# AN ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC SECURITY CHALLENGES OF URBANISATION ON THE LIVELIHOOD OF THE RESIDENTS OF HAVANA AND GREENWELL MATONGO INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS OF WINDHOEK, NAMIBIA

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN THE PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE MASTER OF ARTS IN SECURITY AND STRATEGIC STUDIES

OF

THE UNIVERSITY OF NAMIBIA

BY

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August 2017

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**Approval page**

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**Declaration**

I am here by declaring that this Thesis is my own work and that to the best of my knowledge, this research paper has never been submitted to any other Institution. I have acknowledged all other author's idea and referenced their work.

……

Signature

Date:

Therefore, no part of this research paper may be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form without the prior written permission of the author, or the University of Namibia.

**Dedication**

This study is dedicated to all my lecturers who devoted their tirelessly effort on presenting various modules to the students of Master of Arts in Security and Strategic Studies. To My fellow students who had been instrumental to overcome various challenges during our study.

**Acknowledgement**

This thesis would not be realised without the support of the following people and institutions:

I would like to thank the Ministry of Defence specifically the Directorate of Education and Civil Training for the sponsorship of this course.

I would like to thank General Officer Commanding 21 Motorized Infantry Brigade, Brigadier General Erastus Nomongula Kashopola and Deputy Brigade Commander, Colonel Erastus Mbaxu Nakapipi who granted me a permission to conduct my research.

My sincere appreciation goes to Prof Blaauw Senior Lecturer, Prof van Rooyen Senior Lecturer, Ms Maria Rukoro Head of Department Security and Strategic Studies, Mr John Anghuwo Head of Department Aeronautic Science, Ms Gabriella Nguluwe Junior Lecturer and Major Heita Administrator School of Military Science, for their unwavering support during the compilation of my research paper.

I would like to thank University of Namibia, Namibia Statistic Agency, City of Windhoek and Khomas Regional Council for providing me valuable information for my research paper.

I would like to thank all the participants from Greenwell Matongo and Havana Informal Settlements.

My sincere gratitude goes to my supervisor Dr Simon E. Akpo and co-supervisor Dr Vincent Mwange (Associate Dean for the School of Military Science UNAM) for their guidance and supervision throughout the research process. I would like to sincerely thank Ms Sepiso Mwange who edited my thesis. This research wouldn't have reached this stage without your assistance.

**ABSTRACT**

The rural-urban migrations of the residents from the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements, to Windhoek, pose socio-economic challenges of urbanisation. These challenges are various security challenges such as unemployment, poverty, crime and the negative effect on the environment. Therefore, it is important to recognise that migration, in excess, is both a symptom of national security threats and instability. Understanding the causes, determinants, and consequences these security challenges pose, as a result of rural-urban migration, is important in formulating socio-economic wellbeing policies and strategies to curb human and environmental insecurity. These strategies shall to alter the pattern of environmental security and socio-economic security challenges such as land pollution, environmental protection, equal income distribution and control of population growth. It is crucial to note that these security challenges can be addressed by formulating socio-economic policy strategies that will address the income disparities between rural and urban residents which, will directly or indirectly, influence the migration process. The security challenges are analysed based on urban management such as citizens' participation in the mainstream economy, good governance, access to urban infrastructure and services such as drainage system, water reticulation system, electricity supply, road networks, access to education and training, access to health facilities and access to decent housing. The impetus of the analysis further focuses on other social ills or human insecurities such as prostitution, alcohol and drug abuse, and the escalation of land grabbing. The combination of these socio-economic security challenges are all the products of urbanisation and have to be addressed urgently. Todaro and Smith (2012) rural-urban migration model theory was employed to understand the rural-urban migratory trends.

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**Acronyms/abbreviations**

**AA -** Affirmative Action

**AR –** Affirmative Reposition

**AIDS** – Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

**BEE -** Black Economic Empowerment

**CCTV** - Close Circuit Television

**CEO** - Chief Executive Officer

**COSAFA** - Council of Southern Africa Football Association

**$CO_2$ -** Carbon Dioxide

**CoW**- City of Windhoek

**GBV**- Gender Based Violence

**GDP -** Gross Domestic Product

**GNI** - Gross National Income

**GNP** - Gross National Product

**HIV** - Human Immuno Deficiency Virus

**HPP** - Harambee Prosperity Plan

**IUM -** International University of Management

**LDCs** – Less Developed Countries

**MAWF** - Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry

**MOD** - Ministry of Defence

**MVA** - Mega Volt Amperes

**NALAO -** Namibia of Local Authorities Officers

**Namvet-** Namibia War Veterans Trust

**NBC** - Namibia Broadcasting Corporation

**NDP4 -** National Development Plan 4

**NHE -** National Housing Enterprise

**NHP** - National Housing Policy

**NLFS -** Namibian Labour Force Survey

**NPC -** National Planning Commission

**NSA -** Namibia Statistic Agency

**NTTU** - Namibia Transport and Taxi Union

**NUST –** Namibia University of Science and Technology

**$O_2$ –** Oxygen

**PLAN** – People's Liberation Army of Namibia

**PSUs -** Primary Sampling Units

**SADC** - Southern African Development Community

**SADF** - South African Defence Forces

**SDFN -** Shack Dwellers Federation of Namibia

**SMEs -** Small and Medium Enterprises

**SPSS –** Statistical Package for Social Scientists

**SWABOU** - South West African Building Society

**SWAPO -** South West Africa People's Organisation

**SWATF -** South West Africa Territorial Force

**TGNU** -Transitional Government of National Unity

**TIPEEG –** Targeted Intervention Programme for Employment and Economic Growth

**UN -** United Nations

**UNAM -** University of Namibia

**UNDP** - United Nations Development Program

**UNFPA -** United Nations Population Fund

**UNOs-** United Nations Organisations

**U.S.** - United States

**WASSP** - Water and Sanitation Supply Policy

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# CHAPTER 1

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1 Orientation of the study

Urbanisation is a natural phenomenon which involves the influx of rural migrants toward urban areas due to socio-economic disparity and geo-political insecurity. Peng, Chen & Cheng (2012) contend that urbanisation refers to the process by which towns and cities grow over a period of time due to economic development, modernisation and industrialisation, whereas demographically, the term denotes the redistribution of populations in urban settings over a period of time.

According to the United Nations (2009), human security is moving away from the traditional, state-centric conception that focused primarily on the safety of states from military aggression, to one that concentrates on the security of the individuals, their protection and empowerment. Consequently, human security draws attention to a multitude of threats that cut across different aspects of human life, namely, unemployment insecurity, environmental insecurity, poverty insecurity and crime insecurity.

The United Nations (2011), revealed that one of the major challenges of contemporary and future urbanisation derives from the fact that practically all urban population growth occurs in poor countries, and that a large proportion of the future urban population will live in conditions of poverty. If there is no balance between the supply and demand of human resources, the continuous urban population growth will threaten the limited urban resources.

According to Muñiz-Solari, Li, and Schleicher (2010), migration today is a strong expression of spatial flows, which not only gives life and energy to the dynamic global economy, but also to changes in demography, societies, and cultures. One of the important spatial flows shaping the global economy today is the migration of people at global level, continental level (Africa), national level and the local level. Urbanisation is one of the security threats that increase poverty and utter misery in sprawling shantytowns or slums (Fjeldstad, 2005). The majority of rural migrants are peasants who cannot afford to purchase decent housing; hence they live in shacks in the informal settlements. Urbanisation emerged as a natural phenomenon that was influenced by rural-urban migration toward cities and towns with the expectation of a better life. However, a large proportion of these migrants live in deplorable conditions in the informal settlements, without proper sanitation and water reticulation systems.

### 1.1.1 Urbanisation security at global perspective

Urbanisation in Asia, Latin America, the Caribbean and Northern America is more concentrated in large cities which have been major aspects of the transformations of economic development (United Nations, 2011). The urban areas are focal points of economic growth, innovation, employment opportunities; access to better education and health care as well as other basic services such as clean water, sanitation and transportation, which are limited in rural areas. Urbanisation offers important opportunities for economic and social development, if well managed. However, the rapid urbanisation growth in developing countries, especially in Africa, is a security challenge. The capacity of African governments to adequately plan and meet the basic needs of the growing number of rural migrants becomes more complex and diverse due to financial constraints.

According to Muñiz-Solari, et al. (2010), migration in the world is shaped by human beings who make the decision to leave their hometown or even their own countries and move elsewhere to work, study, retire, or reunite with their families. Developing countries are experiencing rapid urbanisation growth throughout the world where human security opportunities and better livelihoods exist. Miheretu (2011), argues that today almost half the world population lives in cities and the number of people living in urban areas has risen steadily by around 1 million every year. An influx of people to urban areas, seeking better social and economic opportunities, has inevitably posed a security threat in the cities. It is for this reason, that rapid urbanisation is unsustainable for both governments and local authorities. This is because urban facilities and urban land and municipal services cannot cope with the increasing demands of the urban population, which results in an increase in unemployment and poverty, and this in turn, contributes to the high crime rate in the cities.

### 1.1.2 Urbanisation security at continental perspective

African cities are characterised by inadequate urban governance policies, low urban institutional capacities, high levels of inequality among rural-urban migrants, as well as limited access to decent houses, which all contribute to the escalation of informal settlements (United Nations-Habitat, 2014). The influx of rural migrants, with the hope to improve their livelihood in urban areas, has contributed to the rapid growth of African cities. It is crucial therefore, to analyse the emerging security challenges which rural-urban migrants in African cities are being exposed to, with the hope of facilitating discussions and mitigating solutions that are innovative and effective at regional, national and local authority levels, on how best to address security threats.

The rural migrants from Africa share similar characteristics with other migrants from Asia and Latin America, who are youth, school leavers and the unemployed (Todora and Smith, 2012). The influx of school-leavers in the migration stream deprives the rural areas of valuable human capital to contribute to the socio-economic development of the rural areas. Abbass (1998),contends that the rural-urban migrants constitute certain classes, categories and strata of the society that are characterized with certain social-economic security challenges in which unemployment and poverty are the highest and most fundamental. Traditionally, the rural inhabitants have the experience to do domestic work such as cultivation, farming, cooking and harvesting. The next section will discuss the security challenges at regional level.

### 1.1.3 Urbanisation security at regional perspective

According to the United Nations-Habitat (2014), in the Southern African cities migration during colonial times was motivated by contract labour where men migrated from rural areas to work in mines, farms and factories, for a period of two or more years, away from their families. After independence, rural migrants migrated to urban areas seeking for employment opportunities, better education, access to health services and better living conditions. Contemporary rural-urban migrants are characterised by both men and women, unlike during the colonial era where migration was dominated by men who were employed as contract workers.

Migration is a form of social change and can also be examined as a societal transformation process. It is a transition from one social situation to another, which offers the alternative of readjustment or maladjustment; and that in all cases, a degree of adjustment on the part of

individuals, groups, communities and nations (Syed, 2003). The fundamental aspects of migration entail push and pull factors, which involve the movements of marginalised and discriminated people of the society due to socio-economic insecurity threats, political unrest and psychological challenges. Makowsky, Tavares, Makany, and Meier (2006), postulate that migration is caused by natural disasters, armed conflict, economics and cultural networks. The migration trends involve the perceptions of the risk of being persecuted due to tribal connotation, cultural difference and religious diversity. The rural migrants are also attracted to the better socio-economic opportunities in urban areas and this has posed national security threat.

### 1.1.4 Urbanisation security national perspective

"Urban constitutes of people from many different walks of life come to the cities, not only seeking to improve their livelihood, but also as tourists" (Simone and Abouhani, 2005, p.1). Migration from rural to urban areas has played a historical key role in the rapid growth of cities and towns; it continues to be an important component of Namibia's urbanisation trend.

The City of Windhoek (CoW), Swakopmund and Walvis Bay, are favourable areas for urbanisation growth in Namibia due to perceptions of a better livelihood (National Planning Commission, 2004). Population growth in these urban areas, inevitably, threatens the human security because urban facilities and general conditions are being over-burdened by the influx of people seeking better opportunities and living standards. Indongo et al. (2013), argue that the CoW has been the major focus of urbanisation in Namibia. Although the livelihood opportunities in the CoW, especially in the informal settlements, are not conducive, the urban population continues to grow. People who come to the urban areas with the hope of improving their lives

continue to live in harsh conditions in the informal settlements, outside the actual urban area, with unacceptable levels of security.

### 1.1.5 Urbanisation security at City of Windhoek perspective

The high standard of living in the CoW has forced the poor people to continue establishing shacks in the informal settlements, which in most cases, result in disorder and anarchy. Urban planners are currently experiencing problems with regard to unparalleled economic and population growth within the municipal borders and peri-urban areas, where informal settlements are growing rapidly and the local authority cannot cope with the high demand of basic socio-economic needs. In other words, the demand of new migrants is higher than the supply of municipal services. These challenges have disrupted the efficient and effective service delivery of most urban councils to their residents.

It is with this background that the researcher conducted an exploratory study into the socio-economic security threats posed by urbanisation and recommends some possible mechanisms to mitigate the security challenges. Additionally, suggestions on how to improve the livelihood of the residential areas of the informal settlements will be offered.

Urbanisation provides some positive consequences, such as attracting investors, which results in job creation, and the influx into urban areas brings people with new ideas and skills. “It is a good process for development that increases access to modern facilities and services and it is good for business and economic growth as it increases the purchasing power” (Indongo, et al. 2013, p.14). However, it is important to note that, as advantageous as urbanisation is, it is also a source of insecurity, and entails various socio-economic developmental aspects. For example, a large

population has the buying power, they are the centre of attraction for investors, who in turn contribute to the socio-economic development of the city and new technological innovation.

In addition, this research analysed the advantages and disadvantages of urbanisation. The disadvantages of urbanisation include the escalation of the crime rate, unemployment, poverty, unaffordable houses and the lack of access to urban land. On the other hand, the advantages include the support to the economic growth of the city, especially when one considers the SME's which provide employment opportunities that contribute to the national fiscus and cheap labour.

In this study, the researcher investigated the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation, and provided the empirical theory to the authorities, that may contribute to better planning, by considering the results of the study. Todaro and Smith's (2012), rural-urban migration model was adopted as a theoretical framework to gain better insight on the impact of urbanisation, its causes and socio-economic security challenges in CoW. This indicator explains that there is a continuous population growth in urban areas, and this is one of the security challenges the Windhoek City Council is currently experiencing.

## 2.1 Statement of the problem

The security challenges the Windhoek City Council faces are a result of the continuous migration of people from rural areas into CoW in search of social and economic opportunities such as employment, better education, and better health care (City of Windhoek, 2011). Sadly, in most cases, these opportunities usually do not materialize. The potential security threats investigated include unemployment, crime, poverty and environmental insecurities.

The influx of rural-urban migration in the urban areas has posed security threats to citizens, like high unemployment rates, traffic congestion, energy insecurity, escalation of unplanned informal settlements, lacks of basic services, health insecurity, high crime rates, and environmental insecurity (Indongo, Angombe and Nickanor, 2013). The potential security threats caused by the influx of rural-urban migration in the informal settlements include the exposure of shack dwellers to the risk of fire and communicable diseases. Their hygiene is at stake because of a lack of private toilets, and their security is compromised because they can be evicted, robbed and assaulted at any time.

Therefore, the impetus of this study was to examine the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements and demonstrate the extent to which the inflow of rural-urban migration contributes to the advantages and disadvantages of social and economic security challenges. Additionally, this study analysed certain salient objectives about unemployment, poverty, crime and environmental security challenges in the study areas. The study analysed urban development policies and socio-economic security programmes which shape the livelihood of the target population.

### 1.3 Objectives of the study

The main objective of this study was to analyse the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation in the livelihood of the residents of the CoW, especially the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. The specific objectives of this research include:

- To assess the security challenges posed by urbanisation on unemployment, poverty, access to services and amenities, crime and environment.
- To establish the characteristics of migrants regarding their age, gender, marital status, educational levels and socio-economic status in the two areas of study, in CoW.

Given the concept of the socio-economic impact of urbanisation, unemployment, poverty, crime and environmental security threats, this study sets out to examine the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements to highlight processes of formation, administration, spatial characteristics and the lifestyle of its residents. The main task was to document the livelihood strategies of households, the security threats of the housing deficit and the service delivery by the local authorities. The study analysed the urban management and macro-economic policies of the central government and local authorities in addressing security challenges facing the target population.

The study examines the sources of income-generation activities of households and identifies the roles of heads of household in terms of survival strategies. Based on the critical analysis of the security challenges posed by urbanisation, the study concluded by highlighting the security threats and suggested how to improve socio-economic security challenges and empower the inhabitants of the two informal settlements through employment creation, poverty alleviation, minimising crimes and protecting the environment.

### 1.4 Significance of the study

The research finding will contribute to the existing body of academic knowledge by providing a clear understanding of the socio-economic impact of urbanisation into the livelihoods of the residents of the named informal settlements. In addition, the Windhoek City Council could also use the findings from this research to address the security challenges facing the target population, not only in the named informal settlements but, in other informal settlements sprouting in CoW. Future researchers also benefit as the findings can be used as guide and a launch pad into related areas of research.

### 1.5 Limitation of the study

The study was limited to the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements, and the sample size was limited to 350 households. This was due to time and financial constraints. The sample population provided better information that reflected the livelihoods of the residents of the two informal settlements. In addition, another limitation the researcher encountered was the unwillingness of the targeted population to participate in the research. This could be attributed to the literacy level of the residents as some of them were not able to write, which, in turn, impacted the answering of the questionnaires.

### 1.6 Definitions of concepts

This section contains the definitions of key words that have been commonly used in the thesis. These definitions will help the readers to have a clear understanding of the research objectives.

**Community-** Community is defined as people who have something in common, and that share one geographical area or share the same residential areas, or shared characteristics other than place, in which people are linked together by factors such as common ethnic origin, religion, occupation or leisure pursuits (Erriky, 2013; cited Crow and Allan 1994).

**Crime-** Crime is defined as an immoral and harmful act that is regarded as criminal by public opinion because it is an injury to so much of the moral sense (Erriky, 2013; Vold, 1984).

**Data** – Any information obtained about a sample (Jack, Fraenkel, Norman, and Wallen, 2011).

**Dependent variable** – A variable affected or expected to be affected by the independent variable also called criterion or outcome variable (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Discussion (of a study)** - A review of the results including limitations of a study, placing the findings in a broader perspective (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Emigration** - To move away from one country or section of a country to another (Storm, 1997).

**Empirical** – Based on observable evidence (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Employees** – The number of employees of an establishment refers to the actual numbers of persons employed in an establishment that often appear on its payroll (Labour Work Survey, 2009).

**Employment** - Is operationally defined as the number of workers who can be classified as full-time employees, including workers on paid vacations or other types of leave, workers on unpaid short-term absences; salaried officers, executives, and staff members of incorporated firms; employees temporarily assigned to other units (Labour Work Survey, 2009).

**Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements**- The townships created to house low income and unemployed communities, resultant of rural-urban migration that is situated at the northwest in CoW, Namibia.

**Households** - Households are occupants of houses or shacks living as families, relatives, tenants or friends (Miheretu, 2011).

**Human security** – According to the United Nations (2009) human security is defined as freedom from fear and freedom from want. To protect the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhances human freedoms and human fulfilment (Ibid). "It means creating political, social, environment, economic, military and cultural systems that together give people the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity" (UN, 2009, p.6; cited CHS, 2003, p.4).

**Hypothesis** – A tentative, reasonable, testable assertion regarding the occurrence of certain behaviours, phenomena, or events, a prediction of study outcomes (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Immigration** – Moving away to another country or area of a country where you are not a native (Storm, 1997).

**Impoverished** – To make poor, the state of being poor (Storm, 1997).

**Independent variable** - A variable that affects (or is presumed to affect) the dependent variable under study and is included in the research design so that its effect can be determined; sometimes called the experimental or treatment variable (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Industrialised** – Describes a country that is modern, with manufacturing and trade for financial returns as a large source of its Gross Domestic Production (Ibid).

**Informal settlements**- "Defined as areas where a group of housing units have been constructed on land that the occupants have no legal claim to, or occupy illegally. It can also be defined as unplanned settlements and areas where housing is not in compliance with current planning and building regulations" (UN-Habitat, 2006) as cited by (Newaya, 2010: p. 9).

**Intervention** – A specified treatment or method that is intended to modify one or more dependent variables (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Interview** - A form of research in which individuals are questioned orally (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Instrument** – Any procedure or device for systematically collecting data (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Key informants** – Individuals identified as expert sources of information, especially in qualitative research (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Legislation** – Laws made by an official legal body of a country to protect the people and the environment (Storm, 1997).

**Literature review** – The systematic identification, location, and analysis of documents containing information related to a research problem (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Livelihood** - A livelihood is the social and economic sustainability of individual households, including the capability to cope with and recover from stress, shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities, assets and activities required for making a living both in the present and in the future (Storm, 1997).

**Migration**- Migration, as described by United Nations Organisations (UNOs), is a term used to describe movement from one administrative area to another (Storm, 1997).

**Participants** – Individuals whose involvement in a study can range from providing data to initiating and designing the study (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Peri-urban-** Refers to the informal settlements which are situated at edge of the CoW borders.

**Pie chart** – Is a graphic method of displaying the breakdown of data into categories (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Population** – The group to which the researcher would like the results of a study to be generalised; it includes all individuals with certain specified characteristics (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Population generalise** – The extent to which the results obtained from a sample are generalised to a larger group (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Poverty-** Poverty is defined as the width of the gap between rich and poor, the degree inequality (Erriky, 2013; Ramphele, and Wilson, 1989).

**Probability** – The relative frequency with which a particular event occurs among all events of interest (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Problem statement** - A statement that indicates the specific purpose of the research, the variables of interest to the researcher, and any specific relationship between those variables that

is to be, or was, investigated and it includes the description of the background and rationale (justification) for the study (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Procedures** – A detailed description by the researcher of what was (or will be) done in carrying out a study (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Purposive sample** – A non-random sample selected because prior knowledge suggests it is representative, or because those selected have the needed information (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Qualitative data** – Data that are not numerical (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Qualitative research study** – It is a research in which the investigator attempts to study naturally occurring phenomena in all their complexity (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Qualitative variable** – A variable that is conceptualized and analysed as distinct categories, with no continuum implied (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Quantitative data** – Data that differ in amount or degree, along a continuum from less to more (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Quantitative research** – Research in which the investigator attempts to clarify phenomena through carefully designed and controlled data collection and analysis (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Quantitative variable** – A variable that is conceptualized and analysed as distinct categories, with no continuum implied (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Questionnaire** – A list of questions that the participant answers in writing or by marking answers on an answer sheet (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Reliability** – The degree to which scores obtained with an instrument are consistent measures of whatever the instrument measures (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Research** – The formal, systematic application of scholarship, disciplined inquiry, and most often the scientific method to the study of problems (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Salary** - Fixed payment made by an employer regularly, mostly, and is calculated on an hourly, daily or weekly basis to an employee for services rendered (Labour Work Survey, 2009).

**Sample** – The group from which information is obtained (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Sampling** – A process of selecting a number of individuals (a sample) from a population, preferably in such a way that the individuals are representative of the larger group from which they were selected (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Security challenge** – Refers to a difficult situation or aspects which prevent the CoW management or its residents from functioning properly.

**Security threat** – Refers to the characteristics which limit the individual household community's capacity to anticipate, manage, resist or recover from the impact of a natural or other threat, often called a 'hazard or natural disasters' (Newaya, 2010).

**Shacks** – Are illegal houses constructed with corrugated iron sheet or zinc, mostly found in the informal settlements. Shacks are temporary structures which accommodate poor and lower income people in the CoW.

**Statistic** – A numerical index describing a characteristic of a sample (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) -** Software used to produce different tables, graphs, population pyramids and percentages which illustrate the various aspects of the study. It

is capable of integrating, storing, editing, analysing, sharing, and displaying geographically referenced information (Newaya, 2010).

**Structured interview** – A formal type of interview, in which the researcher asks, in order, a set of predetermined questions (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Study areas-** Study areas refer to the two informal settlements (Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlement) which were selected for the purpose of this research, and are situated northwest of CoW, Namibia.

**Survey** – A method of collecting information by asking a sample of participants questions in order to find out information about a population (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Systematic sampling** – A selection procedure in which all sample elements are determined after the selection of the first element, since each element on a selected list is separated from the first element by a multiple of the selection interval (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Unemployment-** Is defined as a state when an individual who happens to be without a job and is available for work, and as a result actively seeking work (Erriky, 2013; Kandele, 2000).

**Urbanisation-** Is defined as the shift from a rural to urban society, bringing a large concentration of people into towns and cities (Erriky, 2013; Webster, 1984).

**Validity** – The degree to which correct inferences can be made based on results from an instrument; it depends not only on the instrument itself, but also on the instrumentation process and the characteristics of the group studied (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Variable** – A characteristic that can assume any one of several values, for example, cognitive ability, height, aptitude, teaching method (Jack, et al., 2011).

**Wage** - Monetary compensation paid at regular intervals, normally calculated on an hourly, daily or weekly basis, by an employer to an employee in return for his or her labour (Labour Work Survey, 2009).

### 1.7 Chapters outline

The study is organised in 5 chapters as illustrated below:

**Chapter 1:** This chapter outlines the introduction of the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, and significance of the study, limitations of the study, definitions of key words, and the Chapters outline.

**Chapter 2:** This chapter includes the extensive review of literature used to explore the relevance of the research.

**Chapter 3:** This chapter outlines the research design and methodologies used to gather the necessary information to achieve the intended results. The chapter also contains the strategies used in the study to attain the desired results.

**Chapter 4:** This chapter encompasses research results, analyses and discussions as well as an appraisal of livelihoods and coping strategies of households from the two selected informal settlements. The chapter highlights different livelihood mechanisms used by households to adopt the vulnerability to shock and stresses.

**Chapter 5:** This chapter provides conclusions and recommendations to the study and further research. The conclusions and recommendations are based on the research content of Chapter 1, 2, 3 and 4.

## 1.8 Summary

Chapter 1 discussed the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation on unemployment, poverty, crime, environment and other related concepts. The chapter has also touched on the security challenges posed by urbanisation at global level, continental level, SADC level, national level, the CoW and the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. The security challenge posed by the escalation of illegal occupation of urban land was also discussed.

Peng, Chen & Cheng (2012); United Nations (2009); (Fjeldstad, 2005); Miheretu (2011); Abbass (1998) and others have also offered their perspectives on the urbanisation security challenges. Todora and Smith's (2012) rural-urban migration model theory has also discussed. The introduction and background included the statement of the problem, objective of the study, significance of the study, methodology, limitation of the study, definitions of concepts and chapter outlines. Chapter 2 will discuss the literature review on the study.

# CHAPTER 2

## 2. Literature review

### 2.1 Introduction

This research used past studies to create the empirical foundation. The theoretical study is informed by Todaro and Smith's (2012), rural-urban migration theory. The theory is used to establish the socio-economic security challenges of rural-urban migration in the livelihoods of the target population. The rationale of employing this theory is that, urbanisation in Namibia is dominated by rural-urban migration trends. Todaro and Smith (2012), postulate a theoretical explanation of rural-urban migration model, with the dimension of rising urban unemployment insecurity. Although rural migrants migrate to the urban areas with the hope of securing employment opportunities, this migratory trend in most cases, results in numerous security challenges, namely, unemployment insecurity threats, poverty insecurity, crime security threats, overburdening urban facilities and the inability to provide efficient and effective services delivery by municipalities.

The rural-urban migration model theory is an important guide in solving socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation in the livelihood of urban dwellers. Theories and concepts are tools for human thinking; they are instruments for human action (Lupala, 2002). The central government and local authorities are considering employing Todaro and Smith (2012) rural-urban migration model theory in dealing with urbanisation security challenges, because it provides better understanding of the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration. This assists the urban planners to devise appropriate possible mechanisms on how to remedy urbanisation trends.

## 2.2 Theoretical and conceptual meaning and definition of urbanisation

In this section the researcher will discuss theoretical and conceptual meaning and definition of urbanisation. The study will conclude with Namibian Perspectives.

### 2.2.1 Definition and meaning of urbanisation

Urbanisation is an evolution of human socio-economic standards, whereby the rural society is developed into urban civilization. Siddiqi (2004), states that urbanisation is regarded as the transformation of areas, with rural character, into towns. This involves industrialisation through the establishment of factories and the expansion of employment opportunities. This, ideally, should produce a thriving industrial town, which in turn, creates employment opportunities. However, the urban and mining developments pose security threats to the environment. Abbass (1998), argues that during colonial times, a combination of factors, such as the freedom to move across colonial boundaries, political unrest, and the imposition of taxes on rural farmers by colonial governments, led to the escalation of rural-urban migration. “Unlike in industrialised countries where urbanisation is triggered by industrialisation and the cities are largely organised in a regular manner, the cities in poor countries have their roots in planning influenced by the colonial history, with rapid socio-economic security challenges taking place since independence” (Lupala, 2002, p.1). The process of urbanisation is stimulated by socio-economic development and better opportunities in the cities.

### 2.2.2 Meaning and definitions of urban areas

Urban areas are towns and cities administered by local authorities or municipalities, which politically and economically managed by politicians. They are self-autonomous in terms of

financial generation and management. Urban areas generate an income from services rendered such as electricity and water supply, collection of garbage, traffic fines, taxes or levies, provision of land and housing.

According to the United Nations Habitat (2014), urban areas are defined as settlements with a high population which creates the urbanisation process. Urban areas are categorised as towns, cities, suburbs, affluent townships, and informal settlements. The United Nations Habitat (2014), further revealed that the genesis of urban areas was established by rural people through civilisation of modern planning near sites where various human activities took place. These activities included, the exploitation of natural resources like diamonds, uranium, copper, gold, marine resources, timber, and agricultural produce.

The urbanisation trend involves evolutionary processes from the population growth, economic transformation and attainment of high level technological development and infrastructure development to be able to curb the numerous security threats namely, poverty, hunger, malnutrition, unemployment, crime and the high rate of cities' growth. The outlook of cities, as sustainable architecture and planning, urban design and construction of buildings and infrastructures can be carried out better and faster than they used to be, to aid human habitation with enhanced quality of life (Olatunde, 2012). This will enhance the capability of bringing about great improvements in the image of the urban areas. The urban development is characterised by socio-economic improvement and population growth. The theoretical and conceptual literature review provides comprehensive meaning and definitions of urban areas.

## 2.3 Theoretical and conceptual literature review

Todaro and Smith's (2012), rural-urban migration model theory is an important component for interpreting urbanisation trends. The urbanisation trends are determined by the individual's decision to migrate to the urban areas. "It has been noted that the rate of city expansion in the developing countries exceed far more than what industrialised countries went through in the 19th century when most of these countries experienced rapid urbanisation as a result of industrialisation" (Lupala, 2002, p.29). The population growth in the developing countries, due to urbanisation, has posed security challenges on sustainably management, declined the capability to provide basic infrastructure and heightened the inability to provide land for residential and commercial development in the urban areas.

The decision to migrate can be illustrated by employing Todaro and Smith's (2012), rural-urban migration model theory as indicated in the schematic framework in Figure 2.1. Within this schema, the decision to migrate, and the policy variables affecting this decision can be segmented into (a) monetary costs and returns relating to rural and urban incomes, education, rural-urban remittances and labour market information, and (b) psychic or non-monetary costs and returns relating to risk and urban life styles.

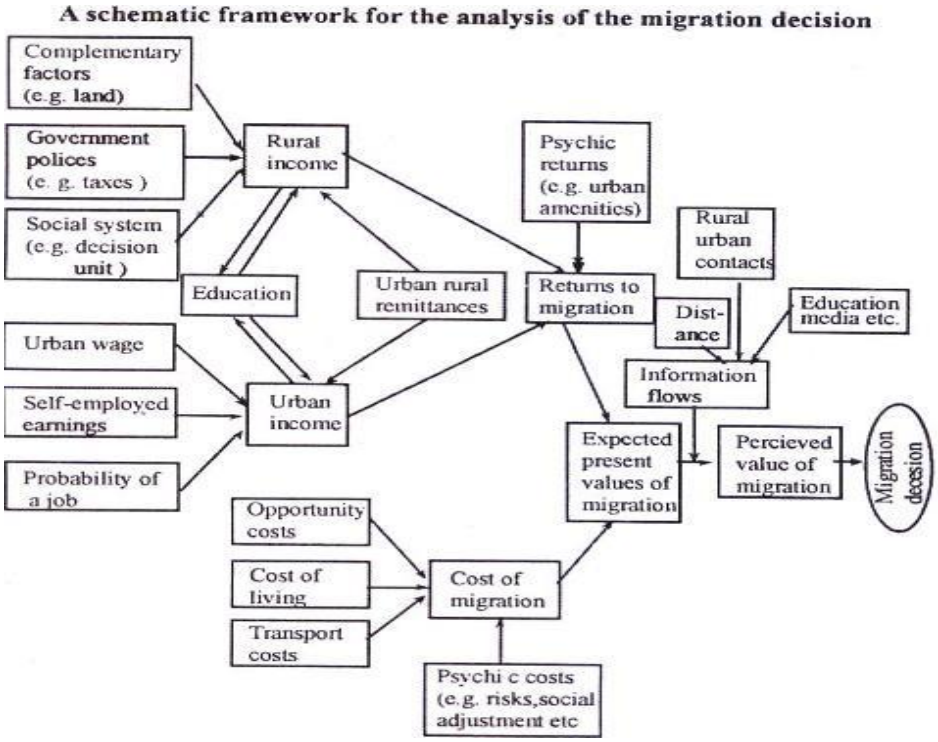



**Figure 2.1: Schematic framework for analysing the migration decision**
*Source:* Todaro and Smith (2012) rural-urban migration model theory

Todaro and Smith (2012), revealed that the extensive study of migration by anthropologists, sociologists and geographers, and more recently economists, provide a large body of information on the characteristics of migrants. Consequently, despite this, they have failed to yield an established theory for analysing rural-urban migration insecurity in Africa. The studies have, however, highlighted that most respondents to survey questions such as, "Why did you migrate?" have nearly always stressed economic motives such as high incomes and better employment opportunities (Ibid). Generally, urban areas are regarded as the places that offer a variety of socio-economic opportunities such as employment, high income, better living conditions and other amenities.

McCatty (2004, p.11) postulates that "rural migrants may not find employment immediately upon arrival in the city, and when they do, there is a high likelihood that their wages will be lower than they expected income". This is derived from the assumption that migration is primarily an economic phenomenon that is perceived as a rational decision for migrants to make, despite the increasing urban unemployment insecurity challenges, the escalation of crime insecurity and poverty insecurity. Todaro and Smith model (2012), suggests that migration proceeds in response to rural-urban wages differences and expected a high income in urban areas. The fundamental assumption is that migrants consider the various socio-economic security opportunities available to them on the labour market in the rural and urban sectors and choose the one that maximizes their expected gains from migration.

The rural-urban migration in developing countries occurs due to the expected high wage in the urban setting that is adjusted to meet the cost of living. This in turn could greatly exceed wages in rural areas (Miheretu, 2011; cited Harris-Todaro, 1970). The city provides better wages to meet the socio-economic basic security needs such as urban housing, and municipal services. The high living standards in urban areas and the regular increase of commodities in the markets, prompted the employees through their labour unions to demand for better salaries and wages to be able to afford their basic needs. Miheretu (2011), further revealed that one of the socio-economic security assumptions is that there are higher wages in urban areas because of labour unions, which set market related wages in cities, as opposed to rural areas which do not have labour unions to bargain for better wages for rural-workers. Self-employment such as hawkers, street vending, shebeen owners, panel beaters, salon owners or hairdressers/barbers, prostitution, domestic workers, casual labourers, is an attractive option in the informal sector, because of the ease of entry, small scale operations, and relatively competitive price and wage determination

prevail (Todaro and Smith, 2012). Many rural migrants are either unemployed or are forced to seek for employment that offers minimal wages.

According to Miheretu (2011), the rural migrants see and hear success stories about people that leave their community and move to cities, and these act as incentives for out-migration, however, incentives for out-migration may be distorted, thereby creating excessive urbanisation. Many rural migrants are school dropouts who generally lack skills and expertise, thus the high standard of living in the urban setting forces rural migrants to accept low wages in order to survive. The employers offer high wages to people with university degrees and working experience, which most of the rural migrants do not possess.

According to Todaro and Smith (2012), the rural-urban differences in per capita income sometimes have a significant effect on urbanisation. The rural-urban migratory trend is caused by the income gaps between the rural and urban setting, as well as other socio-economic security challenges. The rural-urban migration will continue threatening the livelihood of the residents of informal settlement if no security measures are introduced to improve the living conditions of the residents of both rural areas and informal settlements.

The rural-urban migratory trend leads to urban concentration, security challenges and high urban unemployment insecurity because many job seekers, who migrate to the city, are not assured employment as there are fewer jobs than applicants (Miheretu, 2011; cited Harris-Todaro, 1970). The high unemployment rate in the city poses a security threat to the city dwellers because the number of rural migrants exceeds the job opportunities in the city. McCatty (2004, p.11), hypotheses that “educated and skilled immigrants may not have to wait as long as unskilled

migrants to find jobs, since often their skills are in demand in the urban sector". The skilled personnel improve the competency of an organisation through efficient and effective service delivery. The majorities of rural migrants to cities are young adults who have low levels of education and a lack of skills in the formal industries such as banking, office clerks, electrical, mechanical, construction and plumbing. The unskilled personnel weaken an organisation's productivity, which will result in bankruptcy and closure. The rural migrants believe that the probability of getting hired and the prospects of earnings higher wages in the urban areas, is higher, but this is not always the case.

In the absence of employment opportunities, the informal sector provides much needed income for those unable to find work in the formal sector, and provides many of the necessary inputs into the formal sector production (Todaro and Smith, 2012). The urban areas are more developed with better prospects for employment opportunities and career advancement and provide better living standards. The urbanisation trend attracts people with a variety of entrepreneurial knowledge and skills who can establish informal businesses as a survival strategy.

The more developed the country measured by per capita income is, the greater the chance of the population living in urban areas. Countries with low per capita income are facing a security challenge of socio-economic improvement of their citizens. Miheretu (2011, p.20), "in the early 1950s economists turned their attention to the problem of population growth and economic development in less developed countries (LDCs)". The policies of industrialisation in these countries would, not only increase national incomes, but also address unemployment insecurity.

Economic development creates employment opportunities in urban settings and attracts rural migrants toward the urban settings.

The crude economic indicators, such as population density and per capita income, partially describe the economic environment in which the decision to migrate is made and do not constitute a theory of migration suitable for policy analysis (Todaro and Smith, 2012). There is a knowledge gap on the correlation between population density and per capita income in terms of rural-urban migration theory analysis. The rural areas, with its high population and low per capita income, send its residents to the urban areas with high per capita income as a strategy to curb socio-economic security challenges affecting rural inhabitants.

Over the years, unemployment has been a major socio-economic security challenge in both developing and developed countries (Ozughalu and Ogwumike, 2013; Tunah, 2010). In recent years, unemployment has been the leading cause of poverty, criminal activities and income deprivation which greatly affects the livelihood of rural-urban migrants. The unemployed people are mostly involved in illicit or immoral activities for survival. Rural-urban migration is generally stimulated by economic shocks and other socio-economic security challenges, which force many families to seek and settle in areas where they are not faced with the same challenges they encounter at home (Todaro and Smith, 2012). The urban areas are perceived to be the safe places; hence, the rural migrants seek to settle in urban areas where human security is assured.

To have an in-depth understanding of the relationship between urbanisation and economics, Todaro and Smith's (2012) work has made the comparison between rural and urban incomes.

The study assumed that the rate of migration depends on the extent of the income differential between rural and urban areas; however, the results revealed that the rural-urban income disparity was generally not as widely believed. The rural-urban migration trend is caused by socio-economic security challenges which constitute push and pull factors. The security challenges of economic variables on migration and interregional migration depends on per capita regional income, distance, and urbanisation in both the sending and receiving region (Ibid). Miheretu (2011), revealed that the low level of industrial growth in urban areas resulted in excessive urban unemployment and underemployment due to the high rate of rural to urban migration. The socio-economic development differs from region to region, town to town and rural to urban areas.

According to Todaro and Smith (2012, p.350), "a study was conducted by Robert E. B. Lucas in Botswana employing Harris-Todaro's original hypothesis to determine migration behaviour of individual migrants and non-migrants, focusing mainly on employment, earnings, internal migration, and migration to South Africa". The security challenges posed by high unemployment insecurity in rural areas forced the economically active people toward urban settings. The urban earnings are much higher than rural earnings; 68 percent males earn higher than their female counterparts, but these differences become much smaller when based on schooling and working experience (Ibid). Females were discriminated against during colonial era; they were paid a lower salary than their males counterparts, even if they occupied the same post. In the same vein, females were not posted at the managerial positions. The creation of one job opportunity, due to socio-economic development in urban areas, would draw new rural migrants to the cities and towns. The escalation of poverty in developing countries has become a security threat in rural areas.

A rapid urbanisation trend in sub-Saharan Africa is taking place due to widespread poverty. About 50 percent of the urban population are living below the poverty line, while nearly a third of the people are not expected to survive beyond 40 years (Lupala, 2002). The poor livelihood in rural areas has contributed to low life expectancy. The standard of living in the rural areas has declined due to poverty and unemployment. The rural people forced to migrate to urban areas to improve the livelihood of their families in the rural areas.

Todaro and Smith's (2012), rural-urban migration model was used in Sierra Leone, to determine whether low rural income was the motivation factor which pushed the rural migrants to urban areas. Unfortunately because of poor secondary data, such as the number officially registered unemployed people and the use of per capita food production as a proxy for rural incomes, these results were inconclusive. However, the study illustrated that the energetic youth migrate from rural areas to urban areas, and this trend has a negative impact on food security. Hence there are only a few people, mostly the elderly, who remain in rural areas to contribute to agricultural production. Miheretu (2011), defines rural-urban migration as a misallocation of labour between rural and urban sectors, which could lead to high rates of urban unemployment and poverty insecurities. Low agricultural productivity in rural areas affects the rural and urban people because, food prices increase due to a low food supply from the farmers and a high demand of groceries from urban dwellers.

Todaro and Smith (2012), suggest that the rural migrants who are not fortunate enough to secure employment opportunities have become self-employed in trades such as mechanics, carpenters, small artisans, barbers, and personal servants. Still, others were highly successful small-scale

entrepreneurs with several employees (mostly relatives) and higher incomes, whereas some even eventually graduated to the formal sector, where they became legally registered, licensed, and subject to government labour regulations. Rural migrants contribute to the economic development of urban areas through cheap labour and the establishment of small-scale businesses where they employ others.

The consequences of rapid urbanisation that is driven by stagnating poor economies have been directly related to the burgeoning informal sector and proliferating informal settlements, which has crippled effective urban management (Lupala, 2002). The urbanisation processes posed security threats such as a housing backlog, decreasing financial resources, institutional decadence, political instability and city sprawl. The people with academic qualifications in rural areas migrate to urban areas seeking opportunities for better jobs. This brain drain is a security challenge because the educated people contribute to the development of urban areas, whilst the rural areas remain underdeveloped. People with high education qualifications tend to earn more than those with low or without qualifications in urban settings. The educated persons in urban areas expect to secure the opportunities for higher paying jobs because urban employment is more technical and it involves modern skills, even though many of these jobs are relatively unskilled.

According to Todaro and Smith (2012), the influx of rural migrants into the city creates a security threat of overcrowding. The population growth in urban areas, due to rural-urban migration, poses a security threat to the socio-economic wellbeing of the urban inhabitants. The security challenge posed by population growth is that many people may lose jobs through retrenchment or lockout. The employers take advantage of cheap labour in the job market and

those who demand for better wages tend to be victimized by their employers through various unfair labour practices such as, demotion, lack of promotion, and even being fired. The central governments invest heavily in the development of urban areas, while ignoring rural areas.

Migration is seen as the response of individuals to better their socio-economic opportunities as well as an expectation of increased economic welfare in the urban areas (Miheretu, 2011; cited Mazumdar, 1987). The urban areas offer employment opportunities in various economic sectors such as manufacturing, retail, textile and transport. The foreign investors prefer to do business in urban areas due to good infrastructure and security assurance of their businesses, which is limited in the rural areas. On the other hand agriculture is one of the economic sectors in the rural areas. Despite the fact that agriculture is the main sources of food security, little has been done to develop this important sector of the national economy.

One of the causes of development disparities between rural-urban settings is the development bias of urban areas by the central government in favour of the urban sector (Todaro and Smith, 2012). The development disparities between rural-urban areas create a security challenge of urbanisation, which can be addressed by balancing the development strategies in both rural and urban areas. Foreign investors are not willing to invest their money in the rural areas due to limited infrastructures such as water and electricity supply, road and communication networks. In addition, rural areas are prone to natural disasters such as floods, field fires, and famine.

Todaro and Smith (2012), a vow that both the average and marginal productivity of labour in rural areas are determined by many variables including complementary factors of production, particularly land, and governmental policies such as taxes. The rural people are facing numerous

security challenges such as insufficient fertile land for cultivations and high cost of land. “In many developing countries, Namibia included, effective and efficient land use planning and management is not well established” (Indongo, et al., 2013, p.14). The rural residents rely on communal seasonal farming rather than commercial farming, thus, earning an income is limited in communal farming. The communal farmers produce food for consumption purposes only and the little of their products they do sell is sold at a very low price.

“Sub-Saharan Africa is the world’s most rapidly urbanising region, and almost all of this growth has been in slums, where new city residents face security challenges such as overcrowding, inadequate housing, and a lack of water and sanitation” (Todaro and Smith, 2012, p.316). Although the population growth accelerated urbanisation, rural-urban migration is chiefly responsible for the escalation of informal settlements, and part of the blame rests with the central government, in particular, the local authorities. The urban development strategies in sub-Saharan Africa do not consider the vulnerable groups of the society such as, the unemployed, orphans, the elderly, and people living with disabilities. According to Sem (2010), the manifestation of poverty in the informal settlements is a multi-dimensional phenomenon, since poverty does not emerge in isolation. For this reason, the urban poor engage in illegal occupation of land, thereby establishing illegal settlements that result in the escalation of anarchy, which is an indication of the level of poverty insecurity.

A large fraction of informal settlement inhabitants live in shacks or makeshift houses which generally lack minimal public services such as electricity, water, drainage, transportation, educational and health services and facilities. “There are those who are fortunate enough to find temporary employment in the informal sectors, such as day labourers and hawkers, but their

income is insufficient to provide even the most basic shelter" (Todaro, 2012, p.329). The informal settlements dwellers are less fortunate, homeless or try and survive by sitting next to the robots waiting to secure temporary jobs to feed their families. Miheretu (2011), emphasizes that the high unemployment rate in urban areas necessitates the rural migrants to establish their own employment opportunities through informal labour-intensive services and production as a survival strategy. Sadly, some youth commit crime as a survival strategy.

The rural-urban migration is the main source of environmental and socio-economic insecurity. Todaro and Smith (2012, p.336), "although some policies may have a more direct and immediate impact (e.g., wages and income policies and employment promotion programs), there are many other socio-economic security challenges". It is worth noting that the socio-economic security challenges caused by rural-urban migration are also worsened by government policies. Indongo et al. (2013), argue that urbanisation increases access to modern infrastructures, is good for business and economic growth as it increases the purchasing power and it attracts investors resulting in job creation. However, not all rural migrants are absorbed into the job market due to a mismatch between job providers and job seekers.

Todaro and Smith (2012), further explains that, government policies include: land tenure arrangements, commodity pricing, credit allocation, taxation, export promotion, import substitution, commercial and exchange-rate policies, the geographic distribution of social services, the nature of public investment programs, attitudes toward private foreign investors, the organisation of population and family planning programs, the structure, content and orientation of the educational system, and the function of labour markets. These policies mostly affect the

poor, due to the knowledge gap and limited resources. Miheretu (2011), points out that living conditions and employment opportunities in the rural areas have not shown significant improvement, therefore, there is an ever increasing trend of migration from the rural areas to towns and cities. Rural migrants are not able to borrow money from the bank due to the lack of mortgage assurance.

Todaro and Simth's (2012), rural-urban migration model theory is supported by the body of theories such as Storm (1997) 'push' and 'pull' factors; Muñiz-Solari, et al. (2010), cited Lee's (1966) 'push'-'pull' theory, Muñiz-Solari, et al. (2010) cited Muñiz (2006), chain migration and network development theory as well as Maslow Hierarchy of Needs. The aforesaid theories were selected to provide comprehensive information on the rural-urban migration 'push' and 'pull' factors.

### 2.3.1 Storm (1997) 'push' and 'pull' factors

According to Storm (1997), migration is the result of push factors that encourage people to migrate from the rural areas. The push factors include, but are not limited to: unemployment insecurity, low wages, natural disasters insecurity (famine, drought, and floods), poverty insecurity, political unrest, war, persecution (political, religious) and landlessness. Pull factors attract people to migrate to urban areas with the hope of securing better livelihoods, such as: employment opportunities, good social services, political freedom, better education opportunities and generally to improve one's economic welfare, as depicted on Figure 2.2. Urbanisation growth is a natural phenomenon which has been caused by various security challenges, such as push factors, that are negative factors which force people from their places of origin; and pull factors, which are potential opportunities that exist in the city.

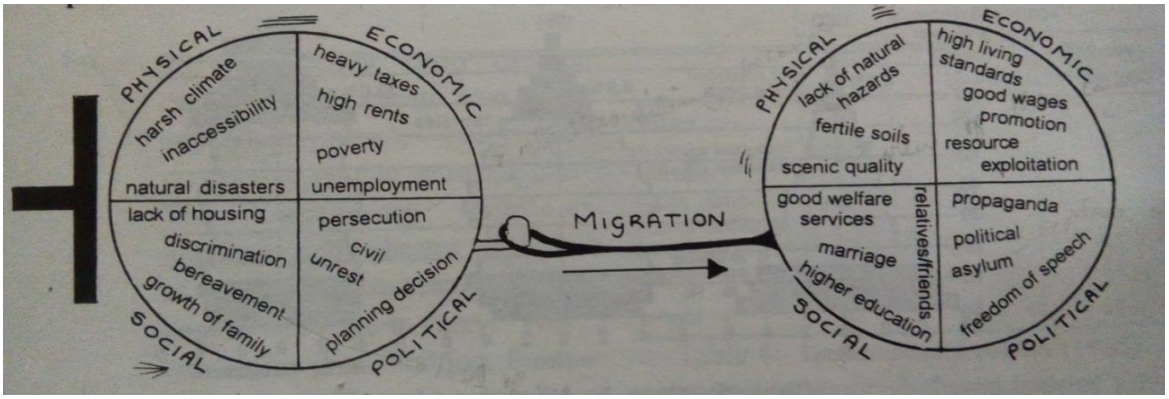



**Figure 2.2: 'Push' and 'pull' factors**
*Source:* Storm (1997)

### 2.3.2 Lee's 'push'-'pull' theory

Today migration is characterised by economically active migrants, who move to urban areas looking for better economic opportunities, transnational corporations, and international trades which create a complex web of attractions of people from all over the world. However, sometimes people migrate due to the lack of better opportunities locally, a low quality of life or poor environmental conditions, or if they fear for their own personal security (Muñiz-Solari, et al., 2010). Figure 2.3 indicates that there are many security threats at the place of origin which 'push' migrants to their destination. On the other hand, there are more opportunities which 'pull' migrants from the destination. It further illustrates that there is a need for prompt intervention by the central government and local authority to remedy the sprawl migration security challenges. Miheretu (2011, p.18), cited Lee (1966), hypothesized that "both area of origin and destination have positive forces which hold people within the area or pull others to it, negative forces which repel or push people from the area, and zero forces which has no effect".

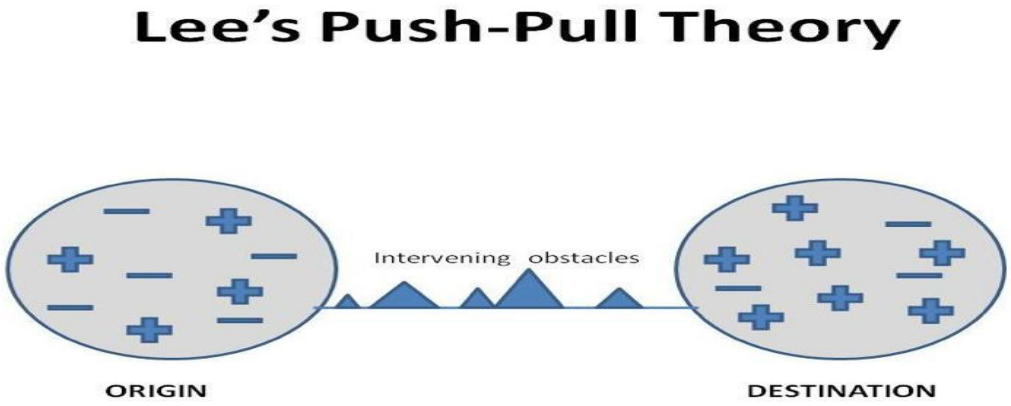



**Figure 2.3: Lee's push-pull theory**
*Source*: Muñiz-Solari, Li, and Schleicher, (2010) cited Lee (1966).

According to Muñiz-Solari, et al., (2010), migration is an important component of the globalization process, as some people migrate from city to city or emigrate from their home country to work in another country. However, labour migration is increasing the inequalities between places and countries. The push factors are often characterized by the lack of opportunities in sending areas, and pull factors are the availability of opportunities presented in receiving areas. The push factors exist at the point of origin and act to trigger emigration; these include the lack of economic opportunities, religious or political persecution and hazardous environmental conditions. Pull factors exist at the destination and include the availability of jobs, religious or political freedom, and the perception of a relatively benign environment (Ibid). The flow of migrants between two places involves intervening obstacles which are associated with the distance between places and the number of people in the places of origin and destination. Muñiz-Solari et al. (2010), argues that Lee's (1966) push-pull theory shows possible migration which signifies intervening obstacles due to the spatial movements represented by 'mountain' shapes that are not only limited to physical barriers, but also restrictive immigration laws. These obstacles reflect the security challenges encountered by migrants between the places of origin

and the destinations. It is very difficult to curb the physical barriers such as distance, for that reason the migrants are forced to cope with the aforesaid challenge. Miheretu (2011), summarised Lee's (1966) conclusion with regard to the factors in the act of migration, the volume of migration, the development of streams and counter streams, and the characteristics of migrants as follow:

- ✓ The volume of migration is determined by the magnitude of socio-economic opportunities to the destination.
- ✓ The high influx of rural-urban migration posed a security challenge on overcoming intervening obstacles.
- ✓ The number of rural-urban migration increases over time.
- ✓ Migration tends to be characterised by rural migrants.
- ✓ For every major stream, a counter stream develops; the degree of security threats ('push' factors) will stimulate net migration from point of origin.
- ✓ The migrants' decisions to migrate from point of origin to destination are well-calculated.
- ✓ The 'pull' factors at destination tend to be positively selected, whereas the 'push' factors at origin tend to be negatively selected.

The push - pull factors are associated with economic and social security challenges. Basically economic development in urban areas attracted rural migrants, whereas harsh weather and poor livelihood in rural areas repel rural migrants. Although various literatures had been written on the causes and impact of rural-urban migrations, the security challenge of urbanisation in the developing countries is still continue unabated. The push-pull concept is a useful framework for categorising a range of factors encouraging migration (Miheretu, 2011; Gmelch and Zenner

1996). The rural-urban migration theory was also supported by Muñiz-Solari (2010), chain migration and network development theory.

### 2.3.3 Muñiz-Solari: Chain migration and network development theory

Figure 2.4 illustrates the chain migration and network development theory from the places of origin to the destination. The migrants, who travelled to urban areas for the first time, experienced numerous security challenges such as accommodation, food and lack of acquaintance (families and relatives). The chain migration and network development theory further revealed that the second time migrants experience fewer barriers during their second visit to the city, and are likely to bring along their wives and children. The third time migrants will bring along their closer relatives, while fourth time migrants will bring their friends to the destination. Muñiz-Solari, et al., (2010), argue that as the family or friends migrate, a network of information flows back to the point of origin, reducing the obstacles to migration for later migrants. The spatial movement of migrants brings not only opportunities and advantages, but also security challenges and disadvantages to the urban areas.

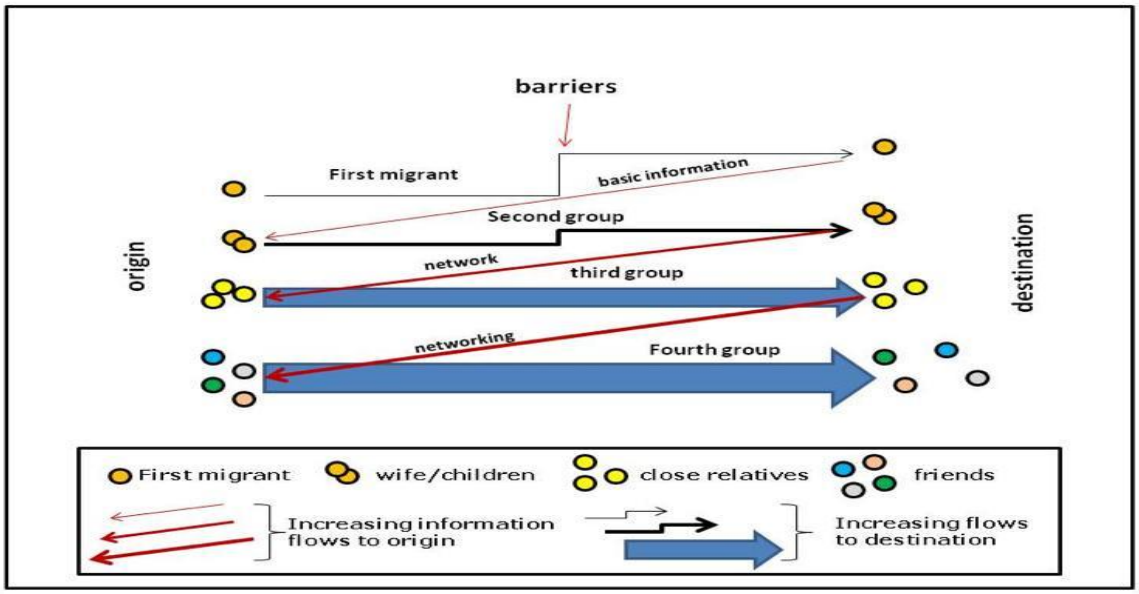



**Figure 2.4: Chain migration and network development**
*Source*: Muñiz-Solari, Li, and Schleicher, (2010) cited Muñiz (2006).

Miheretu (2011, p.21) cited Bekure (1984, p.608), state that "migration took place when conditions in the area of origin became intolerable or when the destination appeared attractive". Today, potential migrants are likely to move to the destinations due to the widely available and updated information through email, television, internet, radio, newspapers and telephone. New worldwide migrants rely on these complex networks, which are dynamic in essence; highly specialised professionals and workers are fed with information and move within these networks to satisfy transnational corporation demands in order to fulfil their activities in different regions of the world (Muñiz-Solari, et al., 2010). The chain migration and network development theory illustrates how migrants contribute to urbanisation through the information network brought by migrants who have visited the urban areas or the destination. The theory further unpacks the obstacles experienced during the migration process. The next section will illustrate the Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and its association to rural-urban migratory trends.

### 2.3.4 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory

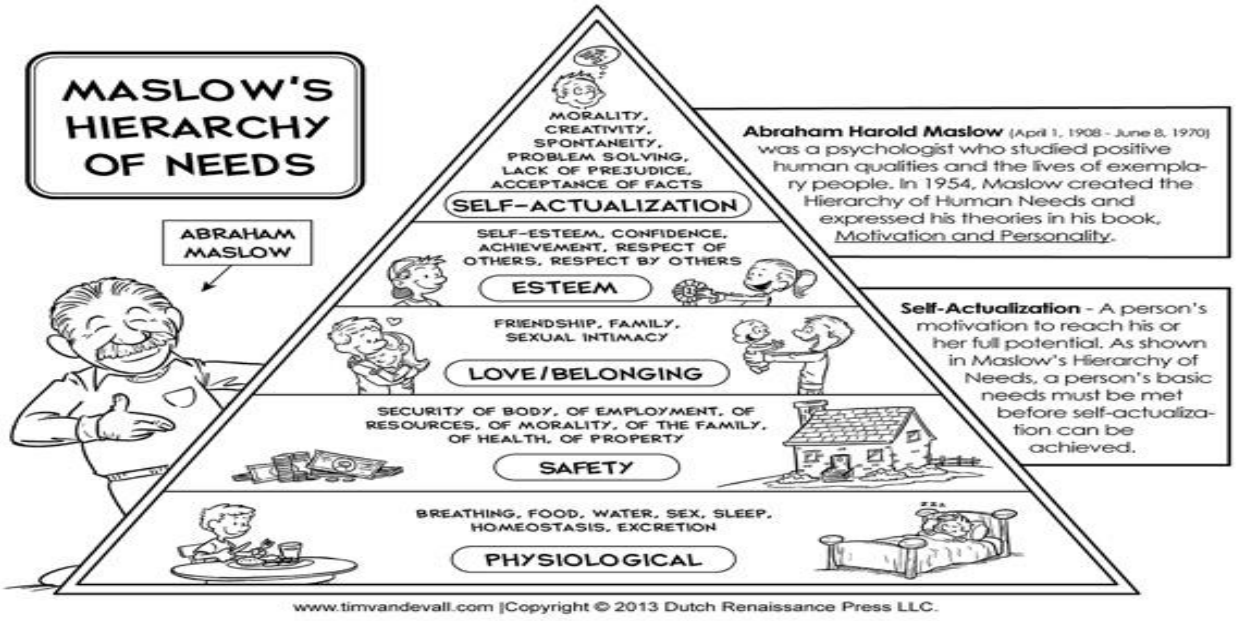



Figure: 2.5 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory. *Source:* Tim Van de Vall copyright, 2013

According to Tim Van De Vall copyright (2013), cited Maslow (1954) a psychologist who studied positive human qualities and the lives of exemplary people, in his theory expressed the Hierarchy of Human Needs which includes two factors such as motivation and personality. The Maslow's theory is illustrated in the form of pyramid, which used as a framework by business management leaders for human motivation and as a model for understanding human behavior (Ibid). Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory elucidates five levels of human needs which need to be satisfied to improve their livelihood such as physiological needs (eg. foods, shelter, clothes and water), safety needs (eg. security, protection, employment and health), social needs (eg. sense of belonging, love, family and friendship), esteem needs (eg. self-esteem, recognition, status and achievement), and self actualisation (eg. morality, creativity, problem solving, and acceptance of fact). The Hierarchy of Needs is structured from lower level (basic needs) that should be satisfied first before one proceeds to the next levels of needs within the hierarchy and concludes with self actualisation (the highest level). The majority of rural migrants fall under physiological needs level. The rural migrants require basic needs for survival such as shelter, food, employment, clean water and clothes which are limited in rural areas.

The unemployed rural migrants perceived that there are employment opportunities in urban areas which motivated them to migrate to urban areas seeking to secure job opportunities. According to Haimbala (2014), a person who is dying of hunger will be motivated to achieve a basic wage in order to buy food before worrying about having a secure job contract or the respect of others. This implies that the poverty insecurity motivated rural poor to secure job opportunities in urban areas in order to improve their livelihood and standards of living. Once rural migrants secure employment opportunities for survival, they will continue to seek for better jobs which offer

higher wages. The rural migrant who secured higher income would proceed to social needs and graduate to esteem needs until she or he would gradually achieve self actualisation, if becomes a successful person. Haimbala (2014), cited Frederick Herzberg (1923), argues that there is two-factors theory of motivation, such as 'motivators' which implied that there are certain factors that a business can introduce that would directly motivate employees to work harder. His analysis further pointed out that there are also factors that would de-motivate an employee if not present, and if present it would motivate employees to work harder and these are called 'hygiene factors'. Hertzberg's two motivation factors theory supported Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory which encourages workers to work harder in order to graduate to the next levels, however, only few would achieve self actualisation level due to numerous socio-economic security challenges in human livelihood. Every employee's dream is to be a successful person in life one day. To that effect, these theories would assist policy makers to device possible workable solutions in dealing with the security challenges, needs and aspirations for the residents of the informal settlements.

### 2.3.5 The rationale for prioritising Todaro and Smith's (2012) rural-urban migration theory:

Todaro and Smith (2012), rural-urban migration theory model is the best model to determine the causes and socio-economic security challenges posed by urbanisation in the livelihood of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. Although the model is correct in explaining that there is no possibility of full employment in urban areas, it is not correct to assert that the act of migration is always rational and well-calculated (McCatty, 2004). It is also wrong in not giving any importance to non-economic factors in the migration process (Ibid). Todaro and Smith's (2012), rural-urban migration theory advocates that the rural-urban wage

differentials are the basis of migration. The theory indicates that the rural migrants' decision to migrate to the city is much rational, hence, it takes into consideration, not only the wage differentials, but also the probability of getting a job in the urban area. Todaro and Smith (2012), identified the characteristics of rural-urban migration as indicated below:

- Migration is stimulated primarily by rational socio-economic consideration.
- Migration is decided on the basis of expected high wages in urban areas.
- Probability of obtaining urban job is inversely related to the urban unemployment rate.
- Migration is determined by rural-urban differences in expected earnings, rather than in actual earnings.

Todaro and Smith's model (2012), is employed to gain insight into the dynamics of the rural-urban migration phenomenon that brings various aspects of the reality of migration into perspective. This theory is an ideal model, as opposed to actual or potential causes and impacts of rural-urban migration, in determining urbanisation trends. According to Muñiz-Solari et al., (2010), the classic theory of push-pull migration has been criticized as being "rationalist" for focusing only on individual choice based on economic rationales (e.g., where the cost of staying at the origin is less than the benefit of migrating). Todaro and Smith's (2012), rural-urban migration model theory is comprehensive and it not only covers the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation, but it also covers the labour migration aspects of urbanisation as well. Indongo et al. (2013), argue that urbanisation is beneficial if basic services are not compromised and the influx into urban areas brings people with new ideas and skills. McLeod (2014), postulate some critics about Maslow's theory from a scientific perspective that, there are numerous problems with this particular approach. Firstly, it could be argued that biographical analysis as a method is extremely subjective as it is based entirely on the opinion of the

researcher, which is always prone to bias, and reduces the validity of any data obtained. Secondly, Maslow's theory note about self-actualization is difficult to test scientifically because it was based on a very limited sample of individuals, including people he knew as well as biographies of famous individuals that Maslow believed to be self-actualized (Ibid). Therefore Maslow's may not be the best optional theory to analyse the socio-economic security challenges of rural-urban migration. However, the motivation and personality behaviour of a human being are suitable factors to analyse the migratory trends.

## 2.4 Urbanisation security challenges in the World and Africa

In this section the researcher will discuss the security challenges in the rest of the World, followed by Africa (North, West, East and Southern Africa). The empirical literature concludes with Namibian Perspectives.

### 2.4.1 Urbanisation security challenges in the World

The post-colonial cities in Africa exhibit the development disparities between affluent townships and poor suburbs which reflect evidence of racially segregated townships for Europeans, Asians and Africans; an ideology that spread through town planning during the colonial era (Lupala, 2002). The segregation of townships in countries such as Namibia and South Africa is done in such a way that one is unable to realise this discriminatory trend. The segregation of townships in the cities is done by imposing high prices in affluent townships as a strategy to separate the rich from the poor. Urbanisation trends are security challenges in the world because cities cannot cope with the influx of migrants. In Europe, the influx of refugees from Africa and the Middle East, due to poverty and political unrest, is a major security threat to the management of towns and cities. The United States of America is also experiencing a similar challenge of illegal

migrants from neighbouring countries such as, Mexico, Chile, as well as globally namely; Middle East and Africa, seeking better living conditions, personal safety and security.

Manasyan and Poghosyan (2012), reveal that the collapse of the Soviet Union, coupled with political instability, the inter-ethnic conflicts and social tensions, led to an increase of migration exchanges with Armenia's neighbouring countries. The consequence of migration was based on socio-economic security challenges and worsening living conditions. The outflow of the economically active population, on a large scale, became a security challenge to Armenia's economy. The country became an exporter of labour and skilled workers, especially in the agricultural sector, which threatened the food security (Ibid). As a result, low productivity in the agricultural sector has a negative impact on food prices in urban areas and rural areas.

Lucas (2013), argues that economic development and migration are simultaneously intertwined; the lack of development induces greater pressure to emigrate while limiting the resources to do so. In turn, migration can influence the speed of development in urban areas, though not always in a positive fashion. Economic development in cities attracts migrants from abroad and other towns in the country and villages. Olatunde (2012), comments that urbanisation developed in Central America, the Maya Aztec area, and the Andean area of South America, where early cities were ruled by kings. Today the cities require local authority councillors and urban planners who provide basic needs to the residents and devise appropriate development strategies such as infrastructure, electricity and water supply. The rural migrants are motivated by these amenities.

Lucas (2013), argues that migration is motivated by migrants from beyond Africa, such as Europeans, Germans, Chinese, Indians and Lebanese. The Chinese and Indians were

concentrated in East Africa whilst the Lebanese were in West and North Africa. Historically, Europeans migrated to Africa for the slave trade; however, the more recent migration phenomenon is motivated by rapid modernisation, industrialisation, globalisation, better opportunities and socio-economic interests in Africa. Africa is blessed with abundant natural resources ranging from diamonds, oil and gas, copper, uranium, fertile land and fisheries. These resources attracted investors in the African continent. However, natural resources emerged as the source of political instability in the continent. People migrate from one place to the other due to political turmoil and socio-economic insecurity. Therefore, it is crucial to note that natural resources are source of wealth and human security threats; this has contributed to migratory trends.

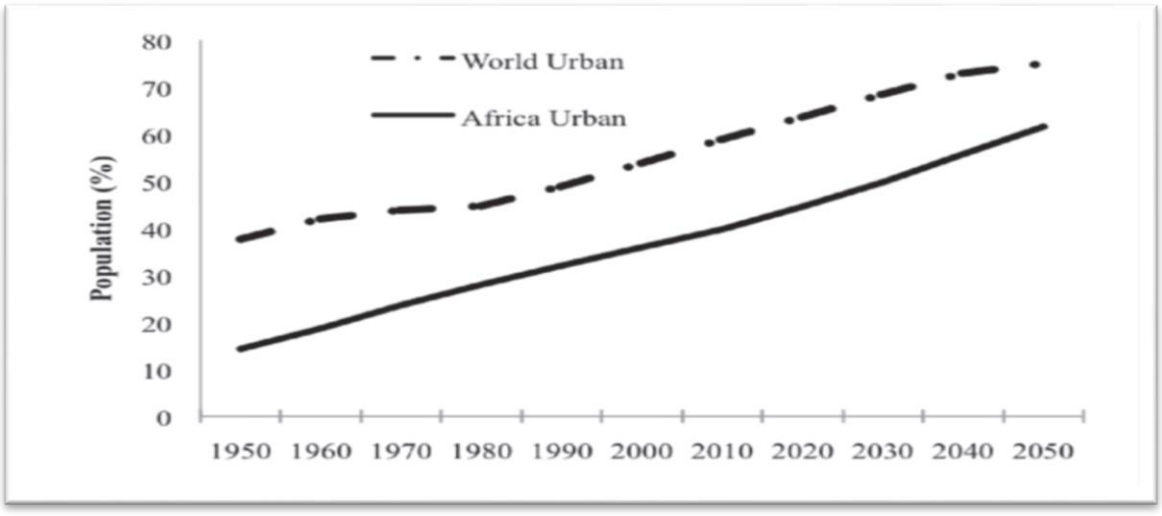



**Figure 2.5: Urban population in the world and Africa 1950-2050**

*Source:* Indongo et al 2013

The African urban population has been increasing rapidly compared to the world urban population. The urban population in Africa is increasing rapidly and it will surpass the World's urban population beyond the year, 2050 (Indongo et al., 2013). The rural areas in Africa are undeveloped and employment opportunities are limited, thus, rural people migrate to urban

areas. A lack of fertile land for agricultural purposes in African villages forces rural residents to migrate to the urban centres. It is difficult to acquire fertile land and the land distribution policy is not favourable for poor rural residents.

Figure 2.5 indicates that Africa's urban population has increased from 10 percent in 1950 and is projected to increase by 55 percent in 2050, whereas the world urban population stood at 40 percent in 1950 and it is estimated to increase by 75 percent by 2050. The influx of rural migrants to the urban areas needs land for settlements; however, many rural migrants occupy urban land illegally and establish informal settlements because they cannot afford to buy decent houses. The establishment of informal settlements is not a recent phenomenon. It started in the 1950s and 1960s and has its roots in many cities in Africa, Asia and Latin America (Ferguson, 1996). The informal settlements house millions of vulnerable people who occupy urban land illegally and they are generally exposed to deplorable conditions such as poor sanitation, a lack of access to basic services and they are prone to communicable diseases.

#### 2.4.1.1 Empirical research

The body of literature provides the empirical evidence of socio-economic security challenges posed by the urbanisation phenomenon. A study was carried out in Pakistan by Ahmed, Panhwar & Zarif in 2012 to establish the security threats posed by urbanisation in Karachi, Lahore and Islamabad. The research revealed that urbanisation in Karachi resulted in human security threats such as high rates of crime insecurity, murder insecurity and snatching security threats, compared to other cities in Pakistan (Ahmed et al., 2012). The rapid urbanisation growth has posed security challenges on the livelihood of urban dwellers. This situation led to low levels of

socio-economic development and a decline in the foreign direct investments, as investors were not interested in investing in a country where there was no peace and stability.

Another study conducted by Ferguson (1996), in Montego Bay city in Jamaica investigated the strategies employed by squatters who occupy urban land illegally, and found that the squatters captured land where eviction seemed less likely, while lobby politicians remained on the 'captured' land or exchanged their current site for another. The residents of informal settlements occupied pieces of land and constructed the shacks, which housed their families. Ferguson (1996), further revealed that the squatters had captured the land, subdivided it and constructed illegal, small houses which accommodated poor rural migrants. These migrants settled in overcrowded cottages where they shared communal toilets, kitchens and bathing facilities. Such conditions do not favour the poor residents of squatter communities as they bear much of the immediate environmental and health insecurity. The local authorities prohibit city dwellers to occupy land without proper authorisation from the municipality. The informal settlements are mostly established during the night, and they have the reputation as criminal enclaves.

Macedo (2000, p.11), "contends that the phrase 'informal settlement' has been accepted as well as refuted by scholars in numerous disciplines as the occupation of land that does not belong to the person settling on it is what distinguishes informal settlements from other settlements". Therefore, informal settlement dwellers have no authority over the land they occupy and the probability of eviction by the Municipality is a challenge they face every day. Therefore, urbanisation trend in African cities, due to the socio-economic development gaps between affluent townships and informal settlements, is a major challenge.

### 2.4.2 Urbanisation security challenges in Africa

The development disparities and conflict in Africa influence migration within the continent, and there is a higher propensity to move to Europe and elsewhere in the world. “Some countries’ economies have grown rapidly while others have languished; some states have been more successful in avoiding civil conflict while a significant number are in a state of failure” (Lucas, 2013, p.13). African migrants are divided in different categories such as asylum seekers, refugees and job seekers. These categories are determined by the nature of migration. Refugees and asylum seekers are those migrants who are forced to migrate elsewhere due to political unrest or war. Job seekers are migrants who migrate from one place to another due to economic crises or better employment opportunities.

According to the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA, 2013), in sub-Saharan Africa, the urban population increased from 324 million in 2010 and it is projected to increase to 730 million in 2035. The population growth in urban areas has been experienced in many developing cities in sub-Saharan Africa, hence, the urgent need to acquire the capacity to manage the migration trends in order to remedy the security challenges of urban growth in sub-Saharan Africa. The migration from rural areas, the natural increase of the population, and the rapid socio-economic development in towns and cities, has led to urban growth in most sub-Saharan African countries. The local authority councillors, urban planners and law enforcement agencies face security challenges, associated with urbanisation demands of the new rural migrants and have to devise new proactive approaches to urban planning, which deal with future demographic growth and environmental security threats.

The rural-urban migrants, in early studies of African migration, note that men account for a high portion in the rural-urban migration (Abbass, 1998). The men migrated to the urban areas to work as contract labours, while women, who were regarded as domestic workers, stayed at home. Lucas (2013), argues that poverty in Africa has been a source of rural-urban migration. In recent times, the number of women migrants has increased and they constitute for half of rural-urban migrants (Abbass, 1998). The security challenges in the rural areas force women to move to urban settings seeking better livelihoods. Urbanisation is prompted primarily by rural-urban migration and urban socio-economic development, which are also contributing factors of migration that increase the movement of people from rural to urban areas.

The influx of migrants in cities is a security challenge that is prompted by the limited resources in rural areas, hence, the need to set up control measures to remedy rural-urban migration trends. Lucas (2013, p.24), affirms that "the main policy instruments, in most countries in the world, aimed directly at shaping international migration are various forms of immigration regulation". The common migration controlling measure in African countries is emigration controls at entry points such as border posts, airports and harbours. The aforesaid control measures intend to control illegal immigrants and to prevent crimes such as smuggling of illicit drugs, proliferation of small arms and human trafficking. The citizens are controlled at check points, mostly between regions or provinces as well as at the periphery of urban areas. In Africa, during the colonial period, the entry restrictions of rural migrants to the urban areas were characterized by political reasons and racial discrimination. After independence, migration was motivated by the economic opportunities in urban areas.

Colonial urbanisation shaped Kenya's urban landscape in number of ways directly and indirectly depending on location, accessibility to natural resources and the population level of Europeans and Indians in the surrounding regions (United Nations Population Fund, 2013; cited Obudho, 1983). The colonial regime developed urban areas based on strategic locations such as, harbours and airports. The urban areas which were developing well during the colonial era continued to develop rapidly after independence, while those which were neglected lagged behind in terms of socio-economic development. Although the law restricting the movement of Africans was abolished at independence, it is common for urban Kenyans to identify themselves with an urban house and rural home, which partly explains why a majority are never permanent migrants in towns (United Nations Population Fund, 2013; Owuor, 2006a; Oucho, 1996). The colonial administration restricted rural migrants to reside in urban areas as permanent residents. This legacy, now a myth and belief, is still practiced today among Africans who believe that urban areas belong to the Europeans and Indians, whereas Africans belong to the rural areas.

Simone and Abouhani (2005), published a book which was used as an empirical framework for this study. The book highlights the socio-economic security challenges facing African cities and the qualities for urban survival. In a study conducted in Anguwar Mai Gwado, within Sabon-Gari urban district by Simone and Abouhani in 2005, it was established that squatter settlements house the impoverished migrants in the city, they lack all socio-economic security amenities, services and utilities due to the influx of rural-urban migration. Simone and Abouhani (2005), work supports the current study in exploring how urban dwellers find effective ways of pursuing their livelihoods and other aspirations in the city.

Similar studies were conducted in various developing countries to investigate the urbanisation phenomenon. One such study was carried out by Abbass in 1998 in Nigeria in the northern, eastern and western states of the country, to investigate the causes and security challenges posed by urbanisation. The study established that the major security threats of rural-urban migration, is a result of the deplorable state of socio-economic security challenges in rural areas. These socio-economic security challenges range from the general state of under development security challenges, unemployment insecurity, infrastructural deficiencies, poverty insecurity, illiteracy security challenges, etc. (Abbass, 1998). The escalation of poverty in rural areas contributes to urbanisation trends.

A study carried out by Simone and Abouhani in 2005 in Addis Ababa in Ethiopia highlights that, historically, towns have grown around political, religious or commercial centres, where some of the major cities are known today in sub-Saharan Africa. They traced their origin to the colonial period during which they were influenced by the segregationist character of the colonial urban policy. The study further indicated that the building of two townships according to economic status, one for the Europeans and other for the Africans (Simon and Abouhani, 2005). The development disparities between Europeans township and Africans township became a security challenge, which forced rural migrants to continue living in deplorable conditions. The rural migrants found themselves in the informal settlements, which are not connected to basic amenities such as water and electricity.

The study conducted by Miheretu in 2011 in Ethiopia indicates that various empirical studies on urbanisation were carried out in numerous towns and cities to determine the security challenges posed by the rural-urban migration. "The out flow of rural migrants in search of employment

and education opportunities to Woldiya city in Ethiopia has negatively affected agricultural production in rural areas, whereas urban in-migration resulted in a shortage of housing, unemployment insecurity, the increasing cost of living and the lack of access to social services became major security challenges in the city" (Miheretu, 2011, p.7). The study found that the migration trend in Ethiopia was caused by numerous factors such as, political instability, government resettlement policies; a decline in the agricultural productivity due to limited investment in agriculture and recurrent drought in the rural areas, high population pressure, lack of farm employment opportunities, and the imposition of heavy taxes. The push and pull factors contributed to rural-urban migration. The pull factors included better living conditions, job opportunities, better wages and the presence of social support from relatives and friends in the city.

Lupala (2002), indicates that some of the security challenges of rapid urbanisation are the declining capability of the central government and the local authority to provide basic infrastructure, their inability to manage the rapid growing urban population, particularly the housing deficit. In addition, the security challenges in accessing serviced urban land, unaffordable houses due to high prices, the increasing crime rate due to high unemployment insecurity and poverty insecurity. Rapid urbanisation is a socio-economic security challenge, because the local authority cannot afford to provide basic amenities to the residents, especially in the informal settlements.

"The research conducted by Simone and Abouhani in 2005 in Kisangani town indicates that, since Congo gained its independence in June 1960, the town has been experiencing various violent disruptions that seriously threatened the livelihoods of its inhabitants, who were already

struggling to cope with the prevailing joblessness and the lawless uprisings due to uncontrollable urbanisation trends" (Simone and Abouhani, 2005, p.96). Rapid urbanisation growth, if not properly managed, will be a security challenge to the livelihood of city dwellers. The study showed that the urbanisation process resulted in overpopulation, which posed security challenges such as, the disorder caused by the middle class, which was composed mostly of civil servants, who lost their income due to wage cuts or unpaid salaries. This culminated in them not being able to help sustain petty trade activities, thus, earning a daily livelihood became a nagging security concern for a growing number of Kisangani's inhabitants.

### 2.4.3 Urbanisation security challenges in Southern Africa Development Community (SADC)

The influx of rural men migrants from the Tonga Villages of Zimbabwe (Storm, 1997; Van Velsen, 1960) did not adversely affect the subsistence cultivation, as the latter was well managed by the women left behind. The stereotype that women are generally weak is unfounded, as African women have been taking care of households in the villages while men migrated to the urban areas as contract labourers, as alluded to earlier. This trend adversely affected the education of women and young ladies as they were not educated or could not further their education and they ended up working as domestic workers. Traditionally, the young men used to look after cattle at the cattle posts. The rural areas have now become places for retired and illiterate people who do not have economic resources, innovation and knowledge to develop the rural areas. "Thus, those who will stimulate the local economy and contribute to improvement in household living conditions are lost, perpetuating rural poverty and dependency as well as undermining rural social viability" (Miheretu, 2011, p. 30; cited Lock Wood, 1990; Makinwa,

1981; Adepoju, 1983). The migration trend is also experienced in neighbouring countries such as Zambia, Zimbabwe and South Africa, where rural migrants migrated to the urban areas to work in mines, factories and farms. The South African gold mines, the cash-crop farms of Zimbabwe and Zambia are good examples of rural-urban migration trends in SADC (Storm, 1997). The movement of rural migrants seeking employment opportunities in urban areas is also experienced in Namibia. Socio-economic security challenges such as, unemployment and poverty, are some of the main motivation factors that force rural migrants to migrate to the city.

### 2.4.4 Urbanisation security challenges in Namibia

Namibia is among the countries within Southern Africa that had a lower percentage of an urban population than the regional average between 1990 and 2010. However, urbanisation in Namibia is expected to increase at 65.3 percent by 2050, to approximate the regional average of 66.45 percent (Newaya, 2010). The urbanisation growth in Namibia is stimulated by a number of factors, such as, rapid economic growth in urban areas compared to the rural areas, freedom of movement and poor living conditions in rural areas.

Rapid urbanisation growth contributes to environmental threats, such as the loss of biodiversity due to the wanton clearing of land for development. Due to the lack of serviced urban land, there is an upsurge in land invasions, resulting in a security threat to the central government and local authorities because of the shortage and the high cost of housing. Environmental pollution caused by chemical substances and exposure to human waste are some of the causes of concern posed by urbanisation (Erriky, 2013; National Planning Commission (NPC), 2004). Environmental

pollution due to human activities is a security threat which requires prompt intervention by the central government. Although the central government has enacted conservation of ecosystem and biodiversity in the Constitution, loss of plants and animals species due to human activities is still continue unabated. Therefore, the Ministry of Environment and Tourism should intensify public awareness on the importance of preservation of natural resources. The natural resources contribute to the development of national economy and to social wellbeing of the citizens if distributed fairly.

The security threats facing rural residents are lack of resources and persistent natural disasters (Indongo, et al., 2013). CoW, the capital City of Namibia, is challenged by the growth of the large urban population. This is a consequence of the high influx of rural migrants, particularly from the densely populated northern part of the country, due to the unequal distribution of economic resources between rural and urban setting. The Namibian President, His Excellency Dr. Hage Geingob, introduced the Harambee Prosperity Plan (HPP) as a strategy to narrow the socio-economic gap between the rural and urban settings. Harambee is a Swahili word meaning, let us pull together in the same direction (Harambee Prosperity Plan, 2016). There are four critical success factors or sub-pillars namely: Macro-Economic Stability; Economic Transformation; Youth Enterprise Development; and Economic Competitiveness (Ibid). HPP is a plan which contributes to the transition of socio-economic national development, the delivery of quality services, effective governance, reducing poverty, income disparities and uplifting the livelihood of all Namibians. The President of the Republic of Namibia outlined that prosperity can be achieved only if the whole nation pulls together as a united team in the same direction in the spirit of Harambee.

The security challenges which face both rural and urban population are insufficient resources and development gaps thus, the need for specific interventions to deal with unemployment security challenge, address the high inequality through the promotion of wealth creation in order to eradicate hunger, reduce unemployment and poverty as a matter of urgency. Tvedten and Mupotola (1995), postulate that the socio-economic opportunities in the rural areas are limited, so many people are forced to migrate to the cities in search of employment opportunities, better living standards, safety and security. However, rural migrants are living in appalling conditions in the informal settlements with limited basic needs, such as access to private ablution facilities, clean water and decent housing. Informal settlements are unplanned settlements and they do not form part of the urban planning and budgeting.

The residents of these informal settlements or 'illegal squatters' feel discriminated against, in terms of poor service delivery and the lack of socio-economic development, which is deemed to be the responsibility of local authorities and the central government. The service delivery at the sub-national level was ethnically, socially and spatially biased in favour of affluent, white residential areas and indeed it was the official policy that towns should be made as unattractive as possible to discourage in-migration of non-whites (Fjeldstad et al, 2005; cited UNDP, 1989, VII). The discriminatory policy of separating urban populations according to their economic status, posed security threats in the Windhoek City Council due to the continuing clash between the residents of the informal settlements and law enforcement agencies. Erriky (2013), contends that the legacy of exploitation under colonial rule and the lack of capital development can be explained as a result of the segregation system of townships in CoW. The segregation of townships according to economic status in Namibia was inherited from the colonial masters during apartheid, where whites and blacks were not allowed to reside in the same townships.

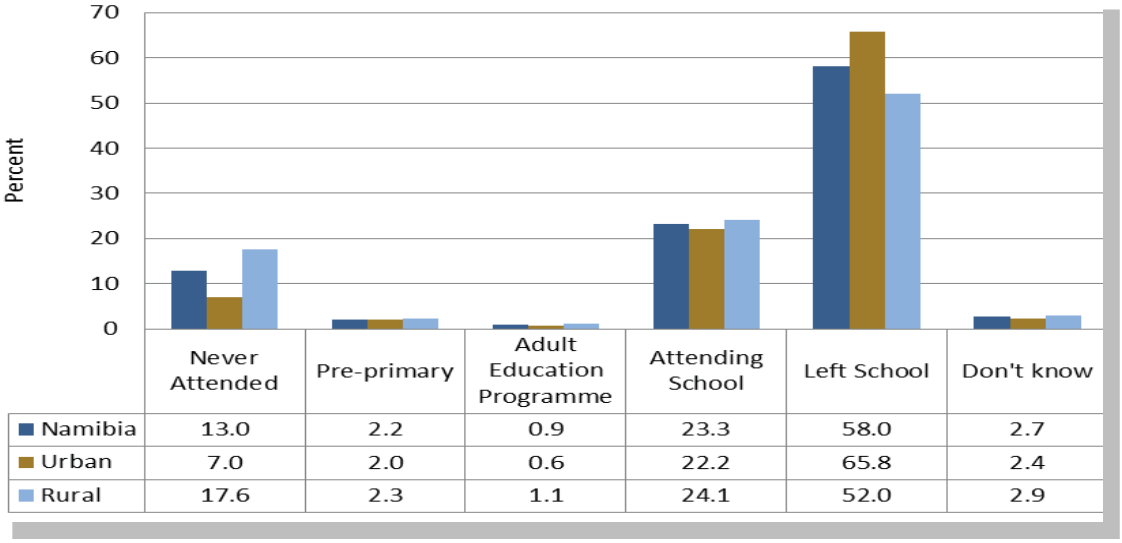
Lupala (2002), argues that while many cities in developing countries were established during the colonial period, their exponential growth, coupled with the escalation of informal settlements, started after the attainment of independence. The establishment of informal settlements occur, partly, because many rural migrants are unemployed and cannot afford to buy decent houses. Therefore, they are forced to establish illegal settlements in the peri-urban settings. The affluent townships in Namibia are provided with all the necessary services while the informal settlements do not have access to services such as, road networks, water reticulation systems, ablution facilities, street lights, health facilities, police sub-stations and shopping complexes, because they cannot afford to pay for the services rendered.

The influx of rural-urban migrants was encouraged by the removal of the movement restriction and the lifting of some municipal policies which were imposed by the colonial masters. For instance, only a limited number of people, especially contract workers, were allowed to live in the cities and towns (Lupala, 2002). This enabled the municipalities to provide basic essential services to its residents. Indongo, et al., (2013) contend that the urbanisation trend in Namibia increased after independence, when the Apartheid restrictions on freedom of movement and residing were abolished. The South African Apartheid regime restricted rural migrants from migrating to the urban areas without authorisation from the government.

The removal of restrictions on rural-urban migration in Namibia was characterised by a dehumanising pass system of control and exclusion (Harambee Prosperity Plan, 2016). The migration stream was dominated by men who were employed to work in mines, factories and farms. These men, who were employed as contract labourers, were separated from their families

for two or more years. Although, the restriction of rural-urban migration was removed, the rural migrants still believed that the urban areas were places where rural migrants came only to work temporarily as labourers, accumulate wealth and eventually retire back home (United Nations Population Fund, 2013). In recent years, the rural-urban migration trend has been employed as a survival strategy utilized by rural migrants to improve their livelihood in urban areas. The continuation of urbanisation growth is still a socio-economic security threat in many aspects; such as, economic insecurity, social unrest, environmental insecurity and political turmoil.

The prospect of a better education in the city, is one of the pull factors which motivated the influx of rural migrants. Additionally, the population distribution of school attendance has contributed to rapid urbanisation growth in the urban areas. According to the Namibia Statistic Agency (2011), the percentage of the Namibian population who have never attended school stood at 13.0 percent. Urban areas constituted 7.0 percent, whereas rural areas stood at 17.6 percent, as indicated in Figure 2.6.




| | Never Attended | Pre-primary | Adult Education Programme | Attending School | Left School | Don't know |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Namibia | 13.0 | 2.2 | 0.9 | 23.3 | 58.0 | 2.7 |
| Urban | 7.0 | 2.0 | 0.6 | 22.2 | 65.8 | 2.4 |
| Rural | 17.6 | 2.3 | 1.1 | 24.1 | 52.0 | 2.9 |

**Figure 2.6: Percent of population distribution of school attendance**

*Source*: Namibia Statistic Agency (2011).

In the same vein, the Namibian population that has attended school stood at 23.3 percent, the urban areas stood at 22.2 percent and the rural areas constituted 24.1 percent. Surprisingly, the percentage of people who left school in the urban areas surpasses the national and rural population. The Namibian population stood at 58.0 percent, urban areas at 65.8 percent, while the rural areas stood at 52.0 percent. An increase in the percentage of the population distribution of school attendance in urban areas is attributed to urbanisation trends. Therefore, the information provided by the Namibia Statistic Agency (2011), on population distribution of school attendance, assisted the current study to illustrate how rural-urban migration contributes to rapid urbanisation growth.

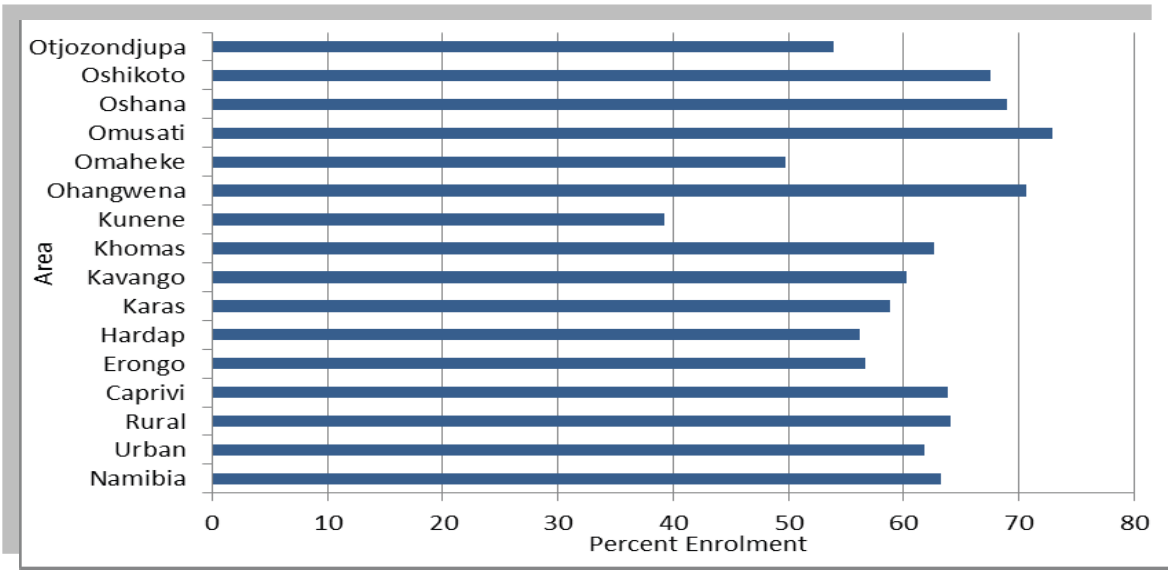



**Figure 2.7: Enrolment rate for school going population (5-24 years of age) by area**
*Source:* Namibia Labour Force Survey 2012 Report

Rapid urbanisation has also resulted in the security challenge of the provision of education services in both urban and rural areas, since the movement of families to urban areas has led to

the decline in the number of children enrolling for lower grades (Indongo, et al., 2013). Although Figure 2.7 indicates that the enrolment rate in Omusati and Ohangwena regions was above 70 percent, compared to 64 percent of Khomas region, this was due to many students migrating to the Khomas region, specifically toward the CoW, to seek better education opportunities. The main stream is internal migration, primarily rural-urban migration, from northern Namibia which made up 33 percent of the total population of the CoW in 2001 and 54 percent of the total migrant population (Pendleton, Nickanor, and Pomuti, 2012). The Namibia Labour Force Survey (2014), estimates Namibia's population to be 2,247,124 people; whereby an estimated 1,181,080 or 52.56 percent live in rural areas while the remaining 1,066,044 or 47.4 percent live in urban area. The most populated regions are Khomas, Ohangwena and Omusati, with 17.2, 11.2 and 11.0 percent of the total population respectively (Ibid).

The population pyramid illustrates that in both rural and urban areas, the majority are youth and their life expectancy is 49 years in urban areas, while in rural areas, it is 39 years. Both Figure 2.8 and Figure 2.9 show that females live longer than males. The low life expectancy is caused by inadequate health facilities and natural disasters such as, drought, flood and famine in the rural areas as well as high rates of poverty and unemployment in the informal settlements.

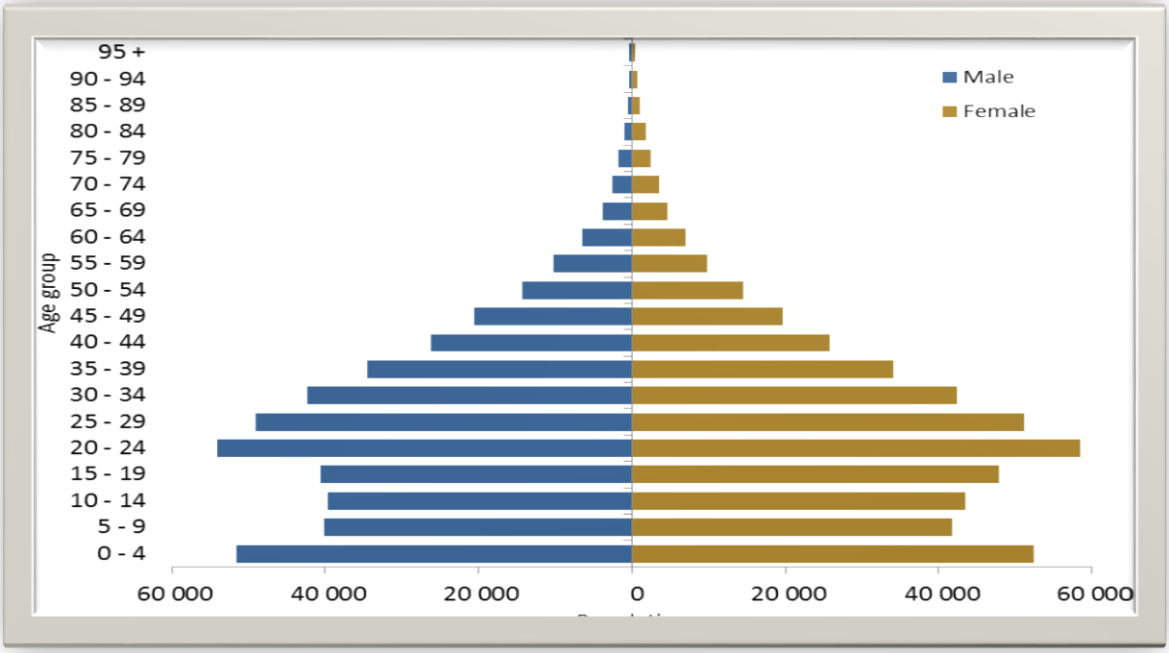



**Figure 2.8: Urban population pyramid in Namibia**
*Source:* Namibia Statistic Agency, 2011.

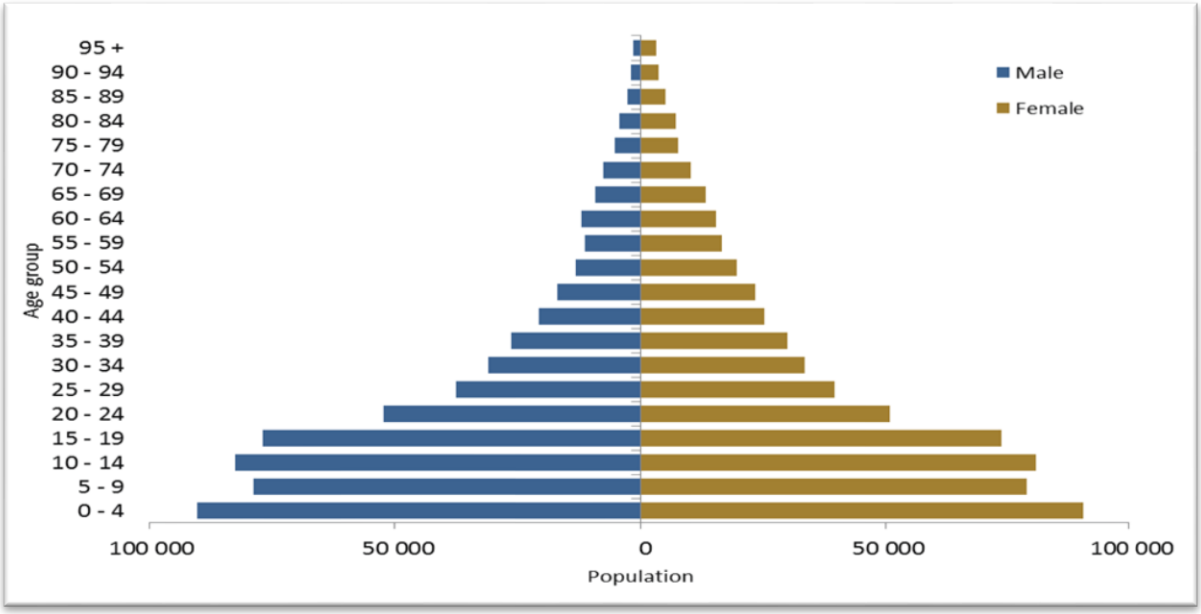
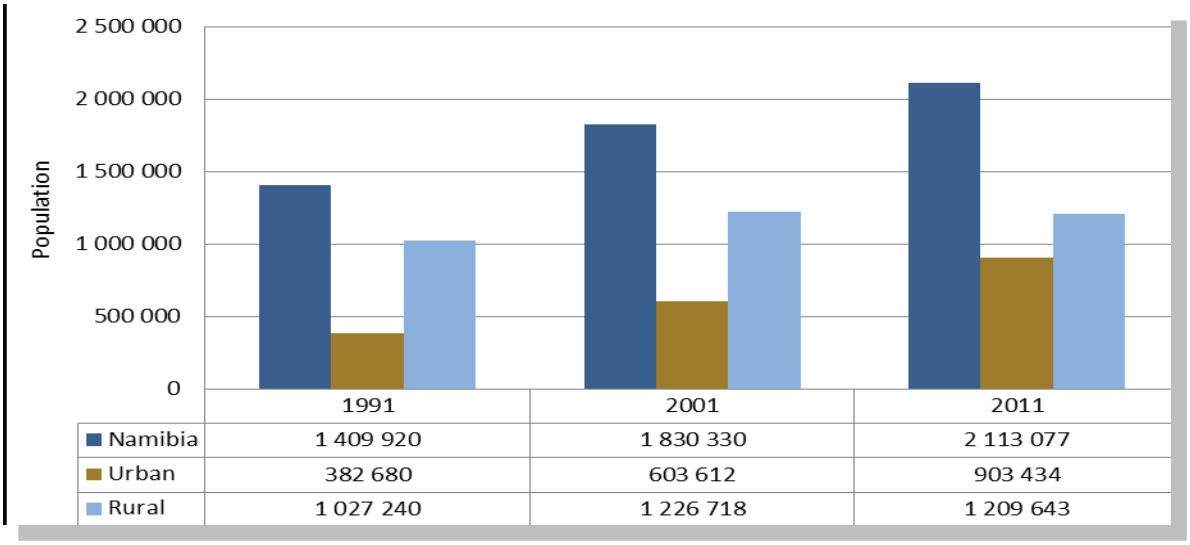



**Figure 2.9: Rural population pyramid in Namibia**
*Source:* Namibia Statistic Agency, 2011.

The urban population pyramid in Figure 2.8 presents the five-year age groups which embody the bulk in the middle, and has a relative narrow apex. This indicates that urban areas have a large

proportion of working age people (between 19-59 years of age) and a much smaller proportion of the elderly people, compared to Figure 2.9, which indicates the pyramid for rural areas (Namibia Statistic Agency, 2011, p.31). Between the ages of 20-29 years the rural youth, mostly school-leavers or school-drops, migrate to urban areas, seeking better opportunities such as employment, high education, or cohabitate with relatives and friends. Figure 2.10 indicates the population increase in urban areas and decrease in rural areas due to the rural-urban migration trend since 1991 to 2011 in Namibia.




| | 1991 | 2001 | 2011 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Namibia | 1 409 920 | 1 830 330 | 2 113 077 |
| Urban | 382 680 | 603 612 | 903 434 |
| Rural | 1 027 240 | 1 226 718 | 1 209 643 |

**Figure 2.10: Population distribution at National, Urban and Rural levels**
*Source:* Namibia Statistic Agency (NSA, 2011)

Namibia's population has increased from 1409 920 in 1991 to 2113 077 in 2011; the urban population increased by 382 680 in 1991 to 903 434 in 2011, whereas the rural population increased from 1027 240 to 1209 643 in 2011. Although, the rural population is higher than the urban population, the urban population is increasing rapidly due to rural-urban migratory inclination. Windhoek, being the capital city of Namibia, has many rural migrants migrating to the city for the various reasons as indicated earlier.

According to National Planning Commission (2004), the urbanisation trend in Namibia has been increasing since 1991 by 30 percent, and it is projected to increase by 67 percent in 2030 as indicated on Figure 2.11

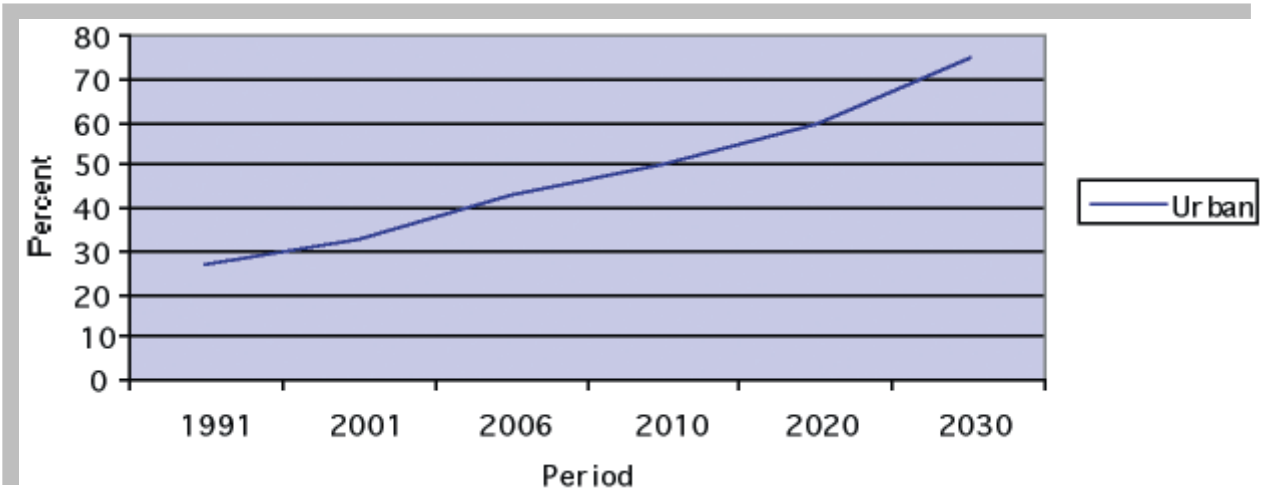



**Figure 2.11: Namibia urban growth projection as from 1991 to 2030**
*Source*: National Planning Commission (2004)

According to the Namibian Statistic Agency (NSA) (2014), the number of Namibians who lived in urban areas in 1991 stood at 28 percent; by 2011 this figure had increased to 43 percent. It is projected that in 2018, there will be more Namibians living in urban than in rural areas. Many urban residents cannot be absorbed into the main stream of the urban economy if the urban population is not growing parallel with economic development. Rural-urban migration played a significant role in the transformation of the socio-economic development of the CoW in terms of the provision of cheap labour and increasing SME's, both formal and informal businesses. One of the security threats posed by rapid urbanisation is the scarcity of urban land, which led to the escalation of land invasion by landless poor youth. Indongo et al. (2013), assert that in Namibia, effective and efficient land use planning and management is not well established, thus rapid rates

of urbanisation have resulted in unauthorised developments for residential and business purposes, as land prices escalate and land is in short supply.

The continual illegal occupation of urban land by the so-called 'militant and fearless radical youth,' has compelled local authorities to demolish shacks by bulldozing them. This action is regarded by the landless youth as an inheritance of the colonial legacy by the local authorities and violation of the citizens' Constitutional rights of freedom to reside wherever they want, as stipulated in Article 21 Sub-Article (1) (h) of the Namibian Constitution. According to Erriky (2013) citing the former CoW Mayor, Matheus Shikongo, as quoted in The Namibian newspaper, (2010, March, 26, p.1) "freedom and independence should not be reduced to anarchy through unlawful acts such as illegal land occupation, the supreme law, which is the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, does not acknowledge illegal land grabbing."

Another security challenge facing the low income and unemployed urban dwellers is eviction due to failure to pay municipality bills such as water and electricity services. According to Odendaal and Tjiramba (2005), Namibia inherited South Africa's common law eviction procedures, which generally still apply, therefore the procedure that the municipalities follow, before an eviction order is issued to a person in arrears with municipal bills, must be in line with the Local Authorities Act. The urban dwellers expressed their dissatisfaction through demonstrations and sometimes go to court with the representatives of municipality. The growing demand for urban land, due to the rapid increase of rural-urban migration, is a national security threat issue on the agenda of the government. Although, Namibia is one of the sparsely populated countries in the world, her citizens are landless. The security challenge that the central government faces, is the escalation of land invasion in recent years. This situation is a national

security threat which requires prompt intervention by the central government and local authorities in particular. The low income and unemployed people are mostly involved in land invasion in the urban areas.

### 2.4.5 Urbanisation security challenges in the City of Windhoek

The CoW became the centre of attraction of the urbanisation phenomenon, where people seek better opportunities, and where government services are available.

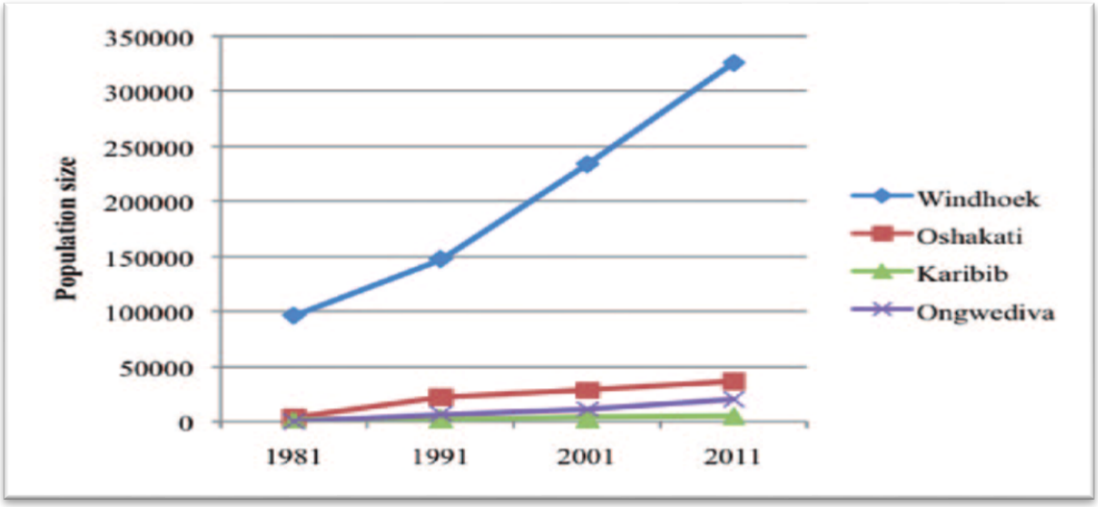



**Figure 2.12: Annual urban population growth in four Namibian cities and towns**
*Source:* Indongo et al. 2013

Urbanisation in the CoW increased from 100 000 people in 1981 to 340 000 people in 2011 as indicated in Figure 2.12. The CoW attracts people from the rural areas, towns and elsewhere in the world. Indongo et al. (2013, p.16), "argue that the demand for tertiary education is one of the major factors contributing to urbanisation in Namibia as all tertiary institutions are located in the urban centres". The main campuses of the universities, such as, the University of Namibia (UNAM), Namibia University of Science and Technology (NUST) and the International University of Management (IUM) are all situated in CoW. Erriky (2013), asserts that the CoW

houses various institutions of higher learning which are limited, in other regions. The security challenges posed by the influx of rural migrants into the CoW limit the opportunities to enrol in educational institutions due to the large number of new migrants.

Before the independence of Namibia, Katutura, a township in the CoW, used to house Black contract workers, dated back to 1958 under the South African colonial Apartheid rule (Newaya, 2010; cited Peyroux, 2004). However, after independence Katutura became one of the townships which developed well in terms of infrastructure development. Katutura is one of the formal townships which house low and middle income residents (see Figure 2.13). The influx of poor rural migrants in the CoW have established informal settlements such as Havana and Greenwell Matongo which have grown rapidly in recent years. "The Havana informal settlement is situated in the Moses //Garoeb constituency, while the Greenwell Matongo informal settlement is situated in Samora Machel constituency" (Erriky, 2013, p.15). Therefore, due to limited time and financial constraint, the research was conducted in the two informal settlements.

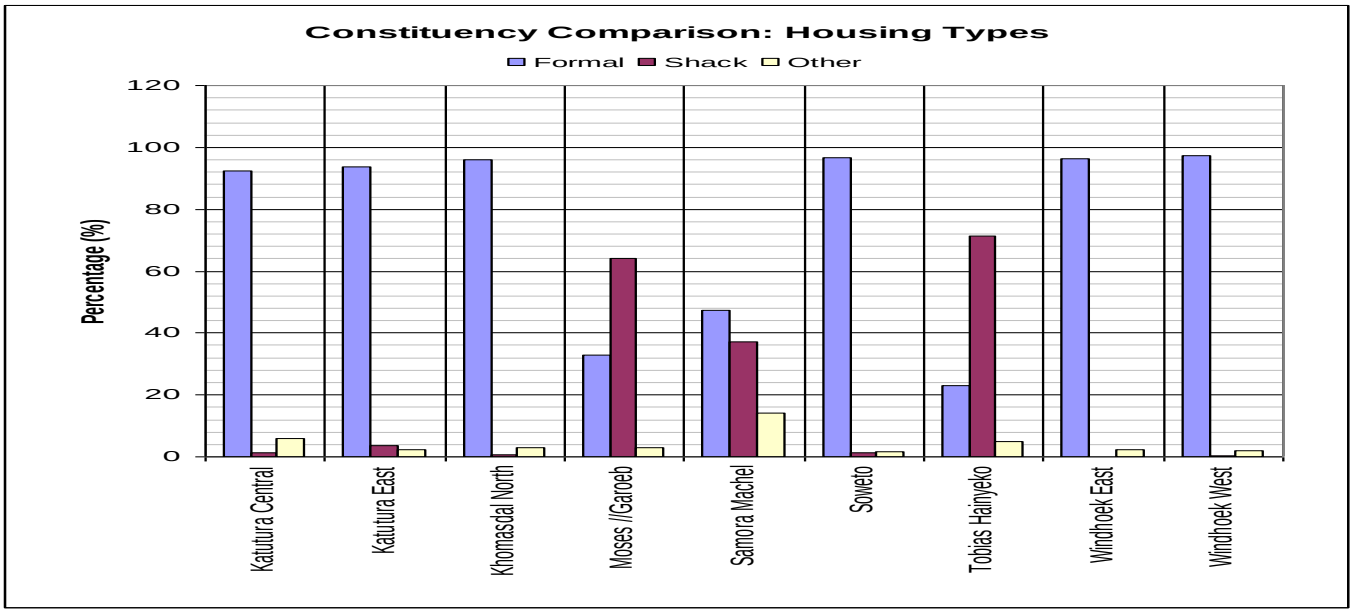



**Figure 2.13: Constituency comparison: housing types**
*Source*: City of Windhoek (2011).

The Figure 2.13 indicates that 65 percent of the residents of Moses //Garoeb constituency are living in shacks, while 39 percent of the residents of Samora Machel constituency are living in shacks. However, shacks constitute 89 percent of housing in the Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements. The large proportions of shacks in these constituencies could be attributed to the high rate of unemployment and high price of decent houses (City of Windhoek, 2011). The residents of the Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements do not have access to ablution faculties. According to City of Windhoek (2011), it is worrisome that about 40 000 people in these constituencies (Moses //Garoeb (50.6 percent or 12,975 people, Samora Machel 22.5 percent or 6,611 people, Tobias Hainyeko, 57.6 percent or 19,784 people) still make use of the bush as a toilet. The living condition of the residents of the two informal settlements is a security concern. These people live in deplorable conditions and the potential security threat to public health that has been generated by so many people relieving themselves in the bushes. The influx of rural migrants to the CoW, has contributed to the escalation of informal settlements. Informal settlements are growing rapidly compared to the formal townships in the CoW.

| Description | Windhoek Population | Informal Population |
|---|---|---|
| 1995 | 181,696 | 28,000 |
| 2001 | 233,529 | 48,183 |
| 2001 number of Households | 54,707 | 13,541 |
| Absolute Growth over 6 years | 51,833 | 20,183 |
| Average Growth per Annum | 8,638 | 3,363 |
| Average growth per Month | 720 | 280 |
| Households per Annum @4p/h | 2160 | 841 |
| Households per Month | 180 | 70 |
| | | |
| Annual Growth Rate: | 4.44 | 9.46 |

**Table 2.1 Informal settlement growth**
*Source:* City of Windhoek, 2011.

According to the City of Windhoek (2011), the annual rate of informal settlement growth stood at 9.46 percent compared to 4.44 percent, for the entire Windhoek population per annum, over

the last 10 years. The high growth rate of the informal settlements' population is a socio-economic security challenge. The proportion of informal settlement structures grew from 15 percent in 1995 to 25 percent in 2001, representing a proportional increase of 1.6 percent per annum growth in informal settlement structures (Erriky, 2013; cited City of Windhoek, 2011). Table 2.1 shows that the informal settlement population has grown by 20,183 people, compared to 51,833 for CoW's population over 6 years. This represents an annual average increase of more than 3,363 people in the informal settlements compared to 8,638 people in CoW per annum. The continuation of rural-urban development disparities contribute to the urbanisation security challenge.

"Informal settlements are products of national and regional inequalities due to the changing economic nature of nations and the lack of appropriate policies to mitigate the effects of change" (Macedo, 2000, p.13). The CoW is highly developed compared, to other towns in the country, and this has attracted many people to migrate to the city. The people prefer to construct houses in the CoW because of the high demand of houses in the city. Housing is one of the most lucrative businesses and generates money fast through the renting or selling of houses. Consequently, there is no clear policy to regulate the housing prices and rental fees, and as result, the prices of houses and rental fees are determined by individuals. This forces poor people to reside in shacks because they cannot afford the high prices. After Namibia's independence, the CoW continued experiencing a rapid growth of informal settlements. "The informal settlements refer to land, infrastructure and shelter development and land invasions that occur outside the land-use planning process and other government rules" (Ferguson, 1996, p.172). It is a term used to describe the illegal occupation of land, mostly in urban areas.

The characterisation of formal and informal settlements is defined by the way they are established (Macedo, 2000). Formal settlements are normally established according to set standards and procedures. The informal settlements are established without guidance and authorisation from the local authorities. Figure 2.14 explains the methodology employed by residents of both informal and formal settlements. Macedo (2000), argues that the perception that other city dwellers have of those who live in poor settlements feeds the ill will towards them. These settlements are viewed as a social blight, an urban cancer, a break in the cityscape; and this image is projected onto the residents, regardless of their education or employment status. These misconceptions indicate the existing discrimination posed by the widening gap between the residents of informal and formal settlements. The residents of the informal settlements ignore the legislations set up by the local authorities to occupy the land for residential purposes. The formal settlements, on the other hand, adhere to rules and regulations as well as the procedures governing the acquisition of urban land and properties as indicated on Figure 2.14.

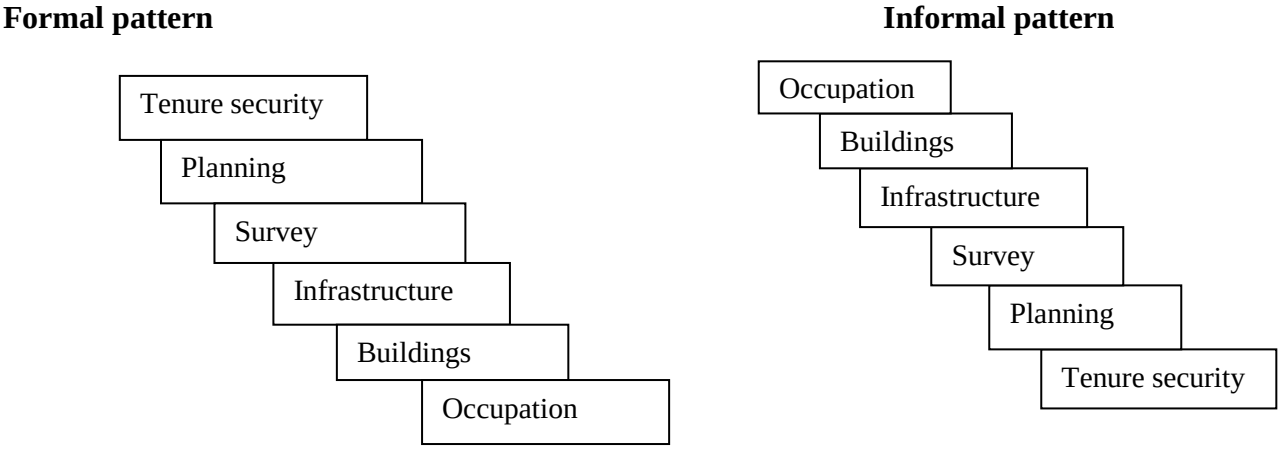



**Figure 2.14: Pattern of development for informal and formal settlements**
*Source*: Macedo, 2000; cited Grenville Barnes, 1998.

Ferguson (1996), suggests that the governments and municipalities try to remove illegal squatter dwellers through persuasion, relocation housing and bulldozing. However, the local authorities found the removal politically impossible now that informal settlements represent a large portion

of urban populations; particularly since most governments have failed to offer alternative settlements. Therefore, the politicians are not too concerned about stopping the illegal occupation of urban land.

Macedo (2000), argues that an inappropriate invasion of land is defined as illegal, because occupation is neither based on the ownership of such land, nor in the payment of rent to its legal owners. Land invasion remains a security challenge in the informal settlements and it requires an intervention by the central government before it escalates. The informal settlement dwellers are generally unemployed and cannot afford to pay for municipal services. Reflecting on Macedo's (2000), definition, one can deduce that the informal settlements emerge as invasions or illegal occupation of urban land without proper authorisation from the local authorities or from the land owner. The residents of informal settlements play a significant role, not only in solving the housing shortage, but also in contributing to urban economic development through the provision of cheap labour. Fjeldstad et al. (2005), contend that residents of informal settlements have the status of 'illegal squatters' since they are not part of towns. Although the local authorities are obliged to address the security challenges affecting the residents of the informal settlements, their budget cannot afford to cater for uncontrollable influx of rural migrants.

Ferguson, (1996, p.172), "explains that many governments have shown more reluctance to supporting upgrading programmes in informal settlements". Financial institutions, such as commercial banks, are unwilling to support the development of informal settlements because the poor squatter dwellers cannot afford to pay back loans, and the areas are located on the outskirts of the cities, which are unplanned for urban development. Therefore, commercial banks cannot

finance houses which are not located within the municipality boundaries. It is evident that the CoW is faced with high a demand of land and other services.

## 2.5 Causes of urbanisation in general and Namibia in particular

Abbass (1998), argues that even though Nigeria is predominantly rural, the impact of urbanisation is continuously being felt all over the country, as the rural migrants are migrating to the urban areas with the hope for better opportunities. The security challenge, caused by the influx of rural migrants to the city, affects mostly the heads of households, who are struggling to support their families due to their low income; it becomes more difficult to support the influx of rural migrants that depend on their relatives and friends. Some school drop-outs also seek employment opportunities, whereas, others establish their own generating income business. The cities and towns provide better livelihoods and opportunities (Mendola, 2006).The migrants who fail to obtain jobs in the city do not return to rural areas, and this breeds various security challenges such as rapid population growth, the escalation of unemployment insecurity and an increase in crime. Economic variable is one important aspect to determine the livelihood.

### 2.5.1 Economic variable

Todaro and Smith (2012), interpret the high out-migration from densely populated regions to mean that migrants originate from poor households. Poor people migrate from rural areas seeking to improve their life in urban areas. On the other hand, rural-urban migrants tend to originate from households of above average wealth, because the wealthy households send their children to attend schools in urban areas, which generally offer better education. The

development disparity between regions, as well as between rural and urban settings, contributes immensely to the urbanisation growth in Namibia. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is a vital instrument for determining the development disparity between regions, towns and suburbs.

### 2.5.2 Urbanisation and Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

A study carried out by the UN-Habitat (2014), to determine the living standards of Southern African cities dwellers, revealed that despite the region's economic success in terms of its GDP growth from urban economies, there is widespread inequality gaps in terms of living standards and income levels between the poor and rich, urban sprawl, segregation, slum and informal settlement proliferation on the urban peripheries, as well as inadequate infrastructure and service provision. The socio-economic inequality gaps describe the imbalances of resource distribution, the income gap between the poor and rich and high unemployment, to mention just a few. Unfair distribution of resources and high unemployment rates has repercussions on the socio-economic instability in the urban areas.

### 2.5.3 Urbanisation and unemployment

The increasing unemployment rate in Windhoek is another security concern that contributes to various security threats like poverty and crimes. The Namibia Labour Force Survey (2012), indicates a decline in the unemployment level, from 34.5 percent in 1997 to 27.4 percent in 2012. Unemployment insecurity in Namibia remains one of the security threats which require prompt intervention by the central government. Unemployment is a security concern which threatens human survival in the rural-urban areas. It is one of the major contributing factors to poverty in the informal settlements in the CoW, due to the lack of income earning opportunities (Sem, 2010; cited Jacobs, 1997). Unemployed people are not able to buy decent housing, food, pay

municipal services or pay for health services. The employed people become victims because the unemployed people steal their movable properties such as electronic appliances, textiles, cars, which, in turn, they sell to earn an income. These socio-economic basic needs are of paramount importance for human survival, and for this reason, some of those people who are not fortunate to secure job opportunities engage themselves in criminal activities in order to survive.

### 2.5.4 Social variable and urbanisation

The influx of rural-urban migration is motivated by socio-economic opportunities in the urban areas. The Namibia Statistic Agency (2011), revealed that, in Namibia, the rural-urban migrants are mostly young school-leavers who migrate to the city seeking better opportunities. They are mostly affected by unemployment and poverty insecurity, and therefore forced to migrate to urban areas to improve their living standards. Abbass (1998), contends that the average of rural-urban migrants are school-leavers. The average migrants are young with the highest propensity estimated male migrants in comparison to their female counterparts. In Namibia, there is myth and belief that, traditionally, males are job seekers in urban areas, whereas females are housekeepers in rural areas. However, the situation has changed since independence due to the removal of movement restrictions as alluded to earlier.

The young people migrate to urban areas where disasters are limited, leaving the elders without anyone to take taking care of them. The socio-economic security challenges in rural areas are the main catalysts of rural-urban migratory phenomena (Mendola, 2006). The medical practitioners, teachers, and other artisans migrate to urban areas for better living conditions, leaving the rural areas without a qualified workforce in health institutions, schools and other public and private entities. This backlog contributes to poor services delivery. Although, in Namibia, the

government has introduced bush allowances for teachers, other professions such as nurses and engineers they feel overlooked because they are not given the same benefits to maintain, retain and attract qualified personnel in the rural areas.

### 2.5.5 Urbanisation influence on health

The influx of rural migrants to the city has posed the security challenges to the environment and the city dwellers, due to overcrowding and lack of ablution facilities. The study carried out in Montego Bay by Ferguson in 1996, to determine the influence of urbanisation, affirmed that garbage collection in the informal settlements was not done as per the set schedule due to numerous security challenges. For instance, 49 percent of households in the informal settlements lack accessible roads, the cooperation of residents and density and inadequate finance, therefore, garbage trucks cannot reach many of these areas. The garbage presents various environmental and human security threats. The solid waste and uncollected garbage causes health problems to human beings, plants and animals. The improper storage of waste containers makes it an easy prey for scavengers and flies are prolific in the area of the containers and infest the area; dump sites cause other problems, such as nitrates leaching into groundwater and the smoke from the burning waste a pall over much of the surrounding area in Montego Bay (Ibid). The above mentioned poor living conditions in the informal settlements contribute to human ill health and environment insecurity.

The CoW strives continually to maintain its cleanliness as a dirty city can pose security threats to the inhabitants and the environment. The Windhoek City Council continues to educate the public on the importance of keeping the city clean and to avoid illegal dumping at all cost (City of Windhoek, 2011). The unhygienic environment poses security threats to people, plants and

animals; thus keeping the environment clean is the best strategy to promote good living conditions. Despite several efforts made by the local authority councils to intensify clean-up campaigns through outreach programs, there are still pockets of garbage visible in the streets of the CoW.

Ferguson (1996), highlights that when residents flush their contaminated water and other waste, it tends to pollute the surrounding area, beaches and coral reefs, it seeps into groundwater and discharges into other rivers, lakes and bays. It is the greatest source of bacteriological pollution in Montego Bay and has destroyed the main economic resources (Ibid). In addition, people relieve themselves in nearby bushes due to few pit latrines and septic tank systems. Some residents even put their faeces in plastic bags and throw these bags into nearby valleys or bushes, thus creating a health hazards. The rapid urbanisation growth has also negative impact on the provision of services to the urban residents by the municipality.

### 2.5.6 Urbanisation impact on urban services

The electricity supply in the informal settlements is another security challenge. Research conducted by Ferguson (1996), investigated the power supply in the informal settlements and discovered that electricity, in all informal sector households, is connected to electricity lines secretly, which pose a high-risk of electrocution. The study pointed out that households hire a local person, with some technical knowledge, to wire their homes and residents run wires over the ground to the nearest useable electricity line. The illegal connection of electricity poses security threats to the inhabitants, especially the children, and the municipality is affected in terms of financial loss.

Illegal power connection in the informal settlements is one of the security threats that require prompt intervention by the local authorities. The CoW's electricity demand is 160 MVA and it is expected to grow to 210 MVA within the next ten years. The Windhoek City Council has engaged NamPower Limited, the nation's electricity utility responsible for electricity generation, to provide an additional power supply of 50 MVA to meet the demand of rapid urbanisation growth (City of Windhoek, 2011). The urbanisation growth contributes immensely to the high demand for electricity. The high demand for electricity leads to price increases. This situation is a security challenge to the residents of Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements who are generally poor, unemployed and earn a low income.

Research conducted in Montego Bay city investigated the provision for access to pipe water. The research revealed that, although 90 per cent of households in Montego Bay have access to good piped water for drinking, leakage and illegal water connections contribute to very high rates of water that is not unaccounted for. So much so that about 30 per cent is lost through leakages and about 40 per cent is stolen (Ferguson, 1996). The study further illustrated that the great distance from distribution lines and difficult terrain make extending water pipes difficult, hence, households often bring water in or buy it from vendors at an exorbitant cost.

The water supply in the informal settlements is another security challenge which should be highly placed on the agenda of the central government and local authorities. According to the City of Windhoek (2011), there are more than 60 productive boreholes, with their water mostly used as a back-up system during droughts and there are considerations to introduce the Windhoek Artificial Recharge Strategy. The Recharge Strategy is a process used to supply water to the CoW, mostly from the boreholes in the vicinity of the capital city when the water level in

the dams decreases. However, water shortage in CoW is a security threat that the citizens face due to a lack of water inflow into the dams, which have been supplying water to the city for the past 6 years. This attributes to shortage of water supply in the households in Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements.

The public resources, economic growth and employment opportunities have never kept pace with population increase; thus, urban areas are faced with various security challenges such as urban unemployment, shelter deficiency, increasing pollution, and inadequate infrastructure, social facilities, and management capacity to deal with the increases of rural-urban migrants (Simon, 1997; cited Stren and White, 1989; Gilbert and Gugler, 1992; Harris, 1992; Simon, 1992; Devas and Rakodi, 1993; Drakakis-Smith, 1993; Kasarda and Parnell, 1993). The cities are characterised by the concentration of socio-economic development, infrastructure development and population growth compared to rural areas. However, the security challenge urban areas face is inadequate opportunities in urban areas to meet the demand of the growing population.

### 2.5.7 Urbanisation and housing

A study was carried out by Jauch et al., in 2009 in Namibia to determine the establishment of informal settlements, the origin of the segregation of townships, and funding for middle and low cost houses. According to Jauch et al., (2009) before independence, the informal settlement growth south of the Red Cordon Fence was relatively easy compared to the northern areas. Housing shortage in Namibia has been a security challenge, particularly in various towns such as Oshakati, Walvis Bay, Swakopmund, Katima Mulilo and the CoW. The study highlights that financial institutions such as the South West African Building Society (SWABOU) and most

private banks were the main lenders to Blacks and Coloureds, with permanent employment status, to construct upper and middle income housing under the auspices of the Transitional Government of National Unity (TGNU), as a means of easing the financial burden of the local authorities. In addition, the study indicates that housing for the lower to lower-middle income groups was catered for through the government owned National Housing Enterprise (NHE), at predetermined interest rates, and the financial institutions were offered guarantees on behalf of the borrowers by the employers. Despite government efforts to provide affordable houses to the urban poor, the housing backlog in Windhoek still remains a security challenge. The supply of housing in the CoW is less than the demand, due to rapid urbanisation growth.

The National Housing Policy (NHP) highlights that government's role in the housing sector is to facilitate and promote partnership networks between the public and private sectors, local authorities, regional councils, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and individuals (Odendaal and Tjiramba, 2005). The government policy on housing intents to resolve various security challenges such as access to serviced land, access to finance and an individual's capacity to repay loans. The policy states that the primary responsibility for housing provision lies with the head of each household. Odendaal and Tjiramba (2005), reveal that the National Housing Development Act 28 of 2000 establishes a National Housing Advisory Committee to advise the Minister of Regional and Local Government and Housing on any aspect of national housing, including the formulation and implementation of specific policies and programmes relating to low cost housing.

The housing backlog is caused by the high housing prices in the city and it is a security challenge. For this reason, the local authorities realised the significance of informal settlements

as a better alternative in addressing the housing problem (Ferguson, 1996). The influx of rural-urban migrants contributed to the escalation of the establishment of informal settlements, which is regarded as a violation of municipal laws. Consequently, the illegal occupation of urban land is a criminal act.

### 2.5.8 Urbanisation and crime

Crime is defined as an immoral and harmful act that is regarded as criminal by public opinion because it is an injury to so much of the moral sense (Erriky, 2013; Vold, 1984). The most notable security challenges which threaten human security in Windhoek include urban land invasion, armed robberies, theft, hijacking, illegal shebeens and carwashes, and the escalation of demonstrations, to name just a few.

One of the main priorities of the CoW is to make the city crime free and a safe haven. The City Police is entrusted with the responsibility of ensuring that the city is safe for residents, visitors and their properties (City of Windhoek, 2011). The installation of Close Circuit Television (CCTV), conducting of regular patrols, zonal and community policing, are some of the security instruments used to combat crime. Nendongo (2007), contends that towns and cities require the installation of surveillance devices within their areas of jurisdiction as a security measure to combat crime. The escalation of informal settlements coupled with urban land invasion and lawlessness insecurity is a security threat which requires proper monitoring and policing. The City Police was established with the purpose to protect the city dwellers and their properties, and maintain law and order. The rural migrants, with low education qualifications, tend to commit crime due to poverty and unemployment.

### 2.5.9 Urbanisation and education

A study was conducted by Siddiqi (2004), in Pakistan, in the Lahore district, to determine if there was a correlation between education and rural-urban migration. Siddiqi (2004), found that the migrants who were literate were the highest proportion (70.3 percent), in contrast to the illiterate migrants (29.3 percent) in the Lahore district. The study concluded that in order to ensure that rural-urban migration stops having a devastating effect on the status of Lahore, the local government authorities must provide job opportunities at a rural level, incentive oriented monetary policies, enhancement of skills and the establishment of training institutions, social and economic infrastructure.

The rural to urban migrants consistently show a positive association between education and the propensity to migrate (Abbass, 1998). The young people from rural areas migrate to the urban areas seeking better education opportunities and other socio-economic amenities. "Rapid urbanisation has also resulted in the security challenge of provision of education services in both urban and rural areas" (Indongo, et al., 2013, p.16). The education disparity between rural and urban areas poses an insecurity of uncontrollable urbanisation of the influx of youth and teachers to the city. The security challenge incurred by uncontrollable urbanisation is a brain drain, as youth, with basic academic knowledge and better qualifications, seek greener pastures in the city. Moreover, urban schools are well equipped with modern facilities, compared to rural schools, which attract more youth.

Abbass (1998), revealed that the school-leavers migrate to urban areas to seek either for employment opportunities or to study further. In rural areas the movement of families to urban areas has led to a decline in the number of children enrolling for lower grades (Indongo et al.,

2013, p.16). The relationship between education and urban migration is associated with opportunities which are readily available in the urban areas, but not available or are limited in the rural areas. The rural areas are deprived of infrastructures development such as, schools and public libraries.

The Namibia Statistic Agency (2011, p.50), "estimates that 80 percent of children aged 5 to 14 years are enrolled in school". There are many people who never attended school in rural areas, which constitute 17.6 percent of the total, compared to 7.0 percent in urban areas as depicted on Figure 2.6 on p.58 of chapter 2. This is partly due to the distance from homesteads to the nearest school, which ranges from approximately 5 kilometres and more. As a result, it is not surprising that the level of illiteracy in rural areas is very high in comparison to urban areas. Rural migrants, who do not have the knowledge and skills, contribute to the security challenges in the city. The security challenges incurred by rural migrants are the escalation of social ills, which already exist in the city, such as crime, lawlessness, drug and alcohol abuse, urban land invention and overcrowding. The rural migrants have limited knowledge on how to cope with urban survival. The influx of rural migrants in the city posed a security threats to the environment.

### 2.5.10 Urbanisation and environmental degradation

The high rate of urbanisation growth in urban settings often contributes to land degradation because of the high demand for land for residential areas, commercial and industrial capital development. Poor people are forced, by poverty, to clear land illegally in peri-urban areas for shelters, and they tend to over utilise natural resources such as, fire wood for cooking, poles for erecting the shacks and grass for thatching. Namibia lacks a comprehensive environment security strategy and both urban population and environmental linkages should be kept in mind (Byers, 1997). While human beings are dependent on the environment, there is a little effort done to

protect the environment and its natural resources. The human activities destroy the environment and over exploit the resources.

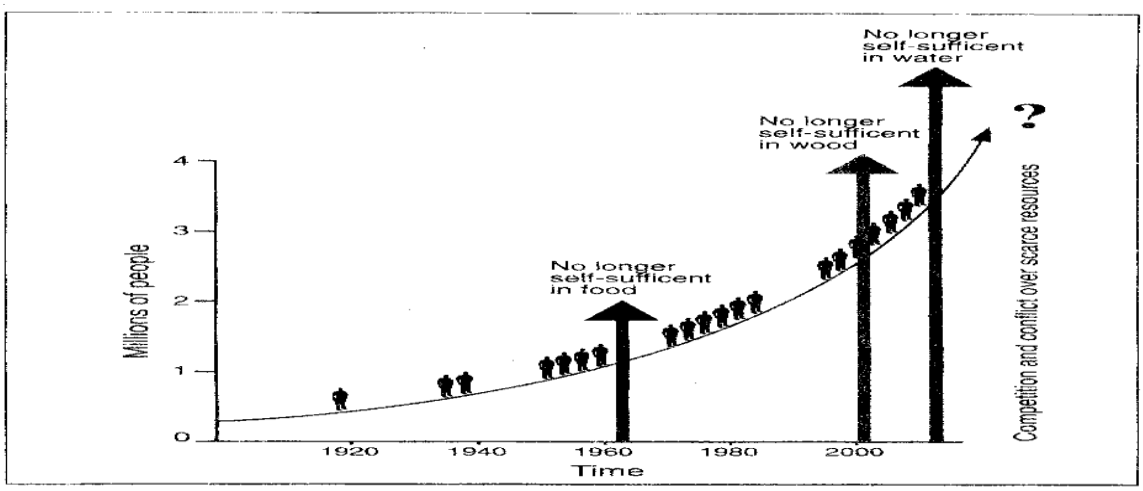



**Figure 2.15: Environmental security threats and opportunities in Namibia**

*Source*: Environmental threats and opportunities in Namibia: A comprehensive assessment (Byers, 1997)

Figure 2.15 indicates that rapid population growth means that the demand for natural resources such as food, wood, land and water are likely to double by 2020 (Byers, 1997). The population growth is not growing parallel with natural resources; the high population growth poses a security threat to the environment, specifically to the natural resources such as water, land, animals, minerals, and even human beings. The security threats posed by human activities such as industrial activities, vehicles and infrastructure development, to mention just a few, produce particulate matter made up of airborne smoke, soot, dust, and liquid droplets from fuel combustion, which adversely affect human health, provoke a wide range of respiratory diseases and exacerbates heart disease and other conditions (Soubbotina, 2004). The population growth is growing parallel with the development of modern and sophisticated technologies and heavy industries, which in turn, pose security threats to the environment and people.

Naab, Dinye, & Kasanga, (2013, p.1), "put forward that the twin pressure of rapid urbanisation and a fast growing population have wreaked havoc on land relations and land management". The growing population in Namibia has resulted in an increasing demand for urban land and the need to source additional finances to provide necessary services for the rapid urbanisation growth. Urbanisation growth is a security threat to the environment because it involves the clearance of vast land for socio-economic development purposes.

Urbanisation and industrial development have increased the demand for water in the city (Byers, 1997). Water is a source of life for human beings, plants and animals. Human beings are dependent on the environment for shelter and survival, however, a high population growth poses a security threat to the environment if not properly managed. The rapid urban population growth in the CoW is increasing the demand for land for settlements. "Often, unauthorized slums or informal settlements are built on high-risk locations which make them more vulnerable to disastrous conditions including floods, storms, and infectious diseases" (Indongo, et al., 2013. p.2). The CoW is characterised by mountainous areas with undulating terrain. The natural characteristic of the ground has forced poor people to erect their shacks on top of hills, valleys and river beds, which are prone to natural disasters, especially during the rainy season.

According to Byers (1997), the root causes of environmental security threats in Namibia, are the results of many different threats caused by human beings. Human activities such as, the release of chemical substances from carwashes and factories and the clearing of land for construction are some of the sources of environmental insecurity. Naad et al., (2013) argue that a security challenge posed by rapid urbanisation growth is the limited land, which remains static while the population grows rapidly. The population growth in urban areas contributes to the high demand

for urban land, which involves the clearing of land for settlement. The environmental degradation caused, due to population growth, has become a security threat in recent years.

Byers (1997), argues that the security threats linked to the environment are overexploitation of water resources, that not only deplete and degrade wetlands and aquatic resources, but contribute to land degradation and to the loss of biodiversity. The Goreangab Dam in CoW is one of the water reservoirs from which residents overexploit through gardening, producing bricks, drawing water for consumption after purification, and many more. The escalation of carwashes pose a security threat to the environment, ecosystem and aquatic life; especially in the Goreangab Dam, due to the sediment and heavy metals which produce substances such as copper from brake pads, cadmium, lead and zinc from tyres (Erriky, 2013; cited Metzler, 2009). Human activities are detrimental to the environment; the most notable occurrence is the escalation of carwashes in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. Another environmentally threatening activity is the de-bushing of river beds, which is used as strategy to combat crime and for development purposes.

The escalation of gender based violence (GBV) perpetuated against mostly women and children, is one of the security threats which prompted His Excellency, President Dr. Hage Geingob to launch 'Operation Omake' in Windhoek. 'Operation Omake' is an initiative spearheaded by law enforcement agencies (Namibian Defence Force, Namibian Police, Correctional Services and Windhoek City Police) to encourage the citizens to clear bushy areas, which criminals use as hideouts.

Although the initiative is intended to combat crime, the environmental security is not taken into consideration. The clearance of bushes leads to the loss of biodiversity, the annihilation of

various species habitats, deforestation, desertification and land degradation. Bradford (2015), argues that the number one problem caused by deforestation is the impact on the global carbon cycle. Gas molecules that absorb thermal infrared radiation are called Greenhouse gases. Plants absorb carbon dioxide ($CO_2$) from the atmosphere and produce oxygen, ($O_2$); for this reason, the clearance of bushes enhance $CO_2$ in the atmosphere, which contributes to climate change in Namibia and globally.

Shen and Hermosilla (1995), conducted a study to determine the security challenge posed by cutting down of trees in West Kalimantan, the third largest Indonesian province. The study indicated that conserved biodiversity in West Kalimantan is rapidly losing many of its highly diverse ecosystems. An estimated 50 percent of the original forest and the rich biodiversity they support are being lost, because alternative land uses are considered economically attractive. An exploitation of natural resources in Kalimantan contributed to the environmental degradation or resource depletion due to income indicators. The study further revealed that most smallholder cultivation of the oil palm, coconuts, and rubber has been carried out, to date, on a relatively informal trade. There is interdependence of economics and ecosystems which require environmental management and guidance for prudent conduct. The loss of forest due to human activities affects the economy and human survival.

Trees play an important role in the water cycle and preventing soil erosion, because without trees the rain water is free to wash away soil and stones as well as infrastructures. Tree roots anchor the soil. For example, in relation to a comparative analysis done between Haiti and the Dominican Republic, forests play an important role in the water cycle and both countries share the same island, but Haiti has much less forest cover than the Dominican Republic and as a

result, Haiti has endured more extreme soil erosion, flooding and landslides (Bradford, 2015; cited Daley, 2012). Soil erosion and flooding are security threats in Windhoek during the rainy season and many citizens, especially in the informal settlements, lose their property.

The clearance of forests at the periphery of the city has threatened the well-being of the environment, human beings, animals and plant species (Erriky, 2013). The $CO_2$ emission from cars, industries, and other human activities contribute to global warming. While $O_2$ is the second most abundant gas in our atmosphere, it does not absorb thermal infrared radiation, as greenhouse gases do (Bradford, 2015). Trees play the crucial roles in life cycles of plants, animals and human being they produce O2 which is necessary for our respiratory system.

Indongo et al. (2013), profess that poor sanitation, an unhealthy environment and overcrowded housing in the informal settlements threaten healthy living conditions and exposes a large proportion of the population to high rates of infectious diseases such as, pneumonia, tuberculosis and diarrhoea. Environment insecurity contributes to human insecurity; therefore, human beings are obliged to protect the environment in order to secure their health and hygiene.

Environment insecurity in the CoW remains a security concern, as citizens continue urging the local authority to minimize chemical substances released from carwashes in the city (Erriky, 2013). Unfortunately, the Windhoek City Council has done little regarding environmental protection. The inhabitants of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements contribute immensely to the environmental insecurity through clearing bushes to pave way to erect their shacks and chopping down trees for fire, wood and construction.

Deforestation contributes to this security threat because, through it, high concentrations of $CO_2$ are released into the atmosphere, which affects the ozone layer. The changes in the atmospheric gas concentration have a direct effect on climate. Even the slightest change in water vapour flows can disrupt natural weather patterns and change current climate models (Bradford, 2015). The environment insecurity phenomenon needs a prompt intervention by the central government and local authority in order to establish appropriate security measures to protect the environment. The underlying interactions of various security challenges activities have been used to conceptualize social and ecological factors and their security threat linkages as outlined in Figure 2.16.

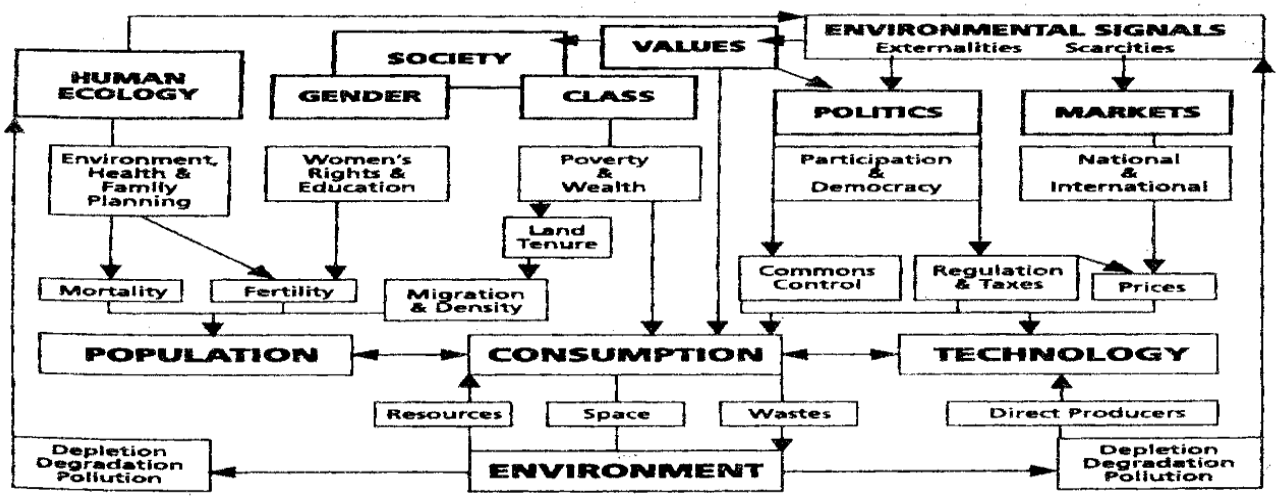



**Figure 2.16: The social and ecological security challenges to the environment**
*Source:* Social system components and environmental linkages (Harrison, 1993; Byers, 1997)

The lack of rainfall poses a security threat to the socio-economic development of Namibia. According to a report from the National Planning Commission (2004), water scarcity has become a problem for all areas that are geographically placed far away from perennial water sources. The water demand in Namibia will grow at 2.2 percent per annum by 2016, particular in the Khomas Region and, over the next 30 years, the water demand will increase rapidly in some areas (in

particular, all expanding urban areas) and only moderately in others (Ibid). The security challenges incurred in water distribution is the result of the cost involved in the provision of water pipelines to the households in the informal settlements. Water pricing in Windhoek is very high and requires the central government subsidies to sustain the livelihood of its citizens. 'Water is life' is a commonly used phrase, which literally means, all living things (human beings, animals and plants) cannot survive without water. Therefore, water shortage is a security threat which requires prompt government intervention.

The CoW has been negatively affected by drought, deriving from the persistently dry seasons in most parts of the country. There is virtually little inflow into the water dams that supply Windhoek. The informal settlements in the city predominantly fall outside the areas serviced with municipal services such as water, drainage and sanitations. Although the Water and Sanitation Supply Policy (WASSP) of the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry (MAWF), makes provision for alternative sanitation types, including dry sanitation, the council observed that the dry sanitation the city attempted to implement was not appropriate for use in Windhoek (City of Windhoek, 2011). As a result, the Windhoek City Council is still faced with the challenge of water scarcity and the high cost of water distribution.

As the city grows rapidly, it is becoming increasingly obvious that the danger in the underlying groundwater aquifer is imminent. For this reason, there is a need for the local authorities to promptly address this situation. Human beings' activities from oil spills, toxic chemical spills, the dumping of undesired substances and high fertilizer application rates for lawns, could lead to the contamination of groundwater (City of Windhoek, 2011). The contaminants infiltrate water from human activities such as carwashes, factories and industries threaten the bedrock and

underlying groundwater aquifer, making the water unsafe for plant, human and animal consumption.

According to Bradford (2015), soil erosion leads to silt entering the water sources which can decrease local water quality and contribute to poor health and environmental degradation. The Goreangab Dam is contaminated with various chemical substances, which occur mostly during the rain seasons. As a result, this water is not fit for both animal and human consumption. Thus, the close monitoring of all sewage pipes, filling stations and dump sites is the best possible way to save the aquifer from future pollution (City of Windhoek, 2011). In addition, the rapid expansion of uncontrolled informal settlements, without proper sanitation and reticulation, is a security threat to the aquifer.

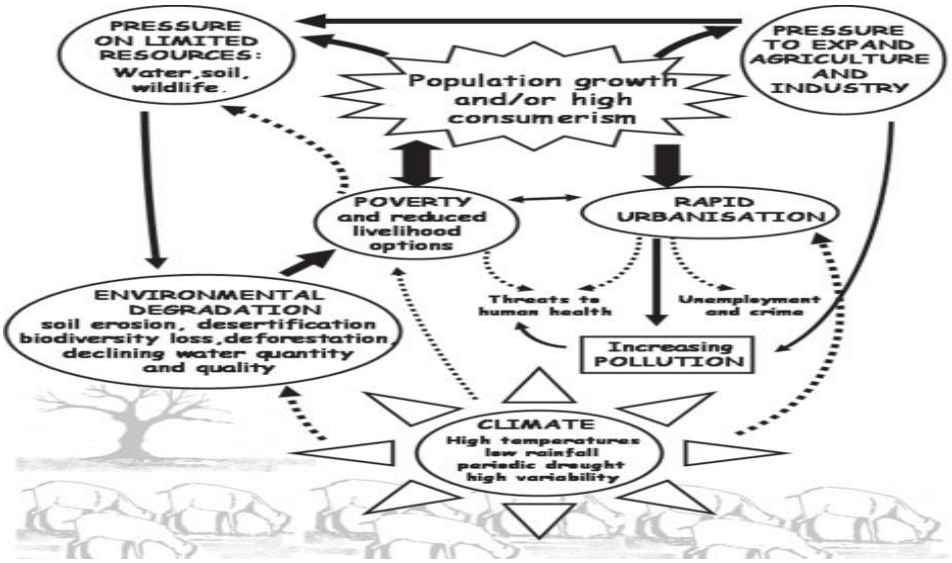



**Figure 2.17: The security threats which affect sustainable livelihood in Namibia**
*Source*: National Planning Commission (2004, p.142)

The security threats which affect sustainable livelihood include, but are not limited to, rapid urbanisation that culminates into security challenges such as poverty and crime insecurities due to a shortage of employment opportunities. Another security challenge caused by human activity

is climate change, which results in high temperatures, low rainfall, periodic high drought and high variability, as indicated on Figure 2.17.

The population growth in CoW pressurises the already limited resources such as water, urban land and ecology. In addition, the security challenge incurred by the urbanisation trend puts pressure on the agriculture sector to increase its production so that it is able to feed the population. This has a negative impact on the environment because it involves the clearing of vast land. According to Bradford (2015), 70 percent of the worlds' plants and animals live in forests, thus, losing their habitats has negative consequences for medicinal research and local populations who rely on the animals and plants for the aforementioned need. The urbanisation growth involves the establishment of industries to support the urban economy and create employment opportunities. Consequently, socio-economic developments engage the clearance of trees in order to pave ways for businesses and settlements.

The term 'environmental threat' is used here to mean an unsustainable environmental trend, caused by human activities in an arid and highly variable environment, which leads to the degradation or depletion of valuable natural resources (Byers, 1997). The over exploitation of natural resources and other environment insecurities caused by human activities threaten human beings, plants and animal species. In addition, chemical substances produced by industries, dust emission and gas pollution produced by vehicles and manufactural industries posed a security threat on the environment as well as in the atmosphere, which may result in acid rain.

A study was conducted by Byers, in 1997, in Namibia to determine the environmental threats caused by human activities which lead to land degradation, loss of biodiversity and depletion of

valuable natural resources (Byers, 1997). The study revealed that environmental threats are caused by population growth, an increase in consumption and demand, a lack of knowledge, and unsustainable practices and technologies. The rapid population growth and chemical substances produced by human activities in the informal settlements are some of the security threats to the environment. The burning of wood and charcoal by the urban dwellers contributes to overall air pollution levels and to people's health security (Simon, 1997). The urban areas in developing countries are not industrialised, however, the high numbers of motor vehicles, the dust from gravel roads and mines, are the principal sources of air pollution in mega-cities with large populations.

### 2.5.11 Urbanisation and social behaviour

A study conducted by Lupala, in 2002 in Dar es Salaam, determined urbanisation security challenges and its consequences to urban management, the spatial growth of the city, the colonial legacy and the challenges of informal settlements in the urban area. The study found out that Dar es Salaam is experiencing rapid urbanisation that emerged due to increased trade, the establishment of port facilities and administrative activities in the city that have attracted more migrants (after the war periods -World War I and II) and the abolition of the policies that prohibited Africans from migrating to towns after independence (Lupala, 2002). The empirical research assisted the current study to establish the causes of urbanisation and the security challenges posed by the influx of people toward the city. Similarly, the effect of war in Namibia has also forced many Namibians to migrate from various regions to the city, seeking human security.

Naab, Dinye, & Kasanga, (2013, p.1), "hypothesize that the twin pressures of rapid urbanisation and a fast growing population have wreaked havoc on the land relations and land management". The growing population in Namibia has resulted in increasing demands of urban land and the need to source additional finances to provide the necessary services to the rapid urbanisation growth. The poorest households often rent house spots on privately owned land whose owners allow the unplanned and unregulated construction of rooms in these houses, with limit water reticulation systems, electricity and sanitation (Ferguson, 1996). The violation of municipal by-laws by the residents of the informal settlements is a security threat concern. The rapid growth of the informal settlements involves the establishment of new shacks which posed a security threat to the environment.

A study was conducted by Jauch et al., in 2009 in Namibia to determine the genesis of urbanisation. The study found that the urbanisation process in Namibia started in 1914 when over 9 000 Ovambo migrant labourers from the Northern regions were forced to work on settler farms, on railways or for the emerging mining companies and fishing sectors (Jauch et al, 2009, p.9). The research indicates that labour shortage in these sectors prompted Germans to adopt a strategy to coerce the Ovambo kings into supporting labour migration. The South African colonial regime further intensified German policies as the need for cheap labour increased. This empirical research highlights the genesis of urbanisation and the causes of rapid increases of urbanisation in Namibia, which assisted the current study to establish the causes and origin of urbanisation trends in the study areas.

The aforementioned study analysed the land tenure system in Namibia, which is defined as a system of land distribution inequality that was historically inherited from the German colonial

rule as well as the subsequent South African rule (Jauch et al, 2009). The lack of serviced urban land remains a security challenge in Namibia that requires prompt intervention by the central government. The urban land is in the hands of rich people while poor people remain landless; for this reason, this situation prompted the landless, especially the urban poor, to occupy the land illegally.

Despite remarkable achievements by the central government in the enhancement of peace, security, and economic development, various security threats are likely to ignite instability in the country if not resolved, without delay. There are pockets of security threats in the country such as, the escalation of labour unrest, prevalent demonstrations; lack of access to urban land and basic human needs, persisting drought due to a lack of rainfall, water crises, housing backlog, Gender Based Violence (GBV) and widespread corruption. The CoW is the political and economic administrative capital of Namibia, where numerous human insecurity challenges are happening (City of Windhoek, 2011). The Namibian citizens express their dissatisfaction through peaceful demonstrations in the CoW because all Ministries' headquarters are in the CoW. Demonstrations are regarded as the best 'instrument' to exercise democracy; however, they have many security threat aspects such as, economic insecurity, political insecurity, social insecurity and civil unrest.

According to the Defence Policy (2011), the potential threats include sentiments of claims of ancestral land and the agitation for the land redistribution to the landless; the unstable labour market environment; the plight of ex-fighters; unemployment among the youth; environmental degradation, illicit trade and trafficking and the lack of accessibility of the majority to the economic resources of the country. Since independence, various potential security threats have

been experienced in Namibia such as, the influx of demonstrations by ex-combatants demanding employment and compensation for the sacrifices they made during the liberation struggle, the nationwide strike by Namibia Broadcasting Corporation's (NBC) employees demanding better remunerations resulted in the so-called 'nation-wide black-out', strikes by three quarter of nurses and teachers demanding better conditions of services, demonstrations by the so-called struggle kids and the demonstration by the Namibia Transport and Taxi Union (NTTU), demanding for a reduction of traffic fines and more taxi ranks. According to Nendongo (2007, p.4); cited Niser (1991) "a person was not born an enemy to the society but rather circumstances such as poverty and unemployment combined with adversity made people behave in an antisocial way". Demonstration is an important tool used by the citizens to express their dissatisfaction regarding poor services delivery, unfair labour practice by employers and demand for better condition of services such as salary increment and overtime. The strike by nurses posed a security threat to the life of citizens those hospitalised and those involved in accidents or sickness due to natural causes.

NBC is an instrument of government for disseminating information to the citizens regarding socio-economic security challenges in Namibia. Therefore, the security agencies such as the Namibian Police and City Police disseminate crime incidents and crime awareness through radio and television in the CoW. The so-called 'nation-wide black-out' may compromise on national security because without information and communication in the country various security threats such as crime, sabotage and subversion could easily take place unnoticed.

Another potential security threat in the CoW is the high price of urban land. This prompted the creation of the Affirmative Reposition (AR) that was established on the 9th of November 2014, by the three members of the SWAPO Youth League who cleared land which they named 'Erf number 2014' in Windhoek's affluent Klein Kuppe suburb. The trio argued that their swift action was stimulated by high rental prices in urban settings and nepotism in the distribution of urban land in the CoW. "The exclusion of the majority of people from the mainstream economy may result in personal and social insecurities" (Defence Policy, 2011, p.10). The unfair distribution of urban land prompted the AR activists to mobilize young people through social media to apply for plots in all towns; this move caused panic among many Namibians, especially politicians. The AR activists threatened to take the land by force if their demand was not addressed by 31 July 2015. The action was regarded as an unfair demand and the current government had only been in power for few months.

The urban land invasions, conducted by the residents of informal settlements, spilled over to most towns of the informal settlements, especially in Katima Mulilo town, Walvisbay, Swakopmund, Rehoboth, Tsumeb, Oshakati, and many more. This indicated the seriousness of the security threat and instability that could occur if the demand of the support and sympathizers of AR is not addressed. All the aforesaid fractures are national security concerns. From the security perspective, "unemployed people tend to develop feelings of hopelessness, despair, and some even reach such depths of depression and disillusionment that they may decide to commit crimes" (Nendongo, 2007, p.4; Clark, 1978, p.74). Namibian citizens express their dissatisfaction about poor service delivery through demonstrations. Most of the socio-economic related demonstrations such as the demand for salary increment, the unfair distribution of

resources, corruption and the demand for employment opportunities, were conducted in the political and economic capital of Namibia, the CoW.

Unguided demonstrations are a security threat to the lives of the national leaders and employers. Although most demonstrations in Namibia are regarded as peaceful, the demonstrators threaten the authorities with unspecified actions if their demands are not met. The so-called struggle kids conducted demonstrations across the country demanding jobs and they carried out numerous illegal roadblocks, stoned private cars and attacked innocent civilians. At one point, they even held SWAPO officials hostage after they paraded at the SWAPO head office for several months. Sadly, one of their comrades was killed after a clash erupted between them and the Namibian Police. The potential threat indicators deserve special attention and constant monitoring by the security agencies, in order to follow trends which could undermine the security of the state and its people; hence, they have security implications if left unattended (Defence Policy, 2011). On 8 July 2004, His Excellency, President Dr. Sam Nujoma, banned any demonstration in Namibia without the permission of the Namibian Police. The banning of demonstrations was prompted by ex-combatants who were marching to the State House to demand for employment opportunities.

Although the Namibian Constitution guarantees fundamental freedom, as stipulated in Article 21 Sub-Article (1) (a) freedom of speech and expression, (d) freedom to assemble peaceably and without arms of the war; demonstrations, strikes and riots have a negative impact on economic security. They infringe on the rights of other citizens such as traffic congestion because people will be delayed to arrive at their destination on time, and demonstration can lead to sabotage of public property and subversion. Namibia has thus far been enjoying peace and stability since independence; however, potential future security threats are imminent.

It is very crucial for the country to maximize all its security instruments such as political, economic; social and information securities, for swift response to unforeseen future threats. According to the Defence Policy (2011, p.20), "the potential threats the country could face in the future are unpredictable". The document further emphasizes that if all threats could be foreseen and prevented before they occur, no blood from weapons of war would have been shed on our planet. The urbanisation phenomenon is motivated by various security challenges namely, economic resource interest, political interest, religious interest, security interest, and other socio-economic amenities interest. All these security challenges act as catalysts that provoke peace and stability in any given country, if not properly monitored and guided.

**2.6 Security challenge posed by inflation**

Inflation is one of the security challenges affecting the livelihood of poor people, especially in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. "Inflation affects more poor people whose share of their total income is mainly spent on food and other necessities required for livelihood" (National Planning Commission, 2014, p.14). High inflation in the economy could lead to socio-economic security threats among the poor communities. The Bank of Namibia, on behalf of the government of the Republic of Namibia, has the responsibility of ensuring that the monetary policy for Namibia is to achieve low and stable prices (Kaakunga, 2013). However, this situation is difficult to control because any change in the global market has an impact on the Namibian economy.

## 2.7 Conceptual framework

This research strives to enlighten the reader about the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation in the livelihood of the residents of Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements in CoW. The study focused mainly on unemployment insecurity, poverty insecurity, crime insecurity and environment insecurity. Todaro and Smith (2012) theory rural-urban migration model was employed as a guiding framework in understanding the causes and effects of urbanisation. In addition, figures and tables were used to illustrate how various socio-economic security challenges affect the residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. The study was supported by an array of literature that helped develop an empirical conceptual framework to facilitate the understanding and explanation of urbanisation trends. It is important to note that the theoretical and empirical literature were employed to analyse urbanisation trends at different levels such as global, African, Namibian, regional (with a particular focus on CoW), and the constituency level. The study reviews the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation, which provides an understanding of the main contributing factors of urbanisation growth, and also reviews the security threats that affect the livelihood of the residents of the two informal settlements, in the context of living conditions and the survival strategies.

## 2.8 Summary

Chapter 2 dealt with the literature review in which, the opinions and ideas of other authors on the socio-economic security challenges posed by urbanisation on unemployment, crime, poverty and environment were analysed and investigated. It reviewed important components of the Todaro and Smith (2012) rural-urban migration model theory, and interpreted the rural-urban migration trend at a global level, Africa level, SADC level; with a focus on Namibia, the CoW, and the

Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. The literature review formed an empirical base that supports the undertaking of this research, which allowed the researcher to identify the strengths and weaknesses of security threats posed by rural-urban migration, so as to improve the effectiveness of the methodology used in these studies. The Todaro and Smith (2012) rural-urban migration theory supported by Storm (1997); Muñiz-Solari, et al. (2010) cited Lee (1966), and Muñiz-Solari, et al. (2010) cited Muñiz (2006), whose work was used extensively in supporting the literature review that provided the causes of rural migration and the security challenges posed by rural migrants in the urban areas. Chapter 3 will illustrate the methodology used in the study.

## CHAPTER 3

## 3. Methodology

### 3.1 Research design

The study employed both the quantitative and qualitative research methods to collect data. The research also elicited responses from the CoW officials regarding the security challenges facing the two informal settlements. The research incorporated quantitative research, with the use of structured questionnaires and face-to-face interviews, to establish the socio-economic characteristics, and environmental insecurity in the two selected informal settlements. Qualitative research was employed when reviewing the available literature and during interviews with the officials of the Windhoek City Council, the Namibian Police and the City Police to gauge, in-depth, the information on strategic planning and policy responses on the socio-economic impact of urbanisation in Windhoek.

### 3.2 Population

The population for the study were the Havana and Greenwell Matongo communities in Windhoek. The Greenwell Matongo informal settlement has a population of 18,835 residents while the Havana informal settlement has a population of about 16,444 residents (City of Windhoek, 2011). The selected 10 officials of the Windhoek City Council, the City Police, and Namibian Police were interviewed. Both informal settlements are located in the North Western constituencies of Moses //Garoeb and Samora Machel.

### 3.3 Sample

Purposive and stratified sampling was employed to select a sample from the total population of the study areas. The informal settlements were selected for this study because they are densely populated due to the influx of youth migrating to CoW, in search of better opportunities. The stratification of the frame was employed to select a representation of sub-population groups in the sample.

The sample design for the study was a stratified where the Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) were used to select the households. The first stage units were selected from the sampling frame of PSUs and the second stage units were selected from a current list of households within the PSU, which was compiled just before the interviews. The listings of households in the selected PSU were prepared during the survey. The sub-sample frames of 200 heads of households were selected from the estimated population of 18,835 of the Greenwell Matongo informal settlement, while 150 respondents were selected from a population of about 16,444 from the Havana informal settlement in each PSU, using systematic sampling (City of Windhoek, 2011). Within these 2 informal settlements, 2 enumeration areas (PSUs) selected from the Greenwell Matongo and the Havana informal settlements were identified using a systematic sampling technique. The selected households were located on maps, which were used to locate the target households. A total of 350 household heads or their representatives were interviewed and information was collected. It was discovered during the listing operation that 2 PSUs (1 PSU, each in Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements) had 350 households. It was decided that all those households which were found in the PSUs would be interviewed.

The quantitative sampling assisted in selecting representative individuals to generalise from the sample to the population. Purposeful qualitative sampling was employed to select people and sites that helped in understanding urbanisation security challenges. The purposive sampling was adopted to select 350 heads of households from the estimated total population of 35, 279 of the informal settlements. This was due to the large population, time constraints and limited resources. This sampling unit reflected the socio-economic conditions for the study sample population. The judgmental sampling method was applied, when interviewing 10 officials with the sub-samples are as indicated per institutions, Windhoek City Council (2), City Police (4) and Namibian Police (4) to ensure that those with broad knowledge on the subject matter were represented in the sample. This sampling procedure was an important approach in ensuring that adequate data was collected and that the data represented both the residents' and the officials' opinions. A sampling frame was made available from the Windhoek City Council and consisted of a full list of all households in both informal settlements. This made it easier to identify and approach individual households.

A sample of 350 heads of households was drawn from the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements in order to determine the security challenges posed by urbanisation on their livelihood and living conditions. Data collection, on unemployment insecurity, poverty insecurity, crime insecurity and environment security threats and management, were obtained through face-to-face interviews with the key informants from the target population and urban administration officials such as, Windhoek City Council, City Police and the Namibian Police. This was done with particular reference to the socio-economic impact of urbanisation on the livelihood of the residents of the informal settlements. This study further unpacked the

relationship between urban administrative agencies and the residents of the two informal settlements.

### 3.4 Research instruments

The quantitative research instruments included a structured questionnaire and face-to-face interviews, to establish specific behaviour and opinions of the sample population under study. Qualitative research was employed when reviewing the literature, conversations or open-ended interviews with the 10 officials from the Windhoek City Council (2), City Police (4) and the Namibian Police (4) were used in order to understand relevant information on strategic planning and policy responses to the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements.

The study employed a combination of intensive interviews, using structured and unstructured questionnaires. The structured questionnaires used generated quantitative data, whereas the unstructured questionnaires, interviews and literature review employed to analyse qualitative data, determined the points of convergence and divergence of the phenomenon under study. To understand the livelihood of the informal settlements dwellers, it was significant to know the survival strategies of the individuals and households. To determine this, 200 heads of households and 150 heads of households, as a subsample of the 350 household heads, had face-to-face interviews. The research interview was conducted for 5 days for duration of 5 weeks. The data collection was in the form of recording individuals of each focus-group at a convenient time, from 8h00 a.m. to 12h00 p.m., to avoid intruding on their privacy. The data collected reflected the livelihood of the residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements, paying particular attention on the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation on unemployment insecurity, crime insecurity, poverty insecurity and

environmental insecurity threats. The face to face interviews were held with various heads of households, individuals and officials of the CoW, to gauge an impression of opinions on the security challenges facing the residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements.

### 3.5 Procedure

An exploratory study was employed to establish the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation on the livelihood of the inhabitants of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. Relevant data was collected from various resources, including the Namibia Statistic Agency and the Windhoek City Council. Relevant literature on the subject matter under study was reviewed as well. The data collected was analysed based on economic, social, demographic and environmental data available at the study areas, by analysing the socio-economic security challenges posed by urbanisation, on the livelihood of the residents. The economic indicator analysed unemployment insecurity, poverty insecurity, per capita income, Gross National Product (GNP) and inflation. The environmental indicators investigated aspects such as, access to urban land, pollution and people's attitude towards the environment. The social indicators investigated factors such as, access to education, healthcare, housing, quality of services, and crime rates. The demographic indicators analysed the proportion of migrants, time of migrations, age, gender and marital status. The first meeting was held with the key informants to discuss the research objectives and questionnaires in order to find a common understanding about the required data and information. Finally, the data and information provided by each key informant, was compiled and analysed for the final report.

The research documented the socio-economic impact of urbanisation and the escalation of informal settlements, caused by rural-urban migratory trends, and analysed the security

challenges posed by unemployment, poverty, crime, environmental security threats and management techniques, in order to minimize the security threats incurred by human activities. Furthermore, an analysis was done on the strategic planning of the local authority's efforts to mobilise resources and the efforts of informal settlement dwellers to complement efforts of the central government in job creation, poverty alleviation, combatting crime and environmental management. The security challenges analysed the ability of the local authorities on how best they could assist the informal settlement dwellers to establish self-income generating businesses and, generally, improve their livelihood strategies to meet their daily life demands.

To understand the socio-economic impact of urbanisation on the residents, data was collected regarding unemployment, crime, environmental threats, and poverty. The study analysed various variables, including the type of income generating activities and levels of income of the heads of household, the type of housing material and its condition, the provision of municipality services, the occupancy ratio, the ownership of housing, and survival strategies. The methodology recorded daily activities of 350 individuals, with a sub-sample of 200 and 150 respectively, to establish the livelihood strategies of the residents in the informal settlements. The study further documented individuals' contribution to environmental security threats and established appropriate mechanisms for environmental management strategies in the study areas. The data collected also covered the response of the local authority in addressing the security challenges facing the informal settlements.

### 3.6 Data analysis

The data was analysed quantitatively and qualitatively using descriptive statistics, including percentages, words, and graphs to respond to the research objectives of the study. Quantitative research was used to analyse data by coding face-to-face interviews, questionnaire responses, data tabulation and statistical computation and graphs to illustrate the various phenomenon under study. The qualitative research was used to identify errors or omissions, when analysing and editing the participants' responses. The data, from the structured questionnaires and responses from face-to-face interviews, was recorded on the coding sheets. The data was entered into the computer using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) software to produce graphs and percentages to illustrate the various aspects of the study.

### 3.7 Research ethics

Research ethics was the moral aspect of this research. The researcher adhered to various ethical issues, so as to avoid breaching privacy agreements, confidentialities and participants' consent. The two communities were informed about the plan to conduct the research in advance through their respective community leaders, public service announcements on radio and posters was displayed in the streets of the target population. The residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements were assured that they would be the beneficiaries of the knowledge gained from the study. The psychological risks of the participants were minimised by explaining to them that the researcher was not a government official neither a politician. The residents were informed that the purpose of the research was not to solve their problems, but that the information gained might be useful to the authorities in addressing their plight. The respondents were assured in the first meeting that the information provided would be used for

research purposes only. The respondents were also assured that their individual confidentialities would not be broken. All respondents were informed that participation was not compulsory. This ensured that no respondent felt coerced to take part in the study. It is also important to mention that each respondent was contacted at a time that best suited them, so as to avoid disturbance by the researcher on their private lives. This was convenient for the respondents and the researcher alike. A letter from the University of Namibia was provided to the researcher to use as a proof of permission to carry out the research in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements.

### 3.8 Validity and reliability of the study

According to Haimbala (2014), validity measures the credibility of the statement and ability to produce accurate results by measuring what is supposed to be measured. Validity gauges the relationship between the observed and the collected data from the key informants, which determines the degree to which a test is able to measure or to confirm the trustworthiness of the data collected. This study employed the validity criteria to describe the extent to which a correlation exists between the measuring instrument and the evidence. According to Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun (2012), validity is defined as the degree to which a correct conclusion can be made based on results from an instrument, the procedures and the characteristics of the group studied. The study analysed the extent to which urbanisation has posed security challenges on unemployment, poverty, crime and the environment. In addition, a subjective judgment was made, on the basis of experience, from the officials and empirical indicators from the literature.

Reliability is the extent to which a procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions by minimizing errors and biases in a study (Haimbala, 2014; cited Bell, 1996). The study determined the extent to which a test is repeatable and yields consistent scores or

possible errors, omissions, and bias occurred during the random selection of heads of households. Reliability is defined as the degree to which scores obtained with an instrument are consistent measures of whatever the instrument measures (Fraenkel, et al., 2012). Reliability is the degree to which a test consistently measures as well as the reproducibility of observed values.

### 3.8.1 Validity

To determine the strength of the study, the researcher employed both quantitative and qualitative research instruments to ensure that the opinions of both the selected key informants, from the two informal settlements and the officials from the Windhoek City Council, Namibian Police and City Police were recorded in the research findings. The purpose of the research and questionnaire design was comprehensively discussed in order to obtain the necessary data and to ensure that the research ethical procedures were complied with. The literature review was also employed to validate the research finding by incorporating ideas from various authors who have conducted similar studies. Interviewees were given assurances that the interview was for research purposes only, hence, they expressed themselves without fear of victimization, and follow-up interviews were carried out to clear up misunderstandings.

### 3.8.2 Reliability

According to Haimbala (2014, p.42), "the reliability of the data collected is often reflected by the analysis of findings". The data collected from the key informants was analysed based on the socio-economic security challenges affecting the residents of the informal settlements. The researcher concludes that the information obtained, from the previous study, secures the reliability of this study. Nevertheless, the researcher assumes the data has been recorded accurately and that errors and omissions have been rectified during editing. To prove the

truthfulness of the data collected its analysis of the security challenges, the Reliability Test, through SPSS, was used and it provides reliable security threats information. Subsequently the correlation of dependent and independent variables was tested.

### 3.9 Summary

Chapter 3 has focused on the methodology which inferred a number of approaches used to collect data. The concepts of research design, research instruments, population sampling, procedure, data analysis techniques, research ethics, validity and reliability of the study were examined in detail. The sample of 350 heads of households was selected from the estimated total population of 35, 279 of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements to determine the livelihood of the residents. The literature review, together with the responses of the selected 10 officials such as Windhoek City Council (2), City Police (4) and Namibia Police (4), assisted in providing the relevant information on the socio-economic security challenges posed by urbanisation trends. Chapter 4 will discuss the results of the study obtained from the key informants and supported by relevant literature.

# CHAPTER 4

## 4. Presentation of data and analysis

### 4.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 focused on the research methodology used for this study. Chapter 4 presents the findings on the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation in the livelihood of the residents of the CoW. The data is presented and critically analysed according to the findings from the key informants, supported by figures and pie charts, to facilitate the data analysis process. The data analysis is presented in the way the data was collected. The findings focused on unemployment, poverty, the environment and crime. The study assessed the security challenges posed by urbanisation such as access to services and amenities, the characteristics of migrants regarding their age, gender, marital status, educational levels and socio-economic status in the two informal settlements, in the CoW. The research results, recommendations and conclusions will apply purposely and directly to the officials of the Windhoek City Council, the Namibian Police and City Police.

### 4.2 Findings from primary data

#### 4.2.1 Causes and impact of urbanisation

Although rural-urban migration is known to be the main catalyst of urbanisation, natural increase due to births contributes significantly to urban growth in the CoW. People migrate to the cities seeking human security, such as economic security, food security, health security, environment security, personal security, community security, and political security. Storm (1997), argues that migration involves forced and voluntary movement. The forced migration is driven by numerous

security challenges such as natural disasters (such as famine, hunger), low agriculture productivity, and low wages. The rural migrants' expectation of better wages was that the wages would be able to compensate past loses in the long run (Miheretu, 2011, p.21; Todaro and Smith, 2003). On the other hand, voluntary migration is stimulated by socio-economic attraction factors, such as tourism, better education opportunities, better health facilities, a good environment, peace and stability.

The respondents feel that urbanisation offers better opportunities to improve their livelihood and they receive remittances to pay for basic needs such as school fees, groceries, and other household needs. Respondents further revealed that urbanisation offers an opportunity to seek for employment, education and health services. According to Miheretu (2011), the provision of services such as electricity, piped water supply and public services, make urban areas attractive. The selected respondents interviewed, however, revealed that most households in their informal settlements do not have access to ablution facilities, water and electricity. Responses from key informants, especially the Windhoek City Council, reported that urbanisation is a positive process for development, because it allows people to have access to modern technology and it is good for business and economic growth (Indongo, et al., 2013). The socio-economic security challenges, which influenced migration to the CoW, are depicted in Figure 4.2.1.

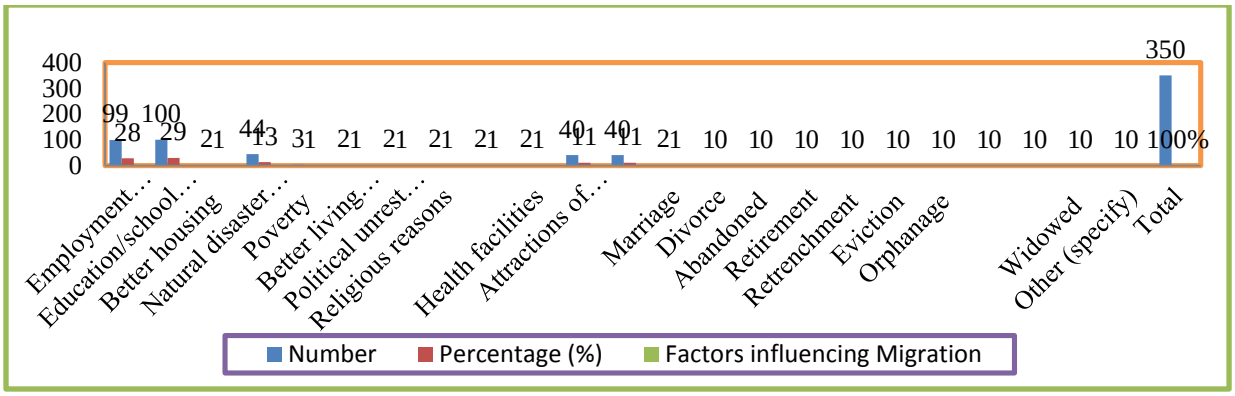



**Figure 4.2.1: Factors influenced migration to Windhoek (n=350)**

The reasons why rural migrants are migrating to urban areas in Namibia encompass various security challenges such as poverty, environmental and political history (Indongo, et al., 2013). The reasons provided are quite similar for respondents in both the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. The proportions of the residents of the informal settlements are rural migrants who come to the CoW seeking to improve their livelihood. The respondents also revealed that they migrated to reunite with their friends, relatives and families. This finding is supported by Muñiz-Solari et al. (2010); cited Muñiz (2006), who presents the chain migration and network development theory which explains the pull and push factors as well as barriers between the point of origin and destination. The migrants reunite with friends and relatives in urban areas for socio-economic reasons. The new migrants overburden the budget of their already impoverished friends and relatives, who are then required to purchase additional food and pay for the increasing water and electricity bills. This budgetary constraint is associated with socio-economic barriers, posed by new migrants, on the livelihood of the poor residents of the informal settlements.

The causes of migration include education opportunities, which made up 29 percent, employment opportunities at 28 percent, natural disaster constituted 13 percent, access to health facilities and the attraction of the city life stood at 11 percent each, and the remaining pull factors

comprised 1 percent each, as depicted in Figure 4.2.1. The study revealed that the main causes of migration is the high unemployment from the place of origin, the attraction of the city life with the hope to secure a better livelihood and natural disasters in rural areas and poor infrastructures. Todaro and Smith (2012), illustrate that, rural-urban migration can take place when there is no certainty of employment, as long as the probability of finding a job in urban areas is high enough. The development disparities between rural and urban areas and the poor socio-economic livelihood in rural areas are some of the causes of the high rate of urbanisation growth.

### 4.2.2 Demographic characteristics of the respondents

The study analysed the demographic characteristics of the residents of the Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements. It investigated the demographic characteristics of the respondents, focusing on various socio-economic aspects such as, gender, age, marital status, household monthly income, the level of education, unemployment, ownership of the house, the nature of occupation, the size of the household and number of inhabitants. The data, illustrated in the form of graphs and pie charts, provides comprehensive results based on the socio-economic security challenges perspectives facing the residents of Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements.

Indongo (2015), states that the population growth has posed security threats such as overcrowding increased pressure on infrastructural facilities and the rapid deterioration of housing and living conditions. The urbanisation process includes proportion of rural migrants who migrated to the city to secure employment, education and better livelihood. Indongo (2015),

further argued that urban growth is attributed to demographic shifts in the form of rural-urban migration, leading to urban sprawl, whereby the CoW's population changed from 233 529 in 2001 to 325 858 in 2011. Demographic characteristics were analysed based on gender, as depicted in Figure 4.2.2.

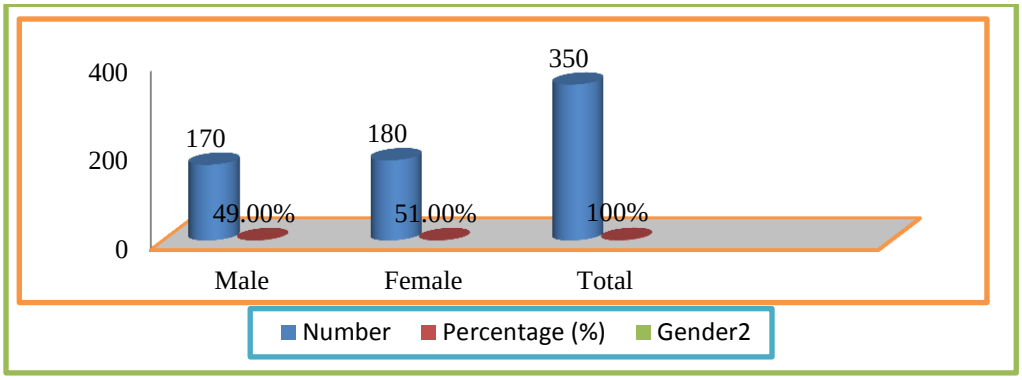



**Figure 4.2.2: Gender (n=350)**

a. **Gender respondents:** According to Indongo (2015) a study conducted in major city and towns in Namibia indicated that the main reasons given by the majority of respondents on why people move from rural to urban areas is to seek for employment 75.3 percent; for education 57.2 percent and some moved because of work 50 percent. Figure 4.2.2 depicts evidence of internal migration in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements by gender. It has indicated that female respondents constituted 51 percent of the sample in comparison to 49 percent for males. The finding is similar to the Namibian Labour Force Survey (2014) which reveals that 48.7 percent of the males population live in urban areas as compared to 51.3 percent of the females population. There is evidence that the rural-urban migratory trend has contributed to the population growth in the CoW, particularly in the two informal settlements.

### 4.2.3 The socio-economic security challenges

The socio-economic security challenges, based on gender, were analysed based on various factors such as unemployment, formal employment, informal employment, self-income generation, education and training and no education and training. The analyses assisted in determining the livelihood of the residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. Figure 4.2.3: illustrates that there are more females unemployed, and they comprise 28 percent, compared to 26 percent of males unemployed in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. The study revealed that 24 males are working in formal sectors while only 16 percent of females are working in formal sectors.

On the other hand, 17 percent of females are working in informal sectors compared to 16 percent of males. In addition, there are more females working in self-income generation businesses, which amount to 22 percent, in comparison to 18 percent of males working in the self-income generation sectors. The females engage mostly in self-generating income businesses and informal jobs as a survival strategy. On the other hand, there are more males employed in formal sectors than females.

The analysis of the study indicates that the lack of education and training are some of the socio-economic security challenges which negatively affect both males and females in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. The study revealed that 13 percent of females have access to education and training, compared to 11 percent of males. There are 5 percent of males without education and training in comparison to 4 percent of females without education and

training. This attributes to various socio-economic security challenges namely, the increase of unemployment insecurity, poverty insecurity and crime insecurity, among the residents of the two informal settlements (City of Windhoek, 2011). Unemployment is one of the security threats which affects females more than their male counterparts, and therefore, males are generally better off compared to their females counterpart. Males tend to secure casual employment more easily than females, but females play crucial roles in the socio-economic wellbeing of their respective households through self-income-earning businesses, despite their low income.

This infers that males tend to be employed in technical jobs such as construction workers, electricians, and mechanics, which offer better salaries or wages (Miheretu, 2011). However, some respondents argued that females are discriminated in terms of socio-economic distribution. This is attributed by a stereotype among the employers that technical jobs are reserved for males because females are regarded as naturally weak, hence they do not qualify to do certain technical jobs that males are employed in.

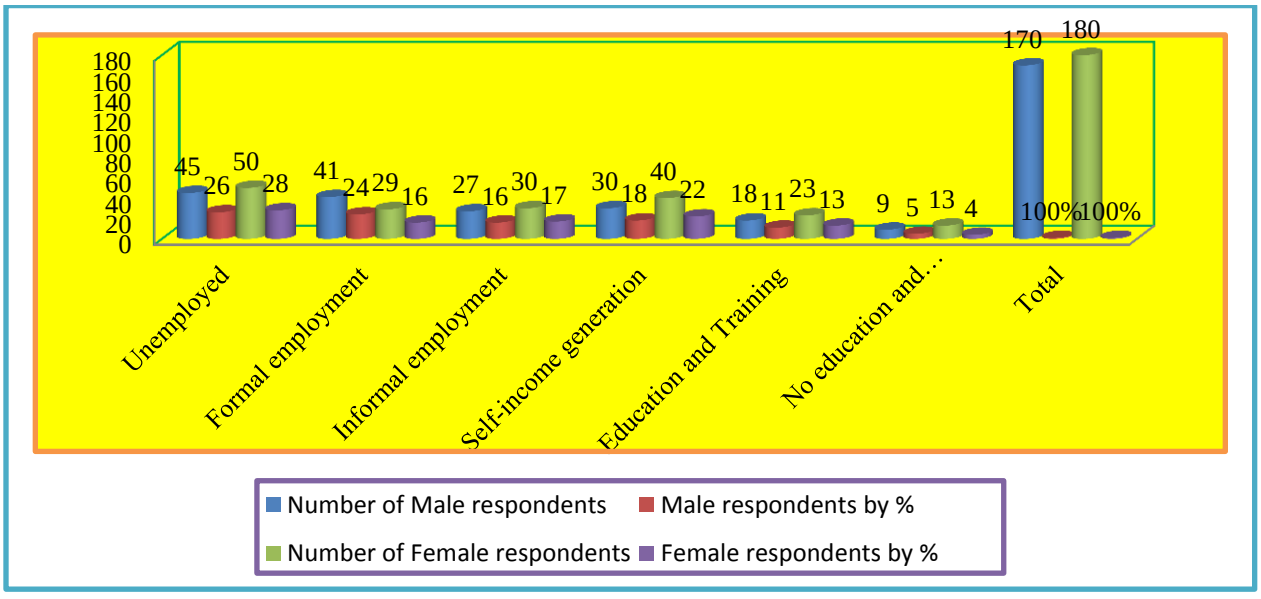


**Figure 4.2.3: The socio-economic security challenges**

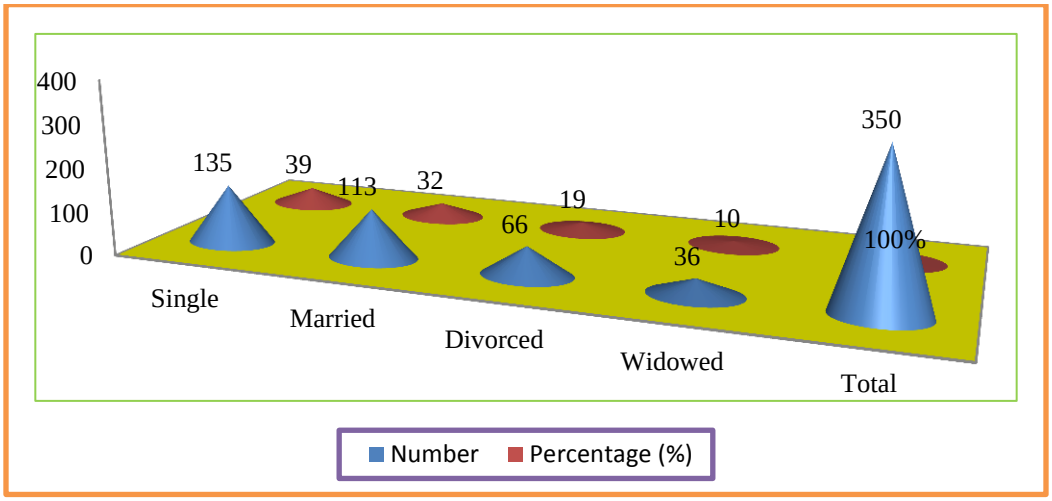



**Figure 4.2.4: Marital status (n=350)**

**b. Marital status:** The research revealed that 32 percent of respondents were married, 39 percent were single, 19 percent constituted as divorced and 10 percent were widowed. The security challenges facing the single parents, in raising their families, are limited resources and a lack of income. However, the majority of households in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements are single parents (City of Windhoek, 2011). The respondents indicated that divorced and widowed heads of households face security challenges in starting a new livelihood and supporting their children, especially if the partners were the breadwinners of the families.

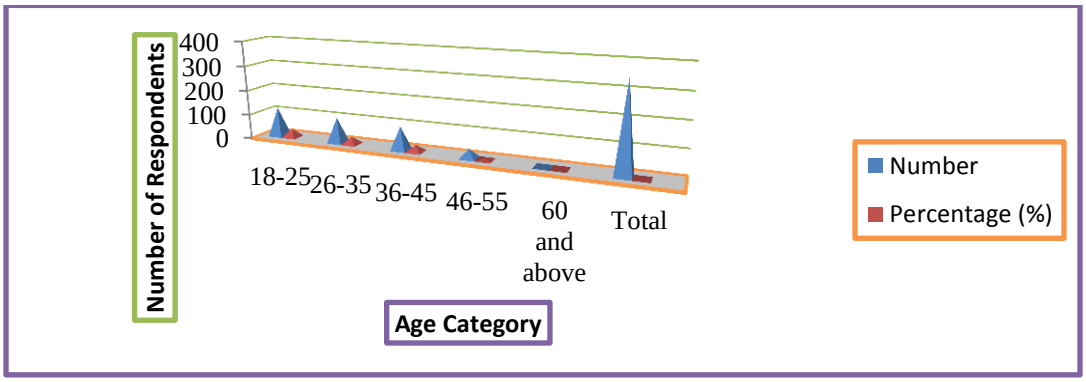
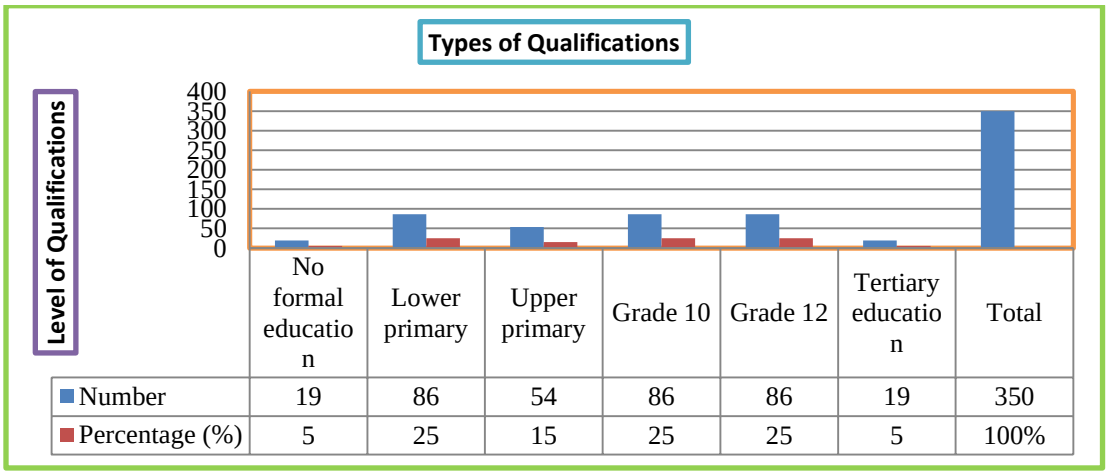



**Figure 4.2.5: Age category (n=350)**

**c. Age category:** The data collected from the two informal settlements revealed that about 34 percent of the heads of households were aged between 18 to 25 years old. In addition, the 29 percent of the respondents indicated that they were between 26 to 35 years, 27 percent were aged between 36 to 45 years, whereas the respondents aged 60 and above are below 1 percent. Discussion with focus groups revealed that those who were 18 years old and below constitute only 0.1 percent of the heads of households. These young people are mostly orphans. The data collected from the study revealed that the large proportions of the households studied were headed by younger people. Furthermore, the study indicated that a large number of youth are living in security threatening situations in the two informal settlements.

The severity of the socio-economic security challenges is determined by the age gaps. The youngest and oldest are most negatively affected by unemployment and poverty insecurities. Although the elders, 60 years old and above, benefit from a social grant of N$1100 per month, this income is not able to sustain their basic household needs (Harambee Prosperity Plan, 2016). Unemployment and poverty insecurity is very high in the age group of 15-17 years old and in the 60 years and above age group. These are the most vulnerable members of our society who are affected by socio-economic security challenges. The elders tend to be more vulnerable because their social grants are confiscated by their grandchildren and spent on non-productive things such as alcohol and drugs. On the other hand, the youth (18-35 years old) and adult respondents (36-59 years old) indicated that they tend to be employed because they fall in the employment categories.

The younger respondents feel neglected in terms of employment opportunities and some youth indulge in criminal activities as a survival strategy. A similar finding was indicated in the study conducted by Nendongo (2007), in the CoW. This security threat is one of the major security challenges that were augmented in the discussion sessions with the residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. The respondents asserted that the teenagers and elderly people of the two informal settlements play vital roles in supporting their families, despite the security challenges they are facing. While some teenagers roam the streets selling various products, ranging from newspapers and recharge vouchers to vegetables, fruits and so on, other teenagers snatch people's valuable items such as, cell phones, laptops and jewellery. The study revealed that the adults in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements are either working in formal sectors, self-employed or unemployed. Although, there are indications of income-earning activities from various sources across variations of age groups, there is poverty insecurity among individuals of all ages.




| | No formal education | Lower primary | Upper primary | Grade 10 | Grade 12 | Tertiary education | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number | 19 | 86 | 54 | 86 | 86 | 19 | 350 |
| Percentage (%) | 5 | 25 | 15 | 25 | 25 | 5 | 100% |

**Figure 4.2.6: Educational qualification (n=350)**

**d. Education:** An educational achievement is one of the socio-economic indicators that determine the livelihood of human beings. Thus, the level of education was used to determine the security challenges posed by education attainment and unemployment, poverty and crime insecurity (Indongo, et al., 2013). The heads of households were interviewed, taking into account their education level, uneducated, primary, secondary and tertiary education. The survey revealed that 5 percent have no formal education, 25 percent have lower primary education, 15 percent have an upper primary education, 25 percent have a Grade 10 qualification, 25 percent have a Grade 12 qualification and 5 percent have tertiary education (College, Polytechnic and University qualifications). The study analysis shows that Grade 10 to 12 school leavers constitute a large proportion of heads of households, followed by school dropouts (lower primary) who left school due to numerous security challenges, such as becoming orphans, financial constraints, poverty, knowledge gap, backwardness and illiteracy.

According to the Namibia Labour Force Survey (2014), males have a higher absorption rate at 54.1 percent compared to females whose employment rate is 45.5 percent. The study further indicated that people having a teacher's training qualification have the highest absorption rate at 90.2 percent, whereas people with a post-graduate or university certificate or diploma amount 87.8 percent, 77.5 percent and 57.1 percent respectively. Persons with the lowest absorption rates are those who have primary, junior secondary and no formal education, with an absorption rates of 44.4 percent, 45.2 percent and 49.9 percent respectively (Ibid).

The people with no education or lower education qualifications are faced with unemployment insecurity. The discussion postulates that the higher the level of educational attainment, the higher the chances of securing better employment opportunities. Observations in the study areas

confirm that those without education qualifications are mostly negatively affected by unemployment and poverty insecurity. The respondents maintain that highly educated people do not commit criminal activities such as robberies, theft and hijacking, as a means to survive. On the other extreme, respondents with no form of education tend to commit crimes in order to survive. The study avers that a lack of formal employment opportunities in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements is attributed to poverty and crime insecurities, as alluded to earlier. Nendongo (2007), contends that 80 percent of the suspects of crime believe that unemployment can lead individuals to commit crime; however, this may be a simple defence plea by the suspect for being caught in the criminal act. Further research is needed to find out the causes of crime. It was observed, however, that respondents with no formal education tend to engage in self-income businesses to sustain their livelihood. The study analysed the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation across the households in the two informal settlements. The study contextualizes the security challenges across gender, age groups and levels of education, focusing mainly on how these socio-economic aspects influence poverty, crimes and unemployment among members of the households.

It was noted that uneducated people are highly unemployed compared to those with a high formal education. The lack of education and training is a security challenge and most employment opportunities require an academic qualification plus 5 years or more of working experience. It has emerged that those who are recent graduates from academic institutions cannot find employment easily due to their lack of experience. The study discovered that most of the inhabitants of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements did not attain qualifications above Grade12. The respondents, who are tenants in the two informal settlements,

argue that it is easy to find employment opportunities in the City of Windhoek if you attain the relevant qualification, skills and experience. According to Muñiz-Solari (2006), employment opportunities can either be for high-skilled or low-skilled workers. The respondents further argued that many of the youth only study to work as administrators or managers (white collar jobs), and these are not easy employment opportunities to find. The artisans (blue collar jobs) create their own employment and they employ others.

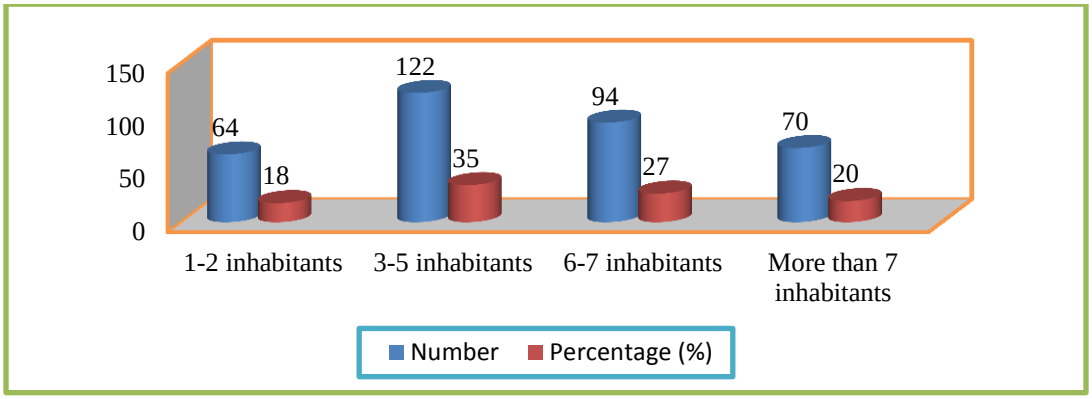



**Figure 4.2.7: Inhabitants per household (n=350)**

**e. Inhabitants per household:** The household survey focused on the number of people per household. The study revealed that the household occupants, in the two informal settlements, range from 1 to above 7 inhabitants per household. An average of 4 to 5 shacks is partitioned into small rooms for renting, as a strategy to generate income. The majority of the occupants are school leavers and school dropouts, who come either to seek for employment opportunities or live with their families and friends. The proportion of households, which accommodate 1 to 2 inhabitants, constituted 18 percent, 3 to 4 inhabitants represented 35 percent, 6 to 7 comprised 27 percent, whereas above 7 inhabitants constituted 20 percent. The security challenge facing these inhabitants is overcrowding, which poses poor health and hygiene insecurity due to a lack of

sanitation, the danger of fire due to a lack of electricity supply and potential eviction at any time because they occupy the land illegally. The rate of rural-urban migration is higher, possibly due to perceived better living conditions and employment opportunities in CoW.

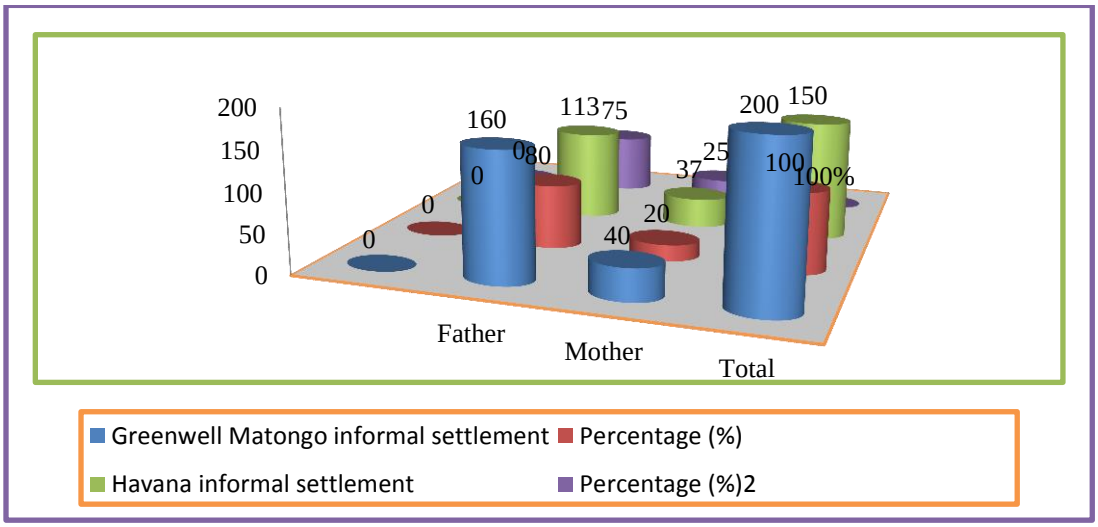



**Figure 4.2.8: Breadwinner of the household (n=350)**

The study analysed the socio-economic livelihood of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements based on gender distribution to determine the breadwinner of households. In the Greenwell Matongo informal settlement, out of the 200 respondents interviewed, 160 (80 percent) heads of household were male and 40 (20 percent) were female. In addition, in the Havana informal settlement, the gender distribution of the sub-sample of 150 of the respondents interviewed, indicated that 113 (75 percent) were male and 37 (25 percent) were female. This concluded that there is predominance of male breadwinners in households over females, in the two informal settlements.

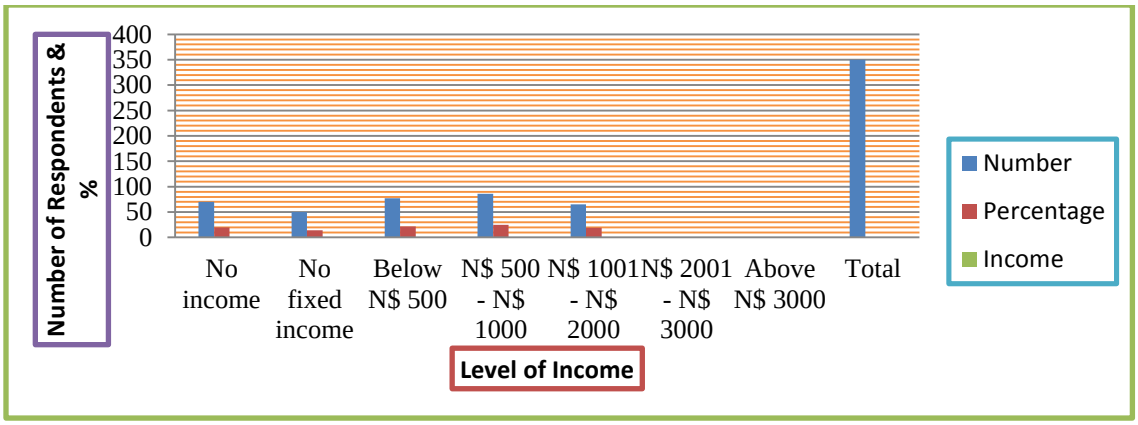



**Figure 4.2.9: Household income (n=350)**

**f. Income of respondents:** The levels and sources of incomes of various households were analysed based on socio-economic security challenges the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements faced. The Namibian Labour Force Survey (2014), reveals 51.6 percent of all households reported their main source of income as salaries and wages. The study further showed that 15.8 percent of households reported subsistence agricultural activities as their main income source, 10.4 named remittances, and 6.9 percent named business (non-agriculture) activities (Ibid). During discussions, the heads of households indicated their sources of income, which varied from each household. The monthly income is one of the determining factors of poverty insecurity in the informal settlements. The respondents revealed that the income of most heads of households ranges from N$500 to N$3000. Sadly, about 80 percent of heads of households earn less than N$3000, 20 percent of respondents have no income and 14 percent of respondents have no fixed income. The income distribution of the respondents indicated that 22 percent of respondents earn less than N$500 per month and 25 percent earn a monthly income of between N$500 and N$1000. The research further revealed that 19 percent of respondents earn between N$1001 and N$2000 per month, whereas only 1 percent earn above N$3000. This

suggests that 80 percent of heads of households in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements are experiencing the security threat of abject poverty.

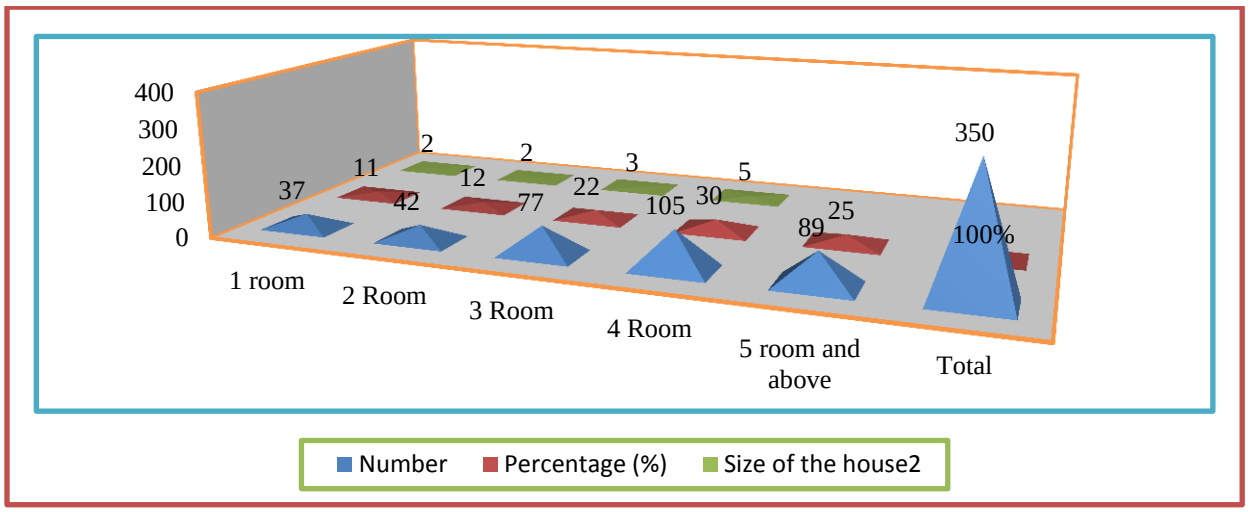



**Figure 4.2.10: Size of the house (n=350)**

**f. Size of the house:** The average house size for the sample constituted 1 room (11 percent), 2 rooms (12 percent), 3 rooms (22 percent), 4 rooms (30 percent), 5 and above rooms (25 percent). Surprisingly, 66 percent heads of households rent their houses to generate income. Only 34 percent do not rent their houses. In addition, 5 percent heads of households have more than one plot, either in the same informal settlements or other informal settlements, for renting purposes. Odendaal and Tjiramba (2005), profess that the control of rent payable for leased dwellings, and the periods of notice with which lessors of business premises and dwellings must comply, are stipulated in the Rents Ordinance Act 13 of 1977. To rent a dwelling is determined by a number of factors, such as the township where the facility is located, the size and the standard of the room and the rising costs of services, such as water and electricity supply. Despite the existence of legislation on rental prices control, there are no strict control measures taken against those charging their clients unreasonably high rental fees.

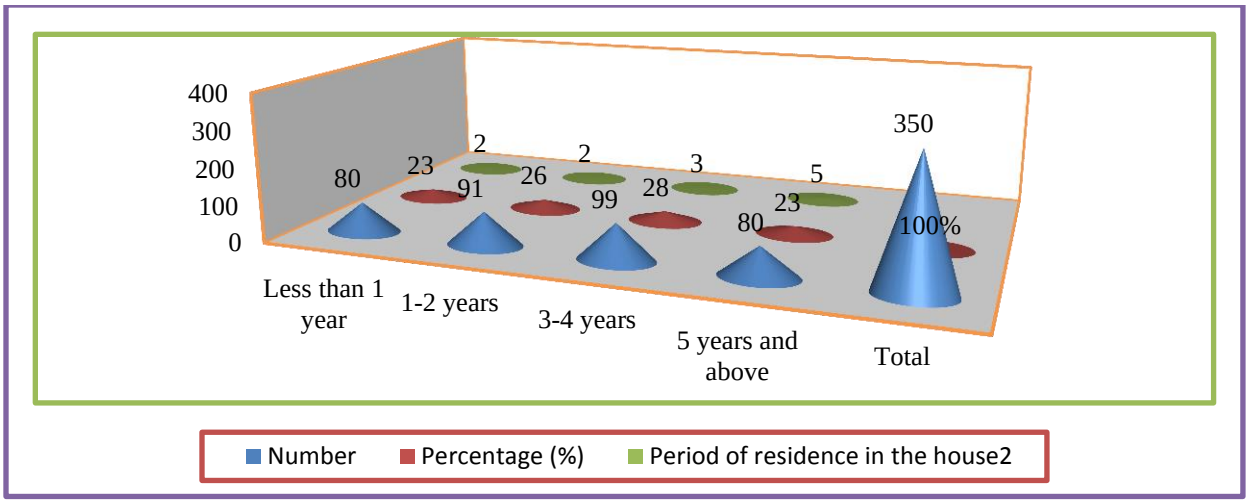



**Figure 4.2.11: Period of residence in the house (n=350)**

The study analysed the period of residence in the CoW, in particular, in the two informal settlements, to determine the number of new migrants. The respondents revealed that migrants who migrated from the Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements in less than 1 year constitute 23 percent, 1 to 2 years amounted to 26 percent, 3 to 4 years was 28 percent; whereas, those who lived in the CoW for 5 years and above, constitute 23 percent. This could be translated that new migrants constituted 77 percent, which is an indication of the high influx of new migrants in CoW within 4 years.

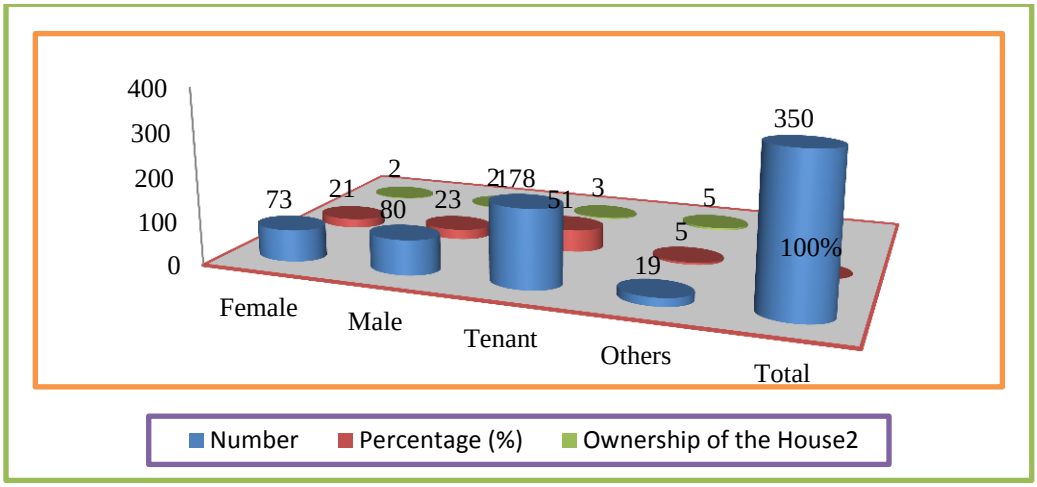
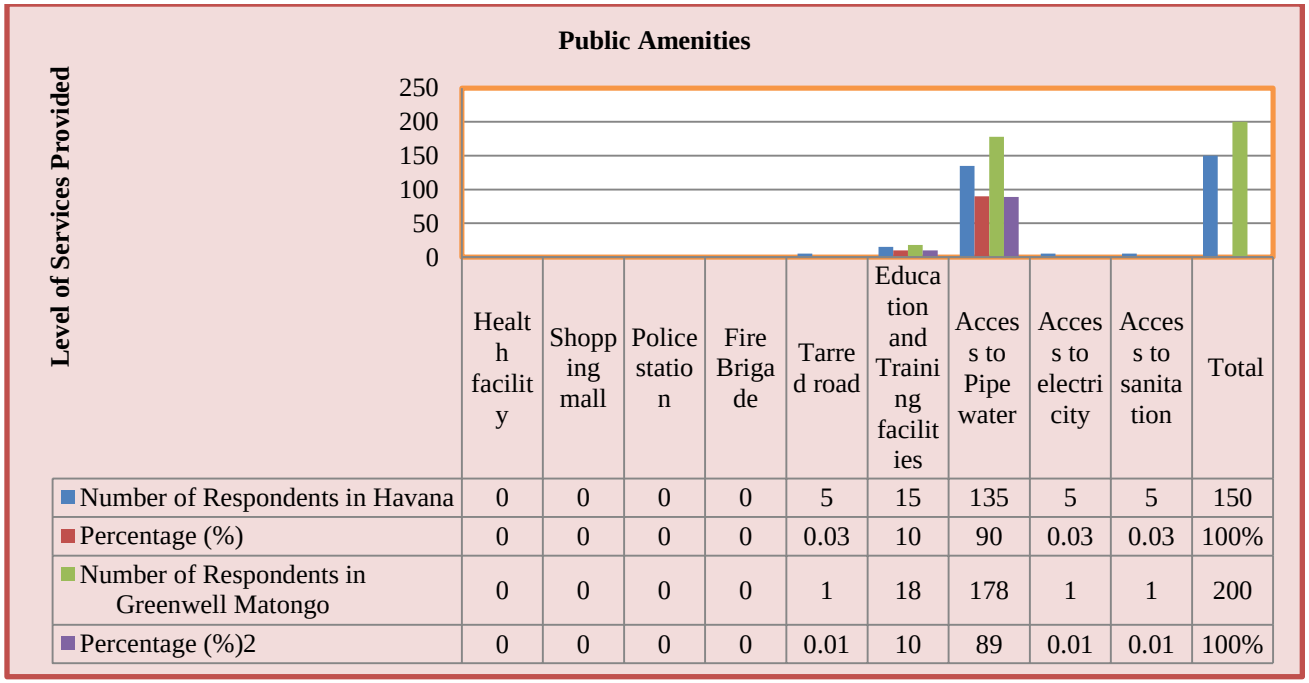



**Figure 4.2.12: Ownership of the house (n=350)**

**g. Housing ownership:** To establish the ownership of a household, respondents indicated whether they are the heads of households or they are tenants. The data revealed that 44 percent were the heads of households, 51 percent were tenants and 5 percent represented others (i.e. children, relatives and friends). The average household is headed by males, 23 percent, female headed household constituted only 21 percent, while tenants comprised 51 percent. The study discovered that 99 percent of heads of households are aged between 18 to 59 years old and only 1 percent represent 60 year olds and above. Those who own houses stated that they either built or inherited these houses from parents who died or they were given the houses by their parents who migrated back to their home villages after retirement. Sadly, there were pockets of teenagers (aged 17 years old and below) who inherited the houses from their late parents, but were excluded in the survey as per requirement of the questionnaire of this study.




| | Health facility | Shopping mall | Police station | Fire Brigade | Tarred road | Education and Training facilities | Access to Pipe water | Access to electricity | Access to sanitation | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of Respondents in Havana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 15 | 135 | 5 | 5 | 150 |
| Percentage (%) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.03 | 10 | 90 | 0.03 | 0.03 | 100% |
| Number of Respondents in Greenwell Matongo | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 18 | 178 | 1 | 1 | 200 |
| Percentage (%)2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.01 | 10 | 89 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 100% |

**Figure 4.2.13: Access to public amenities (n=350)**

**h. Access to public amenities:** The respondents indicated that there were no (0 percent) health facilities, shopping malls, police stations or fire brigades in their areas, whereas access to tarred roads, electricity and sanitation comprised 1 percent of each in the two informal settlements. The study further discovered that access to education and training facilities constituted 10 percent in the two informal settlements, while access to pipe water stood at 90 percent in Havana and 89 percent in Greenwell Matongo informal settlement respectively.

However, the respondents revealed that they had to fetch water from the common taps, which are 50m to 500m away from their households. The respondents revealed that it is dangerous to fetch water during the night. The security threat posed by the lack of access to public facilities is a delayed response to emergency incidents such as, crimes, arson, sickness or injuries in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. The study discovered that many households are not connected to a water and sewerage reticulation system. This poses security threats, such as exposure to human waste, dirty water from bathrooms and chemical water from carwashes, which flow into the streets. This poor, unhygienic condition poses health insecurity to children, playing in the streets, to domestic animals, wild animals and environment.

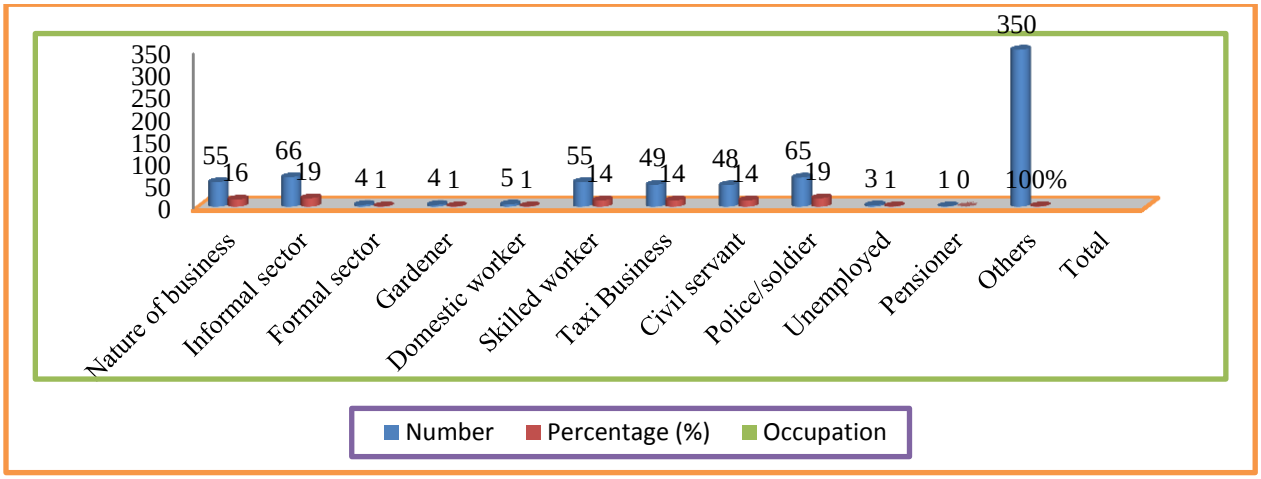



**Figure 4.2.14: Nature of occupation (n=350)**

**i. Nature of occupation/business:** A total sample of 350 respondents were successfully interviewed in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements of which, 16 percent are employed in informal sectors, 19 percent in formal sectors, and taxi businesses, civil servants, soldiers and police constitute 14 percent respectively. The gardeners, domestic workers, skilled workers and pensioners cover a mere 1 percent each. The study indicates that 19 percent of the sample population is unemployed. The security challenge facing the two communities is that their income cannot meet all their daily basic needs. The low income, poverty insecurity and unemployment insecurity has led to an escalation of crime in the two informal settlements.

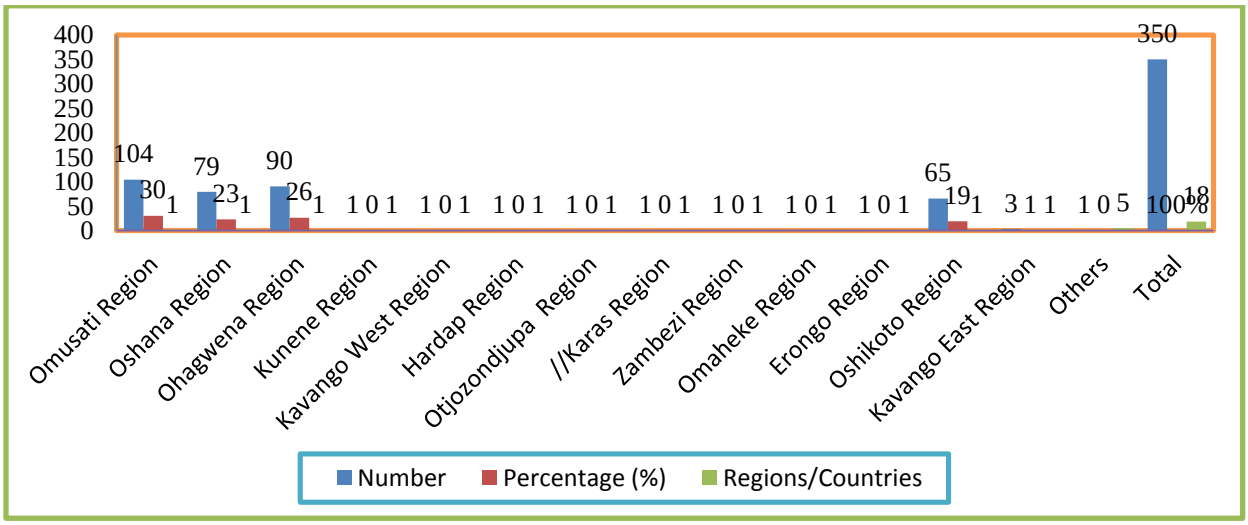



**Figure 4.2.15: Place of origin (N=350)**

**j. Place of origin:** From the discussion with the respondents, regarding the places of origin, the majority of respondents come from the Northern regions of Namibia, which was formally known as Ovamboland. At 30 percent, the Omusati region constitutes the largest proportion of rural migrants, followed by the Ohagwena Region with 26 percent, the Oshana and Oshikoto regions constitute 26 percent and 19 percent respectively. "Namibia's population is estimated to be 2,247,124 people; out of this an estimated 1,181,080 or 52.56 percent live in rural areas while the

remaining 1,066,044 or 47.4 percent live in urban area" (Namibia Labour Force Survey, 2014, p.38). The study further indicated that the most populated regions are Khomas, Ohangwena and Omusati with 17.2, 11.2 and 11.0 percent of the total population respectively.

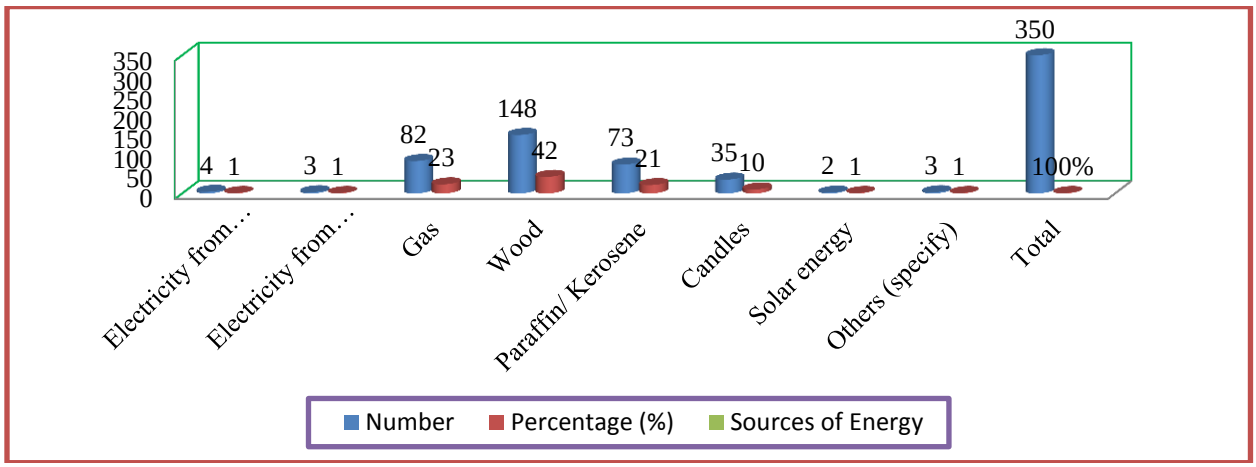



**Figure 4.2.16: Main source of energy for cooking and lighting (n=350)**

**k. Main source of energy for lighting and cooking:** The study found out that only 3 percent of households in the two informal settlements have access to grid electricity, generator electricity and solar energy as their source of energy for cooking and lighting. The research further indicated that the main source of energy for cooking in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements are wood (42 percent) and gas (23 percent). On the other hand, candles constitute 10 percent, while paraffin/kerosene covers 21 percent for lighting. The gas, candles and paraffin/kerosene are security threats to the residents of the two informal settlements as they are exposed to the risk of fire, which may lead to a loss of property and may, occasionally, result in injuries or fatalities. A similar study conducted by Indongo et al. (2013), also yields the same results. The key informants opine that the escalation of fire outbreak in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements is a security threat which requires the prompt intervention of the local authority and central government.

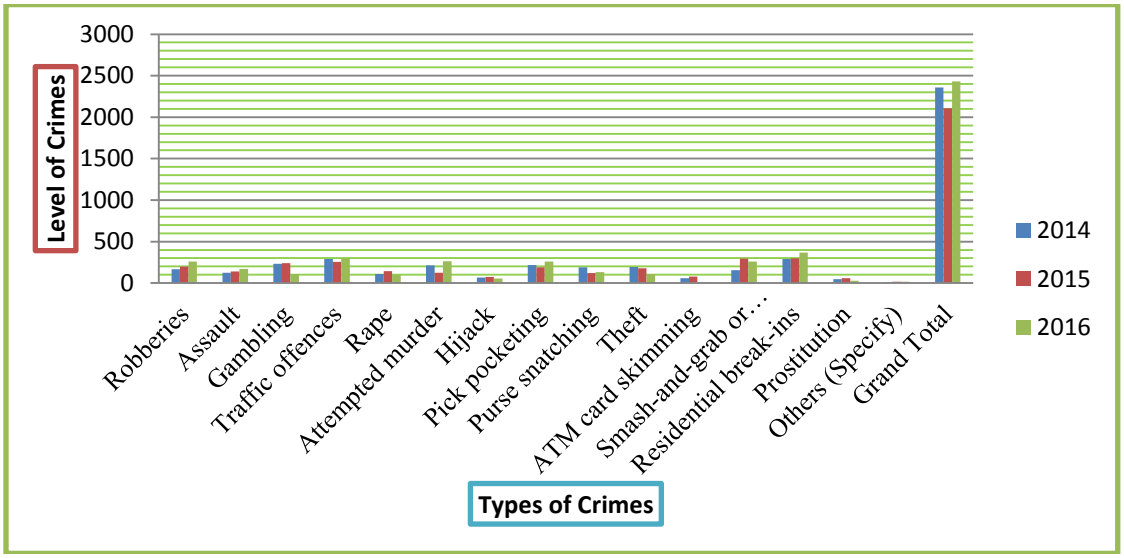



**Figure 4.2.17: City of Windhoek police statistics.**
*Source:* City of Windhoek police statistics reports (2014-2016)

The types and statistics of crime in the CoW were provided by the Windhoek City Police. According to the Windhoek City Police report (2015), crime cases stood at 2357 in 2014, 2107 cases were reported in 2015 and 2432 cases were reported in 2016. The crime rate decreased in 2015, compared to 2014 with 250 crime cases and it increased in 2016 with 325 crime cases. Comparing the figures from 2014 to 2016, overall the crime cases in the informal settlements have drastically increased, as indicated in Figure 4.2.17. The respondents revealed that an increase in the rate of violent crime, especially robberies, murder and rape, make it unsafe for anyone to live or walk in the informal settlements and frequent drinking outlets during the day or night time. Although, prostitution is illegal in Namibia, there is no clear policy to deal with prostitution cases. It is a security threat to the national security and is regarded as one of the sources for the spread of HIV/AIDS in the City of Windhoek.

The Windhoek City Police report (2015), further revealed that various crime cases were reported in the CoW, such as, traffic offences, theft, money laundering, rape, murder, gambling, drug

trafficking (the most popular drugs are marijuana dagga, cocaine and crack cocaine), fraud, pick pocketing, prostitution, purse snatching, vehicle theft, ATM card scheming, vehicle break-ins, residential break-ins and commercial break-ins. The crimes are mostly committed by thieves, attacking their victims at knife or gun point. Namibia is used as a transit route for drug trafficking. Although the country is not producing drugs, numerous drugs are being smuggled in and sold at a cheaper price because they are not in a high demand. The drugs are used by criminals as stimulants to minimize fear when committing crimes. There are criminals in the streets selling crystal methamphetamine under the pretext that they are selling diamonds. According to Nendongo (2007), the theft of cellular phones was high in Katutura, followed by theft and robberies; these crimes take place at the business places that are busy which makes it difficult, sometimes, to detect or trace the criminals. In addition, sanitation was another security threats among the residents of Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements.

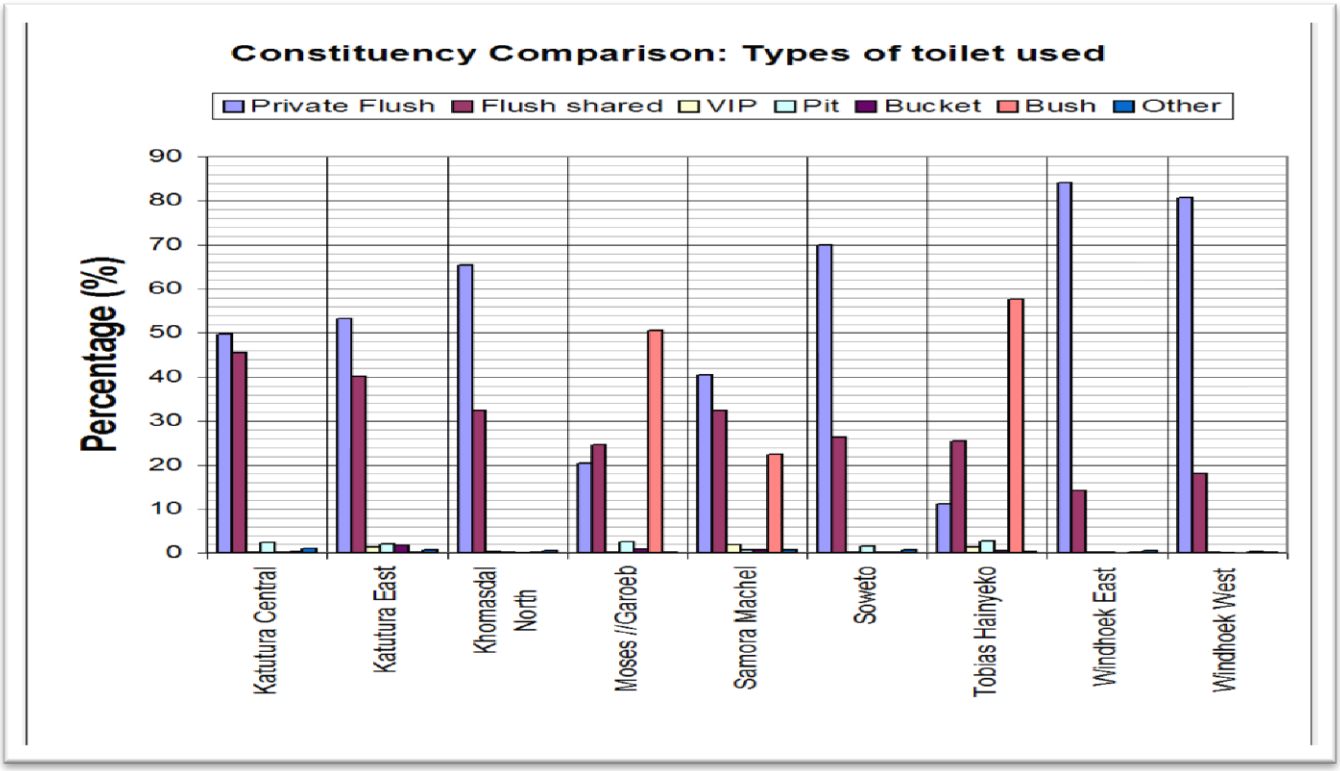



**Figure 4.2.18: Percentage of household with sanitation security challenges by constituencies**
*Source:* (City of Windhoek, 2011; Erriky, 2013)

The private flush toilet constitutes 40 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 20 percent in Havana settlements. The flush shared toilet constituted 35 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 28 percent in Havana informal settlements. Furthermore, those who relieve themselves in the bush constitute 24 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 50 percent in Havana informal settlements. The VIP, pit, bucket and other types of toilets cover below 2 percent of ablution facilities in the two informal settlements. This finding was supported by Indongo et al. (2013), who indicated that the town councils and municipalities are faced with security challenges in providing services due to the rapid expansion of the informal settlements and a high number of people are unemployed and thus unable to afford these services, the lack of the capacity of the existing infrastructures and illegal occupation of unserviced land. In addition, insufficient ablution facilities and poor sanitation posed security threat to the environment as alluded to earlier.

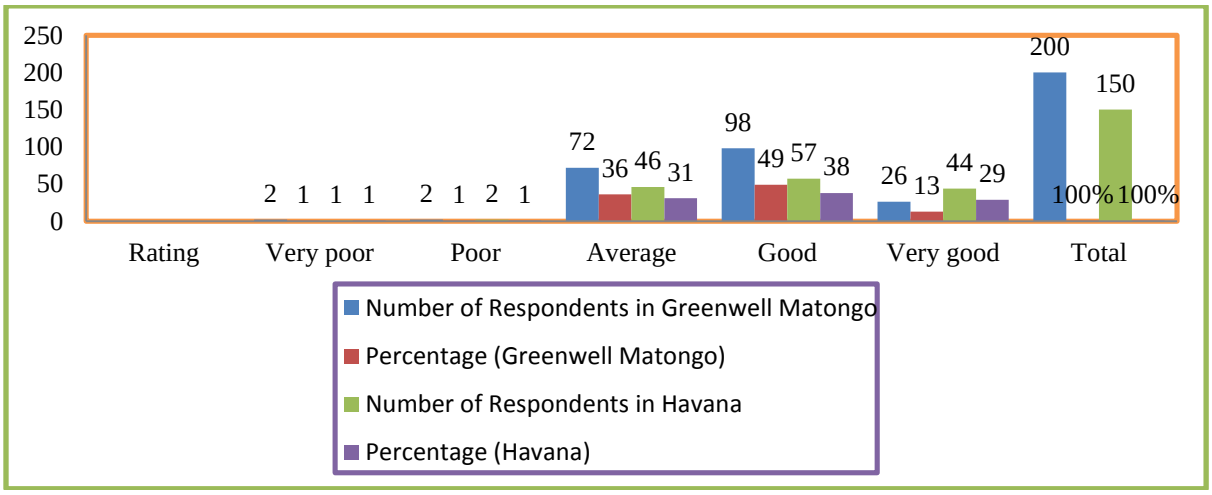



**Figure 4.2.19: Percentage of household rating educational services**

To determine the provision of educational services in the Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements, the respondents were interviewed to rate access to education facilities using very poor, poor, average, good and very good. The survey revealed that those indicated very poor and poor were 1 percent each in the Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements.

The study found that the rating average stood at 36 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 31 percent in Havana. The respondents, who indicated that the educational service is good, were 49 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 38 percent in Havana. Finally, the respondents who believe that the education service is very good represented 13 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 29 percent in Havana. A study was conducted by Indongo, et al. (2013), in the City of Windhoek, Oshakati and Ongwediva towns to determine the living condition of the residents of the informal settlements, the findings yield the similar results to the current study.

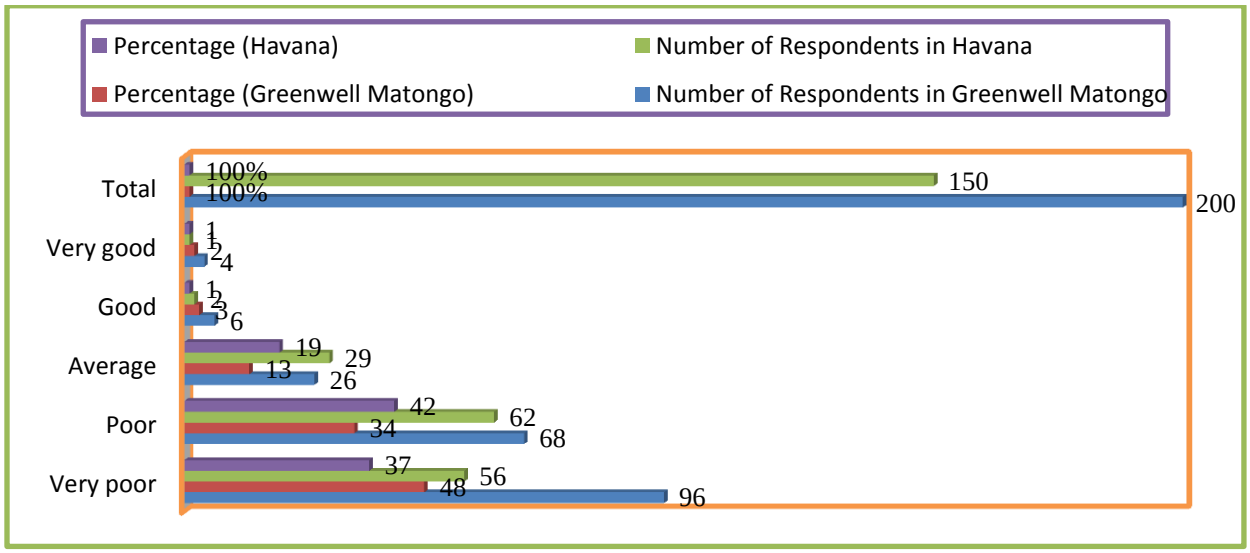



**Figure 4.2.20: Percentage of household rating health services**

The provision of access to health services in the Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements was also determined using the measures, very poor, poor, average, good and very good. The study revealed that those who indicated very poor, in terms of access to health services, was 48 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 37 percent in the Havana informal settlement. The study discovered that poor health services stood at 34 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 42 percent in Havana. Those respondents who indicated that the health service is

average were 13 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 19 percent in Havana informal settlements. The respondents who believe that the health service is good stood at 3 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 1 percent in the Havana informal settlement. Additionally, the research found that the respondents who indicated the health service is very good stood at 2 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 1 percent in the Havana informal settlement. It is important to note that the lack of access to health facilities in the community is a security threat; hence, it is difficult to save lives of patients such as, pregnant mothers, fire victims, gunshot or stab victims, and various diseases.

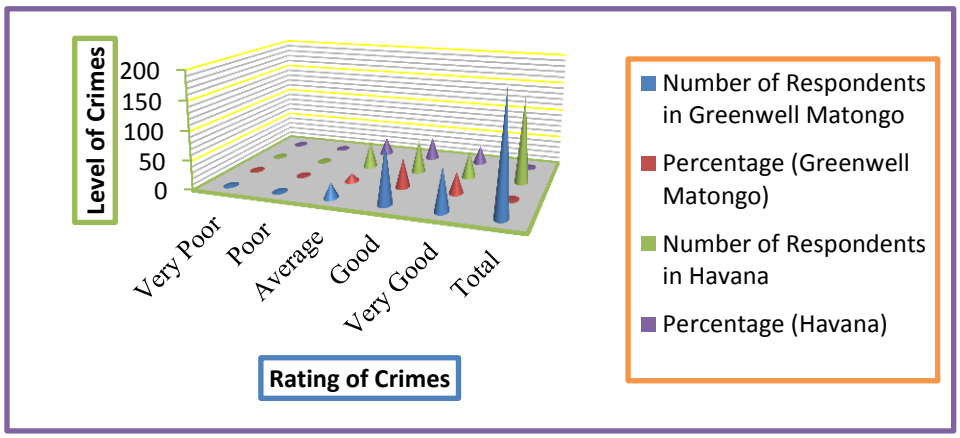



**Figure 4.2.21: Percentage of household rating crime**

The study focused on the security level with regard to how the City Police combat crime in the Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements, using measures such as very poor, poor, average, good and very good. It illustrates that those who indicated very poor and poor stood at 1 percent each, in both the Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements. The study revealed that the level of crime is at an average rate of 13 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 30 percent in the Havana informal settlement. The key informants who indicated that combating crime is good stood at 50 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 38 percent in Havana. Observation,

however, it shows that the City Police and the Namibian Police combat crime through conducting regular patrols and sensitising residents of informal settlements on security awareness. This finding was supported by the City of Windhoek (2015), who indicated that the City Police is mandated to provide security to the residents, visitors and their property. Nendongo (2007), argues that the City Police employed modern technology, such as cameras at suspected crime enclave areas, residential areas and commercial areas, in order to minimise expenditure on Police officers operation when conducting patrols and other related safety and security functions.

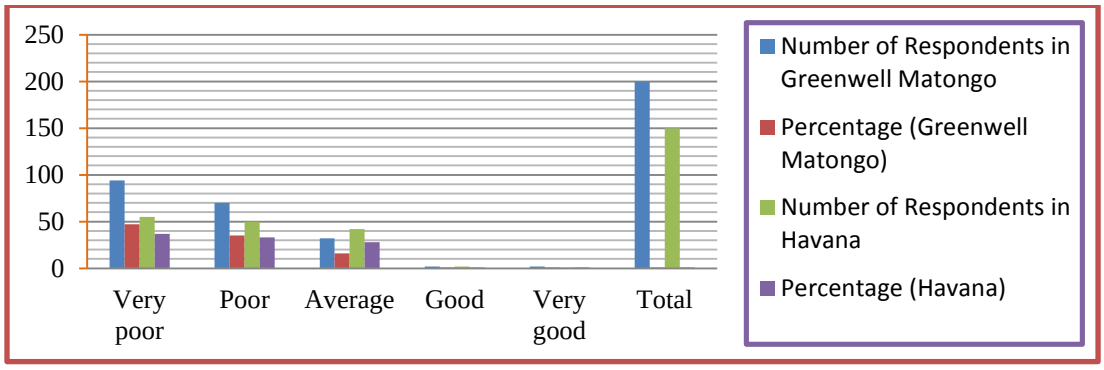



**Figure 4.2.22: Percentage of household rating livelihood**

The livelihood of the residents of Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements was also analysed based on their living conditions, using measures such as very poor, poor, average, good and very good. The respondents who indicated that their livelihood was very poor stood at 47 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 37 percent in Havana. The respondents who indicated that the livelihood was poor totalled 35 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 33 percent in Havana. The study further discloses that the livelihood was at an average rate of 16 percent in Greenwell Matongo and 28 percent in Havana. The respondents who rated the living conditions as good and

very good made up 1 percent each in the Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements respectively. The study concluded that the livelihood of the inhabitants in the informal settlements is generally poor with insufficient basic needs, such as food, water, sanitation, electricity, and income. The livelihood of the residents, for the two informal settlements, is characterised by poverty, unemployment and crime insecurity.

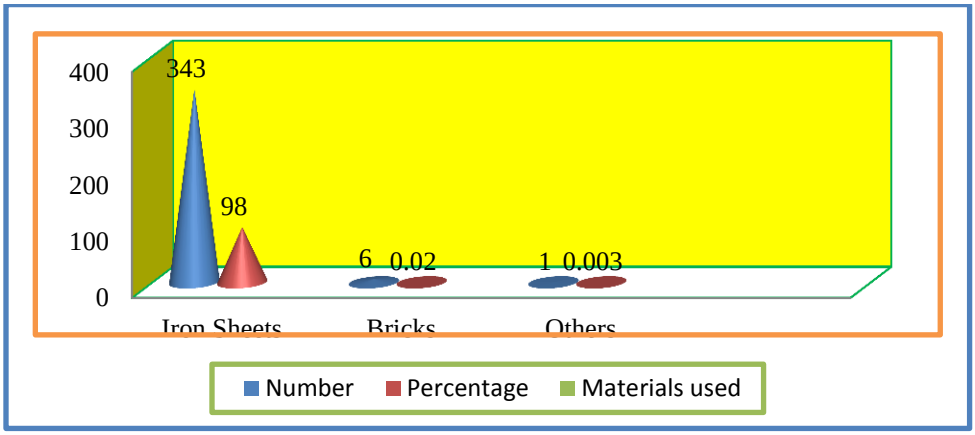



**Figure 4.2.23: The types of materials used for your houses**

**l. Housing types, facilities and materials used:** The housing types and materials used to set up the structures, define the socio-economic security challenges affecting the livelihood of the residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. From observation and during face to face interviews with the respondents, 98 percent of the houses are made of metal sheets and 0.2 percent is made with other materials such as bricks, old drums, car parts, planks and plastic. The housing type is thus significant for understanding the security threats and the poverty insecurity level among the residents of the two informal settlements. The housing types are mostly shacks which are made with zinc. The shacks are exposed to various security threats such as floods, fire, wind, and thieves.

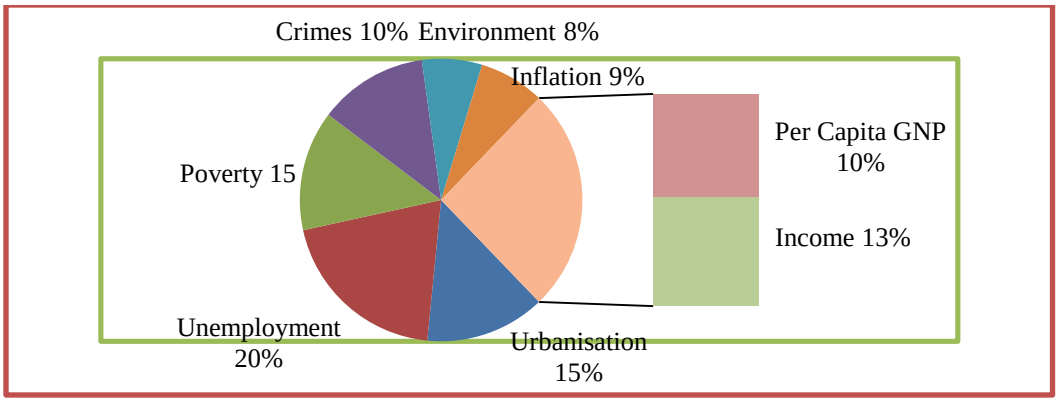



**Figure 4.2.24: Socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation**

The high rate of urbanisation has advantages and disadvantages on socio-economic variables. Rapid urbanisation increases unemployment, poverty, crime and environmental insecurity. On the other hand, rapid urbanisation increases the buying power, increases cheap labour and attracts people with various skills and knowledge in the urban economy, which in turn, contributes to the creation of new employment opportunities.

The high urbanisation trend increases the demand for goods and services, which contributes to the high inflation rates in urban markets. High prices of commodities in the urban markets exacerbate poverty insecurity in urban settings. The high price of goods and services has a negative impact on the income, hence, the poor people cannot afford to buy their basic household needs, such as food or pay for water and electricity bills. The research collected historical data of urbanisation in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements and analysed the correlation of urbanisation with various socio-economic security challenges and effective macro-economic variables using SPSS. The results revealed there is a significant relationship between urbanisation and socio-economic insecurities, as indicated in Figure 4.2.24. In addition, the macro-economic variables also reflect the significant results with a positive correlation to

urbanisation, in the sense that, new opportunities were established in the urban settings, which contributed to economic growth in the CoW.

Fire outbreaks in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements are a security threat to the lives of the two communities. The fire outbreak is mostly caused by gas, paraffin and candles, which are commonly used for lighting and cooking. The incidents of fire outbreak in the informal settlements occur regularly on a weekly and monthly basis.

The escalation of crime in CoW has prompted its management to establish the City Police in terms of Section 43 (c) of the Namibian Police Act, 1999 (Act No. 19 of 1999), to complement the work done by the Namibian Police. Although, this initiative was received with mixed feelings, after the City Police became operational, numerous criminal cases were reported, namely, Jukebox break-ins, house break-ins, rape, motor vehicles theft, theft of cell phones, grabbing and bag-snatching from women, common assault GBH (Grievous Bodily Harm), robberies and murder (City of Windhoek, 2015).

The main objectives of the City Police are to combat crime, to secure the general safety of the city, to maintain law and order, and to maximize security awareness among the residents. However, the City Police alone cannot achieve its objectives without the support from the community. The level of safety and crime is determined by the mutual cooperation between the City Police and the community. According to Nendongo (2007), a fundamental aspect of community policing has always been that the public must be engaged in fighting against crime and disorder.

The City of Windhoek (2015), revealed that they design security strategies based on four pillars. The first pillar is zonal policing (in each zone there is a vehicle and an officer attached to that specific zone on a 24-hour basis), the second pillar is Closed Circuit Television (CCTV) cameras, the third pillar is intelligence-led operations to apprehend suspects (they rely mostly on the community to provide necessary information which leads to the arrest of the suspects) and the final fourth pillar is called Community-Oriented Policing and Problem Solving (COPPS), which is a partnership between the City Police and the community. Nendongo (2007), affirms that cameras were installed to deter burglary, assault and car theft.

The types of crime committed in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements are the influx of illegal businesses, such as, shebeens, carwashes, prostitution, barber shops, salons, panel beaters and auto mechanics are perceived to be the main sources of income in the informal settlements. However, they are not registered with the relevant authorities. Unregistered businesses do not pay tax, which contravenes the income tax amendment Act, 2015 (Act No. 13, of 2015) subsection (4) as stipulated in (Government Gazette, 30 December, 2015). They are unregulated and conducted in unauthorized places, such as residential areas, near schools and churches or any open spaces in the CoW.

Although alcohol misuse is not a crime, it is one of the catalysts which influence people to commit crime; hence, it is listed in the category of crime. The common crimes reported in the two informal settlements are house breaking, illegal shebeens, illegal carwashes, assaults, robberies, theft, and land grabbing. The crime insecurity in the informal settlements poses fear among the residents. Although, there is a good cooperation between the City Police and the

residents, there are many cases which are not reported to the Police. In addition, the respondents revealed that some residents do not report crime on time, while some do not know the procedure to report emergency cases, especially at night.

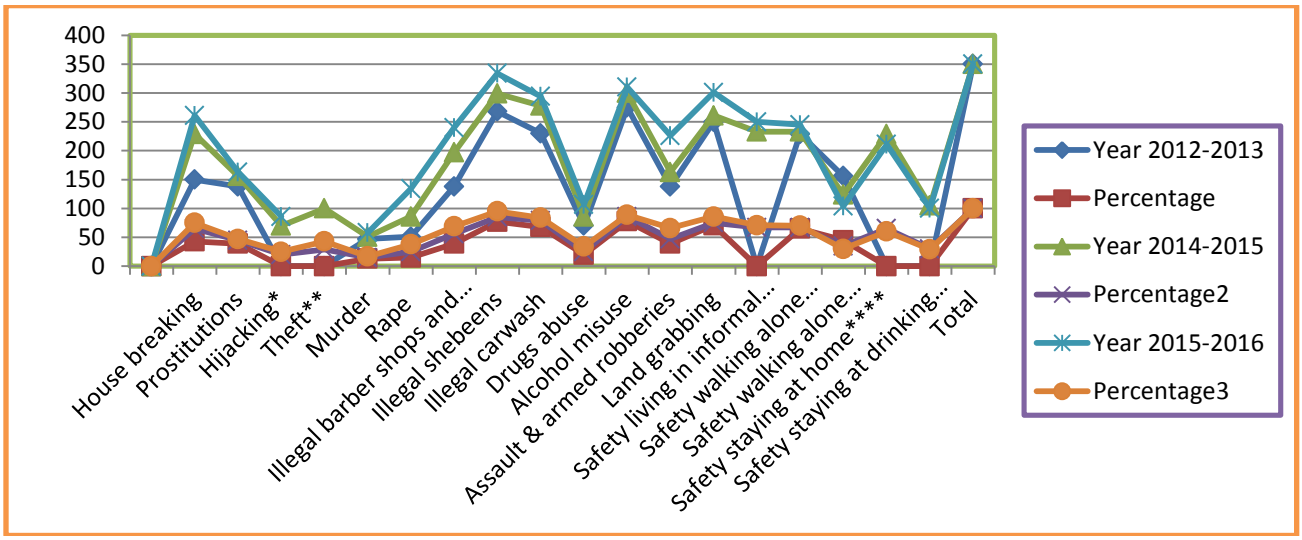



**Figure 4.2.25: The crime activities in Havana and Greenwell Matongo**

*Sources*: Erriky (2013); (report period, 2012-2016)
Note that: Hijacking,* Theft,** Safety living in the informal settlements,*** Safety staying at home, **** Safety staying at the drinking outlets***** were not covered during the survey in 2012-2013.

The crime activities are based on perceptions of the residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements, during the periods as indicated on Table 4.2.25. The report measures 0 percent as safety and 100 percent insecurity (Erriky, 2013).

The City of Windhoek (2015), indicated that the City Police employs a 'close corporation with a community approach, to win their minds and hearts'. This strategy intends to remove the fear of reporting crime to the city police, while empowering the residents on security awareness on a daily, weekly and monthly basis on how to combat crime. The City Police have a strategy to combat crime based on the types of crime and annual crime statistics such as, robberies,

burglaries, theft, rape, murder, land invasion and traffic offences. Their operation is facilitated by about 100 surveillance cameras, which are installed in busy public areas. Windhoek is divided into 19 zones and each zone is allocated to a City Police team and a vehicle, which is deployed 24 hours to respond to emergencies within 10 minutes. The City Police have implemented numerous strategies to combat crime, such as, the bicycle squad to facilitate their operations; they have established mutual corporations with the Namibian Police who provide training support. The public provides necessary information, which leads to the arrest of the suspects. Despite the numerous security challenges such as, inadequate resources, the lack of cooperation with some members of the community and a lack of investigative powers, the City Police have successfully minimized crime insecurity in the capital.

The City Police statistics, based on crime and traffic offences in the city, include, but are not limited to, drinking and driving, violent assault, robberies, burglaries, theft, murder, rape, house and vehicle break-ins. According to the information provided in Figure 4.2.25 by the City of Windhoek (2015), the total number of crime cases stood at 2357 in 2014, 2107 cases in 2015 and 2432 cases in 2016.

According to the City Police officials, many of the crimes could be attributed to high unemployment insecurity, poverty insecurity, a lack of socio-economic development and training; and as a result, crime offenders attempt to commit crime as a means to survive. The Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements are among the fastest growing informal settlements, coupled with the highest increases in criminal activities.

Poverty is one of the security challenges affecting the residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. The key informants indicated that, although many suspects

revealed that they committed crime due to poverty, some respondents argued that crime offenders are lazy and have not adequately prepared or planned for their future properly, hence, they commit crime under the pretext of poverty insecurity. Erriky (2013), cited Superintendent Helena Mootseng (2013) as saying that criminals are driven purely by greed; a complete disregard for the law is the cause of crime; others may do so as a means of living even though various other legal opportunities exist to make a living. The respondents profess that some criminals were employed before and were fired due to misconduct at their previous work places. In addition, the study revealed that most of the criminal offenders were illiterate due to various reasons such as, they dropped out of school; they are orphans, financial constraints, backwardness, indiscipline and disrespect of parents or guardians. The research concluded that there is a correlation between poverty and the high rate of crime in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements.

### 4.2.4 The security challenge on the environment

Human activities on the environment can endanger their livelihood. For instance, in the two informal settlements, it was noted that some houses were damaged by heavy rains due to a lack of drainage facilities, which prevented the flow of rain water. In addition, the urban population growth has created a security threat to the environment and ecosystem due to clearing of land for capital development such as, industrial and residential areas, as a strategy to combat crime. Observation shows that there are number of car washes along the road, which pose a security threat to the environment in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. It was also found out that the residents of the informal settlements relieve themselves in the bush as

indicated by various authors, such as Indongo, et al., (2013), Erriky (2013) and the City of Windhoek (2011).

### 4.2.5 Discussion of findings

The socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation in Namibia are characterised by the rapid population growth and economic development. This finding is supported by Indongo (2015), who argues that the urbanisation process in developed countries was the result of rapid industrialisation, whereas the urbanisation in Namibia, like most other developing nations, is a consequence of the 'push' of the rural areas and the 'pull' of the town. The development disparities between the rural areas and urban areas in Namibia 'push' rural migrants to the urban areas to improve their livelihood and seek for better opportunities. Todaro and Smith's (2012), rural-urban migration model theory is also supported by Storm's (1997) 'push' and 'pull' factors; Muñiz-Solari's (2006), chain migration and network development theory; Muñiz-Solari (2006), cited Lee's (1966) 'push'-'pull' theory as depicted on Figure 2.2, Figure 2.3 and Figure 2.4 in Chapter 2.

The rural-urban migration was motivated by four main components of push and pulls factors, namely: physical, economic, social and political (Indongo, 2015). The respondents revealed that the 'push' factors which forced them from the rural areas were climate change, like harsh weather conditions, such as extremely hot weather, drought and floods. In addition, the respondents indicated that during colonial times political unrest in northern Namibia also pushed people from the rural areas to the urban areas. The respondents pointed out that the 'pull' factors that attracted the rural migrants were employment opportunities, better education, bright lights,

and better living conditions. "'Push' factors refer to circumstances at home that repel; while 'pull' factor refers to those conditions found elsewhere (abroad) that attract migrants" (Miheretu, 2011, p.15).

### 4.3 Summary

From the data presented and analysed, the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation on the livelihood of the residents of the CoW is characterised by the rural-urban migration. It could also be concluded that the push and pull factors have contributed to the urbanisation trend. As Todaro and Smith (2012); Storm (1997) and Muñiz-Solari (2006) who cited Lee's (1966), comment that, migrants are repelled to the security threats from the point of origin and are attracted to better opportunities to the destination. The security challenge such as poverty and unemployment combined are likely to influence an individual to commit delinquent activities such as crime. The influx of rural migrants in the CoW has exacerbated the housing backlog. The general feeling of the key informants interviewed, indicated that lack of ablution facilities in the informal settlements posed the security threats to the environment and potential risk of communicable diseases. The general conclusions of these findings and recommendations for possible consideration will be presented in Chapter 5.

# CHAPTER 5

## 5. Conclusion and recommendations

## 6. Introduction

Chapter 4 provided the reader with the necessary data that was collected from the residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements and the officials, such as the Windhoek City Councils, City Police and the Namibian Police, and analysed. Chapter 5 will provide the reader with the general conclusions that were obtained from the data what was collected from the key informants and analysis was supported by relevant literature. This chapter will also provide some recommendations, for possible considerations, to the aforesaid officials on how to remedy the security challenges facing the CoW in order to improve the livelihood of the residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. There are references and annexure such as appendix A: questionnaire to the households; appendix B: consent letter; appendix C: interview questionnaire to the Namibian Police and City Police and appendix D: interview questionnaire to Windhoek City Councils.

## 5.1 General conclusions

The general conclusion is derived from the data analysed in Chapter 4, which was based on the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation in the livelihood of the residents of the CoW, especially the the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements.

The convergence and divergence of analysis largely unpacks the livelihood and living conditions of the inhabitants of the two informal settlements. The demographical data was based on various aspects such as age, gender, and marital status. To comprehend the livelihood and living

conditions of the communities of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements, survival strategies were analysed based on basic needs, such as, the types of houses, the ownership of houses, access to electricity, access to water supply, access to sanitation and the sources of income.

The first general conclusion is that the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation in Namibia is characterised by the rapid population growth and economic development in urban areas. This was supported by Indongo (2015), who argued that the urbanisation process in Namibia was prompted by the socio-economic development disparities between the rural areas and urban areas, which 'push' rural migrants to the urban areas to improve their livelihood and seek for better opportunities. The study showed that the rural-urban migration was motivated by four main components of 'push' and 'pulls' factors namely: physical, economic, social and political (Storm, 1997). The data analyses revealed that the rural migrants were forced to migrate to the CoW due to unemployment, harsh weather condition such as drought and flood. The 'pull' factors include but not limited to the socio-economic attraction factors, such as, better education opportunities, better health facilities and a good environment which is available in the CoW.

A conclusion can be drawn that the rural migrants moved to the CoW with the hope of securing better opportunities, however, this did always happen as expected. The demographic growth, due to the rural-urban migration, led to rapid urban growth which posed security threats, such as overcrowding, increased pressure on infrastructural facilities and the rapid deterioration of housing and living conditions (Indongo, 2015). The lack of ablution facilities in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements prompted the residents to relieve themselves in the

bush. This situation has posed a security threat to the environment and a potential risk of spreading communicable diseases.

The second general conclusion is that unemployment, environmental degradation and crime are security threats in the CoW. The study indicated that people without education qualifications, youth and elderly people, are mostly negatively affected by unemployment and poverty insecurity. The unemployed people committed crime as survival strategies. This finding was also supported by Nendongo (2007), who argued that 80 percent of the suspects of crime believe that unemployment can lead individuals to commit crime. Indongo et al. (2013), also contend that the rise in the crime rate, in the CoW, is associated with the need to earn wealth as the cost of living in the urban areas is quite high, compelling many people to live in poverty.

The third conclusion of the study is that the residents of the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements are living in the shacks made with materials such as corrugated iron sheets, old drums, car parts, planks and plastic. The housing type materials are thus significant to determine the livelihood of the residents of the two informal settlements and various security threats they are exposed to such as floods, fire, wind, and thieves.

The fourth conclusion of this study revealed that inadequate access to basic services in the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements, such as provision of water, electricity, sanitation, sewage and other municipal services is a security threat which requires prompt intervention by the central government and local authority. The rapid expansion of the informal settlements; with a high number of unemployed people thus unable to afford these services; and

the lack of capacity of the existing infrastructures, and illegal occupation of unserviced land (Indongo, 2013). The provision of urban services has not been distributed to the informal settlements, the hence, Windhoek City Councils are faced with tremendous challenges in providing these services.

### 5.2 Key gaps and open questions for future research

The development disparities and income gaps between rural and urban areas indicated are some of the causes of rural-urban migration. There is a need to conduct further research on the remittances between rural and urban areas to determine whether income gaps have contributed to the influx of rural migration to the CoW. Labour migration, especially from rural areas in low-income countries, has contributed to urbanisation growth (Todaro and Smith, 2012). In Namibia, before independence, labour migration was the source of rural-urban migration. This happened when the males from the northern part of Namibia were employed to work as contract workers in factories, mines and farms (Fjeldstad, 2005). Yet, after independence the rural-urban migration stream is still dominated by people from the northern regions. There is extensive literature explaining the security challenges of rural-urban migration to the destination but, some lingering questions remain open; such as whether the individual rural migrants posed potential security threats in their communities of origin and their families they left behind. Knowledge gaps are due to the lack of appropriate data to understand the security challenges facing rural areas when the energetic, young rural migrants leave to the city. Therefore, there is the need to have a better understanding about the potential brain drain or skill acquisition and remittances from the city, which would be used for the development of the rural areas. Keeping in mind that migration does not always mean socio-economic security threat; but the productive investments of (temporary

and permanent) in urban areas, therefore, remittances from urban areas should be studied to understand how this could develop the rural areas. The crucial question to ask is, what influence do the security challenges, posed by the influx of the rural-to-urban migration, have on the economy at the origin areas when a larger number of rural migrants move to the urban areas?

### 5.3 Recommendations

Based on the above, the following recommendations are suggested:

- ✓ The central government should address the security challenges of development disparities and inequitable distribution of resources, between rural and urban settings, by balancing socio-economic development between rural and urban areas, which is identified as one of the causes of rural-urban migration.
- ✓ The main thrust of rural-urban migration security challenges should be addressed by establishing employment opportunities to minimise crime and poverty.
- ✓ There should be a development of master plans of the public infrastructure such as, road networks, electricity supply, sewerages, and water reticulation systems and housing stock for the residents of Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements.
- ✓ The provision of ablution facilities should be improved to minimize the potential spread of infectious diseases posed by poor sanitation in the two informal settlements.
- ✓ Based on the thrust of the socio-economic security challenges posed by the continuous urbanisation trend in the two informal settlements, the central government and local authority should set up long-term security control strategies to address the needs and aspirations of the urban demographic growth and rural-urban migrants.

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**Appendix A: Letter from UNAM**

Dear Sir/Madam

I am Erriky Gerhard a MASSS candidate in the Faculty of Science, School of Military Science, University of Namibia, doing a MASSS research and my research topic is **An Analysis of the Socio-economic Security Challenges of Urbanisation on the Livelihood of the Residents of Havana and Greenwell Matongo Informal Settlements of Windhoek, Namibia.**

The information will only be used for the purpose of this research. Kindly accept my assurances of confidentially and anonymity for all the information provided.

Thank you for your time in answering the questions below.

You are kindly requested to take your valued precious time to complete the attached questionnaire designed for research project in fulfilment of my MASSS.

**UNDERTAKING**

Kindly be informed that all information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and anonymity. This questionnaire will not require you to provide your name.

**Appendix B: Consent letter**

**RESEARCH STUDY: AN ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC SECURITY CHALLENGES OF URBANISATION ON THE LIVELIHOOD OF THE RESIDENTS OF HAVANA AND GREENWELL MATONGO INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS OF WINDHOEK, NAMIBIA.**

I am a student of MASSS from the University of Namibia.; I am analysing the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation on the Livelihood of the Residents of Havana and Greenwell Matongo Informal Settlements of Windhoek, Namibia. The main objective of this study is to analyse the socio-economic security challenges of urbanisation in the livelihood of the residents of the City of Windhoek especially the Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements. The specific objectives of this research include:

- To assess the security challenges posed by urbanisation in unemployment, poverty, access to services and amenities, crime, on the environment,
- To establish the characteristics of migrants regarding their age, gender, marital status, educational levels and socio-economic status in the two areas of study caused by the influx of people from rural areas in the City of Windhoek.

Appendix B describes the procedure. The survey will require approximately 20-30 minutes and the data collection would occur over a two month period, commencing on the day I start.

If you are willing to participate in this study, could you please complete the details below?

I understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and discontinue my participation at any

time without prejudice. I also understand that all materials in this study are confidential. I

Agree that the research data gathered for this study may be published, provided that

Neither my Company nor I are identified.

Name of Participant: …….

Signed: ……

Date: …….

Researcher: Erriky G.

Signed: ……

Date: ……

**Appendix C: Questionnaire to households**

**Request to complete the questionnaire for study purposes.**

**INSTRUCTIONS**

- Please answer all questions (***remember that there is no right or wrong answer whatever answer you are providing it is important***).
- Complete the questionnaire by placing an tick in the appropriate box
- Please answer the questions as they apply to you personally, honestly, frankly and objectively as possible.
- You are kindly requested to return the questionnaire on/or before **30 November 2016**

**Biographic information**

1. What is your Gender? Please tick (√) the appropriate Box.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Male | |
| 2 | Female | |

2. What is your marital status? Please tick (√) only one option.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Married:<br>a. Common law | |
| | b. Traditional law | |
| | c. Cohabitate | |
| 2 | Single | |
| 3 | Divorced | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 4 | Widower/Widow | |
| 5 | Other (specify)…….. | |

3. What is your age category? Please tick (√) only one option.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 18 -25 | |
| 2 | 26-35 | |
| 3 | 36-45 | |
| 4 | 46-55 | |
| 5 | 60 and above | |

4. Indicate the highest level of education. Please tick (√) only one option.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | No schooling | |
| 2 | Lower primary | |
| 3 | Upper primary | |
| 4 | Grade 10 | |
| 5 | Grade12 | |
| 6 | Tertiary (College, Polytechnic, University) | |

4. What is the size of the household? Please tick (√) only one option.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 to 2 inhabitants | |
| 2 | 3 to 5 inhabitants | |
| 3 | 5 to 6 inhabitants | |
| 4 | 7 or more inhabitants | |

**Section 2: Socio-economic section to the heads of household**

6. Who is the breadwinner in the family?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Mother | |
| 2 | Father | |
| 3 | Other (specify) | |

7. Indicate your household monthly income. Please tick (√) only one option.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | No income | |
| 2 | No fixed income | |
| 3 | Below N$ 500 | |
| 4 | N$ 500 - N$ 1000 | |
| 5 | N$ 1001 - N$ 1000 | |
| 6 | N$ 2000 - N$ 3000 | |
| 7 | Above N$ 3000 | |

8. How big is your house? Please tick (√) only one option.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 room | |
| 2 | 2 rooms | |
| 3 | 3 rooms | |
| 4 | 4 rooms | |
| 5 | Above 5 rooms | |

9. What type of material did you use for your house?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Iron Sheets | |
| 2 | Bricks | |
| 3 | Wood planks | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 4 | Other | |

10. What is the ownership of this house?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Own house/ structure | |
| 2 | Tenant | |
| 3 | Other (specify) | |

11. How many years have you been living in this same house?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Less than a year | |
| 2 | 1 – 2 years | |
| 3 | 3 - 4 years | |
| 4 | Above 5 years | |

| **12. Do you have access to the following facilities in your communities?** | | Yes | N0 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | School | | |
| 2 | Health facilities | | |
| 3 | Shopping complex | | |
| 4 | Pipe water | | |
| 5 | Police station | | |
| 6 | Fire brigade | | |
| 7 | Tarred road | | |

| **13. What is your occupation?** | | **Mark with X** |
|---|---|---|
| | Informal sector worker | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | Formal sector worker | |
| | Gardener | |
| | Domestic worker | |
| | Job seeker | |
| | Skilled labour | |
| | Unskilled labour | |
| | Civil servant | |
| | Mine worker | |
| | Businessman/ woman (self-employed) Trader/ hawker/ vendor | |
| | Unemployed | |
| | Police/ Military | |
| | Security guard | |
| | Truck/Bus/Taxi driver | |
| | Pensioner | |
| | Scholar/ Student | |
| | Other (specify) | |
| **14. Where do you come from before you move to the city?** | | **Name of the region** |
| | 1 Urban area (Region…….……) | |
| | | |
| | 2 Rural area (Region…….....) | |
| | 3 Foreign country/ exile (Country…….) | |
| | | |
| **15. Do you regard the current place as your house?** | | **Mark with X** |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | 1. Yes | |
| | 2. NO | |
| | | |
| **16. Why did you migrate to the current residential area?** | | **Mark with X** |
| | 1. Employment opportunities | |
| | 2. Education/school opportunities | |
| | 3. Better housing | |
| | 4. Natural disaster (drought, floods, famine, others) | |
| | 5. Poverty | |
| | 6. Better living conditions | |
| | 7.Political unrest (war, persecution, refugee, others) | |
| | 8. Religious reasons | |
| | 9. Availability of municipal services and amenities | |
| | 10. Health facilities | |
| | 11. Attractions of the city: urban life/modern life | |
| | 12. Moved with family/sent to live with relatives | |
| | 13 Marriage | |
| | 14. Divorce | |
| | 15. Abandoned | |
| | 16. Retirement | |
| | 17. Retrenchment | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | 18. Eviction | |
| | 19. Orphanage | |
| | 20. Returned to former home | |
| | 21. Freedom/democracy/peace | |
| | 22. Widowed | |
| | 23. Other (specify) | |

Explain…….

**Section 3: Household section, sources of energy and exposure to fire**

17. What is your main source of power for cooking?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Fire-wood | |
| 2 | Gas | |
| 3 | Paraffin | |
| 4 | Electricity | |
| 5 | Others (specify) | |
| | | |

18. How many times have you experience fire outbreak in Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements?

…….

19. What is your general experience regarding the socio-economic security challenges in Havana and Greenwell Matongo informal settlements?

.....

**Appendix D: Interview questionnaire to the Namibian Police and City Police**

20. What types of crimes are commonly committed in Windhoek?

……

21. What types of crimes are commonly committed in the informal settlements?

……

22. What are the challenges do you encounter during the execution of your duty?

……

23. What are the statistics of various crimes reported to your office for the past four years?

……

24. Why do people committing those crimes?

……

25. Is there any correlation between crime and poverty?

……..

**Appendix E: Interview questionnaire to Windhoek City Council**

26. What are the causes and effects of urbanisation?

    .....

27. What are the securities challenges facing City of Windhoek due to the influx of rural migrants to the city?

    .....

28. What are the causes and effects of unemployment in the City of Windhoek?

    .....

29. What are the security challenges posed by socio-economic disparities?

    .....

30. What are the causes of squatters or informal settlements in City of Windhoek?

    .....

31. What is the genesis of informal settlements phenomenon and security challenges perspective?

    .....

32. What is the socio-economic status of the residents of Greenwell Matongo and Havana informal settlements?

    .....

33. Do urbanisation, poverty and unemployment posing security threats to the residents of the City of Windhoek?

    .....

34. What are the security threats posed by urbanisation growth into the environment?

    .....

For enquiry please contact me at: email errikyg@yahoo.com

**Thank you very much for spending your precious time to respond to the research questionnaire.**