The survival of human depends on the availability of land and their ability to acquire and exploit it to satisfy them seemingly endless needs. Fonjong (2012) pointed out that the ability to acquire land is sometimes limited or hindered by social, legal, environmental and technological constraints both in the public and the private sectors of the economy.

Access to and disbursement of land has always been subjected to power and politics. In all countries of the world, land is a critical resource and the basis for survival. Its distribution, therefore, threatens not only economic but also the physical well-being of the often marginalised

or the fortunate few who may not have the opportunity to “snatch and grab” and make it their private property when the political and legal system allowed it (Yanou, 2009). They retained ownership and participated in the agrarian process aimed at benefiting the few and while segregating the majority.

In recent years, the globalization process which has been started with the parallel of social, economic and technological development in the world has led to a rapid urban change and transformation process. Although the process experienced has some positive returns, it has led to emergence of the unplanned urban settlements as well as lack of infrastructure and unhealthy urban environment. There is an increasing recognition with recognizing of negative improvement such as insufficiency to meet the people’s needs, living in urban, the concept of sustainability in international platforms such as UN Habitat has declared it essential and has begun to investigate.

Since Namibia’s independence in 1990, a shortage of affordable urban land for low income earners has become a political issue, and also as one of the key challenges for the Namibian government and various local authorities. Among those who identified the urban land question as one of Namibia’s thorniest political and developmental issues, are Kalili, Adongo and Larson (2008). It is mainly centred on unequal distribution of land which is widely regarded as the main cause of the prevalent poverty and economic inequality. Likuwa (2016) argued that after Namibia’s independence, there is little or no substantial shift in the racially and class influenced urban land policy of the past partly because of very little reforms in the banking and housing finance markets. This is a stark indictment of our country’s inability to deal with our racialized past. We cannot afford to leave this legacy unaddressed, nor can we allow it to continue determining social and class relations into the future (Likuwa, 2016).

Historically, apartheid-colonialism has denied black Namibians access to land through the severe limitation imposed by influx control in urban areas. Colonial land policies were an integral part of the apartheid system and caused disruptions to land distribution and use. Only the white minority were allowed to register private property title deeds over land with the Deeds Registry while black Namibians were denied access to urban land ownership and were only allowed to enter towns as contract labourer (Werner and Vigne, 2010). In post-independent Namibia, people started moving from rural areas into towns and cities in search of work since they were now allowed to acquire, own and dispose of real property and land, and could settle anywhere in the country (Harring and Odendaal, 2007). This led people to settle on areas of unoccupied urban land thus initiating informal settlements in Namibia.

The number of informal settlers has since increased in major towns and cities of Namibia. The in-migration rate to Windhoek is reported to be around 8% per annum (City of Windhoek, 2016). A combination of such rapid urbanisation and inadequate capability amongst local authorities to cope with the demand upon affordable urban land to build shelters contributes to an increase in informal settlements. The population of Windhoek is reported to be around 400 000 (City of Windhoek, 2016). The population increase in Windhoek has eventually caused settlement growth on council-owned land as well as considerable servicing problems.

With the explosive urbanization pressure, it has become imperative for the capacity of the city council to develop and deliver urban land at a faster pace. The increasing pressure has, according to Likuwa (2016) created a huge gap between services demand and services delivery resulting in poor service delivery in the overall service portfolio of the City of Windhoek. For instance, since

2001, almost 40 percent of the population living in Windhoek is found in the informal unplanned communities who dwell in sub-standard structures without legal titles on unserved land.

Currently, the scarcity of urban land has become a contestable issue. It has led to the rise of pressure groups such as Affirmative Repositioning (AR). AR wants to use land in order to improve the socio-economic conditions of the urban youth. AR uses social media platform to mobilise residents to apply for affordable residential erven from municipalities (Nunuhe, 2016). AR Movement also threatened to take urban land by force if the applications of the youth are not processed. This threat is as a result of the costly urban land prices and the slow and lengthy process of urban land allocation (Kisting, 2015).

The scarcity of affordable serviced urban land has forced people coming into Windhoek in search of better living conditions to live in informal settlements. The informal settlements also are home for some who were born and raised in Windhoek as they cannot afford to have a house of their own and also cannot pay rent due to the escalating land and accommodation prices. Living in informal settlements often poses a threat to human security; significant health risk due to lack of clean drinking water, sanitation, and basic services. Often, shelters are built very close to one another, which in combination with the poor-quality building materials; make the informal settlers vulnerable to fire risks. These informal settlers do not have legal rights to the urban land they have settled on. As such, they have no tenure security, hence neither the right to transfer, sell, inherit nor mortgage the land they have settled on (Likuwa, 2007).

The high rate of urbanisation in most countries resulted in drastic increase in the number of the urban poor: in sub-Saharan African countries, it is estimated that more than 40% of urban

residents live in poverty (Amadhila, 2014). In the vast majority of sub-Saharan African cities, the urban poor as well as large segments of low and middle-income groups do not have access to land provided by the public and the formal private sectors: In all countries covered in this dissertation research project, except in South Africa, public provision of serviced land and housing is steadily declining. Reasons leading to the decline are many: magnitudes of the problem, lack of resources, lack of political will, widespread corruption and illicit practices, administrative and technical bottlenecks, especially in the identification of land rights and a failure to reach targeted low-income groups (Amadhila, 2014).

Most informal areas in Windhoek have access to safe water where communal taps are within considerable walking distance. Less than 20 percent of the informal settlement households, however, are connected to a waterborne sewerage network. In a number of developing countries, the poor institutional arrangements and processes have led to bureaucracy, slow and costly transactions, illegal land occupation, corruption, land appeals, and increased uncertainty in decision-making level (Badgai, 2009).

However, the serviced plots or land provided is unaffordable to the vast majority of the poor and low-income earners. Amadhila (2014) argued that in response to the influx of poor urban migrants, during the 1991-1994 periods, the City of Windhoek developed three reception areas that were intended to be temporary. In 1992, the first reception area (Havana, formerly called Big Bend) was established, followed by Okuryangava Extension 6 (referred to as Babylon and Kilimanjaro). In 1998, a third Reception area (four blocks in Goreangab) was developed. The concept was that people would be resettled in accordance with Windhoek City Council (WCC)'s squatter policy at the time; which however did not happen. The areas attracted further settlers

even before the sites had been laid out or could be provided with rudimentary services. Most flat land in the south of Windhoek is now developed and currently formal and informal development is also taking place in the north and northwest of the city where the land is hilly. In this area, the terrain is rocky with little topsoil covering the sloping land surface. There are few trees which mean there is no provision of shade on a hot day (Amadhila, 2014).

These reception areas consisted of tracts of land where earth roads were cut to a rudimentary layout, lifeline water supply was provided and, in some cases, communal toilet facilities were also provided. On plots of 300 square meters people settled in shacks of corrugated metal sheets. This proved very difficult in resettling them to these areas. Major land invasions occurred prior to site layout and construction (Nakweenda, 2014).

According to Amadhila (2014) the City Council was unable to contain the growth within the planned boundaries of the reception areas. Eventually, Windhoek City Council (WCC) created an in-situ upgrading initiative and decided, along with the target communities in these upgrading areas to achieve socially acceptable and densities that had developed. This would minimize social disruption from resettlement; increase the possibility of providing affordable improvement solutions and decrease pressure on the Council to simultaneously develop land elsewhere (Nakweenda, 2014).

### **1.3. Statement of the problem**

The unavailability of urban land is one of the burning topics in Namibia. The major problem that the City of Windhoek is currently facing is a slower pace of allocating affordable urban land and servicing that has seen the gap between demand and supply widening significantly. The result of



this has been the sprouting of shanty towns all over the city as those who cannot find developed land often resort to squatting. This has led to inflated land prices, extensive squatting, unhealthy living environments, and congested residential areas among a host of other land related quagmires. This has, in turn, resulted in the consequential problem of poor service delivery to residents which has led to deterioration in the living standards of the people, increased health hazards, and crime within the city. These among other factors, have dominated the research on public sector service delivery, the case of land development servicing and related services within the City of Windhoek. Such as Itewa (2002), Haring (2008), Amadhila (2014) and Likuwa (2006). However, this issue has not yet been investigated for either the national or human security perspective. This study will therefore fill this knowledge gap.

#### **1.4. Research Questions**

In light of the problem statement above the research questions are as follows:

- 1.3.1 What is the state of land allocation in Windhoek?
- 1.3.2 What are the factors that led to the slow process of allocating land in Windhoek?
- 2.3.3 What are the implications due to land scarcity on national security?
- 1.3.4 What can be done to address the issue of urban land in Namibia?

#### **1.5. Significance of the study**

The findings of the study are envisaged to provide ways to improve urban land management to provide affordable land to low income earners in Namibia, and thereby meet the long-standing need of people, particularly the low-income earners. The research findings shall also be useful in

formulating policies and budget priorities by the Ministries of Land Reform as well as Urban and Rural Development, City of Windhoek, policy makers and other stakeholders, including municipalities and town councils, as it will highlight the factors that lead to the slow process of allocating urban land in Namibia and its possible impact on the national security.

The study will further assist the stakeholders to identify new strategies and new ideas on availing affordable urban land to the needy, and to formulate relevant policies on allocating urban land. The findings will provide a roadmap to low income earners on how to improve their chances on accessing urban land. It shall also be useful to Namibian society in general, particularly those who are finding it difficult to acquire urban land for housing. Finally, the findings shall also be useful to other researchers, especially those in the area of urban land.

#### **1.6. Limitation of study**

Some of the challenges the researcher faced were: firstly, there is little publicly available data on the availability of urban land and its implications on the national security. For example, there is no publicly available report on the urban land management and its impact on human and national security; this has made it difficult to provide a proper assessment of the urban land management in Namibia. Secondly, the study was limited to urban land which is maintained by the Windhoek municipality, leaving out other towns and municipalities in the country where similar or different problems might be prevalent. Thirdly, the researcher faced time and financial constraints, and the study required resources that the researcher provided for out of her savings.

Fourthly, the researcher is full time employed and needs to balance work and carrying out the research by taking time-off during critical periods of the research. Fifth, the collection of

information was very difficult since people were reluctant to reveal information that is supposed to be useful in giving out proper solutions, and lastly, interviews were rescheduled many times due to interviewee's busy schedules. All emails were not replied and English was a problematic language barrier.

### **1.7. Outline of the Study**

The thesis is structured into five chapters as described in details below;

**Chapter One:** It gave a brief overview and background of the area of the study in the context of the urban land in the City of Windhoek and the implications it has on the national security of Namibia. The statement of the problem is stated in, a limitation of the study is also outlined, and the significance of the study as well as the research questions is elaborated.

**Chapter Two:** Discusses the existing theoretical and empirical based on a review of literature that is found to be relevant for the subject of the study.

**Chapter Three:** It documents the methodology and empirical motivation as well as population of the study and research instruments employed.

**Chapter Four:** Illustrate the data presentation and interpretation of the findings collected through interviews and document analysis under various themes.

**Chapter Five:** Summarises the findings of the study, policy implications and recommendations for the effective urban land management.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

#### 2.1. Introduction

The approach of this study was to apply a literature review and start analysing literature regarding urban land in Namibia, with a focus on the availability of urban land and implications it has on national security. When applying a literature review, existing research is used in order to increase the knowledge of a chosen study area (Barbie and Mouton, 2001). Analysing others' arguments and research results can also be seen as a tool for testing a research question, a hypothesis or to put the study into a context (Barbie and Mouton, 2001).

In all cities around the world, access to land is a pressing concern for citizens and states alike. Competition is acute for land that is well-located, suitable for a variety of urban uses, especially affordable housing, and serviced land (or relatively easy to service). Rakodi (2006) argued that both state institutions and markets frequently fail to provide sufficient serviced land in suitable locations to accommodate rapid urban growth and address inequality, particularly relating to access to housing, and regulatory arrangements are often inadequate. As a result, conflicts, crimes and poverty related to scarcity of land and claims are common, with potentially negative effects for both urban authorities and residents, especially low-income communities who tend to be the most vulnerable to these effects.

Many studies of urban land mention crisis in passing. Occasionally, they identify the actors involved, but often they focus on disputes between individual claimants and / or landowners, and few have undertaken detailed analysis of land-related conflicts at a broader scale aimed at

developing an in-depth understanding of their characteristics and dynamics. Perhaps because relatively few studies have focused on the drivers, dynamics and outcomes of urban land scarcity, a coherent framework to guide such analysis is lacking (Lombard, 2012).

In response to these concerns, this paper has two aims. The first is to assess the contribution of a broader literature to developing a framework for urban land analysis, in order to identify outstanding theoretical and empirical questions. It reviewed some of the available literature, drawing, *inter alia*, on recent work from the fields of urban land governance, urban violence and conflict analysis in relation to the unavailability of urban land, and its impact on national and human security. The chapter further built an insight from the case studies included in this special issue to identify the key dimensions of an analytical framework, in support of the expansion and consolidation of this critical research agenda.

## **2.2 Definitions of urban land**

Among other many definitions of urban land, Erkan (2009) defined urban land as a human settlement with high population density and infrastructure of built environment. Urban areas are created through urbanization and are categorized by urban morphology as cities, towns, conurbations or suburbs. In urbanism, the term contrasts to rural areas such as villages and hamlets. In urban sociology or urban anthropology, it contrasts with natural environment. The creation of early predecessors of urban areas during the urban revolution led to the creation of human civilization with modern urban planning, which along with other human activities such as exploitation of natural resources leads to human impact on the environment.

Lawrence (2009) argues that prior to Census 2000, urban referred to all territory, population, and housing units located in places with a population of 2,500 or more. With Census 2000, the

definition changed. After the 2000 census was taken, the Census Bureau's geographers looked at every block in the nation and decided if it was or was not urban. There are very specific criteria about whether a block could be labelled urban. Land use patterns in American experience can be complicated and the rules for deciding urbaneness take into account many kinds of situations. They generally have to do with density of settlement and proximity to other urban blocks. Boundaries of urbanized areas and urban clusters consist of core census block groups or blocks that have a population density of at least 1,000 people per square mile, and surrounding census blocks that have an overall density of at least 500 people per square mile.

In addition, Rakodi (2014) pointed out that under certain conditions, less densely settled territory may be part of each urbanized area or urban clusters. It is imperative to note that the definition of urban does not have anything to do with the boundaries of incorporated places. Some territory inside an incorporated city or town can be rural instead of urban. In fact, urban is delineated independently of any other geographic entity. That is, cities, towns, census tracts, counties, metropolitan areas, and the territory outside metropolitan areas often are split between urban and rural territory.

The population and housing units in these geographic units often are partly classified as urban and partly classified as rural. Rural territory can be inside or outside city limits. Urban territory can be unincorporated. Put another way, an urban land classification cuts across other geographic entities. For example, there is generally urban territory within both metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas. For this reason, metro and non-metro areas cannot be used as a proxy for urban (Hack & Birch, 2009).

### **2.3. Definition of national security**

According to Buzan (1991) Security is taken to be about the pursuit of freedom from threat and the ability of states and societies to maintain their independent identity and their functional integrity against forces of change, which they see as hostile. The bottom line of security is survival, but it also reasonably includes a substantial range of concerns about the conditions of existence. Quite where this range of concerns ceases to merit the urgency of the “security” label (which identifies threats as significant enough to warrant emergency action and exceptional measures including the use of force) and becomes part of everyday uncertainties of life is one of the difficulties of the concept.

Buzan’s approach is an interesting one as he looks at security from all angles going from micro to macro, also addressing the social aspects of security and how people or societies construct or “securitize” threats. Traditionally belonging to the English School, which can be considered a more pluralistic take on International Relations, Buzan is somewhat of an independent thinker and a reformer. This allowed him to broaden the analysis that existed and give his audience a more complete understanding of the complexities of security with the ability to then apply these concepts to current issues, for example, the war on terrorism. This constructivist approach allows the reader to not only discover Buzan’s reading of security, but also the breakdown of every aspect that contributes to or affects security, from the individual and society to the main referent, which, for Buzan is the state. For Buzan, nothing is a given.

## **2.4 Effect of land scarcity to the national security**

Buzan (1991) stated that 40% of all intrastate conflicts in the past 60 years are linked to the control and allocation of natural resources. The exposure of more and more poor people to land scarcity for shelters and hunger opens the door to the failure of fragile states and regional conflicts. Non-state actor groups are increasingly taking advantage of large cross-border migration flows and abandoned lands. Where natural assets including land are poorly managed, violence might become the dominant means of resource control, forcing natural resource assets out of the hands of legitimate government.

Economic growth, development and poverty eradication are the building blocks for lasting peace and national security. Land scarcity is a major problem in most of the developing nations, without rights to land; however, people have little incentive to manage the land and other natural resources sustainably. Granting users the rights to own and use the resources they depend on can reverse trends, pull the poor out of poverty and create the conditions to build peace and a lasting security.

## **2.5. Background and overview of urban services delivery in Namibia**

Provision of public goods and services is necessary for economic development. Most African governments, especially immediately after independence interpreted the demand for urban land to build shelters as a welfare question and, therefore, a legitimate right of a newly liberated people than as part of a crucial national sector. This perception has resulted in severe policy distortions, entangling governments in ways that most governments of developing countries have yet to find a way out (Kaldor, 2007).



Wegener (1994) stated that urban land problems, policy distortions and failures in models adopted by various governments and municipalities are evident across the African continent, for example, Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, Zimbabwe and Namibia. According to the Namibian Reserve Bank Governor, to meet the housing needs of the population, the government ratified pertinent international legal instruments; introduced a number of national policies; and has been allocating financial resources to facilitate access to housing among low income and ultra-low income households (Bank of Namibia, 2011).

Namibia is a country with unique characteristics, such as its low-density population, the relatively recent history of apartheid and the highest income inequality in the world as measured by the gini-index<sup>1</sup> (Itewa, 2002). The challenge on the Namibian urban land market is that urban land has become unaffordable. In Windhoek, the issue of affordability is exacerbated by a continuous escalation of prices due to a number of factors. Among these factors are the demand has outstripped the shortage of serviced land, and the increase in the cost of building materials and the speculation in the housing market. The central government has partnered with private, local and regional community-based organizations and non-governmental organizations in an effort to improve housing delivery (Amadhila, 2014). Despite these efforts, however, the housing challenge continues to persist. One of the reasons for the shortage of housing in Windhoek is that access to serviced land within municipal areas is a problem so much that serviced land for auction arguably benefits only the high-income earners. In addition, the cost involved in servicing land is prohibitively high.

Amadhila (2014) stated that the City of Windhoek is facing the slower pace of land development and servicing that has seen the gap between demand and supply widening uncontrollably. The result of this has been the sprouting of shanty townships all over the city as those who cannot

find developed land often resort to squatting. This has, in turn, led to the consequential problem of poor service delivery to all residents. This trend has also adversely resulted in the deterioration of the living standards, increased health hazards, and crime within the city. The council is in a precarious state to develop land for sale. However, the demand for serviced land by far outstrips the delivery of land. In addition, the land development and delivery process is comparatively too long, which at times, can take up to 5 years between planning and actual sale of land (Amadhila, 2014). Besides, there are a host of internal as well as external stakeholders in the process.

Furthermore, the City of Windhoek is currently faced with the problem of lack of resources such as finance as well as personnel, lack of qualified contractors and increasing urbanization (City of Windhoek, 2016). There is an urgent need to shorten the process of land development and service delivery and make it more efficient and faster in a bid to cope with the ever-increasing demand. Currently, the City of Windhoek is not able to supply adequate numbers of developed and serviced land for urban development. This lack of providing developed and serviced land has led to inflated land prices, extensive squatting, illegal occupation of land and land grabbing, unhealthy living environments, and congested residential areas among a host of other land related quagmires (Nakweenda, 2014). These among other factor have propagated the research on public sector service delivery, the case of land development servicing and related services within the City of Windhoek.

Factors related to high prices of urban land in Windhoek, the process of allocating urban land being quite lengthy, slow and frustrating for the beneficiaries, and that a large part of land is owned by absent landlords and foreigners have led to massive national protests by the youth of this country. According to Kisting (2015) the issue of urban land scarcity has resulted in the creation of some pressure groups such as Affirmative Repositioning (AR), and Landless People's

Movement (LPM), which claims their ancestral land. AR is a radical movement in Namibia aimed at improving the socio-economic conditions of urban youth. Started in 2014 by Job Amupanda, Dimbulukweni Nauyoma and George Kambala, AR uses social media platforms to mobilise residents to apply for erven (small residential land titles) from municipalities (Kisting, 2015).

In November 2014, the movement had in a first round achieved a wave of individual land applications by thousands of youth, submitted their forms on the same day, these activities have the character of mass demonstrations. The AR movement has since spread to other towns of Namibia. The AR movement has threatened to take the land by force if the applications of its members are not processed. This is indicative of the internal national threat to security as possible violent flares and clashes with law enforcement cannot be ruled out (Kisting, 2015).

## **2.6 A critical overview of the urban land**

Van Leeuwen and Van der Haar's (2016) recent attempt to theorise the urban land unavailability matter as a useful starting point for a review of the key literature related to urban land crisis. This research classified the relevant literature into three broad categories: environmental scarcity, political ecology and legal anthropology. Such a classification offers a point of departure for sorting through the rather fragmented body of literature dealing with the conflict of unavailability of urban land in order to identify what might be required of an analytical framework.

Environmental security perspectives identify land scarcity as one of the primary causes of conflict and poverty (Deininger and Castagnini, 2006). In this view, urban land crisis is attributed to growing populations combined with land scarcity, which may derive not just from a

shortage of land but also from a lack of access to suitable land because of high prices, concentration of landholdings, poor quality terrain or the colonial history of expropriation, law making and regulation (Bruce, 2011). Land is subject to market exchange but it cannot be manufactured, thus underpinning its limited nature as a resource. Land scarcity can, therefore, be absolute, but more often, shortages are the result of legal hindrances or market competition (Bruce, 2011).

Lund, Odgaard and Sjaastad (2006) highlight the perception of the scarcity of the urban land as a key factor in land conflicts in Africa. They caution that there still very serious development problems in many urban areas, including high levels of urban poverty and serious problems of food security. Where there are large urban populations unable to get required treatments such as; land to build shelters and lack of programmes to protect those most at risk, these increases urban mortality rates significantly. But it is not urbanization that is the cause of such problems but the inadequacies in the response by governments and international agencies. In most nations, the pace of economic and urban change has outstripped the pace of needed social and political reform, especially at local government level. The consequences of this are evident in most cities in Asia and Africa and many in Latin America and the Caribbean, the high proportion of the population living in very poor and overcrowded conditions in informal settlements or tenements lacking adequate provision for water, sanitation, drainage, healthcare, schools and the rule of law. This is evident even in cities where there has been very rapid economic growth. For example, half of Mumbai's or Nairobi's population live in 'slums and squatter settlements' are more to do with inadequate provision of urban land and political choices than a lack of resources.

The political ecology literature acknowledges the role that unavailability of urban land can play in generating land conflict. The literature, however, seeks to explain why and how (relative) scarcity and competition over resources are produced through exploring structural factors such as globalisation, social injustice and identity. It acknowledges that scarcity may be socially produced, but also that it is related to economic, political and social factors (Simmons, 2004).

For example, Peluso and Lund (2011), state that the exploration of new frontiers of land control seeks to identify emerging regimes, environments and actors that contribute to the ability to control access and claims to or exclusion from land. In their account, land grabbing, territorialisation, illegally occupation of urban land, legalisation and the use of violence may all be employed by a variety of actors, including local elites, corporate and state actors, and global NGOs. Van Leeuwen and Van der Haar's (2016) critique of this literature is based on its failure to explain how the structural factors identified, such as globalisation result in urban land conflicts and violence on the ground although they acknowledge that this may be due to the lack of evidence.

Finally, legal anthropological perspectives focus on governance frameworks and the power and politics at play in land allocation and conflict resolution (Van Leeuwen & Van der Haar, 2016), thus generating an understanding of how institutional interventions and regulatory frameworks both act on and may contribute to urban land crisis. For example, the Brown, *et al.*, (2005) article on land disputes in Guatemala, or Hasan's (2015) account of the formal and informal processes by which land becomes available for development in Karachi. Such in-depth studies contribute to a deeper understanding of land conflict in different contexts, but their focus on the micro-level

and juridical dimensions and effects of conflict may, according to Van Leeuwen and Van der Haar (2016), lead to a neglect of wider structural issues.

Rakodi (2006) pointed out that several further bodies of literature may contribute to the analysis of urban land conflict, of which the most relevant are reviewed here. First, a strand of the land governance literature focuses explicitly on land conflict and its management or resolution. Writing on the scarcity of urban land and its impact on national security in African cities, Rakodi suggests that, while evictions, demolitions and state expropriation create disputes, the underlying issue is conflict between occupiers and government agencies over the recognition of rights. This is linked to the disjuncture between different land regimes which may be formal or informal, statutory or customary and the actors' understandings of the institutions governing them. Indeed, informal land delivery mechanisms may have greater social legitimacy than formal systems, leading to complex and contested relations between the two (Rakodi, 2006).

This review reveals the fragmented nature of the relevant literature and the need to draw on approaches on allocation of urban land developed in a range of disciplines. An analytical framework, thus, needs to adopt a multidisciplinary approach, despite the epistemological challenges that this entails. In response to the deficiencies they identify, Van Leeuwen and Van der Haar (2016) suggest focusing on how individuals' agency shapes the construction of urban land scarcity from the bottom up and linking scarcity at different scales, specifically local disputes to larger scale conflicts. Drawing on land scarcity studies, they propose a focus on the alliances that influence local actors' interpretation of issues, leading to their mobilisation in the service of wider agendas; and how certain issues are framed by powerful actors, to reveal the discursive construction of land scarcity and responses to it.

Appendini (2001) observed that three areas below are critical to any analysis of urban land crisis. First, an understanding of land conflict as socially produced suggests the need to interrogate the categories used to define and identify urban land scarcity crisis, to examine how these are used by those who are directly or indirectly involved, and to consider what may be missing from or obscured by these categories. Second, recognition of agency requires identifying the actors involved in urban land crisis and how they interact, which may involve alliance, but may also be antagonistic. This is especially important in urban areas, which are characterised by density and heterogeneity, and contain a multiplicity of actors with diverse interests, although analysis should account for both individual agency and structural factors. This leads to the third area, which is the need to understand interactions between levels or scales, particularly important in the context of decentralised urban governance.

## **2.7 Sources of Funding for Local Authorities**

According to Ahmed (2016), the scarcity of both human and financial resources is likely to be a constraint and the cause of inefficient serviced land, thought needs to be given to securing financial resources to be able to scale-up schemes (i.e., do more schemes more quickly) and also to securing similar resources to provide serviced urban land. Minimizing financial risk to the town councils and cities is another challenge that hampers provision of serviced land. Underlying sufficient land tax can enhance land supply, thereby decreasing prices and increasing land market activity and land productivity. Though land tax is an outstanding example of local tax, without knowledge about taxable persons, taxable objects and land values that will be provided by cadastral system, revenue cannot be high.

Ahmed (2016) gave an example of serviced urban land supply in Pakistan, says that Pakistan use the system of mobilizing local resource and taxation to generate sufficient revenues to fund key urban servicing of land, which in turn increased the supply of serviced residential urban land. Highly subsidized services and the limited financial capacity of local governments is the major problem hinders the provision of serviced land; the available funding for any infrastructural investment is very limited and insufficient to meet ever-increasing demand.

Kessides (2005), identified that in Kano, Nigeria, one major problem limiting the availability of resources for urban land development was the high level of dependency on government subsidy in land allocation. Kalili *et al* (2008), state that private developers, including housing societies and cooperatives routinely face the problem of inadequate availability and / or significant delays in the provision of public infrastructures and utilities. For instance, in Karachi, lack of infrastructure has significantly reduced urban land supply.

Ahmed (2016) suggests eight models that are used by England to generate fund for city council services, these below eight models can be also used by other cities and town councils to generate funding for servicing of urban land:

**2.7.1 Traditional local authority funding.** In England, urban land services managed by local authorities are usually funded from the authority's general revenue budget, which is financed from local taxation and/or government transfers. Urban land serviced is one of many services funded from this budget and parks departments have to compete for the money. The decision about how the general revenue budget is distributed among competing services is made by councillors.



**2.7.2 Multi-agency public sector funding.** In England, funding can be accessed from a range of government departments and agencies for the delivery of projects that meet cross-cutting targets, for instance targets for public health, young people, crime or sustainable development. Often this money could be used to fund urban land servicing. Pooling of resources between different bodies can support mutual goals leading to efficiency savings and better value for money.

**2.7.3 Taxation initiatives.** In many countries levies on property, or tax credits, can be ring-fenced to fund the management and provision of serviced urban. Dedicated local taxation can secure reliable and significant financial resources.

**2.7.4 Planning and development opportunities.** Planning agreements can ensure funding for the provision and management of serviced urban land in, and around, new residential and commercial developments. It can provide steady funding which is secured at the outset.

**2.7.5 Bonds and commercial finance.** In some countries, local businesses and residents can vote to allow the local authority to receive loan funding from bonds that can be repaid, including interest, over a period of up to 30 years, to fund servicing of urban land.

**2.7.6 Income-generating opportunities.** Opportunities for generating revenue income, such as licensing and franchising, sponsorship, entry fees and fines, are ways in which funding from the private sector and users of urban land services can be sourced.

**2.7.7 Endowments.** Endowments provide long-term funding for servicing of urban land from the interest gained on investments in assets such as property or the stock market. Steady and

secure income which can be supplemented by the funding generated by other models – financial risks can be spread across a range of investments. Investment in a property portfolio can help to increase the value of the property and subsequently the value of the endowment.

**2.7.8 Voluntary and community sector involvement.** Not-for-profit organisations and voluntary and community groups can contribute time and labour, raise funds and encourage community development and local ownership of urban land servicing programs. Charitable status of not-for-profit organisations brings tax-relief benefits, and can attract investment from sources that local authorities cannot. Partnership agreements between local authorities and not-for-profit organisations can increase opportunities for accessing lottery and regeneration funding.

Cities, town councils and local authorities around the globe have to use good models that have been used by others to succeed in order to understand the discrete elements and helps to formulate language and discussion of what needs to be improved and how such improvement might be achieved. A model offers the benefits of providing the common framework and to help communicate, leverages years of experience and further helps users keep the big picture in mind while focusing specifically on improvement as well as provide a standard to help solve disagreements.

## **2.8 Unavailability of urban land and its impact on national security**

### *Definition of human and national security*

Kaldor (2007) defined **national security** as a concept that a government, along with its parliaments, should protect the state and its citizens against all kind of national crises through a variety of power projections, such as political power, diplomacy, economic power, military

might, and so on. Initially focusing on military might, it now encompasses a broad range of facets, all of which impinge on the non-military or economic security of the nation and the values espoused by the national society. Accordingly, in order to possess national security, a nation needs to possess economic security, energy security, environmental security, etc. Security threats involve not only conventional foes such as other nation-states but also non-state actors such as violent non-state actors, narcotic cartels, multinational corporations and non-governmental organisations; some authorities include natural disasters and events causing severe environmental damage in this category.

On the other hand, **Human security** is an emerging paradigm for understanding global vulnerabilities whose proponents challenge the traditional notion of national security by arguing that the proper referent for security should be the individual rather than the state. Human security holds that a people-centred, multi-disciplinary understanding of security involving a number of research fields, including development studies, international relations, strategic studies, and human rights (Kaldor, 2007). The United Nations Development Programme's 1994 Human Development Report considered a milestone publication in the field of human security, with its argument that insuring "freedom from want" and "freedom from fear" for all persons is the best path to tackle the problem of global insecurity.

As the urban population grows, the necessity for land increased correspondingly. Land producing by insufficient and partial policies is a very important problem for the development of our cities. The insufficiency of urban land causes infrastructure developments, squatting, fast increase of land speculation, and problems for choosing place of businesses, insufficiency of urban equipment areas, and as a result of all of these, create unhealthy placed urban developments

(Keles, 2009). A consistent land policy will ease healthy application urban plans to make a healthy and regular urbanisation environment, providing necessity of infrastructure and buildings which are requirements of fast urbanization, solving land problems of squats are the main targets of land policies which are observed especially within planned period.

Rapid urbanization and inadequate capability to avail serviced land with the housing needs of people in urban areas have contributed to the development of informal settlements. Living in these settlements often poses significant health risks. Sanitation, food storage facilities, and drinking water quality are often poor, with the result that inhabitants are exposed to a wide range of pathogens. Houses may as well act as breeding grounds for insect vectors. Cooking and heating facilities are often basic, with the consequence that levels of excessive exposures to indoor pollution may occur (Berger, 2006). Access to health and other services may be limited; overcrowding can contribute to stress, violence and increased problems of drugs and other social problems. Together, these pose risks to children, both during the prenatal period and after birth.

Africa has increasingly become an urban continent with an average annual growth rate of 3.3 per cent of urban dwellers between the period 1990 and 2000, rated as the highest in the world (Berger, 2006). This expansion of Africa's urban population has persisted at a rate that greatly exceeds the rate of creation of possibilities for gainful urban land to build shelters. Some of the urban poor, because of the urban land scarcity, are forced to depend on family members and relatives to find shelter. Such condition, therefore, impairs the cities' ability to meet service delivery needs; while other members of the community survive through engagement of illegal occupation of land (Berger, 2006). This growing group becomes part of the urban poor. Urban

poverty has many dimensions and causes where its main characteristics are deprivation and exclusion.

In the anonymous and impersonal setting of cities, poverty has dimensions of both material and psychological deprivation. The growing numbers of people from rural areas to urban areas lead to scarcity of land to allocate to every urban resident more especially the urban poor. Urban poor settlers find insecure shelter in overcrowded slums where lack of basic services, security and social inclusion are the norm (Berger 2006). Other features of urban poverty include hunger, poor health due to nutritional deficiencies, and unhealthy living conditions as well as limited access to school and health services.

According to Bruce (2011), survival has become the major concern of the urban poor; women and children are often the most vulnerable. One consequence of the unavailability of urban land is the growing number of street children in African cities. While some of these children have homes and families but survive by begging or casual work, many have been deserted or orphaned, and have no alternative but to live on the street. Their survival is tremendously precarious, and, without schooling, they have little hope for any meaningful future and are extraordinarily vulnerable to abuse. For many, prostitution and crime are the only means to survive (Bruce, 2011).

Due to the scarcity of the urban land to build shelters, many of the urban poor are forced to live in situations of extreme human insecurity, sheltered in informal settlements usually on the outskirts of cities, as a result of the shortage of affordable housing. Cognizant of the fact that these settlements are usually illegal, the official response has often been to try to destroy them or force inhabitants to leave. A notable example is Operation Murambatsvina (Operation Clean Up)

in Zimbabwe in 2005. This operation began in the capital, Harare, but quickly developed into a deliberate nationwide campaign, destroying what the government termed illegal vending sites, structures and other informal business premises and homes, resulting in the displacement of hundreds of people (UN-HABITAT, 2005).

The operation involved the bulldozing, smashing and burning of structures which housed thousands of poor urban dwellers. This example must be understood within the broader context of the urbanization crisis and scarcity of urban land in Africa. The social, economic and political circumstances in which the operation took place were not specific to Zimbabwe. They share many common aspects with historical and present trends of the rapid and chaotic urbanization occurring in many African countries and cities (UN-HABITAT, 2005).

To maximise the benefits of urban life, as well as to minimize the adverse effects of living in close proximity to and in slums, adequate and efficient essential services must be assured. Urban planning must determine the appropriate separation of residential from industrial quarters. Obeng-Odoom (2011), asserted that it must also incorporate infrastructure for transport, communication, and other essential utilities including the supply of electricity, water, and the disposal of sewage and other waste. On the social side, municipalities need to provide facilities at the informal settlements for various levels of education and health services. While some services such as telecommunications and utilities may be more efficiently provided by private enterprises, social services in particular will continue to be the responsibility of public authorities land (Berger, 2006).

In theory, the concentration of urban settlements should make it more economical and feasible to provide all these essential services. In practice, however, due to financial limitations and capacity

constraints, most African cities are incapable of providing basic services to their citizens in urban informal areas due to the fact that they occupy land illegally. Responsibility for some of these services is either shared or exclusively the preserve of central governments.

Pietersen (2010) gave an example of Alexandra Township in South Africa. This unplanned township has overloaded the infrastructure to an extent that water pressure is low and the sewers frequently block and overflow. Maintenance of such systems is very difficult because the high densities and congested nature of the backyard shack development makes access for maintenance very difficult or impossible in places.

In addition to backyard shack development, since the repealing of the apartheid laws which restricted movement for the black population, there has been considerable population increase in Alexandra from within South Africa and from neighbouring countries seeking employment opportunities. This has resulted in not only overcrowding in hostels, but also in informal settlements developed on the Jukskei river banks and its three tributaries which pass through Alexandra township. There are an estimated 7,500 households living in these areas at very high densities with poor services, in very poor environmental conditions, and in danger from flooding (Pietersen, 2010).

Problems of inadequacy, inefficiency and deterioration of services are rampant. With regard to transport, communications and other utilities, the gap between demand and supply is widening in many cities. Obeng-Odoom (2011) argued that existing facilities are poorly maintained, and investments in expanded service delivery are constrained by lack of financing. As a result, traffic congestion, inadequate public transport, crumbling roads, intermittent and unreliable electricity,

poor telecommunications and insufficient water supply are becoming the norm rather than the exception, even in affluent areas of cities.

In some cities, bribery has become commonplace as a means to forestall arbitrary interruption of utility services (Otto, 2008). In general, lack of adequate infrastructure ranks high among the most basic impediments to economic growth in most Sub-Saharan African countries (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), 2011). In an increasingly scientific and knowledge-based world, businesses in Sub-Saharan Africa are disadvantaged by the fact that, with the exception of South Africa, the region has the world's least developed information and communications infrastructure.

The increase of slums is caused by the scarcity of urban serviced land to build shelters, meaning that hundreds of thousands of people live in appalling housing structures and without facilities like sewerage, electricity, water or paved roads (World Bank, 2011). For example, in Harare, the influx of people exerted mounting pressure on the Harare Municipality for the supply of amenities such as land for housing, clinics, transport, health facilities and water and sewage infrastructure.

The shortage of housing due to scarcity of serviced land led to the urban arrivals to construct illegal shelters leading to increasing shanty dwellings in the city (Colquhoun, 1993). Thus, Zimbabwe's capital city has joined the growing list of cities and 'mega cities' of the global south, which are confronted by an ever-growing crisis of a deficient provision of basic services (Musemwa, 2010). Emblematic of these challenges are other cities such as Lagos, Nairobi, Kumasi, Maputo and Luanda, amongst others.



The continuance of rural habits by large numbers of people unaccustomed to living in an urban environment, together with lack of maintenance, has further contributed to the decay of physical infrastructure in cities. This has undermined overall human security and the attainment of sustainable development (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), 2011). The picture with respect to social services is not much different. The high rate of growth of urban settlements has had many consequences for social services such as education, health, and care for the poor and elderly. In many countries, governments have been unable to cope with the rising demand for social services.

The basic cause of inability to provide urban land is often the disparity between the growth of the urban population and public resources. In some countries, the consequences of this mismatch have been exacerbated by policy choices, which give low priority to the social sectors as compared to other areas of public expenditure, including national security. In most instances, funds are lacking for new investments in servicing land. The quality of service continues to decline in many countries, further exacerbating the breakdown of social capital and overall human security. The impact of HIV-AIDS is devastating, health care systems in many countries are stretched beyond their limits as growing numbers of HIV-AIDS patients occupy nearly all available urban hospital beds, and there is no serviced land to build more hospitals (UNAIDS, 2011).

Adding to the problem municipal authorities experience, the HIV-AIDS epidemic increases health expenditures at the individual, municipal and national levels; thereby diverting resources that could have been used for servicing land (UNAIDS, 2011). Squatting in the slums due to the scarcity of urban land to build proper houses is also another threat that can lead to infectious diseases as the residents of different beliefs, social backgrounds, and behaviours crowded

together suddenly do not have time to adjust or adapt to different viewpoints, leading to violence. The government's inability to provide affordable land for houses causes an increase in theft and other crimes or pushes young people to join organized crime.

Moreover, the emerging challenges in land management among African cities include poor management of urban land and poor governance frameworks, lack of appropriate land administration systems to deal with increasing shortages of serviced land and well-located land, widespread informal land delivery systems, highly centralised land agencies, incomplete land records and poor public land management. The obtaining trends on the ground indicate deterioration in the tenure status and access to land for the poor. Public and private formal land delivery systems have failed to cope with the needs of the urban poor. One of the notable deficiencies of the formal land delivery system in urban areas of the developing world has been the emergency and proliferation of informal elements.

## **2.9 Procedural delay in urban land allocation**

Dowall (1991) argues that land allocation processes are highly bureaucratized and inaccessible, it is too complex and requires technical knowledge and the majority of the people do not have access to land or have difficulties to afford it. According to Dowall and Ellis (2009), in Pakistan processing of applications for erven and site development, approval of related plans and issuance of associated permits is slow and complex and may take up to a year to complete. Even if the obstacle to acquire land is practically impossible for the majority, those who acquired it by chance will face two difficulties related to constraints in the development of land.

The first is high capital costs of obtaining development approval and servicing, and the second is long delays in obtaining approvals, attributed to cumbersome procedures and lack of capacity in government organizations (Dowall, 1991). Therefore, it is clear that complex organizational procedural steps require technical knowledge to get access to land, which the majority has not been able to afford. Such condition pushes the majority to look for other alternatives like informal land acquisition. Thus, delay and complex procedural steps hindered access to formal land.

## **2.10 Case studies on the management of urban land**

### ***2.10.1 Turkey***

One of the land development problems of developing countries is to provide readily available land for new urbanization demands. Compensation based procedures are mostly used land provision methods around the world in urban land development applications but it is both expensive and mandatory. In Turkey, like many other developing countries, these problems exert a negative influence in the fields of human settlement and regular urban development.

In Turkey, some of the urban land projects, such as a new highway, railway design, and other kinds of main infrastructure constructions, are carried out by the federal government only. On the other hand, provision of new settlement and public-use areas are carried out by municipalities. Using regional plans, zoning plans are prepared and implemented for local urban development. The rapid urbanisation, especially, requires readily built-up areas in suburban areas. Hence, the provision of new sufficient lots, streets, roads, green areas, play gardens and parks are the main objectives of local land planning authorities (Obeng-Odoom, 2011).

According to Obeng-Odoom (2011) when the government urgently needs the land for emergency public constructions, such as allocating land for housing, building a new highway, hospital, school, opening new green spaces, the compensation method is basically applied. All compensation procedures including land valuation are done by The Compensation Act, which was enacted in 1983. The compensation method can be practiced by any government level. As long as they prove that land is needed for public use, they can make any compensation decisions. Obeng-Odoom further says that these decisions must be approved by the city council.

Landowners who have any property in designated area are then informed about the compensation decision. These procedures are followed by other required steps which include land survey, assessment, payment and registration. At the end of the process, the determined value is directly deposited in the landowner's bank account. However, in many cases, landowners object to the amount of compensation that offered. They always argue that the determined value does not reflect the real value of their property. This has always resulted in prolonged litigation in courts of law (Obeng-Odoom, 2011).

Private sector produces lands by making construction plans on the real estates owned by Turkey government. Cooperatives, makes construction plans both for providing land and construction for their members and produce lands. Public institutions such as Ministry of Environment and Urban Planning, Collective Housing Administration Presidency (TOKI), National Real Estate General Management (MEGM) and Municipalities produce lands within their mission competence. As stated above, a lot of people, corporations and establishments in Turkey make applications by different regulations, but basically about representing sustainable life style on urban areas in their own assigned position and authority areas.

There is a need for creating land management administration ( (Patel, 2016). A management like this is supposed to know the possible development of the town which construction will be planned, and what needs to be done, and will make situation determination of the residence, industry, agriculture, regression areas, etc. Also, it should efficiently assess inclinations of municipalities about how much constructed area is needed.

### ***2.10.2 South Africa***

Access to land may be framed as a universal right, although power dynamics at the local and national levels commonly prevent the realisation of this right. In South Africa, the right to be provided with land for housing is framed as a citizenship right, and the process of upgrading informal settlements as a means of realizing inclusive citizenship. However, as Patel (2016) shows in her analysis of the process and politics of land allocation in three settlements in eThekweni (Durban), intense competition for housing, alongside ‘participatory’ processes dominated by settlement leaders, has resulted in a land allocation process that breeds competition between residents along existing fault lines of ethnicity, nationality and party political allegiance (Patel, 2016).

In a context where ‘in-situ upgrading’ involves the demolition of existing housing and allocation of a formal plot and subsidised house, eligibility criteria are manipulated by settlement leaders to favour some over others, leading residents to adopt strategies (particularly party-political membership) to increase their chances of receiving what is supposedly an entitlement. How the land allocation process is played out to the advantage of some and disadvantage of others, Patel (2016) suggests, reflects wider ethnic tensions, political competition (between parties and levels of government) and public debates over foreigners’ entitlements. Conflicts over small events

such as perceived injustices in urban land allocation, could, Patel believes, tip over into violence if the tensions are not recognized and addressed.

### **2.11 Basic concept of urban land management**

According to Fonjong (2012) land is a key resource, the misuse of which does not only waste a scarce resource but also affects the development of other sectors. Lawrence (2009) stated that land and landed properties are generally the major assets of any economy. According to Peluso and Lund (2011), access to land, security of tenure and land management has significant implications for development. According to the UN-HABITAT (2005), land administration provides an important part of the infrastructure for efficient economy, which means that it touches all aspects how people earn a living. From this perspective, urban land administration is defined as a process in which land and land related resources are put to good effect. It includes matters that directly or indirectly influence urban land administration such as property valuation, management of utilities and services, formation and implementation of land use policies and monitoring of all land-based activities that affect the best use of urban land.

FAO (2007) identifies three common problems hampering the achievement of a sound basis for state land management. These are: lack of information about existing state land and rights on the use of state land which results in illegal land exchanges, non-transparent land allocation, and poor recording which helps to hide the truth and favour interested groups. Secondly, political interference in management decisions which may further private interests, and finally, that limited awareness of both the consequences of weak governance in state urban land management

and how to improve the situation, which tends to be treated as “free” and the focus of corrupt activities.

Access to land through formal market systems in many developing countries is unable to cope with the demand of rapid urban growth because the majority cannot afford land price, and the state has limited capacity that leads to informality (Appending, 2006). Peluso and Lund (2011) identify three common land lease objectives which are firstly, to eliminate market imperfections; secondly, to remove externalities, so that the social costs of outcomes correspond more closely to private costs, and finally, the redistribution of society's resources so that disadvantaged groups can share in society's output.

Land policy by itself could not sufficiently generate the desired outcome; because it requires competent organizations as well as organizational coordination. Therefore, the need for policy enforcement could be the main reason for state intervention in the operation of delegated organizations. Though the intention of public intervention is to maintain the above objective of land policies as identified by Kessides (2005), such practices lacks enforceability. Kessides (2005), cautions that if state intervention measures are not carefully prepared, it can hamper urban land allocation implementation and monitoring. Moreover, as the state is not usually driven purely by profit motives in allocating resources, as can be deduced through its actions, interests and strategies, it is doubtful whether it could respond to changing market conditions efficiently.

This induces uncertainty in the supply side of the market. Lawrence (2009) mentioned that, the main problem in developing countries is not as such the regulation, but the difficulty in the

enforcement of urban land lease laws, where state intervention in property rights and inefficient property rights are persistent because of two main reasons. The first is complex / bureaucratic delays and the cumbersome procedures in acquiring urban land ownership rights from the state for private sector development. The second is lobbying and / or bribing officials, as a result of supposed delays to speed up allocations of use / ownership rights.

### **2.11.1 Approaches to achieve urban land management**

Cities around the globe should promote a harmonious and friendly social environment, and build civil, safe and liveable urban neighbourhoods through rational planning. They should provide high-quality public services in employment, healthcare, education, housing, social welfare and enough serviced land for shelters. They should encourage public participation in urban planning and governance, take into consideration the practical and psychological needs of migrants to the cities, and eliminate social barriers and conflicts.

Urban leaders have to plan to accommodate future urban growth, including providing the urban poor with serviced land to build and improve their own housing. In doing so, measures to secure property rights are indispensable. Such measures should ensure that women's property rights are equal to those of men, even if there are cultural hurdles involved. Obeng-Oboom (2011) stressed that when urban leaders are considering their urban area "footprint," regional and local authorities; they should regulate and orient urban expansion in desired areas, while prohibiting settlement expansion or development in sensitive lands, such as watershed infiltration zones, seasonal wetlands, and forested areas. Governments can minimize negative urban impacts and be



proactive in preventing environmental degradation while reducing the environmental vulnerability of the poor.

Below are the urban land management approaches that are used in Birmingham City in the region of England. Roy (2009) recommended that the below mentioned approaches can be used by the other cities, towns and local authorities around the globe to achieve the scarcity of urban land and its implication for national security.

### ***2.11.2 SHLAA approach***

Roy (2009) pointed out that the Strategic Housing Land Availability Assessment (SHLAA) is a study of sites within Birmingham that have the potential to accommodate housing development. It provides information on the suitability and availability of each site; whether the development of a site is considered to be achievable, and if there are any significant constraints to development. It also demonstrates whether there is an adequate supply of urban land to meet the housing target over the life of the urban residents.

SHLAA' key component of the evidence base on supporting the delivery of land to meet the need for new homes within the city. The main role of the assessment is to: identify sites (and broad locations) with potential for housing, assess their housing potential, and assess their suitability for housing and the likely hood of development coming forward. The SHLAA is a snapshot in time of the supply of land. It enables a forecast of urban land supply to be prepared and can be updated over time to assist in the preparation, monitoring and review of the urban areas. This assessment has been finalised as of June 2014 to provide urban land for housing supply information to inform the preparation of

the draft plan. The SHLAA findings will be updated prior to the Planning Inquiry hearings into the draft plan and from there on will be updated annually (Roy, 2009).

### ***2.11.3 Social Policy Plan approach***

According Roy (2009) the purpose of the Social Policy Plan is to assist the states to develop and deliver services for people to meet their welfare and wellbeing needs, including urban land for housing. It includes a number of core values and strategic social policy objectives that are translated into action through the Corporate Housing Programme. One of the general objectives of the plan is to achieve better availability of serviced land for housing, quality and affordability.

The headline issues on the Social Policy Plan agenda include promoting equality, protection and support for vulnerable people, promoting safe and healthy environments and preventing inequality, unsafe communities and environments, lack of guards for vulnerable people and unhealthy as well as unsupportive communities. The Social Policy Plan states that by providing people with pathways out of poverty and unhealthy lifestyles and preventing exclusion from society in general, the quality of life for all urban people will improve. A key example of the Social Policy Plan agenda with regard to housing is the work being undertaken by the Housing and Social Services Departments to enable people to maintain their independence in later years through the availability of appropriate urban land with social care support (Roy, 2009).

#### ***2.11.4 Housing Department Policy Plan 2011 - 2016 (Corporate Housing Programme) approach***

A core part of the Housing Department Policy Plan is the implementation of the Corporate Housing Programme (CHP). The states' urban land allocation programme is established through the CHP, and it is geared toward meeting the needs of local residents unable to compete in the private land market. A number of the core values and strategic social policy objectives in the Social Policy Plan are translated into action through the CHP. The principal social policy objective that can be achieved through the CHP is to improve land availability, quality and affordability (Roy, 2016).

The CHP is periodically reviewed to set policy priorities across all urban land tenures. As part of the CHP, the Housing Department maintains and upgrades its existing land, and through the CHP delivers new land through the Guernsey Housing Association (GHA). In this regard, the Housing Department Policy Plan also highlights the Housing Department's commitment to using land associations to provide new land rental and partial ownership of land for shelters. It also signals the Housing Department's commitment to finding alternative ways, where possible, to deliver its mandate in a cost effective way (Roy, 2016).

#### ***2.11.5 Supported Living & Ageing Well Strategy approach***

The Supported Living and Ageing Well Strategy (SLAWS) working party was formed in January 2014 to consider what care, support and supported land is needed for older people in the cities to own land, who will provide it, and how it will be funded. The

working party is made up of representatives from the Housing & Social Services Department and the Treasury & Resources Department (Roy, 2009).

## **2.12 Conclusion**

Land in general is much talked about in policy and practice. There are, therefore, significant gaps in our knowledge of evolving urban land markets and the outcomes and impacts of changes in policy and practice. Developing an understanding of urban land conflict has been hindered not only by the data shortcomings that bedevil all research on urban land, but also by the difficulties and risks of research on it, and the lack of a suitable analytical framework. Land policy and the practice of urban management both affect and are affected by urban land crisis, with implications for future policy and practice.

However, not only are assessments of attempts to improve urban land dispute resolution mechanisms or resolve conflict over land scarcity, none of the authors of the articles published on urban land issues included here set out to identify the policy implications of their findings. It is, therefore, impossible to do more than indicate a few ways in which the implications for policy and practice might be tested. First, there is a need to extend existing efforts to evaluate attempts to improve planning and administration to situations characterised by conflict and violence related to urban land, in particular identifying the nature and effects of dissonance between different land regimes and assessing whether land policy and interventions have ameliorated, exacerbated or even caused conflict over land.

This chapter further concerned with conflict and violence more widely in the urban context, although some scholars and policy analytics note that robust evaluations of attempts to intervene in the ways they suggest are lacking. Some authors highlighted the highly political nature of urban policy and interventions. However, these authors make only limited reference to the wider literature on urban land conflict analysis and transformation.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the research methodology and design adapted in this research. The chapter describes the various techniques and strategies utilised for gathering the necessary data. It centres on explaining how the primary and secondary data were collected; it details out how respondents were selected and how the research concepts were operationalised in order to answer the research questions. In addition, this section explains processes in the selection and development of indicators for assessing the availability of urban land in Windhoek.

The chapter further describes the design and methodology that was used for this study. It explains the research philosophy and design survey question, and the reason for using quantitative research approaches. The chapter describes the research population and sample size, the instrument development, and the data collection method, as well as the validity and reliability of the survey results. Ethical considerations as well as the treatment of data with the aim of exploring the effectiveness of the urban land management and its implications on national security are also explained in this chapter.

#### **3.2 Research design**

In order to achieve the objective of investigating residents' access to urban land and obstacles to accessing urban land, quantitative and qualitative research design has been applied. This approach is particularly beneficial for this study due to the selected research questions. As

pointed out by Sullivan and Brockington (2004) that qualitative research can explore issues such as investigating the way in which social interaction and conditions are influenced by different circumstances. A qualitative research approach can also be applied when one explores the importance of people's worlds and the causes of individual behaviours (Brockington & Sullivan, 2003). The interpretation of Brockington and Sullivan's description of qualitative research is that it also seeks to understand the world through interacting and interpreting acts and perceptions of global powers. Qualitative methods can be used to get an insight in the world and can be applied for research of both well-known and unfamiliar groups and locations (Brockington & Sullivan, 2003). Therefore, implementing a qualitative and quantitative approach was considered most suitable for emphasizing Windhoek people's access to land and to explore the obstacles, and the implications to human and national security caused by the scarcity of urban land

### **3.3 Population**

Melville and Goddard (1996) defined population as a group that is subject to a research interest or one wants to study. It further says that it is not practical or possible to study an entire population thus; the researcher can determine the average of a group to consider for the study and to make general findings based on a sample. Research endeavours to collect information from a small group or subset of the population in such a way that the knowledge gained is representative of the population in the context of the study.

Windhoek was chosen as the field of study. The target of the research population consisted of 300 key informants from the City of Windhoek and Ministries of Land Reform as well as Urban and Rural Development, 150 members of Affirmative Repositioning (AR) Movement; 1500 low income earners and landless people derived from Havana informal settlement.

### 3.4 Sample

A sample is a small proportion of a population selected for the study where questionnaires, interviews, observations, and analysis will be used administered. A sample is chosen carefully in consideration that such sample will represent the population under study. Babbie and Mouton (2001) illustrated that a sample is chosen in a random way so that chances or the operation of probability can be utilized. Convenience sampling is explained as the most attractive type of probability sampling. However, in the simplest case of convenience sampling is the basic sampling technique where a sample for study from a larger population is selected. Each individual is chosen entirely by chance and each member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample.

My research sample consisted of 30 respondents, who comprised of 4 senior staff members from the City of Windhoek, the 2 leaders of AR Movement, 20 low income earners and landless people, and 4 senior staff members from the Ministries of Land Reform as well as Urban and Rural Development. This sample formed the unit of analysis for this study. The convenience sampling technique was used to select the respondents of this study. The respondents were randomly selected with convenience sampling technique.

Babbie and Mouton (2001) defined convenience sampling as a type of non-probability sampling method where the sample is taken from a group of people easy to contact or to reach. For example, standing at a mall or a grocery store and asking people to answer questions would be an example of a convenience sample. There are no other criteria to the sampling method except that people be available and willing to participate. In addition, this type of sampling method does not

require that a simple random sample is generated, since the only criterion is whether the participants agree to participate.

### **3.5 Research Instruments**

Researcher used multiple instruments and techniques within the qualitative and quantitative approach of data collection. The following research instruments were employed: semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis.

#### **3.5.1 Questionnaires**

The questionnaire consisted of a set of questions designed to gather data for the purpose of analysis on the research topic. These questionnaires were distributed to respondents for completion. The questionnaires consisted of both close – ended and open – ended questions. The use of the questionnaires enabled the researcher to gather relevant information as it elicited first-hand information such as knowledge, perceptions and attitude on a specific topic from the respondents (Sullivan and Brockington 2004).

#### **3.5.2 Interviews**

Apart from the questionnaires, interviews were also conducted in consultation with the questionnaire. This was done to investigate personal, sensitive, and confidential information which would not be reflected by merely answering questionnaires. The interview session was arranged with the selected respondents. This was done for the purpose of verification of questions posed in the questionnaire, and also for close examination and understanding of answers that were provided in the questionnaire. The interview also provided the researcher with the opportunity to observe the respondents' behaviour when answering questions. Bruce (1994)



says advantages of interview are that the researcher can get very accurate data because one is actually in contact with the concerned people; the procedure which enables the researcher to act and gather more data.

### **3.5.3 Observation method**

It is anticipated that with enough time allowing for conducting the research, observation would be conducted throughout Windhoek in areas which is under investigation of national security and record as much as data as the researcher can. So, the researcher observed the state of availability of land in Windhoek and the state people living in informal settlements. For example, the overcrowdings, poor sanitation and other poor basic service delivery in illegally occupied locations.

### **3.6 Data analysis**

To analyse the data collected from respondents, the researcher made use of coding, transcription and thematic analysis. The process of analysing data involves counting and grouping together answers that are given to each structured question in a questionnaire into categories of similar types of answers given to unstructured questions. Data that collected was then analysed by using tables, pie charts, single or multiple bar graphs and then interpreted in a narrative form. Face to face interviews was tape recorded and then transcribed. The researcher classified similar responses and put them into themes and categories. Data collected was also analysed by using photos for the references of what has been described in the research.

### **3.7 Research Ethics**

The purpose of the study was first explained to participants and only after their consent was given did they partake in the study. The researcher strived for honesty, confidentiality and anonymity which include keeping the identity of respondents private. The issue of not offending people was a challenge as many people were not aware of the research topic which some people found offensive and a sensitive issue. Some thought the researcher would use this information for distributing in the various local media. To mitigate this, the researcher explained to them that their answers were strictly for research purposes, and that the confidentiality clause would be adhered to where no names allowed on the questionnaires. The researcher further explained the importance of conducting the research, the benefits and development that the research was going to bring to the communities. The researcher showed them her student card and a letter from the School of Military Studies, University of Namibia as proof of her being a student. This was done with the purpose of gaining confidence and trust from respondents that their contribution was meant strictly for study purposes.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS**

#### **4.1. Introduction**

This chapter looks at the data analysis and the findings after the author went into the field to find what is required. The chapter analyses the response rate of the administered questionnaires among all the respondents. The findings that were found were based on the research objectives which are to examine the availability of the urban land and implication it has on national security of Namibia. The author presents an illustration of the findings from the study, using bar graph, tables and pie charts that showed the percentage of the participants who responded from the population sampled in Windhoek.

#### **Main question**

- What is the current state of land in Windhoek?

#### **Sub question 1**

- What are the implications due to unavailability of the urban land on national security?

Data was analysed from different responses from the sampled groups. Primary and secondary data was analysed. The primary research question in the study was to investigate the availability of the urban land in Windhoek and implications it has on the national security of Namibia.

## **4.2. Response Rate**

A total of 30 questionnaires were administered to collect data from the staff members from the City of Windhoek, members of interest groups, and staff members from the Ministries of Land Reform as well as Urban and Rural Development, low income earners and landless people. Questionnaires were designed mainly to gauge the respondent's perceptions and attitudes towards the problem of urban land in Windhoek and whether it had become an acceptable habit. The questionnaire consisted of 14 close ended and open-ended questionnaires that were meant to extend the views of the respondents as much as possible.

The researcher administered questionnaires to the respondents, as well as interviewing respondents and observed the unoccupied land surrounding the Windhoek City. Additionally, the researcher had photos of illegal settlers at the out skirts of the City. The breakdown showing questionnaires administered against the questionnaires returned (response rate) is shown on the table below and it is expressed in percentages. Out of 30 questionnaires which were administered, the response rate was high with 85%, while those who did not respond were 10%, and 5% were not returned back and no reasons were provided. Therefore, the data obtained represent the majority of the sample size as shown in table 1 below.

**Table 1: Questionnaire Administration**

	<b>Total Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Questionnaire received back	25	85%
Unreturned questionnaire	2	5%
Unanswered questionnaire	3	10%
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100%</b>

*Table 1: Questionnaires Administration*

#### **4.3. Summary of Response rate findings**

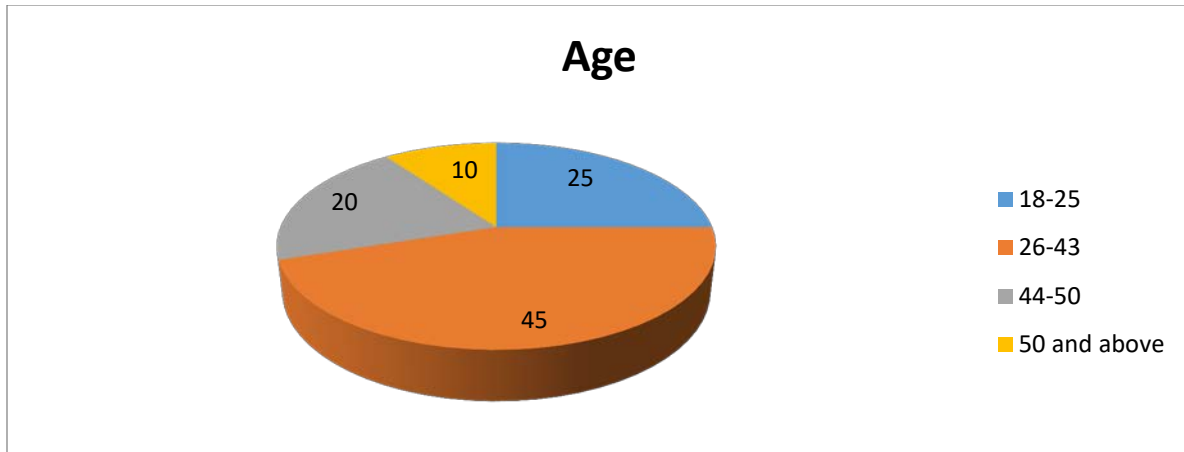
From a total of 30 respondents, the total response rate achieved was 85%. This is supported by Roscoe (1975) who states that sample sizes larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most researches projects and within this range, it is possible to sample 10% of the total population. The response rate was good considering that the researcher visited the participants at a short notice and most of the employees also work outside their offices and only return to their offices at the end of the day. From the data gathered and analysed, the researcher made conclusions thereof.

#### **Demographics**

Research findings with regard to the demographics shows that an association exists between employees' ages, gender, employment status, income earned, years in Windhoek and the type of accommodation of respondents.

### 4.3.1 Age

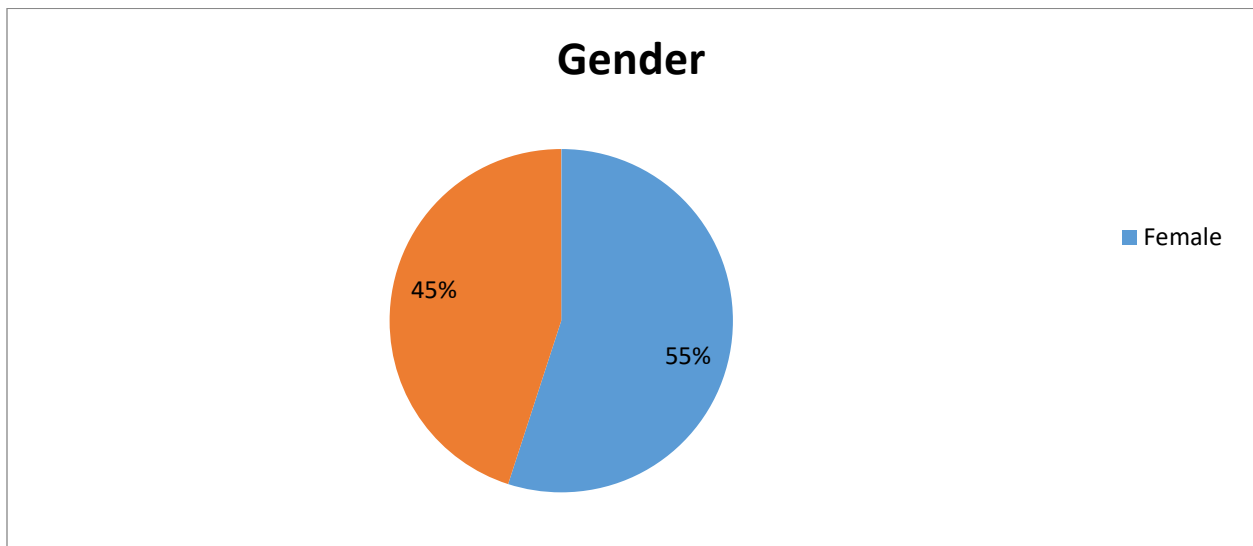
The majority of the respondents' age range is between 26-43 years with 45% and their demand for accommodation is high as well, because their concern for family stability is high. However, the age ranges from 46-50, represents 25% of the respondents, while the ages 50 and above were 10% and 18-25 years represent 20% respectively as shown on fig 1 below.



*Fig 1: Age*

### 4.3.2 Gender

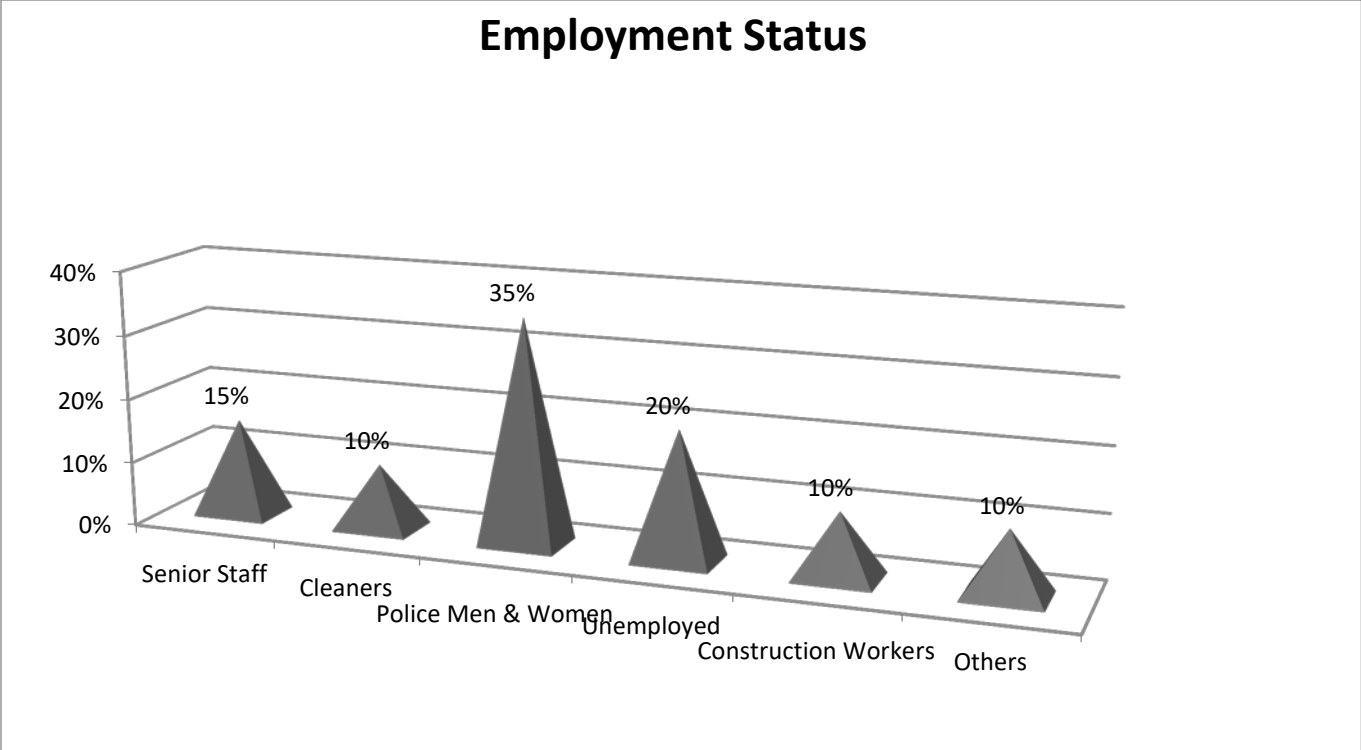
Females were the majority of the respondents, because they comprised of 55% of the administered questionnaires, meanwhile, males were 45% as shown on fig 2 below.



*Figure 2: Gender*

### 4.3.3 Employment status

In figure 3 below, the graph shows percentages of the participants who were asked their employment status in Windhoek. Of the 30 that participated, 20% are senior staff from different institutions, 25% are unemployed, 10% are cleaners, soldiers, police men and women represented 35% of the population and 10% was construction workers. It indicated that majority of the participants was soldiers, police men and women.

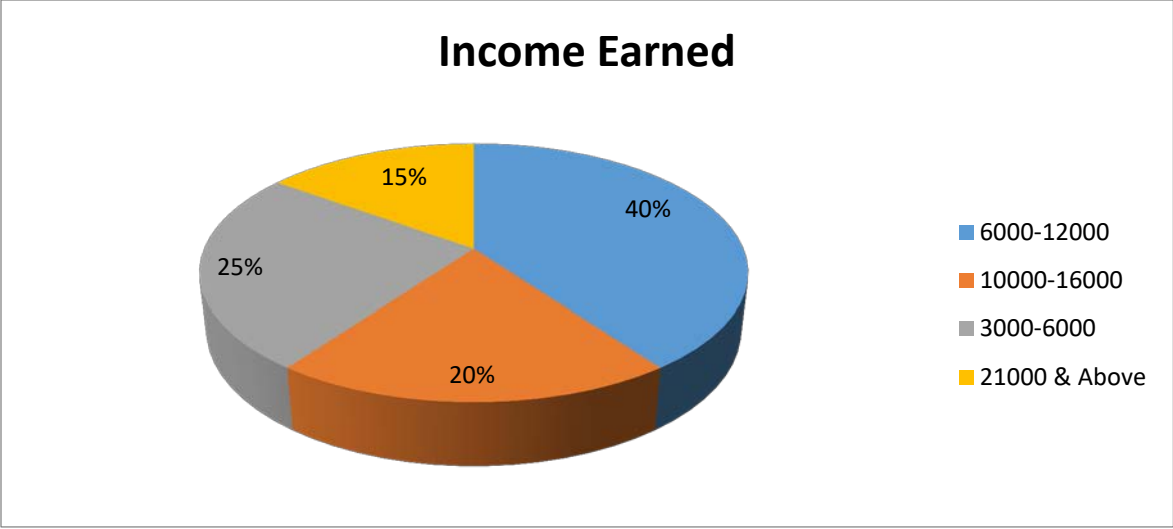


**Fig 3: Employment status**

**4.3.4 Income Earned**

Below figure 4 shows the income of many respondents indicates the income levels of respondents within the City of Windhoek. The majority of the respondents earn between N\$6000- 12000 with 40% followed by those getting 3000-6000 25% and N\$ 10000-16000 with 20%, while those getting and few earning N\$21000 and above with 15%.

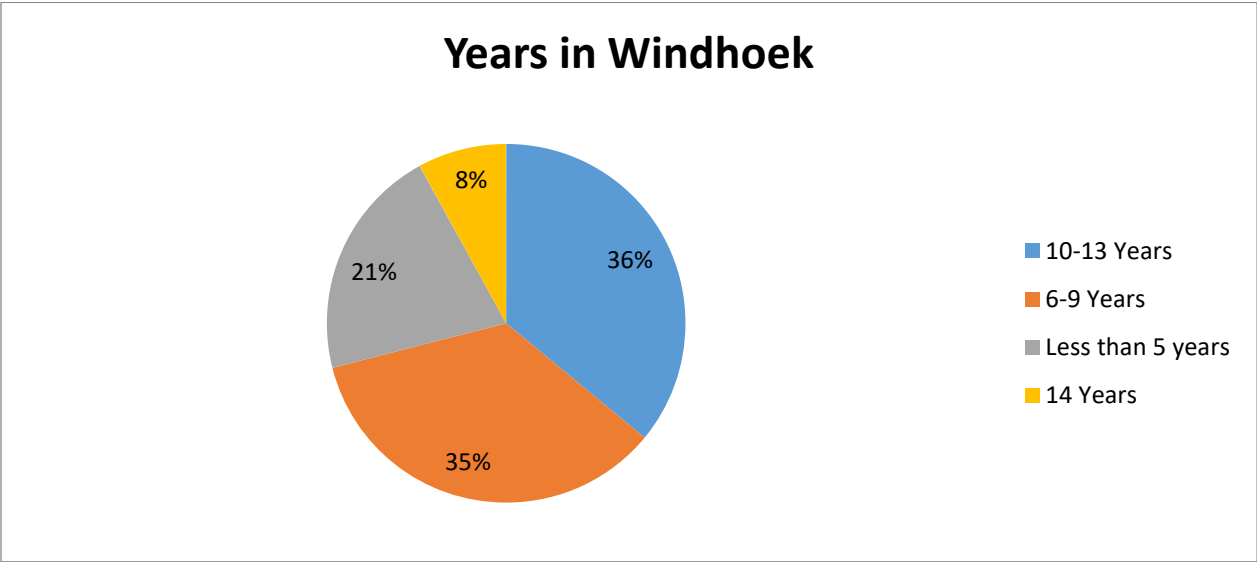




**Fig 4: Income in Namibian dollars**

**4.3.5 Years in Windhoek**

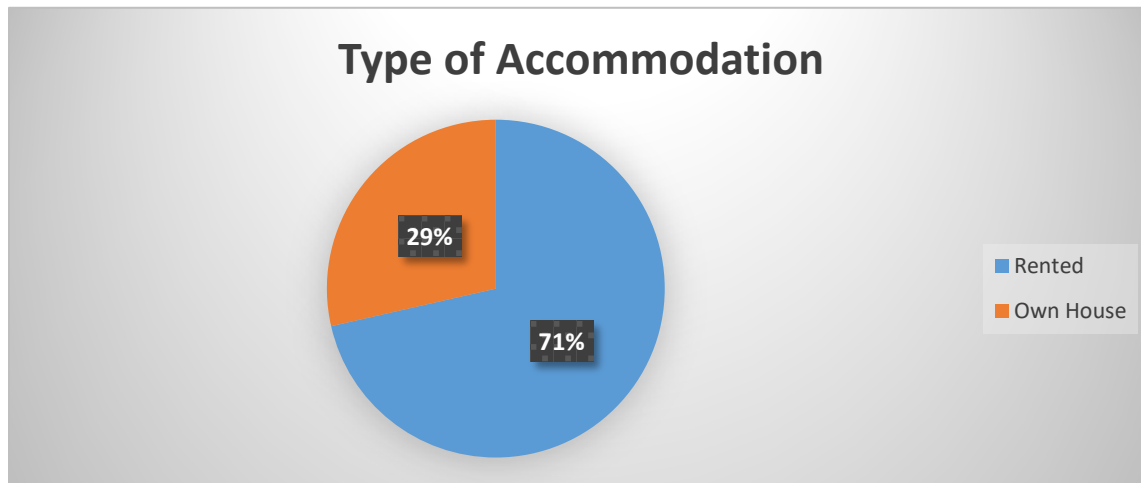
The majority of the respondents, have stayed in Windhoek for 10-13 years were represented by 36%, followed by those who stayed between 6-9 years 21%, those who stayed for more than 14 years 18% and those with less than 1(one) year representing 11%, as shown on fig 5 below.



**Fig 5: Years in Windhoek**

#### 4.3.6 Type of Accommodation

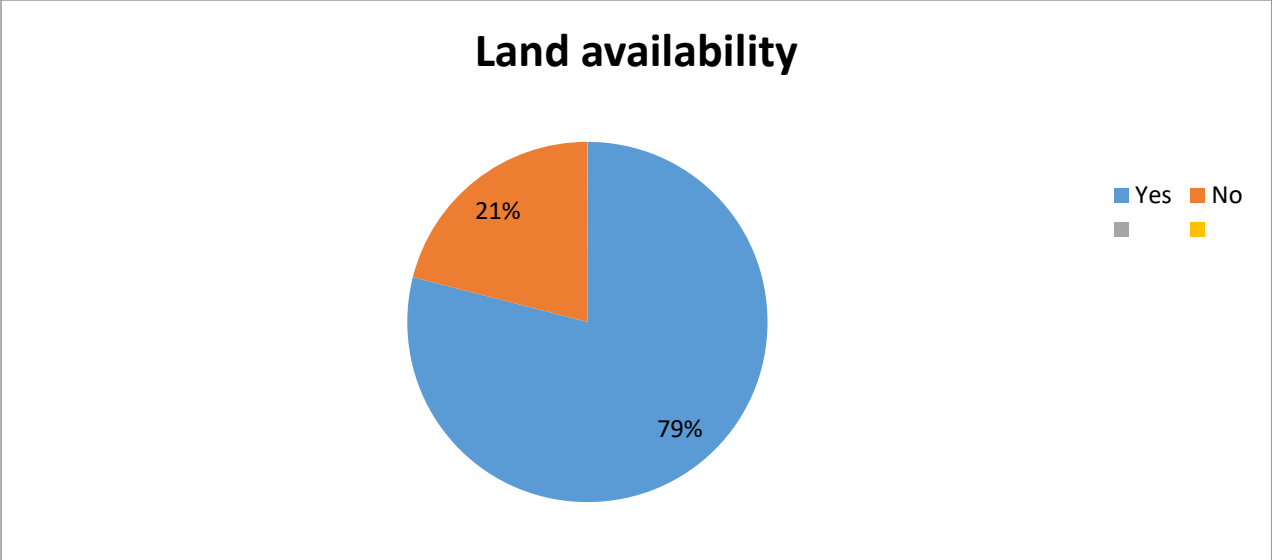
The results of the study indicated that those who are living on rented houses represents 71% and those living on their own houses were only 29%, as shown on fig 6 below.



*Fig 6: Type of Accommodation*

#### 4.3.7 Availability of land in Windhoek

The research objective was to examine the current state of land availability and service delivery of the urban land in Windhoek, however, research findings revealed that 79% said yes we do not really have a land shortage, there is abundant land here in Windhoek in the form of farms and forests, much of which can be converted into urban land. While 21% said no there is no land, as shown on fig 7 below. The same phenomenon was argued by Wegener (1994) who stated that urban land problems, policy distortions and failures in models adopted by various governments and municipalities in allocating and servicing of urban land are evident across the African continent, for example, Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, Zimbabwe and Namibia.

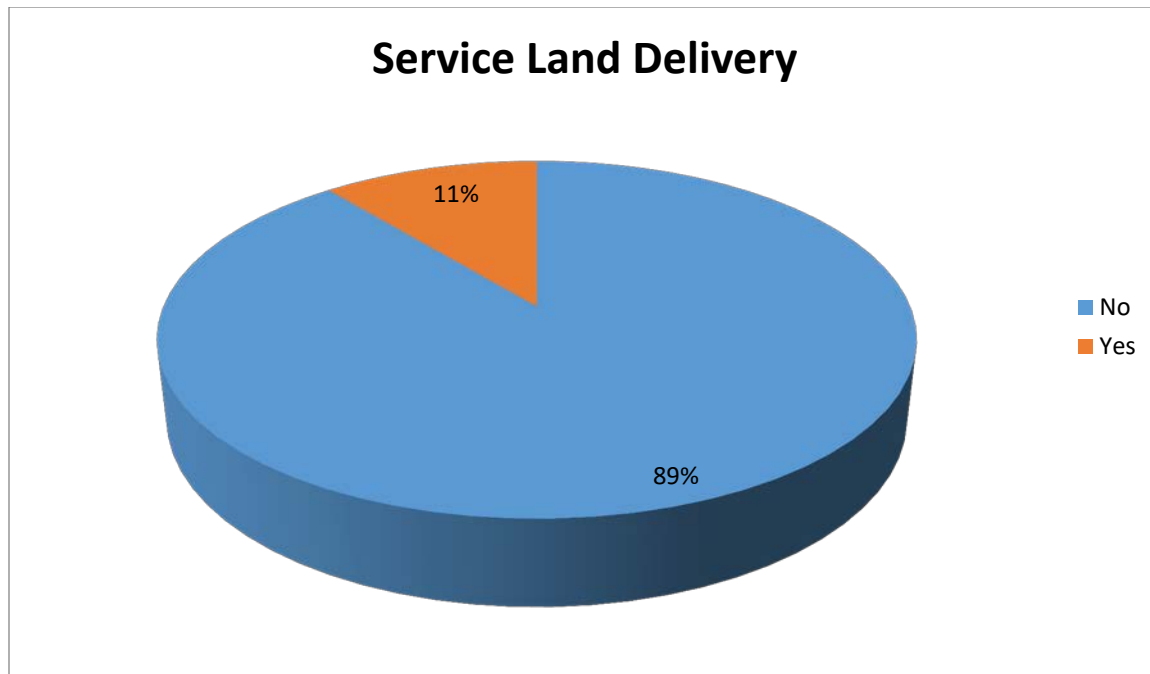


*Fig 7 Availability of land in Windhoek*

**4.3.8 Service Delivery of Land**

Part of research objective was to examine the service delivery of urban land by the City of Windhoek. The study results indicated that, 89% of the respondents said there is no service delivery, whilst 11% acknowledged the presents of service delivery as shown by fig 8 below.

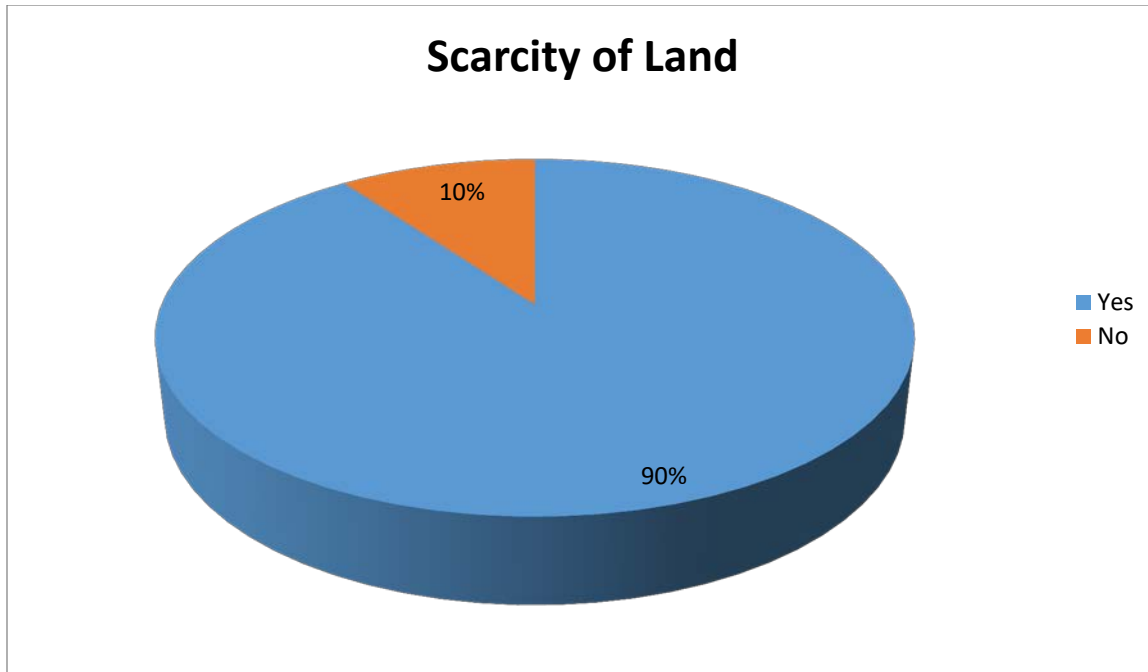
According to Ahmed (2016), the scarcity of both human and financial resources is likely to be a constraint and the cause of inefficient delivery of land services, thought needs to be given to securing financial resources to be able to scale-up schemes (i.e., do more schemes more quickly) and also to securing similar resources (e.g., Banks and Private Land Developers Societies) to provide serviced urban land.



*Fig 8: Service delivery of land in Windhoek*

#### **4.3.9 Scarcity of Land**

The other objective was to establish the level of urban land scarcity in Windhoek, and the findings revealed that, 90% respondents said yes there is acute land shortage in the City. On the other hand, 10% of the respondents said no there is no scarcity of land in Windhoek as indicated by the pie chart on fig 9 below. However, Deininger and Castagnini, (2006) viewed this type of scarcity as one of the primary causes of conflict and poverty. In this view, urban land crisis is attributed to growing populations combined with land scarcity, which may derive not just from a shortage of land but also from a lack of access to suitable land because of high prices, concentration of land, poor quality terrain or the colonial history of expropriation, law making and regulation (Bruce, 2011).

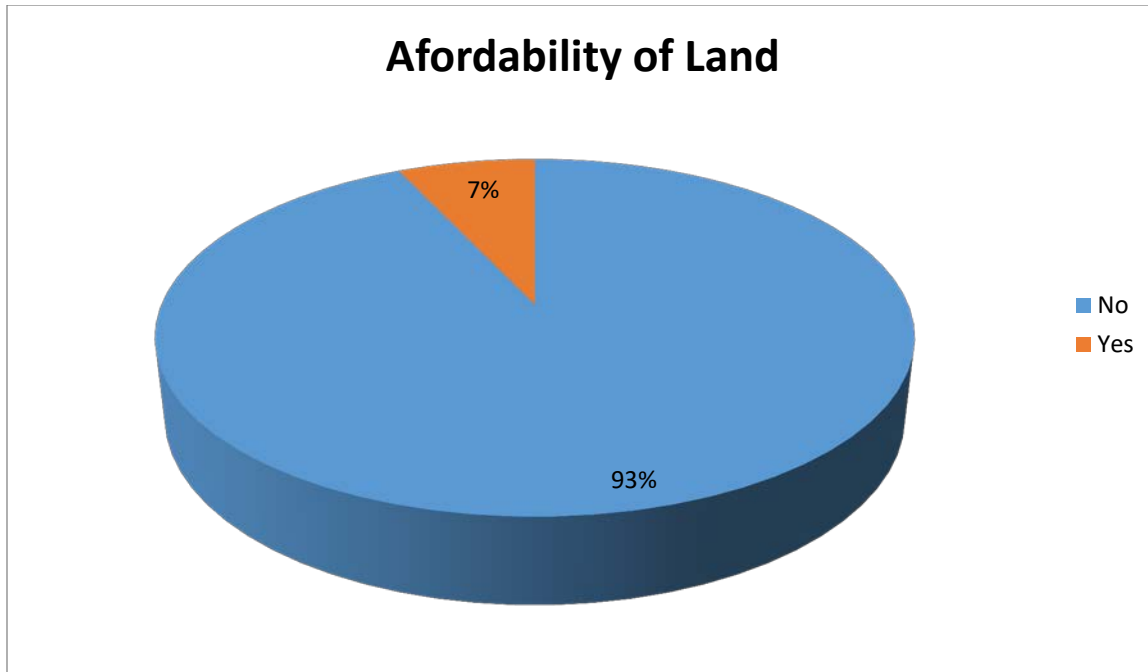


*Fig 9: Scarcity of land*

#### **4.3.10 Affordability of land**

The researcher found that, 93% of the respondents said urban land in Windhoek is not affordable, while 7% of the respondents said yes; it is affordable as shown on fig 10 below.

Dowall (1991) argues that land allocation processes are highly bureaucratized and inaccessible, it is too complex and requires technical knowledge and the majority of the people do not have access to land or have difficulties to afford it.



*Fig 10: Afordability of Land*

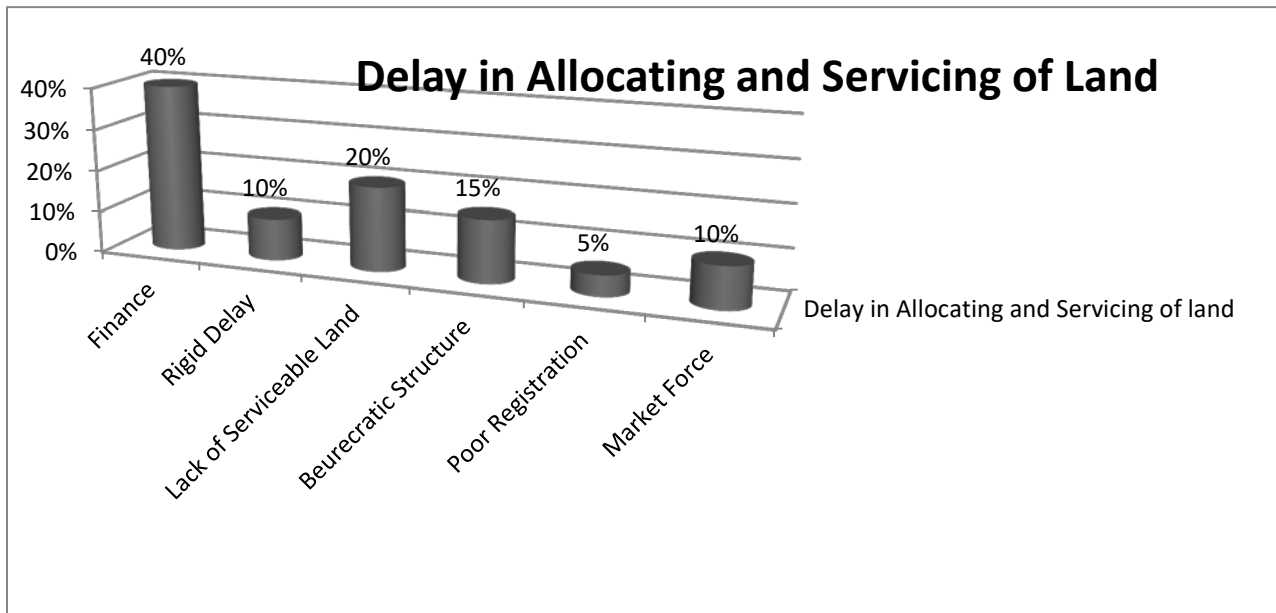
#### **4.4 Factor causing delay in land allocation and servicing**

The following are problems faced by the municipality in terms of land allocation and servicing. The research sought to capture the opinions of the participants on factors causing the long delays in land allocation, servicing and appropriation of land to the applicants as shown below, question posed to the participants through the questionnaire and the interviews as well.

Out of 30 respondents, 45% of the participants strongly alluded that finance is a major cause of delay on land allocation and servicing. The unavailability of serviceable land was identified by the participants as another major factor, with 25% strongly contending to that. Municipal rigidity, delays and regulations have been cited by the participants as also the cause of the delays to land allocation and servicing with 10% of the participants have alluded strongly to that. A furthered 15 % of the participants agreed that the bureaucratic structure and rigidness of the municipality has caused delays and ultimately have affected land allocation and servicing in

Windhoek. Poor registration and land control is one factor that was identified by the participants as a key factor that contributed to the problems with 7%. Unbalanced market forces have been identified as another factor causing problems in land allocation and servicing.

Windhoek is one of the most expensive cities in the world in terms of accommodation and property. Issues of prices work hand in hand with demand and supply. The supply of land in Windhoek is exceeded by the demand. This can be supported by the Ahmed (2016) eight models that are used by England to generate fund for city council services, these below eight models can be also used by City of Windhoek and town councils to generate funding for servicing of urban land, they are traditional local authority funding, multi- agency public sector funding, taxation initiatives, planning and development, opportunities and Bonds and commercial finance, income generating opportunities, endowments and voluntary community sector involvement.



**Figure 11: Delay in allocating and servicing of the urban land**

#### **4.5 Analysis of interview data on the availability of urban land and its impact on the national security of Namibia**

The research carried out interviews to selected sample groups. These samples were purposefully selected to participate in the interviews because they are experts in the field of land management or they are working hand in hand with the stakeholders of land development, appropriation and management in Namibia. All sample groups are represented in the interviews. A total of four questions were asked to the participants and all the questions were semi structured. The interview analysis was done within the framework of supporting secondary data.

The process of coding was used in the analysis of the interview responses from a group of participants who were purposely selected. Throughout the interviews data was analysed using a system of coding. The response was coded into categories and themes were identified from the categories. The following themes were identified from the chunk of data from the interviews.

##### ***Implications to the national security due to the unavailability of urban land in Namibia***

The research findings showed that the majority of respondents from the interviews said that the unavailability of land in Windhoek may leads to land grapping or illegally occupation of land which may threatens the peace and stability of the country. Some of the respondents said that unavailability of land for shelter may also leads to the national protest which may again result on injuries or death among the protesters. This notion was supported by Ellis (2009) that national protests can lead to civil war. Some of the respondents expressed their fear due to the rising of pressure groups such as the Affirmative Repositioning (AR). Some respondents said,



*“We are worried of what is happening in the country due to urban land scarcity, the formation of some pressure groups claiming their ancestral land rights is a sign of threat to the national security”*

The majority of interviewee pointed out that the insufficiency of urban land causes infrastructure developments, squatting, fast increase of land speculation, and problems for choosing place of businesses, insufficiency of urban equipment areas, and as a result of all of these, create unhealthy placed urban developments. Rapid urbanization and inadequate capability to avail serviced land for housing in urban areas have contributed to the development of informal settlements. Living in these settlements often poses significant health risks. Sanitation, food storage facilities, and drinking water quality are often poor; with the result that inhabitants are exposed to a wide range of pathogens. One of the respondents furiously said,

*“Access to health and other services are limited in informal settlement; overcrowding in those areas is contributing to stress, violence and increased problems of drugs and other social problems. We are tired of waiting decades for the land to build our proper shelters”*

Some interviewees blamed the City of Windhoek for destroying what the government termed illegal vending sites, structures and other informal business premises and homes, resulting in the displacement of hundreds of people, respondents further said that it's because of the City' slow process in allocating the land that they involved in an illegally occupation of land. Other features of national threat due to scarcity of urban land is poverty include hunger, poor health due to nutritional deficiencies, and unhealthy living conditions as well as limited access to school and health service that can lead to the growing number of street children in Windhoek city. This

notion is supported by the UN-HABITAT (2005) that due to the scarcity of the urban land to build shelters, many of the urban poor are forced to live in situations of extreme human insecurity, sheltered in informal settlements usually on the outskirts of cities, as a result of the shortage of affordable housing.

### **Factors that lead to land shortages**

According to research interviews carried out which sought to understand the participants opinion about land access. The majority of the participants agreed that there are land shortages in Windhoek. The participants were asked about their opinion about land access and availability. Most of the participants responded with negative answer that land is no available in Windhoek. One respondent said,

*“Land is difficult to get because there is no land at all, land is in short supply”*

This confirms reports from National Housing Enterprise (NHE, 2012). The NHE has a list of land applicants and this waiting list is having more than 100 000 applicants, who have applied for land for the past six years or more. The NHE report of 2011 pointed clearly that one major challenge was servicing the land and that the available serviceable land is not meeting the demand. One respondent said that,

*“It seems there is no land that is suitable for residential and business development because of the geographical factors”*

The national policy declares that everyone should have shelter that is healthy, safe, secure, accessible and affordable, that includes basic services, facilities and amenities and should enjoy freedom from discrimination, in housing and legal security of tenure. The majority of the

respondents alluded to the fact that they have been applying for land but the reply they get was that the land was not available yet.

*“We have been waiting for plots that we applied for 7 years ago; maybe there is no land after all”*

According to the report of the national housing policy of 2011, the city was taking a holistic approach of the problem of land, housing and services by giving priority to the existing deficient settlement (the “back log”). The focus of the City according to national housing policy 2012 was to upgrade the existing settlements and the city was on the early stage on implementation of the project. The city policy documents acknowledge that there are land shortages and they attributed it to urban problem constraints and urban pressure. Many respondents agreed to this as well, one said

*“The demand for land is too high because the population in Windhoek is growing and yet there is no land available for the people.”*

On the other hand, the majority of participants stressed out that corruption are one of the major causes of land shortage in Windhoek. Urban land remains a contested space because of the financial value attached to it. It is a political and economic asset which makes urban land a high stakes political game.

### **Addressing the issues of urban land policy and policy adjustment**

One of the fundamental research question and object was to find out what the respondents perceptions on the addressing the issue of the urban land laws, regulations, and policies on land allocation and servicing in Windhoek. The respondents were asked questions that what can be done to address land scarcity, their opinions on the land policy. The majority of them almost

100% of the responses pointed that there is need for policy adjustment. As been eluded by one who said?

*“The policies in Namibia are out-dated and they need to be changed, they must go along with the situation now”*

The National Housing Enterprise (2012) identified the crisis of land use planning in Namibia. Most participants alluded to policy change or policy adjustment. One participant said,

*“The policies are not good enough. The municipalities need to change their policies on land “*

The national housing policy recognized that there is need for land use regulations. The government identified the “vision 2030” as a solution or policy towards dealing with land problems. Most global and national policy documents challenge that land administration systems need to adopt a new strategy to cope with the poor land management, suitable development and economic growth (Molen, 2006). Most respondents in this study have pointed out there is need for effective land policy in Namibia. This has been alluded to by one participant, who said,

*“There is need for new effective land policies in Namibia. Some of the problems have been created by the previous apartheid government “there is need for effective land reform.”*

#### 4.6 Observation

**The pictures presented down provide snapshots of the general conclusions of the observations.**

Due to the Unavailability of affordable land, most of the poor people do not have enough income in order for them to have an access to financial institutions to obtain loans to buy houses and they cannot afford decent shelter. The cost of serviced land is unaffordable to most of the low-income earner group. Pictures below especially 1, 2 and 4 show the overcrowded and poor living conditions in Havana informal settlement generally as well as within the specific households, which threaten human security.



**Picture 1:** A woman sleeping in a corrugated iron house in Okahandja Park



**Picture 2:** Havana informal Settlement in Windhoek



**Picture 3:** Demolished shacks

In the picture above meme Maria and her boy child from 7 De Laan Otjomuise after her shack was demolished by the City Police following the operation that targeted the illegal structures and other informal business premises and homes, resulting in the displacement of hundreds of poor

people in Windhoek. The operation involved the bulldozing and demolishing of structures which housed thousands of poor urban dwellers.



**Picture 4:** Evident of overcrowded in Okahandja Park informal settlement



**Picture 5:** Unoccupied land

Above picture show an unoccupied land in Windhoek area, as evidence of how land may be available, however due to high financial cost, it remains un-serviced.

#### **4.4. Conclusion**

The objective of the study was to investigate the availability of the urban land and implications it has on the national security of Namibia. There is no doubt that in Windhoek there is high demand of land because there is no land available. The empirical evidence from this chapter shows that land delivery system in Windhoek is faced with problems that need to be addressed. A critical analysis in this chapter shows shortcomings in land allocation and service delivery in Windhoek.

A critical analysis has identified the following determinants; land service delays, land policy and regulations, land modelling, and land supply. Urban land policies and land modelling need to be addressed and the fundamental questions were what effective policies and what effective model is ideal for the city of Windhoek. The analysis was focused on the investigation of such determinants to the effective land delivery system in Windhoek.



# **CHAPTER FIVE**

## **SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the availability of the urban land in Windhoek and the implications it has on the national security of Namibia. This chapter provides a summary of the findings of the empirical investigation and the conclusions drawn from those findings. It finally makes recommendations that will hopefully assist in the urban land delivery as well as servicing. It also contains recommendations that will help town planners, policy makers, land developers and all stakeholders on land issues to improve on their practices.

### **5.2 Conclusions**

The study focused on investigating the availability of the urban land and the implication it has on the national security in Namibia. The research questions focused on determining the problems that faced the land delivery system, the implication that the unavailability of urban land it has on the national security and how City of Windhoek can deal with the problems related to land management. In order to ascertain the effectiveness and efficiency of the current land programs, policies and model, the study ironed out the effective and efficient strategies towards effective land management programmes.

The study proved that land allocation delays and land shortages have been brought about by a combination of factors. And these factors are: finance, unavailability of serviceable land,

municipal rigid procedures and unbalanced demand and supply. The City of Windhoek faces problem of shortage of serviced land and the cost involved in servicing the land is prohibitively high, the cumbersome and process involved in the allocation of land. This limits the provision of affordable land for housing, especially to the low-income segments. It is evident that the challenge is not only lack of land for houses, but equally the acute shortage of serviced plots for housing and commercial development.

The study identified that most of the responses given by the respondents pointed to these factors as the major factors that promote delays in land development in Windhoek. Finance in particular is one major problem identified by the majority of the participants. Financing and funding are separate issues. Financing is concerned with the provision of financial capital. Funding is concerned with servicing the capital. However, financing can influence the efficient delivery of infrastructure services when the two are effectively coupled. Given appropriate arrangements, efficient financing instruments can assist in the provision of an efficient roll out of infrastructure, with appropriate priorities met, and with neither leads nor lags in the process.

This state of affairs brought about mainly by the land service delays and land shortages has been brought lack of adequate financial resources and bureaucracy in the land delivery process. Coupled with the aforementioned realities, is the rapid urbanization and the mushrooming of informal settlements on the outskirts of Windhoek city. The high Windhoek population growth also has an adverse impact on the planning and the City's developmental efforts. It is for this reason that for the past few years the City has not able to cope with the demand for residential plots particularly in the low-income categories.

The study further proved that the issue of land scarcity in Windhoek if not addressed, it will be going to pose a threat to national security, as it's evident by the formation of some pressure groups claiming their ancestral land and AR threatening to take land by force if their demand is not met. Moreover, the findings suggested that more than 50% of Windhoek residents live in a poor living condition in the informal settlement without the proper basic needs which is a threat to human security.

The study has identified that there is an imbalance in the market forces, when it comes to land demand and supply in Windhoek. An adequate supply of urban land across the broad land use categories is important for social, economic and environmental reasons. By determining the amount and location of land available for different land uses, planning policies influence the location, size, and scale of business activities; and the type and cost of residential and dwellings

### **5.3 Recommendations**

#### ***Imbalance supply and demand of land in Windhoek***

The study recommended that the imbalances in land supply and demand in Windhoek are one major problem that needs to be addressed. The demand of land in Windhoek has surpassed supply five times more, increasing the problem of land allocation and servicing in Windhoek. In markets where the prices are allowed to adjust in response to demand and supply the trend in price of land will reflect the underlying changes in the demand for and supply of land. If land is in short supply relative to demand, competition among consumers will bid up the market price. As the price rises, suppliers will seek to develop more land, or to utilize the existing supply to offer more blocks of the type that consumers are seeking and this has been the case in Windhoek at the moment.

### ***Central government support***

There is an urgent need for the central government to significantly boost financial support to local authorities across the country to enhance their capacities to service land. In fact, the purpose of decentralization will not be fully achieved if local authorities have no adequate capacities to deliver on their mandate. A review of the land acquisition and registration process also needs to be undertaken in order to streamline the processes for timely land delivery.

### ***Revisit the existing policies***

City of Windhoek need to review the systems of operations looking at the existing policies, methods of land sale and finding medium term solutions. Furthermore, the city must look at the ways of how to deal with the current application backlog and strategies to improving the land management services and administrative processes. The study further recommended that the City of Windhoek as the capital city it needs to be redesigned. Considering that the population is growing there is need for new planning and changes in urban policies.

There are too many agencies involved in land management in Windhoek. These agencies have increased the land problems. In many countries, public land development agencies do little to improve land market operations or to provide land and housing for the poor and quite often they pose a serious financial drain to governments. It is important for the Namibia government to critically assess the performance of these organizations and take corrective actions. Such actions might include restructuring very large parastatal organizations, privatizing all or part of these corporations, or liquidating them.

In conclusion, this chapter has broadly enabled the researcher of this study to have a better understanding in relation to the research are and also realise a need for further investigation on

the urban land management in the City of Windhoek as well as the whole Namibia urban land at large.

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## Appendix A: Research Questionnaire



Faculty of Science

**Topic: An investigation into the availability of the urban land and its implications for national security of Namibia: A case study of Windhoek (Khomas Region)**

### **Research Questionnaire**

I am Ericka Simaneka Namandje, a second-year student toward Master of Arts in Security and Strategic Studies at the University of Namibia, School of Military Science. I am conducting a study on the availability of the urban land and implications it has on the national security of Namibia as part of my thesis. The aim of the study is to test perceptions, in-depth information, and to recommend solutions based on research and best practices that would enhance the effectiveness of the urban land allocation to every Namibian to build shelters and to address the issue of urban land scarcity in Windhoek. Your participation in this survey is voluntary. In addition, information provided will be treated as confidential, and will only be used for the purposes of the study.

I, therefore, kindly ask you to complete the following questionnaire to your best honest ability.

Yours

Ericka Simaneka Namandje

Kindly indicate your choice by ticking the appropriate box and explain where required.

## Questionnaire

### Section A

✓ Indicate your response by ticking.

1. **Gender** Male  Female

2. **Age** 18- 25  36- 43  44-51  52 and above

3. **What is your employment Status (elaborate)?**

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4. **Income in Namibian Dollars**

2000- 6000  7000- 11000  12000- 16000  17000- 21000  25000  
and above

5. **How long have you been in Windhoek?**

Less than a year  2-5yrs  6- 9 yrs.  10- 13yrs  14yrs and above

6. **Which type of accommodation do you have?**

Rented  Own house

Indicate the appropriate answer by ticking Yes or No on the information below

Question	Yes	No
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7. As one of the citizens of Windhoek, is there land available at the City of Windhoek?		
8. Would you say there is service delivery of land by the City of Windhoek?		
9. Would you say there is scarcity of land for houses in Windhoek?		
10. Would you say land in Windhoek is expensive?		

11. What are the factors that lead to slow process of land allocation and servicing in Windhoek?

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12. What are the factors that led to the land scarcity in Windhoek?

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13. What are human and national security implications (socio economic) of unavailability of urban land?

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14. What can be done to address urban land issue in Namibia?

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*End*