

AN EXPLORATIVE STUDY OF THE ROLE OF CHILD SOCIAL GRANTS IN THE
LIVELIHOODS OF RECIPIENTS: A CASE STUDY OF ONDOBE
CONSTITUENCY, OHANGWENA REGION, NAMIBIA

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF NAMIBIA

BY

AUNE T. VALOMBOLA

200948962

APRIL 2022

SUPERVISOR: DR K.E. OMOMOWO

ABSTRACT

The main aim of this study was to explore the role that the Child Social Grant (CSG) plays in the livelihoods of recipients, using a case study of Ondobe Constituency, Ohangwena Region, Namibia. The Namibian government has taken concrete steps to address child poverty and social exclusion through child social grants. The Child Social Grant has proven to be successful as it has been able, according to a report by the Ministry of Gender Equality Child Welfare (MGE CW) and the National Planning Commission (NPC) (2013), to play a vital role in reducing the burden of poverty by helping caregivers to provide for the children's basic needs, and supporting household economic activities. The study sought to understand the role of the grant from the lived experiences of the recipients and to make some recommendations on the appropriate policy instruments and restructuring on how to improve the well-being of children in Namibia. A qualitative research method was used in the study. Face to face individual in-depth interviews were used for data collection. Interviews took place at participants' households where they felt comfortable in their natural settings. The thematic data analysis method was used for data analysis.

The findings of the study showed that, despite the small value of the grant, it was effective as it raised the livelihoods of recipients, as they explained that the grant made a difference in their lives and that they were able to access the basic needs for their children. The study further revealed that the majority of the participants experienced hardships in terms of employment and financial support. Despite good policies that have been put in place and the government's efforts at reducing poverty, the backlog of service delivery continues to plague the government's ability to benefit the most vulnerable people in the society.

Because, as successful as it may be, the Child Social Grant, as a social welfare strategy, seems inadequate. People are still living in poverty due to the lack of job opportunities. It is therefore, important for the country to focus resources on the less privileged and equipping them with skills for them to become self-sufficient and productive citizens.

Table of Contents

ABSTRACT	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	viii
DEDICATION	ix
DECLARATION	x
CHAPTER ONE	1
GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY	1
1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY	1
1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	4
1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	5
1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	5
1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	6
1.6 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	6
1.8 ORGANISATION OF CHAPTERS	8
CHAPTER TWO	9
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	9
2.1 INTRODUCTION	9
2.2 SOCIAL PROTECTION	9
2.3 CASH TRANSFERS	14
2.4 SOCIAL PROTECTION IN NAMIBIA	16
2.4.1 History of social protection in Namibia.....	17
2.4.2. Legal and institutional framework for social protection in Namibia	20
2.5 CHILD SOCIAL GRANTS IN NAMIBIA	22
2.5.1 Types of CSG.....	24
2.5.2 The role of the child social grant.....	28

2.5.3 The utilisation of the child social grant.....	30
2.5.4 Cash transfer in Namibia.....	32
2.5 LIVELIHOOD	34
2.6 LIVELIHOOD AND CASH TRANSFER	36
2.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	38
2.8 CONCLUSION.....	41
CHAPTER THREE	42
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	42
3.1 INTRODUCTION.....	42
3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM	42
3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH.....	43
3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN	44
3.4.1 Case study design.....	45
3.5 STUDY SITE	46
3.6 POPULATION	47
3.7 SAMPLE	47
3.8 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT	48
3.9 DATA COLLECTION METHOD	49
3.10 PROCEDURE	50
3.11 DATA ANALYSIS	51
3.12 RESEARCH ETHICS	52
CHAPTER FOUR.....	55
PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	55
4.1 INTRODUCTION.....	55
4.2 DEMOGRAPHICS OF PARTICIPANTS.....	55

4.3 THE ROLE OF THE CHILD SOCIAL GRANT ON THE LIVELIHOOD OF RECIPIENTS	56
4.3.1 Education.....	56
4.3.2 Nutrition.....	59
4.4 SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF RECIPIENTS.....	61
4.4.1 Employment and savings	61
4.4.2 Dependency.....	63
4.4.3 The impact of the CSG on the livelihood of recipients.....	65
4.5 THE IMPLICATION OF THE CSG ON THE WELFARE OF CHILDREN ..	68
4.5.1 Perception of CSG by recipients	68
4.5.2 Grant misuse	69
4.5.3 Age of majority	72
4.5.4 Amount of CSG	74
4.6 CONCLUSION.....	76
CHAPTER FIVE.....	78
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	78
5.1 SUMMARY	78
5.2 CONCLUSION.....	81
5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS.....	82
REFERENCES	83
APPENDICES	88
APPENDIX A - Ethical clearance certificate	88
APPENDIX B - Research permission letter.....	89
APPENDIX C – Research permission Council Letter	90
APPENDIX D - Informed consent document.....	91

APPENDIX E - Data collection Instruments (interview guide)95

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

CCPA	Child Care and Protection Act (Act, No: 3 of 2015)
CSG	Child Social Grant
FCG	Foster Care Grant
GIPF	Government Pension Fund
ILO	International Labour Organisation
MG	Maintenance Grant
MGECW	Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare
MGEPSW	Ministry of Gender Equality Poverty Eradication and Social Welfare
NPC	National Planning Commission
ORC	Ohangwena Regional Council
SMG	Special Maintenance grant
SSC	Social Security Commission
UNAM	University of Namibia
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UREC	University of Namibia Research and Ethics Committee
VG	Vulnerability Grant

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank the Almighty for His divine mercy upon my life. He has been a great comforter when I felt like giving up. I would like to take this opportunity to express my profound gratitude and deep regards to my research supervisor, Dr K.E. Omomowo, for his guidance, encouragement and useful critiques for this research work. I am grateful Dr. Many thanks to my family, friends and colleagues for your encouraging words, blessings and understanding that the remittances to send back home have been reduced to fund for my studies. To the Pioneers, my fellow MADS students, thank you so much for all your valuable contributions and selfless sharing of ideas.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my family and friends.

DECLARATION

I, **Aune Tuyakula Valombola**, hereby declare that this study is a true reflection of my own research, and that this work, or part thereof has not been submitted for a degree in any other institution of higher education. No part of this thesis may be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form, or by means (e.g. electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise) without the prior permission of the author, or The University of Namibia in that behalf.

I, **Aune Tuyakula Valombola**, grant The University of Namibia the right to reproduce this thesis in whole or in part, in any manner or format, which The University of Namibia may deem fit.

Aune T. Valombola



Date

25 February 2022

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Social protection is concerned with protective interventions to alleviate economic risks associated with vulnerability. Social protection encompasses a broad set of policies and programmes such as social assistance, social security/social insurance, livelihood and empowerment, and protection. Social assistance comes in different forms, including non-contributory; in cash or in-kind transfers, which are designed to supplement income support to low income households. Livelihood and empowerment programmes focus on the improvement of opportunities and capacity for stable income generating. Cash transfers, as one of the social protections delivering mechanisms, are the main non-contributory programmes that are providing financial support to qualified beneficiaries as a way to reduce the risk of extreme poverty. Since cash transfers are designed to supplement household income and increase school attendance, food security and asset ownership (Cha & Ramesh, 2017), the present study focused on cash transfers and child social grant as one of the successful instruments for delivering cash transfers. Cash transfers are believed to be successful instruments in reducing vulnerability and risks, and allowing improvements in the standard of living for individuals receiving the child social grant.

In Namibia, social protection is used as a mechanism to support the vulnerable members of the society and reduce poverty. Although social protection programmes alone cannot eliminate poverty, there are policies that are aimed at reducing poverty

to 10% by 2022 as articulated in the Fifth National Development Plan (Republic of Namibia, 2018). Social protection plays an important role in creating inclusive development pathways because in the absence of social assistance, people are subjected to increased risks of sinking into poverty and remaining trapped for generations (Dempers, 2016). Cash transfers have simultaneously emerged as a preferred mechanism for delivering social protection to poor and vulnerable people. Furthermore, social assistance in Namibia includes a number of schemes such as the child social grant, disability and old age grants, veterans' allowance as well as a range of support programmes for veterans. These also consist of food programmes and funeral benefits as well as housing (Dempers, 2016). These programmes are implemented by several ministries and agencies, with different legal frameworks.

The Namibian system of cash transfers has its roots in South Africa. So, for instance, the old-age pension in Namibia is not means tested (unlike in South Africa), but in principle the child grants are. The Child Social Grant in Namibia has elements of conditionality by requiring school attendance records as documentation that the child is alive (Levine et al., 2011). Cash transfers appear to offer the best strategies for reaching families who are poor and capacity constrained. However, there is still a long way to go to redress the social imbalances caused by systems which were meant to favour one section of the population rather than the entire population (Banerji & Gentilini, 2013). The current study explored the role of the child social grant in the livelihood of recipients. Therefore, the study focused on the CSG, which is one of the instruments for delivering cash transfers, how it impacted the livelihood of recipients, which type of CSG they receive, and whether the grant was used for its intended

purposes and whether it benefited the intended beneficiaries, the children. Each of these areas is important for livelihood.

The child social grant which is received by the children's caregivers, provides a means to afford basic needs for households and it reduces the burden from caregivers and children to use that money for other expenses to improve their livelihood (MGECW, 2010). Moreover, the child social grants play a vital role in reducing the burden of poverty by helping caregivers to provide for the children's basic needs and supporting household economic activities and other activities. This grant is received by caregivers on behalf of children who are Namibians or permanent residents. However, as effective as it may seem, there is still a lot which needs to be done to see to it that the most vulnerable people are catered for by the current social protection. The inadequate monitoring, evaluation and reporting tools, and processes monitoring systems as well as fragmentation of social protection programmes and data for evidence-based planning are still strategic issues to effectively implement social protection. The study therefore was conducted to contribute to the body of literature.

According to Conway et al. (2001), developing countries have fragmented and poorly coordinated structures, with a clear need for improving the overall coordination of social policy and integrated social protection to deal with the realities of deprivation and vulnerability. Although there are good policies in Namibia aimed at reducing poverty rate by 10% by 2022, Namibians still live in poverty, destitution and squatter. Most of these people who are found in rural areas where they engage in informal economic activities and agriculture (Dicks et al., 2012). Furthermore, many of these

people rely on traditional networks for social protection but the weakening of extended family support in the face of harsh conditions or economic realities means that they are left to struggle for survival. Parents in the villages depend on the support from their children who are employed elsewhere in the country. Additionally, urbanisation has affected kinship ties and the ability for family members to provide support. More often, family members are too poor themselves or they have other competing demands for their resources (Osei-Boateng & Otto, 2012).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Social protection is viewed as a powerful tool to reduce poverty around the world. Granlund and Hochfeld (2019), found that cash transfers have largely positive social transformative effects on individuals, households and communities, however, there are still gaps in the literature on beneficiaries' perspectives on the livelihood impacts of cash transfers. A study carried out by the MGECW (2010) on the effectiveness of the child social grant has raised the need for assessing the costs of caring for a child. An increase in reports of child abuse, neglect, abuse of social grants and violence among relatives has been reported countrywide (Mhungu, 2016; Tjihenuna, 2015). Furthermore, there is insufficient knowledge and data on children's access to grants as well as prospective grant recipients' lack of adequate access to information on the eligibility criteria and the grant application process (MGECW & NPC, 2013). This shows that potential beneficiaries have little information on the type of child social grants that can benefit their children.

Despite the government's commitment to investing in social sectors and rolling out child related services aimed at improving outcomes of high levels of child poverty, the

social protection system is not reaching the most vulnerable groups of children (MGECW & NPC, 2013). There is a need for Namibia to focus on programmes that are well targeted and provide the most needed benefits while reducing ineffective programmes by critically improving the monitoring and evaluation systems. Such information is crucial in order to improve programme designs and coordination to inform policy makers and to attract financial resources and donor support especially when it comes to the child social grant (Dempers, 2016). A study of this nature, on the role of child social grant in the livelihoods of recipients, is an important contribution to the literature.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.3.1 To compare the different types of child social grants in Namibia in order to determine their implications for the welfare of children;

1.3.2 To critically analyse the implications of CSG on the socio-economic conditions of recipients; and

1.3.3 Examine the role of child social grants on the livelihood of recipients

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study explored the implications of child social grants on the livelihood of recipients. The findings of the study might inform the restructuring of policy on how to improve the well-being of children in Namibia as well as inform the development of appropriate policy instruments for delivering social welfare services that may positively impact the livelihood of recipients and beneficiaries.

1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The scope of the study was affected due to time constraints as there was limited time to collect data as well as limited funds. The researcher is a full-time employee and she was always on standby; thus, time was limited. The study was not sponsored and if funds were available, the study would have covered a large area with an increased number in participants in the constituency or from other constituencies. The researcher also works for the ministry in charge of child social grants, hence the limitation of being an insider and objectivity. However, participants in Ondobe constituency are unknown to the researcher and the researcher has not worked in the constituency before.

1.6 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was limited to caregivers receiving child social grants on behalf of their children, the beneficiaries. Due to the limitations of the scope of the study to one constituency, the findings can only be cautiously extrapolated to other areas of the country. The reason being that the changes implemented and policy formulation as a result of the present study would benefit all CSG recipient's country wide. The researcher was aware (reflexive) of her position as an employee of the ministry, and maintained optimum objectivity in conducting the research. The researcher conducted the study in a constituency where she was unknown by participants which is different from other constituencies she has worked in and their responses were not biased because the researcher was unknown to them and the researcher went to the field as a student and not as an employee.

1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

- **Social protection**

Social protection refers to the set of policies and programmes aimed at preventing or protecting all people against poverty, vulnerability, and social exclusion throughout their lifecycles, with a particular emphasis towards vulnerable groups (Institute of Development Studies, 2017).

- **Cash transfers**

Cash transfers are direct cash payments that help poor and vulnerable households to raise and smoothen incomes. The term encompasses a range of instruments (e.g. social pension, child social grants or public work programmes) and a spectrum of design, implementation and financing options (Department for International Development, 2011). The primary purpose of cash transfers, with special focus to the CSG, is to reduce poverty and vulnerability in the livelihood of recipients and this is what the present study sought to find out.

- **Livelihood**

A person's livelihood refers to their means of securing the basic necessities such as food, water, shelter and clothing. It is through livelihoods that a person's life is supported and this can be through a formal or informal activity or income generating activity. Chambers and Conway (1991) are of the view that a livelihood comprises of people, their capabilities and their means of living, including food, income and assets. Livelihood indicates the capabilities of CSG recipients to support themselves through

various activities. Having three meals a day, having a source of income that is constant and also owning assets (a house) are some of the livelihood indicators which were used for this study.

1.8 ORGANISATION OF CHAPTERS

This mini thesis contains five (5) chapters. Chapter one gives the introductory part of the research which includes the background information, statement of the research problem, research objectives and the significance of the study as well as definition of key concepts. The second chapter discusses the relevant empirical scholarly literature upon which this study is based. The third chapter discuss the method used in this study; it contains the type of research design used for this study, the study site, the data collection instrument and the methods that were used. The fourth chapter focuses on the study site from which data were collected, data analysis and how the analysis procedure was done. The fifth and last chapter draws the summary of the study; the conclusion and recommendations based on the study findings are presented.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature on Child Social Grant (CSG) in Namibia and begins by conceptualising social protection and thereafter it discusses the Namibian social protection system. The chapter also presents the historical background of the CSG as one of the social assistance and cash transfer programmes aimed at alleviating poverty. How the grant serves as a strategy for poverty alleviation as well as the challenges being experienced by caregivers and the role that the CSG plays on their livelihood are covered in this chapter. Finally, the chapter discusses the concept of livelihood and the theoretical framework.

2.2 SOCIAL PROTECTION

Social protection is a broad concept, which is often used interchangeably together with the concept of social security. Clear definitions are crucial in order to facilitate social and political dialogue. As such, the term requires a clear definition and relies on the implicit understanding of the issues (Kumitz, 2013). According to Barrientos (2010), the International Labour Organisation (ILO) understands social protection as arising from rights. It is defined as the “entitlement to benefits that society provides to individuals and households through public and collective measures - to protect against low or declining living standards arising out of a number of basic risks and needs” (Bertranou et al., 2006, as cited in Barrientos, 2010, p. 8). It is universally acknowledged that social protection is a basic human right as “everyone has the right

to a standard of living adequate for the health and wellbeing of himself and of his family” (Barrientos, 2010, p. 9). Furthermore, the United Nations also defines social protection as “a set of public and private policies and programs undertaken by societies in response to various contingencies to offset the absence or substantial reduction of income from work; to provide assistance to families with children as well as provide people with basic health care and housing” (United Nations, 2000, p. 4). It is supported by shared “fundamental values concerning acceptable levels and security of access to income, livelihood, employment, health and education services, nutrition and shelter” (Barrientos, 2010, p. 9). This approach extends the role of social protection to securing basic needs as a precondition for human and economic development (Barrientos, 2010, p.9).

Additionally, Hartman (2018), and Chiripanhura and Niño-Zarazúa (2013), define social protection as a set of policies and programmes which are designed to eradicate poverty, vulnerability and inequality. Similarly, social protection is the set of all initiatives, both formal and informal, that provide social assistance to extremely poor individuals and households; social services to groups which need special care or would otherwise be denied access to basic services; social insurance to protect people against the risks and consequences of livelihood shocks; and social equity to protect people against social risks such as discrimination or abuse (Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2004).

Social protection is a broad concept which is defined differently by different authors. It is defined from different perspectives such as rights and entitlement, a set of policies and programmes aimed at eradicating poverty, inequality and vulnerability. However,

Osei-Boateng and Otto (2012, p. 21) define social protection as a set of benefits provided by the state, the market or a combination of both individuals and households to mitigate possible hardships resulting from reduction or loss of income. More so, social protection is primarily concerned with the prevention of poverty among different population groups that experience a reduction or loss of income in their life-cycle and protecting individuals from risks.

According to Conway et al. (2001), in the 1990s, social protection underwent an important transformation especially in the context of developing countries. Against a background of economic crises, structural adjustment and globalisation, social protection in developing countries has increasingly come to describe a policy framework for addressing poverty and vulnerability (Barrientos, 2010). This can be defined as “public actions taken in response to levels of vulnerability, risk, and deprivation which are deemed socially unacceptable within a given polity or society” (Conway et al., 2001).

The emerging social protection paradigm in developing countries is also distinguished by a focus on risk and vulnerability. This is based on the understanding that a primary cause of persistent poverty is to be found in the constraints faced by the poor in taking advantage of economic opportunity, which can be explained, to a great extent, by their vulnerability to the impact of economic, social and natural hazards (Barrientos, 2010). Barrientos further indicates that social protection has a strong focus on poverty reduction and on providing support to the poorest. In developed countries, the emphasis of social protection is on income maintenance and on protecting the living

standards for all. Similarly, the main responsibility of every government is to ensure the adequate social protection for its citizens. Social protection takes various forms but generally speaking, it refers to that support which is provided in the form of income or benefits to the poor, the vulnerable and socially excluded in societies, with the aim of enhancing their capacity to protect themselves against social and economic risks such as loss of income, illness, death, etc. (Dicks et al. 2012).

As one of the policy frameworks addressing poverty and vulnerability in developing countries, social protection is a key component of development policy (Barrientos, 2010). Social protection as a policy framework is unlikely to be effective if it is insufficiently grounded in knowledge about the factors and processes that produce and reproduce poverty and vulnerability, and the factors and processes that facilitate or hinder social transformation. However, beyond its role as a policy framework addressing poverty and vulnerability, social protection embodies and extends alternative approaches to economic and social development in the short and the long term by ensuring that people enjoy income security, have effective access to health care and other social services, and are empowered to take advantage of economic opportunities. Such policies play a key role in boosting domestic demand, supporting the structural transformation of national economies, promoting decent work, and fostering inclusive and sustainable growth (Dempers, 2016). Also, social protection policy addresses not only programmes aimed at reducing the impact of shocks and coping with their aftermath, but also interventions that are designed to prevent shocks and destitution in the first place (Adato et al., 2020).

According to Barrientos (2010), social protection is associated with a range of public institutions, norms and programmes aimed at protecting workers and their households from contingencies threatening basic living standards. Broadly, these can be grouped under three main headings: *social insurance, social assistance and labour market regulation*. Social insurance consists of programmes providing protection against life-course contingencies such as maternity and old age, or work-related contingencies such as unemployment or sickness. Social assistance provides support for those in poverty. Normally, social insurance is financed from contributions by workers and their employers, whereas social assistance is tax-financed. Finally, labour and employment standards ensure basic standards at work, and extend rights to the organisation and voice (Barrientos, 2010).

In Africa, the majority of countries on the continent, with approximately 2 billion people, live in poverty. Although some countries or public officials feel that there are not enough resources to provide social protection, recent studies have shown that governments can provide social protection for the most vulnerable in society, mainly children and the elderly, if they get their priorities right. In Botswana, despite it being a middle-income country, the coverage of social protection system is reactive, indirect, unsystematic, fragmented and hidden in the expenditure of the state (Osei-Boateng & Otto 2012). By enhancing individual incomes, as well as access to and use of important services, social protection instruments, such as cash transfers, can tackle social exclusion outcomes. There is significant evidence that both unconditional and conditional cash transfers help households to spend more on education and health care (Barca et al., 2016).

2.3 CASH TRANSFERS

Social protection has risen rapidly to the top of the policy agenda for many donors, governments and NGOs in southern Africa, where cash transfers have simultaneously emerged as a preferred mechanism for delivering social protection to poor and vulnerable people (Devereux, 2006). Cash transfers are a direct cash payment to help poor households. It encompasses a range of instruments such as social pension, CSG and other financing options. Cash transfers are found to be an appropriate and effective means of mitigating some vulnerability and its purpose is basically to reduce poverty.

Social protection continues to gain momentum among multilateral agencies and cash transfers are enjoying particular attention as a delivery mechanism that can achieve multiple objectives for social protection (Devereux, 2006). However, the potential effectiveness of cash transfer programmes in Africa is constrained by several challenges such as the number of poor people that need to be reached; the shortage of skills in management, a small tax base and other characteristics. Community involvement in collecting information can help in this regard (Adato et al., 2020).

A cash transfer programme can thus assist vulnerable families by securing basic subsistence where family illness or death reduces income; keeping children from leaving school because of the inability to pay fees or labour needed at home; preventing the sale of animals to pay for consumption; enabling investment in small livestock for food and income generation; and increasing women's status and child nutrition through giving cash benefits directly to women (Barrientos, 2010). Available evidence highlights a clear link between cash transfer receipt and increased school

attendance, although there is less evidence for learning outcomes (National Planning Commission, 2018). According to Kakwani et al. (2005), Brazil was the first country to start conditional cash transfer programmes in 1995. Although Bangladesh had introduced the food for education programme in 1993, they were not cash transfers but in-kind transfers.

In Brazil, cash transfers have been shown to have impacts on a range of outcomes as school attendance is considerably accompanied by a reduction in child labour (Kakwani et al., 2005). Whereas in South Africa, evidence suggests that cash transfers targeting the elderly can improve children's nutritional status, especially for girls, particularly if transfers are received by female pensioners. Cash transfers appear to offer the best strategy for reaching families who are the poorest, most capacity constrained and at-risk (Adato et al., 2020). Cash transfer programmes have also been praised for their ability to focus on the poor, and for making it easier to integrate different types of services such as education, health and nutrition.

According to Babajanian and Hagen-Zanker (2012), cash transfers can strengthen the resilience of vulnerable individuals and help them to develop better coping strategies. For instance, cash transfers prevent individuals from entering into toxic or exploitive relationships, dependency or resorting to negative coping strategies such as child labour, distress migration or the selling of assets. In some cases, social protection can improve livelihood outcomes without necessarily addressing these drivers. Again, income support through cash transfers can improve people's purchasing power capacity and help access services and opportunities, but may not necessarily tackle the

root causes of income deprivation, which may be conditioned by structural factors such as lack of secure land ownership (Babajanian & Hagen-Zanker, 2012). Cash transfers given to children are pooled within families and distributed to each member so that every member of the family enjoys the same level of welfare. It is further believed that all transfers received by families are spent on consumption goods (Kakwani et al., 2005). Cash transfer programmes have been shown to have many benefits, including reducing poverty, increasing school enrolment, and improving nutrition and it was for these reasons that cash transfer as a social protection delivery mechanism was the focal point for the present study.

2.4 SOCIAL PROTECTION IN NAMIBIA

Namibia's economy can be described as relatively small, fairly free market and closely linked to South Africa; thus heavily dependent on the economy of its former coloniser. The country also relies on revenues from the extraction and exportation of its natural resources which include diamonds, uranium, copper, zinc and gold which accounts for approximately 25 per cent of its gross domestic product (Kojwang & Shindondola-Mote, 2012).

Namibia, being one among the few countries in Africa that have successfully implemented a wide variety of social protection programmes that provide social and economic support to its vulnerable population, the government has placed social protection at the centre of the policy response to these challenges. Its population was estimated to be 2 280 716 people living in 544 655 households. The majority of the population (52.1 percent) lives in rural areas while 47.9 percent lives in urban areas as

of 2016. The most populated regions are Khomas, accounting for 17.5 percent of the population, followed by Omusati and Ohangwena regions with a share of 11.1 and 10.9 percent respectively (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2016).

2.4.1 History of social protection in Namibia

Namibia attained its political independence in March 1990, from South African colonial rule. The colonial legacies are still visible and these can be witnessed through inequalities based on gender, class and race (Kojwang & Shindondola-Mote, 2012).

The first and commonly known social protection scheme introduced to Namibia by South Africa colonial administration in 1949 was the old age pension. But until 1973, black Namibians did not benefit from this scheme. Throughout the apartheid period, Namibians' social security system contributed to serve the interest of white Namibians. In 1965, the pension ordinance extended the eligibility of the old age pension to the mixed race (coloured). This change was effected after an extensive debate in parliament as to whether indigenous Namibians should also receive social pensions. An agreement was later reached that all Namibians pensioners should receive the old age grant irrespective of race, gender or ethnic background. The only difference was in the amount received, white Namibians received the highest amount and black Namibians the lowest per month (Dicks et al., 2012).

After independence, the government committed itself to specific goals in the area of social policy, which included the fight against poverty in order to achieve an acceptable standard of living for all citizens (Kojwang & Shindondola-Mote, 2012).

At the Livingstone Conference held in March 2006, in which senior delegates of the Namibian government participated, commitments to promote social protection as an urgent response to the increasing vulnerabilities of people to chronic and new crises were made. The protocol recognises that recognising the social protection agenda is the promotion of an approach that links employment policies and poverty alleviation. The conference also discussed measures for protecting the poorest in Africa (Taylor, 2009). Furthermore, social protection can no longer be considered a benefit which the government ought to give to its citizens but rather a fundamental human right for all (Devereux, 2009).

In addressing child vulnerability, Namibia is shifting the focus of its discourse from orphans to a broader group of children including those living in poverty. However, despite the government's commitment to investing and rolling out child related services aimed at improving children's welfare, high levels of child poverty still persist and the social protection system is not reaching the most vulnerable groups of children (MGECW & NPC, 2013). Historically, people had ways of shielding their poorest from the worst of crises through the development of intricate social networks and relationships which broadly revolve around community social capital" (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013). Furthermore, these informal social safety nets consist of help from the extended family (e.g. with childcare from grandparents), taking care of orphaned children of relatives, sharing food and other productive assets with neighbours, gifts and contributions to social functions like marriage ceremonies, weddings and funerals, and soft loans to neighbours and relatives. There are also cash

transfers from household members in urban areas to members in rural areas, and food transfers in reverse (MGECW & NPC, 2013).

Although redistribution alone cannot eliminate poverty, there is a strong case for scaling up social protection (Schade et al., 2019). One of the cornerstones of social protection is to reduce poverty, yet, this is far from being realised. The social pension and disability grants have been observed to play the poverty reducing role but the programmes are poorly targeted and they tend to be more accessible to better-off houses (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013). There is therefore need for stricter targeting and monitoring to ensure that those in need get access to the programmes aimed at assisting the needy.

There is also a need for expanding the social protection system in the country, which has already achieved important reductions in poverty and inequality since independence (National Planning Commission, 2017). However, Namibia is in the process of developing a social protection policy. Such a policy needs to be accompanied by a financing strategy that reflects the fiscal constraints. Such a strategy should incorporate a different scenario for key macroeconomic variables and social protection spending to prepare the country for a better future (Schade et al., 2019). There are some poor vulnerable and marginalised Namibians who are not fully covered by the current social protection system as vulnerable children, and when they turn the age of 18, they fall out of the social protection cover unless they are disabled (Hartman, 2018).

2.4.2. Legal and institutional framework for social protection in Namibia

According to Chiripanhura and Niño-Zarazúa (2013), Namibia has a variety of legislation that provides for social protection measures. It is therefore important that social protection programmes must be designed to address particular problems in particular contexts.

a) The constitution

Article 95 of the Namibian constitution urges the state to actively promote and maintain the welfare of the people by ensuring that “every Namibian has the right to a fair and reasonable access to public services in accordance with the law”. The constitution further calls for the “enactment of legislation to ensure that the unemployed, the incapacitated, the indigent and disadvantaged are accorded such social benefits and amenities as determined by Parliament to the just and affordable with due regard to the resources of the state” (Republic of Namibia, 2007).

b) National Pension Act (Act No. 10 of 1992)

To provide for national pensions to be paid to the aged, blind and disabled persons; and to provide for matters incidental thereto, this basic state grant is universal to all citizens or permanent residents who are 60 years and above (National Pension Act 1992, 1995).

c) Social Security Act (Act No. 34 of 1994)

The Act provides for the establishment, constitution and powers, duties and functions of the Social Security Commission; to provide for the payment of maternity leave

benefits, sick leave benefits and death benefits to employees and to establish for that purpose the Maternity Leave, Sick Leave and Death Benefit Fund; to provide for the payment of medical benefits to employees and to establish for that purpose the National Medical Benefit Fund; to provide for the payment of pension benefits to retired employees and to establish for that purpose the National Pension Fund; to provide for the funding of training schemes for the disadvantaged, unemployed persons and to establish for that purpose the Development Fund and to provide for incidental matters (Social Security Act 1994, 1995).

d) Child Status Act (Act No. 6 of 2006)

This Act makes provisions for children born outside marriage to be treated equally regardless of whether they are born inside marriage or outside marriage; to provide for matters relating to custody, access, guardianship and inheritance in relation to children born outside marriage; to provide for matters which are in the best interest of all children; and to provide for matters connected thereto (Child Status Act 2006, 2008).

e) Veterans Act (Act No. 2 of 2008)

This Act defines the responsibilities of the Minister in relation to veterans affairs; to provide for the establishment of a Veterans Fund for the provision of assistance to veterans and dependants of veterans; to provide for the registration of veterans and dependants of living or deceased veterans; to provide for the establishment of projects for the benefit of and assistance to veterans and dependants of veterans; to provide for the integration of pension benefits of veterans; to provide for the constitution and functions of the Veterans Board and Veterans Appeal Board; and to provide for

matters incidental to or connected with the foregoing (Veteran Act, 2008). According to Chiripanhura and Niño-Zarazúa (2013), war veterans who participated in the liberation struggle also receive a grant and other beneficiaries such as medical assistance, counselling, land resettlement, funeral assistance, educational grants for their dependents as well as a 3 three-bedroom house with subsidised cost of water and electricity under the Veteran Subventions Act of 1999.

f) Maintenance Act (Act No. 9 of 2003)

The act provides for the payment of maintenance for the holding of maintenance enquiries and the enforcement of maintenance orders; to repeal the Maintenance Act, 1963; and to deal with incidental matters. The basic principle for child maintenance has been that both parents should contribute to the maintenance of their children in accordance with their means and this is enforced by the Ministry of Justice (Maintenance Act, 2003).

2.5 CHILD SOCIAL GRANTS IN NAMIBIA

The rights of all children are recognised internationally and the Namibian government is obliged to ensure that all children including orphans access education and have a better livelihood (Taukeni & Matshidisho, 2013). Namibia has made great progress in expanding the child social grants system for orphans and vulnerable children. Nevertheless, there are still many poor and vulnerable children who are not currently eligible for child social grants (MGECW & NPC, 2013).

In 2013, The MGECW in partnership with UNICEF commissioned a study to investigate the effectiveness of the existing social protection system in reducing child poverty in Namibia. The overall recommendation from the study was to introduce a universal child social grant for all children including those whose parents are alive but do not have sufficient income to provide for the children (UNICEF, 2016). A universal child grant was to ensure that all children are provided with equal protection against poverty and vulnerability (including those poor children whose biological parents are alive but do not have sufficient income). A universal child grant system can significantly contribute to closing inequality gaps. Scaling up the child grant would have positive developmental impacts in achieving better nutritional, educational and health outcomes. This grant can provide an investment in people and address multiple dimensions of poverty and reduce income inequality (Dempers, 2016). However, this was not implemented, and the momentum has seemed to fade.

Namibia has four principal child social grants and allowances, namely the Child Maintenance Grant, the Foster Parent Grant, the Place of Safety allowance and the Special Maintenance Grant. These grants are all administered by the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare (MGECW). In a report by the MGECW (2010), all child social grants are received by parents/caretakers/guardians on behalf of qualified children who are under the age of 18. The Children's Act (Act No. 33 of 1960) allows recipients to receive the CSG on behalf of their children up until the child is 21 years. Meanwhile, the Child Care and Protection Act (Act No: 3 of 2015), Section 10(1) (2), states that a person attains the age of majority on attaining the age of 18 years. If, on the commencement of this section, a person has already attained the age

of 18 years but has not yet attained the age of 21 years, that person is considered to have attained the age of 18 years on the date of commencement of this section. This means that the age of majority/maturity is 18 and when a person turns 18 years, they are considered as adults.

2.5.1 Types of CSG

a) The Child Maintenance Grant (MG)

This type of grant is received by recipients whose children's parent(s) are either receiving an old age grant or disability grant or the parent(s) is deceased and the remaining parent is unemployed or employed but receiving an amount less than N\$ 1000.00 per month. Moreover, children whose parents are incarcerated / sentenced and serving a sentence of more than 6 months also qualify to benefit from the MG (MGECSW, 2010). Children who qualify and are registered for this type of grant receive an amount N\$ 250.00 per child per month.

b) Kinship Care/Kinship Care agreement

Kinship care is caring for a child that is related to the caregiver with implied consent of the child's parent or guardian or by order of court. The child is in the care of a member of the child's family or extended family, other than the parent or guardian of the child or a person who has parental responsibilities and rights in respect of the child (CCPA, 2015, 2019).

The Act further states that a child's parent or guardian may conclude a kinship care agreement with the kinship care-giver in the absence of a court order placing the child in kinship care; must conclude a kinship care agreement with the kinship care-giver,

and must register the agreement with the clerk of the children's court before the kinship care-giver is eligible to receive a state maintenance grant of N\$ 250.00 per child per month. A kinship care agreement appointing the kinship care-giver for a child is recorded in writing and signed by two witnesses; set out information about the delegation of parental rights and responsibilities to the kinship care-giver in relation to the child, and concluded after due consideration of the views of the child. This agreement is facilitated by any professional working with children.

c) Foster Care Grant (FCG)

Previously, before the Child Care and Protection Act (Act No. 3 of 2015) came into effect on 30 January 2019, Namibia had been using the Children's Act (Act No.33 of 1960). Under the old Act, foster care was used as a term to place children who lost their biological parents with a court order but within family members (kinship care). The CCPA has however changed and it differentiated this. According to the new Act, foster care is when a child has been placed, in terms of an order of a children's court under section 145(3)(f)(i), after a child protection hearing, in the care of a person who is not the parent, guardian, family member or extended family member of the child (CCPA, 2015, 2019). This means that when a child is placed with a person other than a relative, they also qualify for the state grant. The grant is restricted to Namibian citizens only or those with permanent residence status and are found suitable to care for the children concerned. The requirements of a prospective foster parent are included in the Act and each child receives N\$ 250.00 per month.

d) Place of Safety Allowance (PSA)

The allowance is given to families or individuals who take custody of a child under the age of 18 who has been placed in their care by the Commissioner of Child Welfare, or placed in the place of safety in terms of the CCPA (CCPA, 2015, 2019). The approved amount is \$15 per day per child. It is administered by the Ministry of Gender Equality, Poverty Eradication and Social Welfare, for the benefit of vulnerable children in need of such help.

e) The Special Maintenance Grant (SMG)

The grant is paid to caregivers of children under the age of 16, who are certified as children living with disabilities (temporarily/permanent) by a medical doctor. According to the CCPA (2015), the following persons may apply for a special maintenance grant for a child in their care who has a prescribed disability and who complies with the prescribed requirements - the parent or guardian of the child; a kinship care-giver who is caring for a child in terms of an agreement registered at court; a child heading a household who may apply for this grant on behalf of any of the children in the household or for himself or herself; an adult designated to supervise a child-headed household under or an organ of a state or non-governmental organisation may apply for this grant on behalf of any of the children in the household; a foster parent who is caring for a child in terms of a court order; or a residential child care facility where a child has been placed by a court order (CCPA 2015, 2019). A special maintenance grant may be paid in addition to a state maintenance or other grant paid until such time as the child concerned qualifies for a disability pension in terms of the National Pensions Act No. 10 of 1992 (MGECW, 2010).

f) Short term emergency grant or assistance in kind

This grant is paid in cases of emergencies. This could be monetary or aid in kind, including food aid, in respect of children in circumstances in an amount and frequency and for the period prescribed by regulation. The above is provided to those in circumstances referred to as emergencies when: caused as a result of the accidental loss by a child of his or her family; caused as a result of the accidental loss by a child of his or her home or possessions; caused as a result of natural disasters which are not covered by any other government relief measures; caused as a result of armed conflicts; caused as a result of illness of the child or his or her financial provider (CCPA, 2015, 2019). An assessment in the situation is conducted and a report is compiled for payments.

The effectiveness of the child social grant is limited, given that the grant is received by a recipient who stays elsewhere, away from the beneficiary. If such a recipient is based in a different town while the child is in the care of another person in a different town or rural area, the amount that reaches the child may be lower than the initial grant received. Also, the child may not benefit from the grant if the recipient uses it for own gratification. The lack of monitoring mechanism that the money is indeed spent in the best interest of the child reduces the grant's effectiveness. There is therefore, a need to revisit this area to ensure that the grant benefits the children and their carers (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013).

2.5.2 The role of the child social grant

Since independence, there has been increasing attention which is devoted to the needs of orphans and vulnerable children in Namibia. As with many other countries, the HIV/AIDS pandemic has resulted in significant numbers of children being orphaned and this has worsened their vulnerability in respect of poverty, food insecurity and access to critical services such as health and education (MGECW, 2010). Evidence however, shows that the child social grants yield a positive impact that includes an increase in school attendance, promoting job searches and a reduction in poverty (Kaseke & Khosa, 2017).

a) Education

Many poor children cannot attend school because of the costs associated with education. While Namibia has increased access to education with almost all children accessing education, the same cannot be said about the quality of education provided to children, the number of school dropouts and the repetition of grades by the learners (National Planning Commission, 2017). Recipients of the child social grant in the Hardap region described how the grant impacts their lives as they were able to send their children to school, pay school development fund (this was before education was free), and buy school materials (MGECW, 2010; Taukeni & Matchidisho, 2013). Hosegood and Lund (2005) argue that children who receive the child social grant are significantly more likely to be enrolled in school in the years following receipt of the grant than equally poor children of the same age (Hosegood & Lund, 2005).

Similarly, children who were enrolled for the child social grant at birth completed significantly more grades of schooling than children who were enrolled at the age of

six (Department of Social Development, 2016). Though there seems to be a positive link between the child social grant and access to education, it is believed that education makes it possible for children to escape from poverty in their adult lives and equip them to become economically independent.

b) Health and nutrition

Child social grants targeted at children directly reduce poverty and the vulnerability of children living in poor households. Recipients described the reception as if they were receiving a salary every month from the government, as they used the money to buy food such as maize meal, tinned food and fish (MGECW, 2010). The expenditure on food is associated with improved nutritional outcomes. Moreover, with regards to recipients of the child social grant for children who were enrolled early on the grant system, there was evidence that their likelihood of falling ill is reduced compared to those who were enrolled at a later stage (Department of Social Development, 2016).

Furthermore, since the majority of recipients spend the grant on food, the grant contributes to the household food security and provides some financial security to woman who are independent of their partners. Also, the reception of the child social grant by woman leads to an improvement in the children's wellbeing (Kaseke & Khosa, 2017). Although the child social grant seems small in value, the money is quite useful, in fact receiving the grant means that caregivers no longer have to resort to begging (Namibia Planning Commission, 2014).

c) Employment

Economically vulnerable households are defined as those households which, through exclusion from the modern economy and labour market, are at high risk of being or

falling into poverty than other groups (Namibia Planning Commission, 2014). Statistics show that about 60 per cent of the inactive population in Namibia are found in five regions namely, Khomas, Ohangwena, Omusati, Oshana and Oshikoto. Vulnerable households are more in rural areas than in urban areas and most of these households are headed by females whose main sources of income are remittances and the old age pension (Namibia Planning Commission, 2014). However, according to Williams (2007), the parents of beneficiaries of the child social grant tend to participate in the labour market.

2.5.3 The utilisation of the child social grant

Between 2004 and 2015, the child social grant coverage increased by 30 per cent, with Ohangwena region having the highest beneficiaries (Namibia Planning Commission, 2014). Ohangwena region was the second most densely populated region in Namibia and one of the poorest regions with most of its population living in rural areas (Namibia Statistic Agency, 2016).

The child social grant provides a means to afford basic needs for households and it reduces the burden from caregivers and children to use that money on other expenses to improve their livelihood (MGECW, 2010). Beneficiaries of the child social grant also showed positive effects regarding feelings of dignity and increased social participation in social life (Granlund & Hochfeld, 2019). Furthermore, according to a report by the MGECW and NPC (2013), child social grants play a vital role in reducing the burden of poverty by helping caregivers to provide for the children's basic needs and supporting households' economic activities and other activities. Although the

child social grant showed transformative effects, recipients also experienced negative social implications such as power relations (reversed dependency), discrimination and stigma.

Even though the CSG is meant to alleviate poverty among children, some of the caregivers who receive the grant on behalf of the children are reported to be misusing the grant and not utilising it in the best interest of the children (Kaseke & Khosa, 2017). Ohangwena region was not exempted from these practices as it was found to be having a high number of children who are stunted, suffered from malnutrition and were underweight due to lack of nutritious food (National Planning Commission, 2014).

Despite the small value of these grants, they are found to be effective and they raise the livelihood of beneficiaries as the grants made a difference in their lives as they were able to access basic needs (MGECW & NPC, 2013). Gutura (2014) also indicated that child social grants improve both the welfare of beneficiaries and their entire households as there is support of the investment in productive assets, both human and capital. However, Chiripanhura and Niño-Zarazúa (2013) feel that the lack of monitoring mechanisms which can confirm if the money is indeed spent on the child's needs, reduces the grant's effectiveness. The poor or lack of coordination and collaboration between government ministries and between sectors also hinders effectiveness in addressing the needs of vulnerable children and those living in poverty.

Another issue worth stressing is that, who should receive the maintenance grant: the parent usually living in urban areas or the grandparent actually taking care of the child in rural areas. In theory (and according to law), the person actually looking after the child should be the recipient of the maintenance grant. In practice, however, it appears that the grants are received by parents living in urban areas and not by the grandparents who bear the burden of taking care of children in rural areas. This is no doubt an implementation issue but deserves some attention (Subarrao, 2007).

2.5.4 Cash transfer in Namibia

In Africa, the governments and their development partners, including the private sector, have been engaging in social protection initiatives which have been running alongside local and informal schemes of the social support. In addition, Chiripanhura and Niño-Zarazúa (2013) state that due to inequality which is always prominent in many countries, the need for social protection arises.

Social protection is an integral component of any strategic effort to reduce severe poverty around the world. Developed countries have developed programmes which are aimed at protecting citizens against risks and these can aid the destitute (Conway et al., 2001). Social safety nets are essential for many countries' development agendas and they have existed for decades. Devereux (2009) states that the existence of social safety nets in low-income countries has always been there in one form or another for a long time. The Namibian system of cash transfers has its roots in South Africa, but it has evolved quite differently given the different economic and social circumstances in these two countries, resulting in a mix of eligibility criteria being applied. So, for

instance, the old-age pension in Namibia is not means tested (unlike in South Africa), but in principle the child grants are. Also, the Namibian child social grant system has elements of conditionality by requiring school attendance records as documentation that the child is alive, which some caregivers may regard as a signal that they are required to keep children at school. But this has also led to those not attending school to perceive that they would be excluded from such grants and thus keep them from applying (Levine et al., 2011).

There exists a range of social protection mechanisms in Namibia ranging from informal arrangements based on sharing within families and communities to a variety of contributory pension schemes linked to formal employment including those by the Government Pension Fund (GIPF) for civil servants and the Social Security Commission (SSC). The benefits under the Social Security Commission include maternity and sick leave, death benefits, pension and medical aid funds and special funds for development of training schemes and compensation for injuries and accidents (Levine et al., 2011). Thus it is evident that governments and their development partners, including the private sector, have been engaging in social protection initiatives which have been running alongside local and informal schemes of social support. In addition, Chiripanhura and Niño-Zarazúa (2013) state that due to inequality which is always prominent in many countries, the need for social protection arises. However, a report by the Bank of Namibia (2013), indicates that several reasons for the failure of excellent policies and programmes is that they are well developed to provide the most needed benefits to the targeted groups but they are fragmented. For Namibia's social protection mechanisms to be robust, there is need for information on

the number and types of beneficiaries reached as well as information about programme outcomes in terms of their impact. Such information is crucial in order to improve programme designs and coordination to inform policy makers and to attract financial resources and donor support.

2.5 LIVELIHOOD

The term livelihood is understood as a set of activities which are essential to everyday life and a person's livelihood refers to their means of securing the basic necessities of life. Meanwhile, when governments and civil society organisations attempt to help those whose means of survival is threatened, the complexity of the term comes to light. In 1992, Robert Chambers and Gordon Conway proposed the following composite definition of a sustainable livelihood, which is applied most commonly at the household level: A livelihood comprises of the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it enables people to cope with and recover from shocks and stresses such as natural disasters and economic or social upheavals and enhances their well-being and that of future generations without undermining the natural environment or resource base (Krantz, 2001).

Additionally, Ellis (2000) defines livelihood as people's capabilities, assets and activities through which they make a living. Ellis further emphasises the assets and the various activities through which households generate an income for a living (Ellis, 2000). This means that a person's livelihood refers to their means of securing basic necessities such as food, water, shelter and clothing, usually supported by various

activities to meet those needs. While the definition of livelihood can be applied to different hierarchical levels, Ellis (2000) stresses that it is used mostly at the household level. Even then, it is also important to recognise the variations on wellbeing and access at an individual or intra-household level, as well as at the broader levels of the extended family and the community. Of the various components of livelihood, the most complex is the portfolio of assets out of which people construct their living (Kranz, 2001). Ellis (2000) agrees that all capitals are important attributes of livelihood strategies of rural households. According to Conway and Chambers (1991), with regards to the definition of livelihood, Ellis explains “access” in livelihood as the rules and social norms that determine the different abilities of people in rural areas to own or claim resources such as land and common properties. However, Ellis definition strongly recognizes the impact of access on social relationships and institutions and how it mediates individuals and family capacity to achieve its consumption (Mbandi 2011).

The livelihood strategies of rural households vary enormously, but a common strategy is for household members to undertake a range of activities, which each in some way contributes to one or more of household needs. Most households rely on a range of natural resource uses, and on off-farm income from employment or remittances. Diversified strategies are essential in Namibia because of the semi-arid to arid conditions in which even the highest rainfall areas are marginal for rain-fed crop growing and drought is a common occurrence (Ashley, 2000). Although many livelihood definitions fail to recognise that livelihood is not static but an on-going process of gaining and losing assets, these assets can be destroyed because of external

vulnerabilities, by shock and seasonality associated with the environment (Ellis, 2000, cited in Mbandi, 2011).

2.6 LIVELIHOOD AND CASH TRANSFER

Cash transfers are an important source of livelihoods. Cash transfers enable households to cope better as evidence shows that cash transfers help them establish wellbeing from surviving to coping (Barca et al., 2016). According to Elluard (2015), livelihood strategies are defined as a range and combination of activities and choices that people make in order to achieve their livelihood goals. When faced with a crisis in the household, one can see not just an interrelation, but also interdependence between meeting immediate needs, protecting and rebuilding livelihoods. Households will not be able to protect or recover their livelihoods if they are not in a position to meet their basic needs, and they will need their livelihood strategies in order to meet their needs. Any analysis to outline cash transfer programmes in support of livelihood strategies must therefore consider all kinds of needs (including health, education, expenses, etc.) and household resources in order to develop an integrated programme approach to tackle livelihoods (Elluard, 2015).

On the basis of personal goals, there is a need to register the resource base and their understanding of the available options, different categories of households developed and pursuing different livelihood strategies. These strategies include short term considerations such as ways of earning a living and coping with shocks and managing the risks. Cash transfers allow the affected populations to recover from their livelihoods through the purchase of essential assets for their livelihood, access to

services, and debt repayment. In both direct and indirect ways, strategies act as the foundation to improve capabilities to improve livelihoods such as enabling recipients/beneficiaries to engage socially, and having food to eat, thus reducing destructive coping mechanisms. Most interventions seek to protect, recoup and rebuild on productive, natural and financial assets, whereas cash transfers offer opportunities to develop human and social capital, as well as contribute to the market recovery and development (Barca et al., 2016; Elluard, 2015).

Livelihood development programmes, which have a much longer history in poverty reduction, cover a wide range of specific interventions. Common interventions for these programmes in the rural context include training and technical assistance, promoting new farming technology and creating linkages in agricultural supply chains. These interventions are sometimes combined with cash grants or in-kind support and access to finances (Sulaiman, 2018). Livelihood support programmes will have different objectives, which will be determined by the context of the intervention. There are three categories of livelihood interventions which are defined here – livelihood protection – *as adequate and sustainable access to income and resources to meet basic needs*, livelihood recovery and livelihood enhancement - *as a mechanism to promote livelihood development and encourage people to move away from the harmful exploitation and degradation of natural resources* (Elluard, 2015). Cash transfers enable promote livelihoods by supporting activities such as agriculture (cultivation, farming) and animal herding, including livestock farming. Yet, in other cases, social protection may not enhance livelihood outcomes if policies fail to tackle the specific factors that cause exclusion. For instance, education grants and school-

based feeding programmes may not increase girls' access to schooling if informal social norms continue to restrict female education (Babajanian & Hagen-Zanker, 2012). Combining cash transfers and livelihood programmes through effective coordination and implementation reduces household vulnerability, and improves household social and economic well-being, with particular benefits for children - more than the implementation of one programme alone or without either (Nesbitt-Ahmed & Pozarny, 2018).

2.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study was guided by the transformative social protection theoretical framework. According to Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2004), the theory recognises the need for social equity and protection against livelihood risks. The interventions include empowering the poor to become more socially transformative and directly address aspects of social risks and economic vulnerability. This helps in transforming people's situations in which they are currently struggling to construct sustainable livelihoods. It is useful to introduce the operational framework by which livelihood interventions are commonly planned and implemented (International Recovery Platform, 2005).

Within this framework, livelihood interventions are loosely categorised into three overlapping phases that roughly correspond to the immediate, short, and long term needs of the affected populations. These phases are *livelihood provisioning*, *livelihood protection* and *livelihood promotion*. In the acute phase of a disaster, *livelihood provisioning* activities typically consist of providing critical food and non-items necessary for survival. The *livelihood protection* phase of interventions aims to

protect, replace and rebuild the productive assets needed to initiate a pre-existing or new livelihood. The livelihood *promotion* interventions serve to initiate and strengthen livelihoods to be more economically and environmentally sustainable as well as more resilient to future disasters (Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2004). In general, these different phases of activities build upon each other. In identifying effective social protection programmes that can reach the extreme poor and make sustainable changes in their livelihoods is critical to this effort (Sulaiman, 2018).

The concept of transformative social protection extends the traditional view of social protection which addresses economic vulnerability to incorporate social vulnerability. The principle of transformative social protection is that it recognises the need for social equity as well as protection against livelihood risks (McCord & Slater, 2009). There is also a view that social protection must have a ‘transformative’ angle, supporting equity, social justice and empowerment. Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2008) suggest that transformative social protection must address non-economic or social vulnerabilities caused by structural inequalities and inadequate rights. Through its economic function, social protection helps relieve poverty (protection), prevent economic deprivation (prevention), and enhance real incomes and capabilities (promotion) (Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2008 cited in Babajanian & Hagen-Zanker, 2012).

The transformative view holds that in addition to addressing economic needs, social protection must empower the poor and uphold their rights. This may include addressing regulatory frameworks that promote discrimination, socio-cultural values

that heighten women's vulnerability or informal norms and behaviours that generate stigma (Babajanian & Hagen-Zanker, 2012). Social protection can improve human capabilities or human capital, including skills, knowledge and health, by promoting access to education and training, health care and nutrition through the provision of cash or the institutionalisation of inclusive access. The ability of individuals to develop and expand their capabilities is, in itself, a basic human freedom (Sen, 1990, cited in Babajanian & Hagen-Zanker, 2012).

For positive social protection objectives to be achieved, the package of measures adopted must be carefully selected, carefully designed and effectively implemented. On the other hand, the point remains that transformative social protection can be affordable while contributing to the fundamental policy goals of pro-poor economic growth and improved social equity. A comprehensive and coherent package of social protection measures can therefore support a development trajectory that maximises the reduction of both poverty and inequity, without breaking the national budget. (Devereus & Sabates-Wheeler, 2004, p.25)

Transformative social protection is concerned with causing or enabling to cause an important and lasting change/impact in the life of someone. The theory was best suited for the study because of its transformative views of protecting and preventing risks as well as promoting the livelihood of people.

2.8 CONCLUSION

Namibia is faced with the problem of high inequality and poverty, which affect many households, and the government is doing all it can to help reduce poverty. The literature that has been discussed revealed the gaps that still exist between policy and the actual policy implementation. This chapter has highlighted and defined social protection and cash transfers as a form of implementing social welfare as well as the impact of the Child Social Grant on the vulnerable people as discussed by different authors. The government's constitutional mandate with regards to realising the right of children to social assistance was provided and discussed against the impact of the child social grant in the livelihoods of beneficiaries and recipients. The chapter also reviewed literature related to the impact of cash transfer on the livelihood of rural Namibians and strategies used to make livelihood sustainable. Lastly the theoretical framework which guided the study was discussed as well as the livelihood interventions which were categorised into overlapping phases.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter explains the research methodology that was employed in this study. The study used a qualitative case study research design as a method. This approach was useful in this study for obtaining in-depth information through face-to-face interviews in the participants' natural environment.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The Interpretivist Paradigm/Constructivist Paradigm is considered: as epistemological stances have its roots in the meaning of epistemology, which, as we saw above, relates to the questions about what does it mean to know and how can we know? This view of paradigm, takes the position that research inherently involves epistemological issues about the nature of knowledge and knowing. In this sense, researchers will align their notion of paradigm with the most popular epistemological stances (e.g., realism and constructivism) as distinctive belief systems (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, p.30). The researcher in the constructive paradigm attempts to understand the subjective world of human experience. This approach assisted the researcher to “get into the head of participants being studied” in order to understand what they are thinking or the meaning they are making of their lives in connection to the CSG. The researcher tried to understand the viewpoints of participants from their perspectives and their lived experiences. Interpretivists believe in socially constructed multiple realities. Truth and

reality are created, not discovered. It is not possible to know reality as it is because it is always mediated by our senses (Alharthi & Rehman, 2016).

Interpretive epistemology is subjective. Its methodology requires that social phenomena be understood “through the eyes of the participants rather than the researcher”, thus one of the main goals for the researcher to use interpretive research was to try and understand the interpretations of individual participants’ livelihood. The researcher sought to understand the lived experiences of the CSG and how they make sense of it in their livelihoods based on the realities they have created for each one of them. This best suited the study because data collected was qualitative and data analysis was generated in an inductive manner whereby the researcher discovered patterns in the data collected which were later collapsed under broad themes to understand the phenomenon under study. Data were verbally collected by audio recording so as to “preserve the events in a fairly authentic manner for subsequent data analysis”. Individuals interact with other individuals and society and ascribe meaning and names to different social phenomena. The participants who received the CSG create meaning of its impact on their lives and how their environment creates a reality of their livelihood.

3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

Qualitative researchers are concerned with the meaning that people attach to things in their lives. Qualitative research was used because it consists of a set of interpretive practices which make the world visible to the researcher by turning the words of participants into a representation. It also allowed the researcher to study participants

in their natural settings. Participants were studied in their households where they felt comfortable and this allowed the researcher to make sense of phenomenon presented.

Qualitative methods are used to answer questions about experience, meaning and perspective, most often from the standpoint of the participant (De Lacey et al., 2015). While studying the people qualitatively, the researcher got to know participants personally and to experience what they experience in their daily struggles in their society. This allowed the researcher to stay close to their empirical world because it allowed for an understanding of what people were saying and doing in their livelihoods. By observing people and listening to them talk about what was on their minds, this helped the researcher to obtain first-hand knowledge of their social lives unfiltered. This method helped the researcher to gain some insights and understanding of how the child social grant recipients experience the effects of the grant and how they utilise it to benefit them and their households in their own settings.

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

The study was designed in a way that it outlined how the research was to be conducted and how data was to be obtained to answer research objectives. The plan outlined the complete programme of the study from the conceptualisation of the problem to the dissemination of the findings. In short, the research design refers to the structure which the researcher used in order to carry out the objectives and goals of the plan. According to De Vos et al. (2012), a research design is the process of focusing your perspective for the purpose of a particular study. A research design focuses on the end product and all the steps in the process to achieve the outcome anticipated. The study used a case

study research design and the qualitative research method in order to explore the livelihood experiences of child social grants recipients from their perspective.

3.4.1 Case study design

A case study design was selected for the study because the study was dominantly a qualitative study. To be called a case study, it is important to treat the total study population as one entity. The population was in one community and the ‘case’ was selected on the basis of a thorough, holistic and in-depth exploration of the aspect which the researcher wanted to find out about. In addition, the case study design was based upon the assumption that the case being studied is typical of cases of recipients who receive CSG and who provided insights into the events and situations prevalent for the study. Therefore, the case study in this study was that of Ondobe Constituency in Ohangwena Region, Namibia, where participants were drawn from.

According to Burns (1997, p. 365), “in a case study the focus of attention is the case in its idiosyncratic complexity, not on the whole population of cases.” In selecting a case, the researcher used purposive, judgemental or information-oriented sampling techniques. It is a useful design when exploring an area where little is known or where the researcher wants to have a holistic understanding of the situation or phenomenon. This design is of immense relevance when the focus of a study is on extensively exploring and understanding rather than confirming and quantifying (Burns, 1997, p. 365, as cited in Kumar, 2011). This design was used because little was known on the role that the child social grant plays in the livelihood of recipients. The researcher

focused on individuals for the information provided and their understanding of the CSG in relation to their livelihoods and also from their lived experiences.

3.5 STUDY SITE

The study was conducted at Ondobe constituency, one of the 12 constituencies of Ohangwena region. The 2011, the Namibia Population and Housing Census results showed that Ohangwena had a population of 245 446 people of which 133 316 were women and 112 130 men. Those living in urban areas were 24 903 people of the total population, whereas the rural areas catered for 220 543 adding up to 89.9%. Ondobe constituency shares boundaries with Cunene Province in southern Angola in the North, Omulonga Constituency in the South, Omundaungilo Constituency in the North-East part, Eenhana in the South-East and Oshikango in the West. The constituency has about 23 954 inhabitants as per the census of 2011, with more females than men. A total of 61% households were headed by woman while only 39 percent were headed by men.

The household main income was highest in the category of pensioners than it was for cash remittances as well as business and non-farming activities. Only 20% of the constituency's population received wages and salaries, which contributed to the household income. A total number of 47% of the entire constituency population were unemployed in 2011, with highest number being of homemakers and pensioners. The highest proportion of job seekers were found in Ondobe constituency, with about 44% of the population looking for employment. Half of the constituency population were engaged in agricultural activities and the school enrolment was 89.0% for the children

from 7-13 years of age. Ondobe constituency is one of the vibrant constituencies in the region, with some active youths in projects and unions in some areas. Its infrastructures are fast growing, with access roads to public institutions and portable water. It also has a high number of people receiving financial assistance from the government. Thus, it was the best constituency to study.

3.6 POPULATION

The population of this study included parents/caregivers whose children are receiving child social grants in Ondobe Constituency, Ohangwena region. The population was identified through the MGECSW grant system and recipients whose pay points were from Ondobe Constituency were selected for the study. There were 54572 beneficiaries and 20,697 recipients of the child social grant in Ohangwena Region on the grant system during the month of January 2021 and Ondobe constituency has 5646 beneficiaries and 3015 recipients (Dependant System, 2021). Permission to grant access to the grant system was granted by the MGECSW.

3.7 SAMPLE

Sampling is concerned with the selection of a subset of individuals from within a defined population to estimate the characteristics of the entire population. Purposive sampling, also referred to as judgemental sampling, is a process of selecting a sample that is believed to possess relevant characteristics to have experienced or knowledgeable about the phenomenon of study (Auriasian et al., 2009). A sample is chosen based on the basis of what the researcher considers to be the typical unit (Bless, et al., 2006, p.106). This type of sample was based entirely on the judgement of the

researcher in that a sample is composed of elements that contain the most characteristics which are representative of the typical attributes of the population that serve the purpose of the study (De Vos et al., 2012).

It is for these reasons that purposive sampling was used for this study because it is based on the judgement of the researcher regarding the characteristics which are important for the study. The researcher knew what information was needed and from whom it could be obtained. The researcher sought information from those receiving CSG who were identified through the CSG system. A judgement sampling technique was used to selected participants. A sample of 18 participants, subject to reaching saturation point, out of 3015 recipients of the child social grant from Ondobe Constituency were interviewed for the study. The Ondobe MGEPSW office provided access to the grant system.

3.8 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

An interview is a purposeful interaction in which one person obtains information from another (Airasian et al., 2009). Qualitative interviews attempt to understand the world from participants' point of view, to unfold the meaning of people's experiences and to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations (De Vos et al., 2012).

The interview is a social relationship which is designed to exchange information between the participant and the researcher. The quality and quantity of information exchanged depends on how astute and creative the interviewer is at understanding and managing the relationship (De Vos et al., 2012, p. 342). An interview guide with semi structured questions as an instrument was used to obtain the required information from

participants. Open ended questions with follow ups and affirmation were also used to obtain clarification from participant responses. The research questions were formulated in a way that they could obtain information which was relevant to the objectives of the study and through that answering the research problem. The interviews lasted between 25 and 35 minutes, conducted on different dates at villages within the Ondobe Constituency. Interviews were audio recorded.

3.9 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

Qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of phenomena in terms of the meanings that people bring to them as in-depth interviewing takes place in the subject's physical world. At the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience. Researchers try to establish rapport with participants and they ask no directive questions in order to gain first-hand information of what people say and do in their everyday lives (Bogdan et al., 2016). One-on-one interviews were conducted and participants were interviewed individually at their homesteads. Due to the high rate of crime in the region, the participants were cautious about talking to a stranger because some indicated that they had experienced fraudulent situations where people were scammed into believing lies from strangers at their homes. The researcher, however, took time to explain whom she was and why she was in the constituency despite the agreements which were made to participate in the study earlier. The researcher also showed the permission letters to the participants and assured them to contact the Constituency Councillor at any time for assurance that the researcher was indeed legitimate.

The researcher relied extensively on verbal accounts of participants. It was therefore for that reason that the study used one-on-one semi-structured in-depth interviews as an instrument for data collection because it explored and probed participants' responses to gather in-depth data about their experiences and feelings. The interviews took place at the participants' homesteads and they were audio recorded.

3.10 PROCEDURE

To facilitate the research process, a permission letter was obtained from the University of Namibia and an ethics clearance certificate was also obtained. Permission to collect data was also obtained from the Ondobe Constituency Councillor. The participants were initially contacted by the researcher to schedule the interviews. Participants were first contacted to set-up an appointment with them. Interviews were conducted at the site selected by the participants and in this case, interviews took place in their homesteads. This method was selected to allow participants to express their views, feelings, emotions and experience regarding the CSG freely. Furthermore, by using interviews as a data collection method, it also enabled the researcher to observe the body language of the participants and to probe for further elaboration from their initial responses.

Since the study employed purposive sampling, participants were asked to sign a consent form and the researcher did not experience resentment from the respondents, nor did any participant withdraw from the research; however, four participants refused to be recorded. All the participants indicated their willingness to participate in the study. Before the commencement of the interview, the researcher introduced herself, stated the purpose of the interview and assured participants that the information

obtained would be strictly confidential and that information collected was solely for academic purposes. The consent forms were read to the participants and explained before consent was obtained. Participants were also assured that information obtained was not going to affect their current situation or have a negative consequence in their grant reception in any way as some feared divulging information to a complete stranger despite the formal introduction. They were asked to call the Constituency Councillor at any time should they have questions. The researcher also sought permission from participants to take notes during the interview.

3.11 DATA ANALYSIS

Analysis means organising and interrogating data in ways that allow researchers to see patterns, develop explanations, make interpretations and discover relationships (Creswell, 2013). The thematic data analysis method was used for this study. The researcher read through the material enough to understand and then formed categories which were narrowed down to themes. According to Kumar (2011), analysis means analysing the contents of interviews or observational field notes in order to identify the main themes that emerge from the responses given by participants or the observation notes made by the researcher. The researcher read through the descriptive responses given by participants to each question in order to understand the meaning they communicated, and developed broad themes or categories. After the main themes were identified, the researcher assigned a code to each of them and classified the responses under each theme until a saturation point was reached. Data were analysed after the field work, however, during the interviews, similarities in data could be identified. The researcher transcribed the audio recordings by typing them out and then

reading and re-reading the transcripts several times and familiarising herself with the data collected. Open coding was then done by identifying the meaningful chunks in the data and codes were created. The identified codes were then transferred to a different sheet and categories were created from the codes created. Thereafter, codes were merged into categories which were later merged into themes which formed headings in the data analysis chapter.

3.12 RESEARCH ETHICS

Research ethics helps to prevent research abuses and this assists researchers in understanding their responsibilities (Terre-Blanche et al., 2012). The researcher followed the University's procedures and applied for ethical clearance from the University of Namibia's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) (non-medical) to conduct the research and this was prior to data collection. Only recipients of child social grants who receive the grant on behalf of children (beneficiaries) were interviewed and no children were interviewed for this study. The following ethical principles were put into consideration in the course of the study:

a) Informed consent and voluntary participation

Informed consent implies that participants are made adequately aware of the type of information you want from them, why the information is being sought, what purpose it will be put to, how they are expected to participate in the study, and how it will directly or indirectly affect them. It is important that the consent should also be voluntary and without pressure of any kind (Kumar, 2011). The aim and purpose of the study were verbally explained in detail to the participants when they were

approached. All participants, upon agreement to participate, were asked to sign an informed consent form before interviews, and they were informed that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences. No incentives were provided to participants by the researcher.

b) Confidentiality and anonymity

The principle of anonymity is linked with confidentiality. The researcher assigned a pseudonym to participants during the field work. This ethic was used to explain to the participants that the researcher fully agreed not to share or tell anyone whom the participants are because the information will be kept confidential. The following reasonable steps to keep information safe and identification protected were used: (a) Separated the consent forms from the respondents' transcripts so that no other person would know whom the participant is; (b) Pseudonyms - participants were given fake names and fake places so that in case of a lost transcript, no person would be able to identify whom the person is; and (c) The transcribed data will be kept confidential in a password protected file for five years and subsequently disposed in line with the UNAM policy.

c) Obtaining access to research participants

It is necessary for a researcher to first approach gatekeepers before directly approaching participants to participate in the study. Like in this study, the researcher contacted the Ohangwena Regional Council (ORC) for permission for the researcher to collect data at the Ondobe Constituency. The collected information was kept confidential in a separate password protected file to be disposed after fieldwork. It

only provided a frame from which the study sample was selected. Permission was obtained from the Ondobe Constituency Councillor through the Ohangwena Regional Council as well as from the MGEPEWS Ohangwena regional office to access the grant system and to conduct the study of this nature.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to explore the lived experiences, views and opinions of the child social grants recipients. The study looked at the role of the child social grant in the livelihood of beneficiaries. A case study design was used. A total number of 18 participants from Ondobe Constituency took part in the study and one-on-one interviews were used for data collection. The interviews were recorded in the field, four participants refused to be audio recorded and field notes were also taken. Data collected were analysed after the field work was conducted. After data collection, similarities in participant responses were clear, with some slight differences depending on the beneficiaries' needs. The researcher transcribed the collected information by reading through the descriptive responses and developed broader themes under which codes were assigned and then classified the themes which emerged from the categories. The participants were studied in their natural setting which is their homestead and most of them seemed relaxed as they did not give their names to be audio recorded during the interviews. This chapter, therefore, analyses and discusses the data collected in the study.

4.2 DEMOGRAPHICS OF PARTICIPANTS

The CSG is a group of different types of the forms of financial assistance available to children in Namibia. The grant is received by the children's caregivers or parents who are staying with the children who are the beneficiaries of the CSG. The types of CSG

as mentioned earlier consist of THE Vulnerability grant (which is no longer in registration), Maintenance grant, Special Maintenance Grant, Foster Care grant, Place of Safety Allowance, as well as the Short-Term Emergency grant. Each child who qualifies receives an amount of N\$ 250.00 per month, which is paid to their recipients.

A total of 18 participants, 1 male and 17 females, who participated in the study, were receiving only 3 types of the CSG, namely: Maintenance grant, Vulnerability grant, and Foster care grant. The majority of children were registered to receive the Vulnerability grant because their parents were unemployed. A total of 43 children were beneficiaries of the CSG, with only 1 child receiving the Foster care grant; 13 children were receiving the Maintenance grant and 29 children were receiving the Vulnerability grant. Most households visited had ablution facilities which were visible, just close to each household, but for other villages, people used bushes as toilets. A few houses had running piped water as they were connected to the pipe line. However, some still used community taps to get their water. As part of adherence to COVID-19 regulations, tip-tap containers with soap and water for hand washing were observed at the entrance of homesteads.

4.3 THE ROLE OF THE CHILD SOCIAL GRANT ON THE LIVELIHOOD OF RECIPIENTS

4.3.1 Education

The Namibian child grant system has elements of conditionality by requiring school attendance records as documentation that the child is alive, which some caregivers may regard as a signal that they are required to keep children at school (Levine et al.,

2011). This concurs with what the researcher found in the field, which gave evidence that the majority of the children were aware that they were receiving the CSG through the school progress report. Since the cash transfers were conditional in Namibia, children of school going age are required to be in school in order to benefit from the CSG. A school progress report is a required element to show that a beneficiary is alive. These reports are completed by the beneficiary's class teacher and signed by the school principal in front of the recipient. This report shows that the child has all the school needs, however, it does not indicate the progress of the child. Thus, parents encourage beneficiaries of school going age to be in school for them to continue receiving the CSG.

Many vulnerable children could not attend school because of the costs associated with education. The child social grants counter these negative effects by enhancing the capacity of households to meet the educational needs of children such as transport money to send children to school, and paying hostel fees for those at boarding school. Aila, a mother of seven whose husband engages in seasonal work, indicate that they were both unemployed and as such they were grateful that they received the CSG. She was grateful that they were able to send their son to school with the financial assistance of the grant; *"Our first born is schooling far from home in grade 12 and we use the CSG to send him to school. The money pays for his transport fares, hostel payments aa well as cosmetics"*. Anna who stayed alone with her son, also indicated that she no longer worried about buying her son's school materials as the grant took that burden off her shoulders; *"The CSG makes me feel good because when I receive that long list of school materials, I just buy because I have money"*. Another participant described

the effectiveness of the CSG in her life as helpful. Tuuda who received the CSG on behalf of her children whose biological father receives the disability grant mentioned that; *“the money is used to buy books, school bags and other school necessities especially during this time at the beginning of school reopening”*. CSG also prevented children from attending school on an empty stomach as caregivers were using the money to purchase rice and sugar for soft porridge in the morning, and this was an encouragement to the learners to go to school. For those who had failed grade 10 and 12 (old curriculum) although not beneficiaries, it was found that their NAMCOL registration and examination fees were paid from the CSG on separate occasions. This was evidence that there is a positive link between CSG and access to education.

Despite this, maintaining a child has become expensive for a Namibian parent. Free education is free but free became too expensive especially during some of the changing times. Children were required to buy stationery, copy papers, contribute to the school development fund and receive materials online, meanwhile they do not have phones or access to the internet. According to Tuyeni, a single mother who is heading a house and caring for her late brother’s children, in an angry voice she stressed that; *“the truth is that in our country, the children are struggling a lot because there is nothing they do not need especially now that the schools are asking for things that we cannot afford. The children need smartphones for their school work, but in a month after receiving only a two hundred and fifty dollar and the school is asking for 3 books, how will one manage? You find that the schools are asking for laptops but if one lay-by a laptop with that two hundred and fifty Namibian dollars, what will the child eat and for how long will it take to pay off the laptop”*? Equally, a mother of four, Tukwafa, mentioned

that; *“my child needs transport money which is more than a hundred dollar from here (Ondaanda village) to Okongo were she is schooling”*. As much as the grant can afford some of the school needs of children, not all needs are catered for.

It is also true for some who are unable to meet their children’s school materials at the same time because they cannot afford them in one month. Thus, some made arrangements with schools to have their children’s needs met after the reopening of schools while others resorted to selling some of their livestock, especially chickens, and making traditional buckets to get money in order to buy all the school materials. Maiya, like others pleaded with schools that; *“I would not get my children’s needs in one month and ask for an extension to get all the needs in the following months, just so that the children are not sent back home from school”*. Similarly, Tuuda would sell her chickens to cater for her children’s stationaries as she indicated that, *“I sell my chicken if there is an emergency which needs to be solved at that time”*. Some said that education is a key to success but it is also true that education makes it possible for children to escape from poverty in their adult lives and it equips them to become economically independent adults, but this is far from being achieved or realised by some CSG recipients.

4.3.2 Nutrition

The expenditure on food is associated with improved nutritional outcomes (Department of Social Development, 2016). A majority of the participants spend the CSG on food items and this contributes to the household’s food security as the food bought with the CSG is consumed by all household members. Studies have shown a

link between CSG and nutritious food. This was true as the expenditures on food items, especially maize meal which is used for porridge, sugar for tea or soft porridge, rice and cooking oil were some of the items on every recipient's list. The CSG was used to buy the food which is needed in the household. Even though participants were found to be unemployed, they were also dependent on their crops for food security. However, despite having food after harvesting, families still struggled with what they take their porridge with as meat was too expensive to buy for the entire household. Maiya who was raising her children who had lost their father indicated that since she depended on the CSG for food, and as such, she used her money wisely; *"I use a fifty Namibian dollar to buy maize meal and sugar which is sold in small quantities at the market because I cannot afford to buy a bag as it is equivalent to the total amount I receive monthly"*. Vivo was a young woman who was unemployed and she received the VG for her two children, and described the use of her grant as follows; *"I buy food because the children cannot go to school without eating nor can they go to school without a lunch box"*. Tuuda like other recipients indicated that; *"I buy food especially a bag of maize meal and soup, some of the things I cannot go without buying every month"*.

Literature has shown that with regards to the recipients of the CSG whose children are enrolled early on the grant system, their likelihood of falling ill is reduced. This is true for some because recipients who started receiving the CSG as they were able to provide for their children's food at an early stage. This was evident when participants indicated that children do not have a lot of needs, therefore, one simply focuses on providing them with some food, however, for elderly beneficiaries, their needs are a lot and as such, one needs to divide the grant in order to cater for all of their needs.

4.4 SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF RECIPIENTS

4.4.1 Employment and savings

Economically vulnerable households are defined as those households which, through exclusion from the modern economy and labour market, are at a higher risk of being or falling into poverty than other groups (Namibia Planning Commission, 2014). According to Williams (2007), the parents of beneficiaries of child social grant tend to participate in the labour market. This was contrary to the findings of the present study. Recipients of the CSG were found unemployed and without savings. They depended on the allowances provided by the government. As hard as it sounds, rural households are excluded from the modern economy and labour markets and this increases their risk of falling into poverty. An angry Maiya who received the CSG for her 2 grandchildren mentioned that; *“It is no longer raining well and as a result, we do not have harvests which are enough to feed our families”*. They no longer sold their goods due to market failures amid the pandemic. She, like others, sold goods on the market, however, this was no longer the case. The terror of not having savings for some participants was a distress for when they are in need but unable to afford it. They thus waited for the following pay-out to receive the CSG. Participants indicated that borrowing was good but it equally created dependency and put one in bondage as it would get difficult to return the money borrowed while having other needs to be met. Maya and Vivo, both unemployed and homemakers, indicated that they do not borrow: *“I use the CSG to cater for my needs, I do not take items on credit because that will frustrate me as the money is already not enough and when one takes credit it is difficult to get out because you get used to getting items on credit”*. *“I do not borrow when the*

money finishes without catering for other needs, what I do is wait patiently for the following pay-out to receive the money again”.

Literature has shown that the receipt of the CSG by woman leads to empowerment and contributes to the children’s wellbeing. Some women owned houses and they were taking care of their families, and this shows that the CSG received by the women empowered them and provided them with financial security to be able to provide for the children as well as households. According to Maiya, whose two children lost their biological father; *“There is no other income which is coming at home because I am unemployed and I am the only one at home who is staying with the children. Sometimes I collect, cook and dry the traditional spinach which I sell but as you can see this year it was not really enough for one to collect. I also make those traditional buckets which I sell at the pay points when I go and receive the CGS”.* Parents or recipients of the CSG do not participate in the labour market as such because most participants whose children received the VG grant said that they were unemployed and that this was why their children were registered. However, most of them lacked an income in their households. Thus, it was shown that they were not making time to participate in the labour market and those who did, it was only when the need arose.

However, feeling optimistic about the CSG, participants showed their gratitude and mentioned that the CSG needs to continue assisting the children. With little stigma and discrimination, the women felt a sense of security financially, and independent from their partners. This is in agreement with literature which has shown that women felt that the CSG received on a monthly basis was like an income. Comparing to their

previous situation to when they started receiving the grant, they were grateful and they indicated that it was a stepping stone for them and the grant received was better than nothing. They were able to cater for the basic needs of their children. Maiya stated that; *“If I was taking alcohol, the children at home will hear me complaining due to stress as a result of lack of money, but now that I do not take alcohol, I do not complain”*. She was satisfied with what she received and she was able to use it for the wellbeing of her grandchildren. Veyii who had been living in poverty for a very long time felt that; *“the money is enough for the children’s needs and my wish is that it should continue assisting us”*. She was grateful for the little that she received, especially comparing her life prior to receiving of the grant. Tukwafa, who is a single parent, was also happy and mentioned that; *“the grant has assisted me a lot and my wish is that the grant should continue assisting he children. I am also happy with the amount I receive because it has helped me in a lot of ways from the time I started receiving it”*. Women felt empowered and independent because they received the CSG. Despite this, vulnerable households were found to be still more in rural areas than in urban areas and most of these households were headed by females whose main source of income were remittances, and the old age pension (Namibia Planning Commission, 2014). Ondobe Constituency is no exception to the vulnerable households in rural areas whose main source of income is the CSG.

4.4.2 Dependency

According to Gockel and Kumado (2003), most African families rely on support from extended families to meet contingencies. Parents depend on the support from their children during retirement. Some recipients of the CSG were no exception to

depending on family members for financial support. Veyii lived her life in and out of hospital depended on the government for financial support. She stated that; *“there is no one employed at home, but I had been battling with a sickness for a long time. I have been in and out of hospital until the Dr told me to be registered for the disability grant. Now I receive my own grant as well as that of the children”*. She had been living in poverty for a very long time without any support from anyone until the government came to her aid. Apart from the social grant that she received for herself and her family, there was no other income in her household. Like most participants, the CSG had become a monthly income for them as they depended on it for survival. Tulonga, who was caring for her two children in agreement indicated that; *“the government needs to continue assisting the children in that way because if I do not receive the grant, it will be difficult to survive”*. Additionally, Aila added that she was grateful that she received the CSG because *“if I was not receiving it, I would be begging”*.

Apart from the CSG which prevents families from hunger, the existence of family ties has minimised for some while others still enjoy the support from extended families. Vivian, who depends on her children for financial support stated that; *“my daughter works in Windhoek. She assists me financially and in terms of buying food, sometimes she sends food parcels. There is also one man who is a street vendor and who also assists me financially when he gets enough to share”*. She stayed at home taking care of her grandchildren and only waited for her family and the government to assist her financially. Like Vivian, some participants were staying in their relatives' homes. Parents in the villages depend on the support from their children who are employed elsewhere in the country. Additionally, urbanisation has affected kinship ties and the

ability for family members to provide support. More often, family members are too poor themselves or have other competing demands for their resources (Osei-Boateng & Otto 2012).

Many of these people relied on traditional networks for social protection but the weakening of the extended family support system in the face of harsh conditions or economic realities; they were left to struggle for survival. In agreement, the study also found that CSG recipients were seen as receiving a salary thus the assistance from family members were minimised. Anna who is experiencing this said that; *“the CSG also brought division among family members because those employed refuse to assist those receiving the grant claiming we are getting assistance from the government but they do not know what difficulties we are going through”*. Since family ties no longer exist for some, recipients focus on what the government assists them with for the betterment of their livelihood.

4.4.3 The impact of the CSG on the livelihood of recipients

The livelihood strategies of rural households vary enormously, but a common strategy is for household members to undertake a range of activities, which each and in some way contributes to one or more of household needs. Most households rely on a range of natural resource uses, and on off-farm income from employment or remittances (Ashley, 2000). This was no exception to Ondobe Constituency as mahangu fields were visible at almost every homestead and some participants were found either weeding or ploughing their fields during the morning hours. This was an indication that the people owned land on which they had built their traditional homesteads

(assets) in their respective villages. They engage in activities such as weeding, sowing, harvesting and threshing of their crops for a living. They also plant ground nuts and beans for consumption during their seasons. In some households, members owned farm animals such as cattle, donkeys, goats, dogs as well as chicken which were found in their coops.

Apart from using the CSG for food items, some households also used the grant for the advancement of their livelihood. It was evident that the CSG assisted recipients in paying water bills, the payments for tractors during the rainy seasons, as well as transportation fares to sell their hand made products and crops. The reason was that most households belonged and headed by woman with only few headed by man, who were unemployed. Those who had cattle used their cattle for ploughing but it was also found that the previous drought had left some households severely impacted and they were still recovering from it. Aila who did not have running water at home but got fresh water from a neighbour's house stated that; *"I use the CSG to pay water bills at the house from where we get water because we do not have a tap here at home. During the rainy season like this one, we also use some money to pay tractors who are ploughing the field"*. Veyii, like Aila, used the CSG for paying bills. She mentioned that; *"If I want to plough the field, I also use the money I receive from the grant as well as from the selling to pay for the tractors because the cattle died during the drought season"*.

Additionally, livelihood activities such as weaving buckets, preparing distilled drinks, extracting *marula* nuts, and collecting traditional spinach were among some of the

activities commonly performed by people from the constituency. All these activities are seasonal but their products assist people to access finances. Although literature has shown that livelihood development programmes have a long history in poverty reduction as they cover a wide range of interventions, this was not the case here. There were no programmes promoting the livelihood of the community members apart from the cash transfers and as a result, the reduction of household vulnerability was still prevalent. Aila who sold kapana to supplement the monthly CSG said that; *“I sell kapana (cooked food) to make money, I do not only wait on the social grant because it’s not enough to cater for the needs of the house in most cases”*. Tuuda who also used her hands to make a living for herself mentioned that; *“during the rainy seasons I extract marula drink from their fruits which I sell during their time and when the fruits are dried I still extract the nuts from the shells and have them sold at the pay points or if I hear someone looking for marula nuts then I sell to them. I also cook ombike (distilled traditional drink) to those who drink just so that I can make money to assist the children and cater for other household needs”*. Similarly, Anna who also engages in seasonal work indicated that; *“when it rains, I normally harvest and dry the traditional spinach (ombidi) and preserve that for consumption.”* As much as recipients/participants engaged in different activities for livelihood, the CSG in one way also contributed to their livelihood as most activities they engaged in were seasonal and the money they made out of their sales could not be used to sustain their living from season to season without a contribution of the monthly CSG. This has shown that the CSG had positively impacted the livelihood of recipients despite some challenges.

4.5 THE IMPLICATION OF THE CSG ON THE WELFARE OF CHILDREN

4.5.1 Perception of CSG by recipients

Recipients of the child social grant also showed the positive effects regarding feelings of dignity and increased social participation in their social lives (Granlund & Hochfeld, 2019). The child social grant provided a means to afford basic needs for households and reduced the burden from caregivers and children to use that money for other expenses to improve their livelihood (MGECW, 2010). The CSG was assisting households from falling into chronic poverty. Participants were thankful for the grant and commended the government for the job well done. They did not feel left out as their governments remembered them through their children. Although not sufficient, it is better receiving than having nothing at all. There were no employment or programmes running close to participants' households thus they all worked for themselves.

Participants felt that their livelihood were uplifted by the CSG they received as it is of great help to them. Aila also mentioned that; *“I am very thankful that I receive the grant because if it was not for the CSG, I would be begging. The government should continue assisting us. It’s good that we are asked about the role of the grant because we may benefit from other assistance to come from the government as well as the changes which may come thereof”*. Neema also added that; *“I am thankful that the grant exists as it is assisting me and my children, if it was not there I wouldn’t have survived as the needs of the children are many and I would perhaps have resorted to begging now because times are changing as years are going by and the children’s needs are a lot and just becoming unbearable to meet”*. The participants were

confident and they felt proud that they were being assisted by the government because of their children who are the beneficiaries of the CSG. Furthermore, the grant also provided women with the flexibility and choice on how the money is spent. They wished for the CSG to continue assisting them as it is in the present as this had assisted them in so many ways.

4.5.2 Grant misuse

Even though the CSG is meant to alleviate poverty among children, some of the caregivers who received the grant on behalf of the children were reported to be misusing the grant and not utilising it in the best interests of the children (Kaseke & Khosa, 2017). The effectiveness of the child social grant is limited, given that the grant is received by a recipient and not a beneficiary. If such a recipient is based in a different town while the child is in the care of another person in a different town or rural area, the amount that reaches the child may be lower than the initial grant received (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013). The recipient of the CSG should be the primary caretaker of the child[ren]. In practice, however, it appears that the grants are being received by parents living in urban areas, and not by the grandparents who bear the burden of rearing children in rural areas. This is no doubt an implementation issue, but deserves some attention (Subarrao, 2007).

The present study also found that some participants in Ondobe Constituency were receiving the CSG for children who were living elsewhere and not under their care. Although the rules are clearly stipulated, this becomes difficult to monitor despite the different verifications already in place. It was also not easy for a neighbour to report

such practices as some feared that it may destroy the bonds as well as the neighbourhood. Therefore, some of these cases go unreported. Those receiving the grant of children not in their care stated that this was done per agreement. In rural areas, people still value relationships with neighbours as these are their immediate responses in cases of emergencies. Uncle Allan, a retired Police Officer, mentioned that; *“I have a neighbour who receives the grant for 3 children but when this woman receives this money she gives the money to the children’s biological mother who is not staying with the children. This grandmother sees to it that all the children go to school with a lunch box but she does not use the children’s money”*. Vivian who received the grant for four children who are all not under her care also mentioned that; *“I am the only [one] staying with two of the children because the other two are staying at my mother’s house so when I receive the grant I send it to my mother for those two children”*. Additionally, Vero who received the CSG for three children with one being a foster child in her care was only staying with one child. When she receives the grant, she sends it to those caring for the children. Veya who is also concerned about the use of the CSG added that; *“I really need the children to continue receiving the child social grant but the money is not used in the best interest of the children. Some recipients use the grant money to buy and drink tombo (brewed alcohol) and if you go in the rooms of those people, you will not believe what you will find there and this poor child receive child social grant from the government but you will find that even a blanket is not there. They need do not need to receive the grant anymore and the money be kept safe by the government because the children are already suffering and it makes no difference. Some recipients are really abusing children to an extent*

because the children are not fed, they do not have shoes as well as clothes despite them being beneficiaries”.

Whether the money reaches those caring for the children is not known and if the money reaches them, whether it is used in the best interests of the children is also another question. This was an indication that despite all the efforts to keep the beneficiaries and recipients together, there were still those caregivers who did not understand this. Therefore, the lack of monitoring mechanisms to ensure that the money is indeed spent in the best interests of the child reduced the grant’s effectiveness. There is a need to revisit this area as a way to ensure that the grant benefits the children and their carers (Chiripanhura & Niño-Zarazúa, 2013).

Some participants suggested that the cash transfer or CSG money be converted into vouchers without any exchange for cash. The vouchers can then be used to buy household needs, however, reducing its impact on other activities which do not need store products such as paying bills to uplift the recipient’s livelihood. Some participants also suggested that the grant for those misusing it and not working in the best interests of the children should be stopped and kept in the government coffers for those who were in need and thus they would use it for the best interests of the children. Tuna, who only received the VG for her daughter, stressed that; *“those abusing the grant money should be removed from the list of recipients so that they can stop receiving it because it is not used in the best interests of the children, for it is better that they do not receive at all than receiving it and not using it for its intended purpose”.*

4.5.3 Age of majority

Caring for a child could be challenging in terms of meeting their basic needs when one is unemployed. A toddler is far way manageable than a youth. This was a sentiment expressed by most of the participants. According to the CCPA, the age of majority is 18 years when one is considered an adult, and this means that they are able to cater for their own needs. People who turn 18, whether in school or not, are deleted from the CSG system and they stop benefiting from the grant. Participants, however, felt that they were facing challenges when they learnt that their children had fallen off the CSG system because they had attained the age of 18. According to one respondent, Vivian, she felt very sad about children who stopped receiving the CSG at the age of 18, and said that; *“I am not happy with the age of 18 because the older the person gets the more their needs. Sometimes I tell myself that it was going to be better if our children are registered to start receiving the grant even from the age of 6 so that they can receive the grant until they are on their own (independent) because then the needs of a 17-year-old is more than a 7-year-old. Just when we are struggling to meeting the needs of these people then the government cuts them of. At least they should continue receiving the grant up until they are 22 years old for their needs become more and it becomes a burden to us the caregivers but then what can you say, you just go to bed and have sleepless nights thinking of how to support your children who are in school at that age most of the times”*. Tuyeni who is caring for her late brother’s child and receiving her funds, in an angry tone told the researcher that; *“I will say this, I have my late brother’s children under my care, but their Government Institution Pension Fund (GIPF) only stops when the child turns 21 years. But why does the government stop assisting the children when they turn 18 years if they are really assisting the*

children, all things should balance, why do the same government keep the money for children until they turn 21 but stops to others when they are 18 years? They need to change and follow only one age group because I am thinking why they went with 21 years is because they have seen that at that age the children are matured enough. Who told them at 18 years the child has matured but not matured to receive their GIPF money? They need to change, it is not proper. Sometimes we get very angry because of things our government decides but they also need to hear our pleas”.

Similarly, Tuna also indicated that; *“I feel bad because some children at the age of 18 are still in school and their needs become my responsibilities on my shoulder. If the children can benefit up to age 20 or more, I think it is better as it will lift the burden from our shoulders”.* With mixed emotions, participants felt bad about the age of 18 and suggested that the grant should at least continue assisting the children especially those in school until they have completed grade 12. For that reason, the burden to meet their needs will be lifted from their shoulders. Therefore, there are still some poor, vulnerable and marginalised Namibians who are not covered by the current social protection system at the time it is most needed because vulnerable children, when they turn the age of 18, fall out of the social protection unless such a child is disabled.

Another thing worth stressing is the fear of some participants to inform the beneficiaries of the CSG. Recipients were no longer safe as children started demanding the grant from their recipients. It is important for the children to be aware that they are beneficiaries of the CSG as this allows them to provide correct information especially at school for statistical purposes. However, it was equally

challenging to recipients because children started demanding for the grant from them so they can spend it by themselves. Some recipients feared for their lives as children made threats to harm them if their demands were not met. Some participants narrated how the children could go to stand at the pay points waiting for their recipients to receive the money before they would collect the money from them and this resulted in fights when their demands were not met. Some children demanded expensive things such as smart phones and expensive clothes which were not equivalent to the total monthly amount. Tuya indicated that she had heard of stories of fellow recipients who had informed the children of the grant and they were beaten by the children when they did not get the money from them. In fear of telling her children about the grant, Neema said; *“children are difficult to tell, if they know they are beneficiaries, they will demand cell phones which are unaffordable”*. However, Vero’s children were informed about the purpose of the grant when she took them to the MGEPSW offices and they do not demand anything she cannot provide. She said *“the children are aware that they are beneficiaries as I have told them so that, if they have needs they come to me and tell me, grandmother ‘meekulu’, I need this and that, but they were informed about how the grant should be utilised at the office”*.

4.5.4 Amount of CSG

Each child who receives the CSG gets an amount of N\$ 250.00 per month. Some participants receive the CSG for one child, others for two or three, but the highest participant was receiving the grant for five children. All participants except for one, complained about the amount received not being enough for the needs of the children. Literature has shown that the CSG was relatively small and did not cater for the needs

of their children, concurring with the present study. Tuyra who was among those complaining maintained that, *“it is not enough (the CSG) and I am asking for the government to review that because the amount is little and they need to increase it at least. You know the older the child grows, the more their needs become [sic]. Like my children, one is in grade 8 and now I need to pay separate prices for them unlike previously when they were young, I use to pay for one seat in a taxi for the two of them. The money needs to be increased the same way the government increases the old age grant, if it is possible, have them increase the amount with a N\$50.00 per year just like they do with the old age grant”*. Maiya also added that; *“I am grateful for the CSG I receive from the government but the money is small especially to us without extra income. The government need[s] to add a 50 dollar on top of what we are already receiving”*. Maya further stated that; *“the grant need[s] to continue assisting the needy children as it really helps but there is need for an increase in the amount to N\$300.00 at lease per child. I understand we are a lot receiving these grants for our children and we all need to benefit but the government need[s] to do something”*.

Others complained that the amount they received for their children was equivalent to the bag of maize meal which they needed to buy every month. The children’s school wear which can get lost during the month or get worn out during the year also needed to be replaced. However, it gets difficult to get both the school wear and food for the lunch box in one month, especially that they are unemployed and did not have a source of income. They pleaded with the government to continue assisting the vulnerable members of the society but also to increase the CSG equally like it increases the old

age grant for the elderly. Participants no longer felt that the monthly CSG was helpful because they could no longer afford their children's basic needs.

4.6 CONCLUSION

The findings of the present researcher showed that the child social grant helped in reducing poverty and improved the livelihood of recipients. The cash transfers were found to be effective, however challenges cannot be overlooked as they are affecting the recipients. The amount of the grant was relatively small despite its assistance. Most recipients received the VG grant for their children because they were found unemployed and only participated in seasonal work as well as depending on their families. Family assistance has become unreliable as it almost no longer exists. Child abuse cases as a result of the CSG were also discussed as it was not clear that some children were indeed benefiting from the grant or not. As much as there is a link between the CSG and nutrition and education, it was still not so clear with regards to the performance of the children. Using the child grant for feeding a child could be one of the remedies to fight poverty but proper family planning and having the recipients getting some jobs can be the answer to the improved livelihoods of the region and nation at large.

From the findings, the objectives of the study have shown that they were all met with regards to implications of the CSG, the role it plays on the livelihood of recipients, as well the implications on the welfare of children. It was evident that the CSG played a role on the beneficiaries' education as it was able to afford the school needs and transport fares to attend school. Also, the children of school going age were in school

because the cash transfers in Namibia are conditional and require children to be in school. It was also visible that the CSG improved nutrition in different households despite its relatively small amount.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY

Social protection is viewed as a tool to reduce poverty over the world. Cash transfers, a popular mechanism of delivering social protection were found to have positive social transformative effects on households and individuals. The CSG is an instrument of delivering cash transfers and this was the focus area of the study as it sought to explore the role of the CSG on the livelihood of recipients in Ondobe constituency, Ohangwena region. The study was conducted to fill the gaps in literature on the impacts of cash transfers as well as to inform policy instruments for delivering social welfare services to positively impact the livelihood of beneficiaries.

The Namibian government has put more emphasis on the wellbeing of children with different legislations being put in place to safeguard them. Even though the children are staying with their respective caregivers, the government has made efforts to afford them a decent lifestyle by rolling out cash transfers in the form of the CSG to the needy and vulnerable people. Studies have found that cash transfers as a delivering mechanism can achieve multiple objectives for social protection, although the programmes are constrained to a targeted group of people who need to be reached, cash transfers help individuals to develop better coping strategies to improve their livelihoods. This was evident in this study as participants' livelihoods through which they made a living by engaging in various activities, and the assets they owned were visible. They owned land for animal grazing and homesteads which were well

constructed, fields where they ploughed and planted their crops such as mahangu, beans, sorghum, ground nuts as well as melons. Furthermore, it showed that cash transfers assisted by paying water bills and ploughing (tractor payments).

For children, cash transfers are distributed within families for each individual to enjoy the same level of welfare, which concurs with the findings of the present study. However, it was also evident that people lacked financial stability because there was a high rate of unemployment in the constituency with 44% of the people searching for a job in 2011. As much as cash transfers prevent dependency, the study findings revealed that some people, although engaging in seasonal work, depended highly on the CSG for financial assistance. Most of the women who participated in the study were homemakers, took care of their children and looked after their households.

The study evidence showed that rural households were economically vulnerable and that they are at the risk of falling into poverty. However, the role of CSG in the livelihood of recipients could be seen in different areas such as education as well as nutrition. Namibia's CSG is conditional as children of school going age are required to be in school as outlined in the literature. The findings showed that all school going children from the age of seven were enrolled in and attending school. Recipients made it a priority to keep their children in school with the fear that the grant may stop but at the same time, have their kids receive the education they required.

Literature also showed that the expenditure on food is associated with nutritional outcomes. The link between the CSG and nutrition was obvious as recipients showed

that the main food items they spent the grant on were maize meal, rice, sugar and cooking oil for their households. Additionally, it was also found that school going children had breakfast which was mainly rice and soft porridge because not everyone could afford bread for breakfast and some households were situated far from where they could have access to it. The CSG enhanced the capacity of households to meet both educational needs as well as nutritious food.

The aim of the CSG is to protect households from falling into poverty. The government, in its various efforts, developed programmes such as this to protect and promote the well-being of children. Literature also indicated the effectiveness of the CSG in addressing poor households, however, as much as the grant assists families, it seems as if its effectiveness has many facets. The findings showed that in some instances, the CSG is not utilised in the best interests of the children because some recipients were not residing with the beneficiaries as it ought to be. Thus, its effectiveness is questionable because the present study has not found that the same amount received reached its beneficiaries.

The CPPA (2015) shows that a child is anyone under the age of 18. It was obvious that a person who turns 18 is no longer a child and as such, the child stops benefiting from the CSG. Participants, however, shared their sentiments as they were not happy that this is the case because their children do not complete school on time. It was suggested that the government should review this because children of that age cannot work for themselves and that they were still immature to even acquire a job. Another important points was the amount of the CSG was relatively small and the recipients

were unable to meet all their children's needs despite receiving the grant on a monthly basis. They suggested that the grant should be increased as the old age pension has been increased, for example increasing it by N\$ 50.00 so that it can add up to N\$300.00 per child per month.

The present study findings showed the role that the CSG plays on the livelihood of recipients as it was evident that it was assisting recipients to cater for their children's basic needs. However, there are still implications which are associated with the grant, especially in implementation as well as monitoring and evaluation.

5.2 CONCLUSION

The government's commitment to rolling out child related services is aimed at reducing high levels of child poverty. The social protection system in Namibia has thus far reached a numerous group of people country wide. However, as much as social protection programmes are in place, and assisting and preventing households from entering into poverty, there is still a need to provide the most needed benefits while reducing its ineffectiveness. Critically speaking, there is a need for a better and improved monitoring and evaluation system which can provide concrete evidence that the CSG is indeed used in the best interest of the intended or targeted groups. This may improve the programme design and coordination of the present and future programmes.

A country such as Namibia requires different and specific poverty reduction strategies to achieve a long-term reduction in poverty. Different regions have different resources

which can be used by individuals as well as groups or even the entire communities to help prevent the risk and shocks which make households vulnerable. Different resources in different areas could be utilised for the betterment of the livelihood of people. Furthermore, social protection programmes need to be focused on skills development as rural individuals may possess skills that are yet to be realised, if given the opportunity. This will empower woman who are homemakers to work and contribute to household incomes instead of being dependent on the CSG which so far has proven to have transformative effects on the livelihood of recipients.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

There is a need for research on the cost of the child social grant from birth to the age of 18. This can give a good estimate of how much the child grant should be per month per child because from the study findings, participants were complaining of the amount received as not being enough.

Research should be done on the methods that can be used to curb the abuse of the child grant by the recipients so that the grant can increase the impact on the child. Instead of offering money every month, maybe vouchers could be provided in some months.

There is a need to compare the role of the CSG on the educational progress of children benefiting from the grant as compared to those not receiving it. From the findings, it was only clear that beneficiaries attended school, however, their progress is not known.

REFERENCES

- Adato, M., Ahmed, A., & Lund, F. (2020). *Linking safety nets, social protection and poverty reduction directions for Africa*. International Food Policy Research Institute.
- Airasian, P. Gay, L. R., & Mills, G. E., (2009). *Educational research, competencies for analysis and applications* (9th ed.). Pearson International Edition.
- Alharthi, K. & Rehman, A. A. (2016). An introduction to research paradigms. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, 3(8), 51-59.
<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/325022648>
- Ashley, C. (2000). *The impact of tourism on rural livelihood: Namibia's experience*. Overseas Development institute.
- Cha, L., & Ramesh, M., (2017). *Provision for protection review of social protection in Zambia and Namibia*. Southern African Institute for Policy and Research.
- Babajanian, B., & Hagen-Zanker, J. (2012). *Social protection and social exclusion: An analytical framework to assess the links*. The Overseas Development Institute.
- Bank of Namibia, (2013). *Annual report*. Namibia.
- Barca, V., Batagli, F., Hagen-Zanker, T., Harman, L., Pellerano, L., Schmidst, T., & Sturge, G (2016). *Cash transfers: What does the evidence say? A rigorous review of program impact of the role of design and implementation features*. Overseas Development. Institute.
- Barrientos, A. (2010). *Social protection and poverty: Poverty reduction and policy regimes thematic paper*. Research Institute for Social Development.
- Banerji, A., & Gentilini, U., (2013). *Social safety nets: Lessons from global evidence and practice*. The World Bank.
- Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C., & Kagee, A. (2006). *Fundamentals of social research methods: An African perspective* (4th ed.). Juta & Co. Ltd.
- Bogdan, M., De Vault, L.M. & Taylor, J.S. (2016). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: A guide book and resource*. John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Chambers, R., & Conway, G. (1991). *Sustainable rural livelihoods: Practical concepts for the 21st century*. <http://www.smallstock.info/reference/IDS/dp296.pdf>
- Child Care and Protection Act 2015. (2019, Jan 30).
<https://www.lac.org.na/laws/annoSTAT/Child%20Care%20and%20Protection%20Act%203%20of%202015.pdf>
- Child Status Act 2006 (2008, Nov 3).
https://laws.parliament.na/cms_documents/children's-status-44c16b89b9.pdf

- Chiripanhura¹, B. M. & Niño-Zarazúa, M., (2013) *Social safety nets in Namibia: Structure, effectiveness and the possibility for a universal cash transfer scheme*. United Nations University's World Institute for Development Economics Research.
- Conway, M., Foster, M., & Norton, A. (2002). *Social protection: Defining the field of action and policy*. *Development policy review*. Blackwell Publishers.
- Conway, M., Foster, M., & Tim, N. (2001). *Social protection concepts and approaches: Implications for social policy and practice in international development*. Overseas Development Institute.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rded.). Sage Publishers.
- De Lacey, S., Hammarberg, K., & Kirkman, M. (2015). *Qualitative research methods: When to use them and how to judge them*. Sage Publishers.
- Dempers, U. (2016). *Social protection in Namibia: A civil society perspective*. Fredrich Ebert Stiftung.
- Department of International Development. (2011). *DFID cash transfers evidence paper*. United Kingdom - Foreign, Commonwealth and Development Office, FCDO.
- Department of Social Development. (2016). *The South Africa child support grant impact Assessment: Evidence from a survey of children and adolescences and their households*. Pretoria: UNICEF South Africa.
- Devereux, S. (2006). *Cash transfer and social protection*. Institute for Development Studies.
- Devereux, S. (2009). *Seasonality and social protection in Africa*. Institute of Development Studies.
- Devereux, S. & Sabates-Wheeler, R. (2004). *Transformative Social Protection*. Institute of Development Studies.
- De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C.B., & Delport C.S.L. (2012). *Research at grassroots for the social sciences and human service professionals*. (4th ed.). Van Schaik Publishers.
- Dicks, R., Kalusopa, T., & Osei-Boateng, C. (2012). *Social protection in Africa Ghana*. Africa Labour Research.
- Ellis, F. (2000). *Rural livelihoods and diversity in developing countries*. Oxford Uni. Press Inc.
- Elluard, C. (2015). *Guidance notes: Cash transfers in individual programming*. CALP learning workshop.
- Gockel, A.F. & Kumado, K. (2003). *A study on social security in Ghana*. University of Ghana.

- Granlund, S. & Hochfeld, T. (2019). 'That child support grant gives me power' – Exploring social and relational aspects of cash transfers in South Africa in times of livelihood change. *The Journal of Development studies*. DOI:10.108/00220388.2019.16501707
- Gutura, P. (2014). *The intended consequences of the social assistance grants in South Africa*. University of Fort Hare.
- Hartman (2018). *Social protection fragmented, exclusive - Kameeta*. National news.
- Hosegood, V. & Lund, F. (2005). The reach and impact of child support grants: Evidence from KwaZulu-Natal. *Development Southern Africa*, 22(4), 467-482.
- Institute of Development Studies (2017). Social protection and resilience. *Supporting livelihoods in protracted crises and in fragile and humanitarian contexts*. Food and Agriculture Organisation.
- International Recovery Platform (2005). *Guidance note on recovery livelihood*. International Strategy for Disaster Reduction.
- Kakwani, N., Soares, F., & Son, H.H., (2005). *Conditional cash transfers in African countries*. International Poverty Centre.
- Kaseke, E. & Khosa, P., (2017). *The utilisation of child social grant by caregivers: The case of Ba Phalaborwa municipality in Limpopo province*. University of Witwatersrand.
- Kivunja, C. & Kuyini, A., B. (2017). Understanding and applying research paradigms in educational contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(5), 1927-6052. doi:10.5430/ijhe.v6n5p26. <https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v6n5p26>
- Kojwang, A., R., & Shindondola-Mote, H. (2012). Social protection in Namibia. In R. Dicks, T. Kalusopa, & Osei-Boateng, C. (Eds.), *Social Protection in Africa* (pp. 267-300). Africa Labour Research.
- Krantz, L. (2001). *The sustainable livelihood approach to poverty reduction*. SIDA.
- Kumar, R. (2011). *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. Sage Publications.
- Kumitz, D. (2013). *Scoping social protection platform for social protection Zambia policy brief*. Fredrich Ebert-Stiftung
- Levine, S., Yu, D., & Van Der Berg, S. (2011). Measuring the impact of Cash transfer on poverty and inequality in Namibia. *Stellenbosch Economic Working Paper: 55/09*.
- Maintenance Act 2003*. (2003, Nov 3). Republic of Namibia.
- Mbadi, J. (2011). *Affected household living with HIV and AIDS in rural Namibia: Case of Odibo village, Ohangwena region*. University of Applied Sciences.

- McCord, A. & Slater, R. (2009). *Social protection, rural development and food security: Issues paper on the role of social protection in rural development*. Overseas Development Institute.
- Mhungu, D. (2016, February 09). Sioka warns abusers of child grants. *The Sun Newspaper* https://www.namibiansun.com/main/print_post/sioka-warns-abusers-of-child-grants.
- Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare. (2010). *The effectiveness of child welfare grants in Namibia: Study findings and technical notes*. Government of the Republic of Namibia.
- Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare & National Planning Commission of Namibia (2013). *How Effective is the Social protection system in reducing child poverty in Namibia? Community based analysis*. Government of the Republic of Namibia.
- Namibia Statistic Agency. (2016). *Namibia household income and expenditure survey (NHIES) 2015/2016 Report*. Namibia Statistics Agency.
- Namibia Statistic Agency. (2011). *Namibia population and housing census main report*. Namibia Statistics Agency.
- National Pension Act 1992. (1995, Oct 1). <https://www.lac.org.na/laws/annoSTAT/National%20Pensions%20Act%2010%20of%201992.pdf>
- National Planning Commission (2014). *The root causes of poverty*. National Planning Commission.
- Nesbitt-Ahmed, Z. & Pozarny, P. (2018). *Qualitative case study on social cash transfers and livelihood support in Lesotho*. Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations.
- Osei-Boateng, C. & Otto, N. K., (2012) Protection schemes in Africa. In Dicks, R., Kalusopa, T., & Osei-Boateng, C. (Eds.), *Social Protection in Africa* (pp. 24-46). Africa Labour Research.
- Republic of Namibia. (2018). *Namibia's 5th National Development Plan (NDP5)*. National Planning Commission.
- Republic of Namibia. (2007). *The Namibian constitution in perspective*. Gamsberg Macmillan.
- Schade, K., La, J., & Pick, A. (2019). *Financing social protection in Namibia*. OECD Development Policy Papers.
- Social Security Act 1994* (1995, Jan 15). <https://www.lac.org.na/laws/annoSTAT/Social%20Security%20Act%2034%20of%201994.pdf>
- Subbarao, K. (2007). *Issues and options for reform: Poverty reduction and economic management network*. The World Bank.

- Sulaiman, M. (2018). Livelihood, cash transfer and graduation approaches: How do they compare in terms of cost, impact and targeting? In A.S. Taffesse, & F.S. Wouterse, (Eds.), *Boosting growth to end hunger by 2025: The role of social protection*. (pp 103 -119). International Food Research institute (IFPRI).
- Taukeni, S. & Matchidiso, T. (2013). *Assessing social grants to meet orphans' children school needs: Namibia and South Africa Perspective* (pp. 73-77). David Publishing.
- Terre-Blanche, M., Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (2012). *Research in practice, applied methods for the social sciences*. University of Cape Town Press (Pty) Ltd.
- Tjihenuna, T. (2015, June 25). Grants for orphans abused. *The Sun Newspaper*, p.1
- UN General Assembly (2000). *United Nations Millennium Declaration, Resolution Adopted by the General Assembly*.
<https://www.refworld.org/docid/3b00f4ea3.html>
- UNICEF. (2016). *Children and the Namibian Budget: Social assistance and welfare*. UNICEF.
- Veterans Act 2008*. (2008, Jun 23).
<https://www.lac.org.na/laws/annoSTAT/Veterans%20Act%20of%202008pdf>
- Williams, J. M. (2007). *The social and economic impacts of South Africa's child support grant*. Williams College.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A - Ethical clearance certificate



ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Ethical Clearance Reference Number: HREC-NH/06/10/2020

Date: 19-10-2020

This Ethical Clearance Certificate is issued by the University of Namibia Research Ethics Committee (UREC) in accordance with the University of Namibia's Research Ethics Policy and Guidelines. Ethical approval is given in respect of undertakings contained in the Research Project outlined below. This Certificate is issued on the recommendations of the ethical evaluation done by the Faculty/Centre/Campus Research & Publications Committee sitting with the Postgraduate Studies Committee.

Title of Project: AN EXPLORATIVE STUDY OF THE ROLE OF CHILD SOCIAL GRANTS IN THE LIVELIHOODS OF RECIPIENTS: A CASE STUDY OF ONDOBE CONSTITUENCY, OHANGWENA REGION, NAMIBIA

Nature/Level of Project: M.A. (NON-HEALTH) (NQF9)

Researcher: AUNE T. VALOMBOLA

Student Number: 200948962

Faculty: HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

Supervisor(s): DR. K.E. OMOMOWO

Take note of the following:

- (a) Any significant changes in the conditions or undertakings outlined in the approved Proposal must be communicated to the UREC. An application to make amendments may be necessary.
- (b) Any breaches of ethical undertakings or practices that have an impact on ethical conduct of the research must be reported to the UREC.
- (c) The Principal Researcher must report issues of ethical compliance to the UREC (through the Chairperson of the Faculty/Centre/Campus Research & Publications Committee) at the end of the Project or as may be requested by UREC.
- (d) The UREC retains the right to:
 - (i) Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance if any unethical practices (as outlined in the Research Ethics Policy) have been detected or suspected,
 - (ii) Request for an ethical compliance report at any point during the course of the research.

REC wishes you the best in your research.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "H.L. Beyer", is written over a horizontal line.

Prof. H.L. Beyer, Deputy Chair: HREC-NH
pp Chair: HREC-NH

APPENDIX B - Research permission letter

CENTRE FOR POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

University of Namibia, Private Bag 13301, Windhoek, Namibia
340 Mandume Ndemufayo Avenue, Pioneers Park
☎ +264 61 206 3275/4662; Fax +264 61 206 3290; URL: <http://www.unam.edu.na>



RESEARCH PERMISSION LETTER

Student Name: Aune, T. Valombola

Student number: 200948962

Programme: MA, Sociology

Approved Research Title: AN EXPLORATIVE STUDY OF THE ROLE OF CHILD SOCIAL GRANTS IN THE LIVELIHOODS OF RECIPIENTS: A CASE STUDY ONDOMBE CONSTITUENCY, OHANGWENA REGION, NAMIBIA.

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I hereby confirm that the above-mentioned student is registered at the University of Namibia for the programme indicated. The proposed study met all the requirements as stipulated in the University guidelines and has been approved by the relevant committees.

The proposal adheres to ethical principles as per attached Ethical Clearance Certificate. Permission is hereby granted to carry out the research as described in the approved proposal.

Best Regards

DR. S.J. EISEB,
ACTING DIRECTOR: CENTRE FOR POSTGRADUATE STUDIES
TEL: +264 61 2063275
E-MAIL: directorpgs@unam.na

29/10/2020

DATE

APPENDIX C – Research permission Council Letter



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA
OHANGWENA REGIONAL COUNCIL

Private Bag 88011 Eenhana, Namibia

Tel. No: +264 65 264355
Enquiries: Onesmus Shapopi
Email: oshapopi@ohangwenarc.gov.na

Fax. No: +264 65 263033
Our Ref.: S.4/5/1
04 February 2021

Aune Valombola
MADS candidate
University of Namibia
Oshakati Campus
0816363248

Dear Ms. Valombola,

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY IN ONDOBE
CONSTITUENCY, OHANGWENA REGION**


Reference is made to your letter on the above-mentioned subject dated 18 January 2021.

Ohangwena Regional Council is conscious that research is one of the main academic functions of any academic institutions and took note of your Research Topic: **Explorative study of the role of child social grant in the livelihood of recipients in Ondobe Constituency, Ohangwena Region**

Based on the above, you are hereby informed that approval has been granted for you to conduct a research study in these two villages.

It is trusted that the aforementioned information will be sufficient.

Yours faithfully,


FILLIPUS H SHILONGO
CHIEF REGIONAL OFFICER

CC: Hon. Hilaria Ndjuluwa
Ondobe Constituency



All official correspondences must be addressed to the Chief Regional Officer

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION LEAFLET AND CONSENT FORM

ANNEX 5



TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT: An explorative study of the role of child social grant in the livelihood of recipients: a case study of Ondobe constituency, Ohangwena Region, Namibia

REFERENCE NUMBER: 200948962

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: AUNE TUYAKULA VALOMBOLA

ADDRESS: EENHANA

CONTACT NUMBER: 0816363248

You are being invited to take part in a research project. Please take some time to read the information presented here, which will explain the details of this project. Please ask me any questions about any part of this project that you do not fully understand. It is very important that you are fully satisfied that you clearly understand what this research entails and how you could be involved. Also, your participation is **entirely voluntary** and you are free to decline to participate without any negative consequences after you decline to participate. If you say no, this will not affect you negatively in any way whatsoever. You are also free to withdraw from the study at any point, even if you do agree to take part.

This study has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee at The University of Namibia and will be conducted according to the ethical guidelines and principles of the international Declaration of Helsinki, South African Guidelines for Good Clinical Practice and Namibian National Research Ethics Guidelines.

1. What is this research study all about?

The study will be conducted at Ondobe Constituency, Ohangwena region. A total of 18 participants will be recruited to participate in the study.

2. Why have you been invited to participate?

You have been invited to participate in this study because you receive child social grant on behalf of a child(ren)

3. What will your responsibilities be?

After you have agreed to participate in this study, I would like to interview you to discuss the role of child social grant(s) in the livelihood of your family/household. Please draw on your experience to answer the questions. I would require your permission to tape record our interviews, however if you do not give me permission, I will only take hand notes of our interviews.

4. Will you benefit from taking part in this research?

You will not benefit directly from this research if you agree to participate in this study, but the findings of this study might inform government on the restructuring of policy on how to improve the welfare of Namibian children.

5. Are there in risks involved in your taking part in this research?

There is no foreseeable risk to you as a result of participating in this research.

6. Will you be paid to take part in this study and are there any costs involved?

You will not be paid for participating in this study, participation is entirely voluntary. You will not incur any cost for participating in this research.

7. Is there anything else that you should know or do?

You can contact the Centre for Research and Publications at **+264 061 206 4673**; **research@unam.na** if you have any concerns or complaints that have not been adequately addressed by the investigator.

You will receive a copy of this information and consent form for your own records.

8. Declaration by participant

By signing below, I agree to take part in a research study entitled: An explorative study of the role of child social grant in the livelihood of recipients: a case study of Ondobe constituency, Ohangwena Region, Namibia

I declare that:

9.1 I have read or had read to me this information and consent form and it is written in a language with which I am fluent and comfortable.

9.2 I have had a chance to ask questions and all my questions have been adequately answered.

9.3 I understand that taking part in this study is **voluntary** and I have not been pressurised to take part.

9.4 I may choose to leave the study at any time and will not be penalised or prejudiced in any way.

9.5 I agree/decline to be audio-recorded during interviews (strike through either “agree” or “decline” as appropriate).

Signed at (place) on (date) 2021.

Signature of participant..... Signature of witness.....

9. Declaration by investigator

I, **Aune Tuyakula Valombola** declare that:

10.1 I explained the information in this document to

10.2 I encouraged him/her to ask questions and took adequate time to answer them.

10.3 I am satisfied that he/she adequately understands all aspects of the research, as discussed above

10.4 I did not use an interpreter.

Signed at (place) on (date) 2021.

Signature of investigator..... Signature of witness.....

APPENDIX E - Data collection Instruments (interview guide)

Name: Aune T Valombola

Student No: 200948962

Title: AN EXPLORATIVE STUDY OF THE ROLE OF CHILD SOCIAL GRANT IN THE LIVELIHOODS OF RECIPIENTS: A CASE STUDY OF ONDOBE CONSTITUENCY, OHANGWENA REGION, NAMIBIA.

1. How many of your children are receiving child social grants?
2. What are the different types of child social grants that your child(ren) are receiving?
3. What is the total amount that your children are receiving as child social grant?
4. Apart from the child social grants you get from government, what are the other sources of your household income
5. What is the total monthly income of your family/household?
6. What is the total monthly expenditure of your family/household?
7. What are the key items you spend money on monthly basis?
8. In what way would you describe the use of the child social grants to your family?
9. Which needs do you use the child social grants for in your household?
10. How would you meet these needs/purposes if you do not get child social grants?
11. Are your children aware that they are getting child social grants?
12. What are the specific things you do for your children with the child social grant's money?
13. How would you describe your experience of child social grant with regard to your livelihood?

INTERVIEW GUIDE OSHIWAMBO

Omapulo

1. Ounona vangapi havamono oshimaliwa shomavatelo?
2. Omaludi elipi oimaliwa yomakwafo onunona voye havamono?
3. Ounona voye ohavamono oimaliwa ingapi aveshe kumwe?
4. Kakela koimaliwa yomayambidido onunona oyo homono, ohomono vali ekwafo lopashimaliwa talidi peni?
5. Meumbo leni ohamuuya oiuyemo ifike peni komwedi?
6. Ohamulongifa oshimaliwa shifike peni komwedi meumbo leni?
7. Eemumbwe dilipipo unene hamulongifa oshimaliwa sheni komwedi?
8. Popyamo elongifo loshimaliwa eshi kutya ohoshilongifa ngahelipi?
9. Oimaliwa ei ohamuilongifa meemumbwe dilipipo?
10. Ohamuxupu ngahelipi ngeenge inamumona oshimaliwa eshi shomakwafo?
11. Ounona oveshishii kutya ohavamono oshimaliwa?
12. Oinima ilipipo honingile onunona voye okudja moimaliwa oyo?
13. Ototiko shike koshimaliwa oku mekwatafano nonghalo yomeumbo leni?