



**FACTORS INFLUENCING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF POVERTY ERADICATION
PROGRAMS IN SELECTED COMMUNITIES OF NGAMILAND WEST, BOTSWANA**

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ABSTRACT

Poverty eradication program targeted poor and vulnerable members of any society to attain a self-sufficient, dignified livelihood. The focus of the study was to analyse factors influencing implementation of the poverty eradication program (PEP) in selected communities in Ngamiland West, Botswana. The hypothesis of the study was that there was no significant relationship between poverty eradication program and the rural livelihood. A mixed method approach was used to collect and analyze data. A multi-stage sampling procedure was used to select the study population. Simple random sampling was used to select six study sites in Ngamiland West and purposive sampling was used to select 60 respondents who were interviewed (using interview schedules during a households survey. Qualitative data were partly obtained through the households survey and from key informants (7 community leaders and 6 beneficiaries who successfully implemented projects) and through 1 focus group discussion (FGD) session. Data were summarized through the use of descriptive statistics (frequency, percentages, charts, etc.) and inferentially analyzed using correlation, multiple regression and chi-square statistical tools. The results show a weak positive but significant relationship between the income from project ($r = 0.358$; $p \leq 0.05$) and PEP impact. The study concluded that age, income earned, infrastructure and government policy either had a relationship or an association with the implementation of PEP in the study area.

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BMTHS: Botswana Multi-Topic Household Survey

IBRD: International Bank for Reconstruction & Development

ICP: International Comparison Program

IFAD: International Fund for Agriculture Development

IMF: International Monetary Fund

ISPAAD: Integrated Support Programme for Arable Agriculture Development

LIMID: Livestock Management and Infrastructure Development

PEP: Poverty Eradication Program

PPP: Purchasing Power Parity

SSA: Sub- Saharan Africa

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a brief background of the study, problem statement, research questions, research objectives, research hypothesis and significance of the study. It further outlines delimitations and limitations of the study, operational definitions and chapter summary.

1.1 Brief background

Poverty estimates from the World Bank have confirmed that the world reached the Millennium Development Goal target 1, five years ahead of the 2015 deadline (Government of Botswana, 2015; United Nations, 2013, 2015) when the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) morphed into the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Extreme poverty rates have fallen in the developing world region, with China leading the way (Leary, 2016). Poverty remains widespread in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and southern Asia, although progress in the latter region has been substantial in which poverty rates fell by an average of one percentage point annually- from 51 percent in 1990 to 30 percent two decades later (Leary, 2016). In contrast, the poverty rate in the SSA fell only 8 percentage points over the same period (United Nations, 2013). Despite this impressive achievement at the global level, 1.2 billion people lived in extreme poverty as of 2016 (Leary, 2016). Nonetheless, the World Bank (2019) indicates that there was a decline in poverty reduction globally between the 1990s and 2017. In contrast, poverty reduction was threatened from 2017 onwards as it reduced from an average of 1 percent per year over a century (1990-2015) to 0.6 percent between 2013 and 2015 and further to a half percent between 2015 to 2017 (World Bank, 2020). The SSA accounts for more than one-third of destitute people worldwide (UNDP, 2015) with 431 million in destitution in 2017 (World Bank, 2020). Poverty rates do not fall fast enough to keep up with the increasing population of the region (Beegle & Christiaensen, 2019), thereby making it unlikely that the 2030 target will be met (World Bank, 2020).

Globally, abject poverty is found in areas where poor health and lack of education deprive people of productive employment; environmental resources have been depleted or spoiled; and corruption, conflict and bad governance waste public resources and discourage private investments (Mood & Jonsson, 2016). According to Wolff, Lamb, & Zur-szpiro (2015), a significant number of people in the contemporary world suffer the affliction of impoverishment in multiple ways, arguably the most basic of which is viewed as material poverty, or deprivation in terms of such needs as food, shelter, clothing, etc. Indeed such poverty is overwhelmingly located in remote rural areas (Coleman, 2009; Deaton, 2016; Nelen, Piters, Posthumus, &

Weerdt, 2015; Tan, Nguyen, Dung, Phat & Dung, 2011). Nevertheless, the current global pandemic witnessed in COVID-19 threatens the poverty agenda across all regions due to the inability of health systems to control the novel virus (World Bank, 2020).

Therefore, poverty consists of any form of inequality, which is a source of social exclusion, in the distribution of the living conditions essential to human dignity (Adato, Carter, & May, 2006). Indeed, Kolawole & Torimiro (2006) observe that factors such as unemployment, inequalities and poverty inhibit the realization of human personality. In Botswana, the inequality hiatus is way too high for a developing country that equivocally has “eradicated poverty”. Indeed, Asselin (2009) purports that living conditions correspond to the capabilities of individuals, households and communities to meet their basic needs in terms of income, education, health, food/nutrition, safe water/sanitation, labor/employment, housing (living environment), access to productive assets, access to markets and community participation/social peace. The faces of poverty become particularly apparent when poverty analysis is done at the individual level. The different dimensions mentioned above by Asselin (2009) may take specific forms according to gender and age group. Also, Srinivas (2015) asserts that poverty is explained by individual circumstances and/or characteristics of poor people; some examples include education, skill, experience, intelligence, health, handicaps, age, work orientation, time horizon, culture of poverty, discrimination, race, sex, etc.

There has been marked progress in reducing poverty over the past decades. Five years ahead of schedule in 2010, the world attained the first Millennium Development Goal target “to cut the 1990 poverty rate by half by 2015” (Leary, 2016). Despite the progress made in reducing poverty, the number of people living in extreme poverty globally remains inaptly high. The introduction of four additional poverty metrics¹ in 2018 meant to capture the changing nature of global poverty, indicates high poverty rates (World Bank, 2018). In line with the given global

¹ See World Bank (2020). Higher poverty lines at US\$3.20 and US\$5.50 a day reflect national poverty lines in lower-middle income and upper-middle-income economies, respectively; The societal poverty line, which adjusts to each country’s income, captures the increase in basic needs that a person requires to live a dignified life as a country becomes richer.

The multidimensional poverty measure incorporates deprivations in the context of three indicators of well-being (monetary poverty, access to education, and basic infrastructure), thus giving further insights into the complex nature of poverty.

growth forecasts, poverty reduction may not be fast enough to reach the target of ending extreme poverty by 2030.

In 2013, 10.7 percent (767 million) of the world's population lived on less than US\$1.90 a day, down from 12.4 percent (881 million) in 2012 and 35 percent (1.85 billion) in 1990 (United Nations Development Programme, 2014). Furthermore, the most recent estimates in 2015 indicate that 10% of the world's population or 734 million people lived on less than US\$1.90 a day (United Nations, 2015), which shows a decline over a period of 15 years. Based on UNDP's (2018) global report, 1.1 billion people are living in multidimensional poverty in rural areas and 200 million in urban settings (UNDP, 2018). The decline in extreme poverty remains largely a rural problem, and a majority of the world's poor will live in rural areas for many decades to come (Leary, 2016). It is a problem people in developing countries are facing such as in Vietnam (Tan, Nguyen, & Dung, 2011).

Furthermore, half of the extremely poor live in SSA (including Botswana). The number of the poor in the region fell only by 4 million with 389 million people living on less than US\$1.90 a day in 2013 (Leary, 2016). In 2018, however, it was reported that 433 million Africans were estimated to be living in extreme poverty (Schoch & Lakner, 2020). This is more than all the other regions combined.

Since gaining independence in 1966, Botswana faced major challenges of rural development and the concern that needed urgent attention was poverty alleviation (Kwaku Osei-Hwedie, 2004; Sarker & Rahman, 2015). Available data from the Botswana Core Welfare Indicators Survey 2009/10 shows that rural areas experienced more pronounced poverty than urban areas in the period between 2003 and 2009/10 (Government of Botswana, 2013). Despite the statistical figures on successful poverty reduction, the challenge which Botswana faces such as the absence of a Regulatory Impact Assessment (RIA) or Poverty and Social Impact Assessment (PSIA) has resulted in poverty programs that are not well integrated into other macroeconomic policies (Government of Botswana, 2015).

1.2 Problem statement

COVID-19, armed conflict and climate change are the converging forces that drive the upward trend in global poverty (World Bank, 2020). The goal of reducing absolute poverty to less than 3 percent by 2030 is now harder than ever to reach. Between 2015 and 2017, the number of people living below the international poverty line fell from 741 million to 689 million people surviving on less than \$1.90 a day (Peer, 2020). In SSA, 560 million people (58% of the

population) are living in multidimensional poverty out of which 342 million (61% of those living in multidimensional poverty) are severely affected (UNDP, 2018). At the same time, while 546 million people in South Asia (31% of the entire population) are multidimensionally poor, 200 million of them (37%) are in severe condition (UNDP, 2018). There are extremely poor populations in DRC, Madagascar and Nigeria due to population growth and unequal distribution of economic gains (World Bank, 2018a).

Botswana is no exception despite a GNI per capita of \$7,650.00, which is equivalent to 4.8 times above average for the SSA. Statistics show that in 2011, 19.3 percent of the Botswana population lived below the Poverty Datum Line as compared to 30.6 percent in 2003 (Government of Botswana, 2013) and 5.8 percent in 2015 (Statistics Botswana, 2015). Despite this decline of 11.3 percent, poverty is still extremely high in Ngamiland West (where the Okavango Delta is situated) at 33.4 percent (Statistics Botswana, 2015). It is the fourth poorest district among the 27 districts in Botswana. The World Bank poverty and equity brief for Botswana purport that poverty in Botswana is estimated to increase over 60 percent due to the COVID-19 pandemic thus necessitating the scaling of social interventions to support vulnerable populations (World Bank, 2020b). In his inaugural address of 2009, the former President of Botswana, Lieutenant General Dr. Seretse Khama Ian Khama identified poverty eradication as one of his flagship programmes. Botswana has introduced several initiatives to combat poverty and these include but are not limited to programs for orphans and destitute persons, subsidized Self Help Housing Agency (SHHA) and agricultural schemes among others.

Nevertheless, Botswana remains one of the countries with unequal distribution of resources. The 2015/16 Botswana Multi-Topic Household Survey (BMTHS) results further show that 16.3 percent of the population lives below the poverty datum line (Statistics Botswana, 2015). Botswana's goal of surpassing a part of the now outdated MDGs (currently SDGs), which underscores the need to halve extreme poverty by 2015, encouraged the government to take a bold step to shift from poverty reduction to poverty eradication (Government of Botswana, 2012). On the one hand, poverty reduction can be considered as the improvement of an individual's or a group's income-expenditure to an amount above the poverty line while considering the need to improve access to education, health care, information, economic opportunities, security of land-tenure and minimizing all other deprivations associated with it

(Bununu, 2020). On the other hand, poverty eradication is an ethical, social, political and economic necessity for mankind and governments to address the root causes of poverty, provide for basic needs for all and ensure that the poor have access to productive resources, including credit, education and training (Poverty Eradication, 2021).

This has prompted Botswana Government to come up with a Poverty Eradication Programme (PEP), which was aimed at improving the livelihoods of Botswana by addressing all aspects of poverty including among others, the policy environment, the institutional framework and the establishment of sustainable economic empowerment projects (Raditloaneng & Chawawa, 2015; Ramakgathi, 2014). According to the Government of Botswana (2012), the PEP was initiated to assist in attaining food security and minimum sustainable livelihoods amongst disadvantaged individuals and/ or families.

However, nearly half of the rural population remains poor or risk falling back into poverty (Deaton, 2016). The government has tried to provide equitable access to resources specifically needed to empower rural people to tackle poverty (Ramakgathi, 2014). The lack of profitable agricultural asset accumulation plays an important role in entrapping households in persistent poverty (Tan, Nguyen, & Dung, 2011; You, 2014). The Mapping Poverty in Botswana 2010 report indicated that in Botswana, certain demographic groups and geographical areas have not achieved as much progress against poverty as others (Statistics Botswana, 2015). Poverty is a paradoxical state recognizable to any sensitive observer who visits remote rural areas and urban slums and meets marginalized people in any given society.

Despite all these poverty eradication programs being implemented in the region, the Ngamiland West District is still faced with persistent poverty.

Given the foregoing scenario, the following research questions were asked:

1.3 Research Question

What are the factors influencing the implementation of the Poverty Eradication Programs in selected communities of Ngamiland West, Botswana?

1.3.1 Research Specific Questions

- i. What are the beneficiaries' demographic and socio-economic factors impacting on the implementation of the PEP in some selected communities in Ngamiland West?
- ii. How have institutional factors influenced the implementation of the programs in the study area?

- iii. How have environmental factors impacted on the implementation of the PEP in the study area?
- iv. What are the impacts of the programs on rural livelihoods in the community?
- v. What are the challenges associated with PEP implementation in the study area?

1.4 Research Objective

The general objective is to determine the factors that influence the implementation of the PEP in selected communities in Ngamiland West, Botswana.

1.4.1 Research Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were to:

- i. analyze beneficiaries' demographic and socio-economic characteristics impacting on the benefits derived from the implementation of PEP in selected communities of Ngamiland West;
- ii. analyze the influence of institutional factors on the implementation of PEP in the study area;
- iii. analyze the influence of environmental factors on the implementation of PEP in the study area;
- iv. determine the association between participants' livelihoods and PEP implementation; and
- v. identify the challenges associated with PEP implementation in the area.

1.5 Research Hypothesis

The hypotheses are stated in the null form.

- i. There is no significant relationship between beneficiaries' demographic and socio-economic characteristics and the implementation of PEP.
- ii. There is no significant relationship between institutional factors and the implementation of PEP.
- iii. There is no significant association between beneficiaries' livelihoods and the implementation of PEP.
- iv. There is no significant relationship between environmental factors and the implementation of PEP.

1.6 Significance of the study

The importance of determining the impact of the poverty eradication programs on rural people's socio-economic wellbeing in the selected communities in Ngamiland West is apparent within the context of Sustainable Development Goal number 1 which intends to “[e]nd poverty in all its forms everywhere” by the year 2030. The entire motive of the PEP was to improve the welfare and livelihoods of people, particularly in the Ngamiland West region which is known for its high poverty rates (The World Bank, 2015). Therefore the importance of understanding underlying issues behind the poverty eradication programmes cannot be overstressed, hence the relevance of this study. The findings from the project provide researchers (students and academics) with scientific information on the impact, which poverty eradication programs had on rural livelihoods in the study area. Furthermore, the study enables policy makers to access information for developing contextual, pro-poor policies and strategies for the enhancement of rural wellbeing.

1.7 Delimitation of the study

Given that the study design was cross-sectional, it did not take into account the trend of the impacts, which PEP had on participants’ socio-economic wellbeing over time. Also, the scope of the research only covered the Ngamiland West area and considered a few selected factors influencing PEP implementation.

In addition, the study did not include program implementers from relevant government departments who are administrators and evaluators of PEP.

1.8 Limitations of the study

During data collection, the researcher was faced with challenges associated with beneficiaries’ mobilities and relocation to other places, maturation or death, public holidays, social activity engagements, traveling, to name a few. All these factors hindered the coverage of a wider community of beneficiaries. This resulted in the reduction of the sample size as against the initially estimated sample size. Thus, the findings of this study cannot be generalized across all locations in Ngamiland West, Botswana.

Also, participants in the focus group discussion may have exaggerated or under-reported certain aspects of their experience because they were aware of group expectations and did not want to be seen as challenging or failing to appreciate government efforts.

1.9 Operational definitions

Full packaging: depicts a situation in which the entrepreneur is provided with all necessary equipment to work with, and trained to enhance their performance.

Partial packaging: typifies a scenario in which the entrepreneur is not fully equipped and receives and remains partially trained.

Poverty: consists of any form of injustice, which is a source of social exclusion, in the distribution of the living conditions essential to human dignity. These living conditions correspond to the capabilities of individuals, households and communities to meet basic needs in the following 10 dimensions: income, education, health food/ nutrition, safe water/ sanitation, labor/ employment, housing (living environment), access to productive assets, access to markets and community participation/ social peace.

Poverty alleviation: used interchangeably as poverty eradication or poverty reduction. Refers to the intention to lessen the status of poverty within households, individuals and communities.

Poverty alleviation programs: refers to safety nets and other programs such as Economic Diversification Drive, Youth Development Fund, National Internship Program, Ipelegeng, constitution tournaments, cultural celebrations among others.

Poverty Eradication Programs: refers to the initiatives implemented by the Government of Botswana.

Risk Aversion: the state of dislike for chance, threat or possibility by an individual related to business management and personal choices; the tendency for fear of the unknown.

Fatalism: a state of being passive, accepting or resigning to negative situations on an individual's business management and personal choices.

1.10 Summary

The introductory chapter highlights how poverty is pervasive in the SSA including Botswana as compared to other regions. The government of Botswana took a robust approach to eradicate poverty through various programmes and policy approaches, however poverty still persists especially in Ngamiland West, a tourism hub location. The study intended to determine the factors that influence the implementation of some initiatives under the auspices of PEP in selected communities in Ngamiland West, Botswana.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews various sources (books, journals, newspapers, articles and valid online materials) on poverty issues. The chapter outlines the key concepts of poverty, poverty alleviation and poverty alleviation programs, literature gaps and chapter summary.

2.2 Poverty

Poverty is a contested concept and has been defined in a variety of ways by researchers and policy makers. The word poverty as translated in other languages carries different connotations (Chambers, 2006). Poverty as a concept is used most times either to evade or to confront the existence of vested interests whose analysis is of course vital to any implementation of effective anti-poverty policies. Similarly, Kingdon, Knight, Kindon, Krueger, McGregor & Olsen (2003) indicate that any attempt to define poverty involves a value judgment as to what constitutes a good quality of life or a bad one. Thus, an approach that examines the individual's perception of poverty is less imperfect or more quantifiable or both as a guide in forming the value judgment than are the other potential approaches.

Understandably, Chambers (2006) argues that asking "what is poverty?" is a wrong question from pro-poor professionals. This is corroborated by Daily Independent (2007), which reported a Nigerian farmer aged 60 years who was asked to define poverty. The farmer simply retorted:

"Don't ask me what poverty is, because you have met it outside my house. Look at the house and count the number of holes. Look at the cooking utensils and the clothes my children, my wife and I are wearing. Look at everything within and outside the house; write what you see. What you see is poverty. Shikena! (Period)" (Daily Independent, 27 June 2007: B3)

Then again, various reviews postulate that poverty could be understood from individuals' standpoints and various theories (Kolawole & Torimiro, 2006). In ascertaining the meaning of poverty from the people's perspectives, the Guardian Newspaper (1997) cited by Kolawole & Torimiro (2006) outlines its meaning thus: "poverty is the denial of all human rights...", "...it is a state in which you feel degraded, and as a result, rejected by society...", "poverty means, remaining uneducated, working harder, having a low economic status and a child every year."

Moreover, in a field study conducted by Kolawole & Torimiro (2006) a consensus villagers' view was such that:

“Poverty is a bad thing to experience. It is scary! It is a situation where an individual is hungry and yet lacks what it takes to eat good food. It is the inability of an individual to live up to his expected responsibilities in life. Poverty brings embarrassment to a person. A person that is poor is not a respected man amongst his fellows in the society. Such an individual has no voice. He is battered here and there, and yet without any means of salvaging his seemingly ridiculous situation.”

Not only are these definitions packed with emotion, pain, hurt and suffering, they also show the hopelessness, which is associated with the mystery. Within the context of these respondents' perceptions, it could be inferred that poverty “is a violation of all human rights impeding the mental, socio-economic and demographic status of individuals within a given society”. Chambers (1981) perceives poverty as a mystery linked with isolation, vulnerability, powerlessness, and deprivation, all of which are either directly or indirectly associated with human or natural shortcomings or both. Linked to this, Singer (2010) asserts that extreme poverty is not exclusive to unmet physiological needs but it is also inclusive of a degrading state of powerlessness.

The World Bank idiosyncratically defines poverty in absolute terms. It defines extreme poverty as living on less than US\$1.90 per day and moderate poverty as less than \$3.10 a day (World Bank Website). Similarly, in the context of developed economies, according to Townsend (1979, 1993), poverty and deprivation can both be defined using social and economic terms. Noting that the ‘subsistence’ concept of poverty and deprivation ‘minimizes the variety and extent of human need just as the ‘basic needs’ concept is restricted primarily to the material amenities’ (Townsend, 1993, p. 79) thus defines poverty in terms of “relative deprivation” as “a state of observable and demonstrable disadvantage relative to the local community or the wider society or nation to which an individual, family, group or group belongs. The idea has come to be applied to conditions (that is, physical, environmental and social circumstances) rather than resources”.

However, many experts argue for a much broader definition, which recognizes that poverty is not simply a measure of income but has wider social and cultural dimensions. For instance, the UN attempts a broad-based definition of poverty thus:

“[F]undamentally, poverty is a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and clothe a family, not having a school or clinic to go to, not having the land on which to grow one's food or a job to earn one's living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living in marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation” (United Nations Development Programme, 1998)

The above definition shows the various dimensions of poverty which include the lack of economic, social, political and environmental assets and resources. As noted by Laderchi et al. (2006), different definitions and measurements have important policy implications and are thus contentious. The methodology of comparing living standards of diverse nations from differing terrestrial localities indexed in different currencies is also fundamental to the discussion on the definition and measurement of poverty (Laderchi et al., 2006).

In consensus with the UN definition, Kakwani (2006, p. 21) states that “poverty encompasses not only material deprivation but also many other forms of deprivations in several aspects of life such as unemployment, ill-health, lack of education, vulnerability, powerlessness, social exclusion and so on”. This definition encompasses the multidimensionality of poverty as various authors (Alkire & Santos, 2010; Chambers, 2006; Ugur, 2016) have indicated and as such provide insights into the mysteries or disadvantages created by poverty.

These disadvantages or dimensions can be viewed as a poverty “web,” where people are trapped within, social, cultural, political, and economic systems. Figure 1 below shows poverty’s disadvantages and multidimensional interconnectedness (Chambers, 2006).

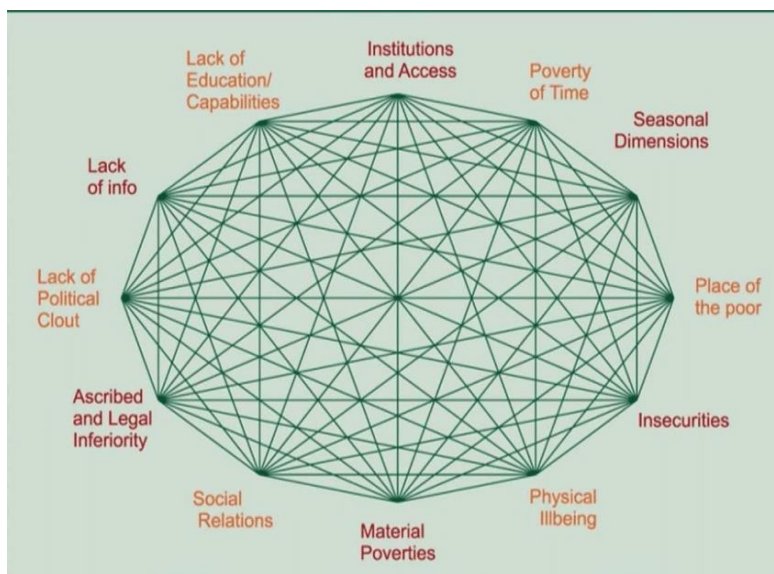


Figure 1: The web of poverty's disadvantages and multidimensional interconnectedness
Source: Chambers (2006, p. 3)

2.1.1 Forms of poverty

After the World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen in 1995, 117 countries adopted a declaration and programme of action which included commitments to eradicate “absolute”

and reduce “overall” forms of poverty. Furthermore, IFAD in 1992 developed a fivefold classification of poverty from their research in the Philippines, Somalia, the Near East and North Africa which is also included in the list. The following are some of the specific forms of poverty.

2.1.1.1 Absolute/ Chronic/ extreme poverty:

This is defined as "a condition characterized by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income but also on access to services" (UN, 1995). Persistent or chronic poverty is a misery that makes a person to have a significant deprivation of capabilities for a considerable period (Hulme & Shepherd, 2003). In addition, several authors suggest that people in chronic poverty earn below the poverty line all the time, or for most of the time (Coleman, 2009; Liu & Hannum, 2017; Hulme and Shepherd, 2003). Indeed, it is highly likely that the number of years in poverty can be arbitrary, but generally, Islam (2012) states that if a person is consistently poor for 5 years, they can be considered chronically poor. As a result, it must be noted that chronic poverty has negative consequences on an individual’s well-being such as health, asset accumulation thus making it harder for that person to exit poverty.

2.1.1.2 Relative poverty:

This is an index of income quality and is defined as poverty concerning the economic status of other members of the society: people are poor if they fall below prevailing standards of living in a given societal context (United Nations, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 2016). Furthermore, it is characterized as the pain of encountering results that are less satisfactory than those of significant others and being unable to accomplish much to better one’s own, compelling an individual to adjust their motivated ambition to some unavoidable unsatisfactory results rather than through innovations (Ekong, 1991 as cited in Adawo, 2004).

2.1.1.3 Social Exclusion poverty:

This is a condition characterized by the lack or denial of resources, rights, goods and services, and the inability to participate in the normal relationships and activities available to most people in a society, whether in economic, social, cultural, or political arenas. It affects both the quality of life of individuals and the equity and cohesion of society (Economic and Social Research Council, 2010). Furthermore, former Prime Minister Tony Blair succinctly put the problems of social exclusion in the following words:

“Social exclusion is about income bit but it is about more. It is about prospects and networks and life changes. It is a very modern problem, and one that is more harmful to the individual, more damaging to self-esteem, more corrosive for society as a whole, more likely to be passed down from generation to generation, than material poverty”.

2.1.1.4 Interstitial (pockets) of poverty:

Jazairy et al. (1992) indicate that interstitial poverty refers to pockets of poverty surrounded by power, affluence and ownership of assets, and characterized by material deprivation and alienation. It is difficult to target resources at the rural poor without their being pre-empted by the non-poor. A lot of poverty in the industrialized world could be characterized in this way. In the Philippines, interstitial poverty is found amongst landless agricultural workers in the densely settled lowlands (Jazairy et al., 1992).

2.1.1.5 Peripheral poverty:

Peripheral poverty refers to material deprivation linked with isolation and alienation found in marginal areas especially with subsistence farmers and those without land (Jazairy et al., 1992). Furthermore, Sowa (2015) points out that peripheral poverty is found in weak and small-scale local markets, usually agrarian communities with little or no industrialization and a reliance on a mix of subsistence and cash activities to make a livelihood. He further opines that local, distant economies are defined by structural reliance on the centers, which as core economies, set terms and conditions of development, growth and support (Sowa, 2015).

2.1.1.6 Overcrowding poverty:

Overcrowding poverty refers to poverty that arises from population growth in areas with intense agricultural produce and which support a massive rural population (Jazairy et al., 1992). For example, Bangladesh where this type of poverty is usually coupled with material deprivation, landlessness and alienation. In such situations, individuals are bound to experience poor hygiene, lack of privacy and depleted income resources to sustain their households.

2.1.1.7 Traumatic or sporadic poverty:

Traumatic or sporadic poverty refers to poverty caused by natural or social catastrophes such as war, drought, floods, pests which can produce occasional poverty with serious incidences of malnutrition (Jazairy et al., 1992). This may arise in situations such as the COVID-19 pandemic where sudden deaths of breadwinners occur leading to the disruption of the sources of livelihoods. In addition, natural disasters such as floods could in some cases subject families to poverty overnight as assets are destroyed by heavy rainfall during storms and usually in the absence of insurance against such unwholesome situations.

2.1.1.8 Child poverty:

This is defined as a lack of economic resources stemming from the household's economy or their own that prevents children from participating as equals in social life (Mood & Jonsson, 2016). Child poverty remains a global concern as global estimates by Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) show that children constitute half of those who are dimensionally poor (OPHI, 2019). Globally, the SSA (including in Botswana) accounts for two out of three-dimensionally poor children (UNICEF Botswana, 2021). In Botswana, child poverty is found amongst children with the most common deprivations of housing, health, nutrition and water (UNICEF Botswana, 2021).

2.1.1.9 Zero-sum poverty:

This type of poverty is linked to patronage, oppression, exploitation, usurpation, extraction and abuses by powerful others (Rolling & Zeeuw, 1983; Kolawole & Torimiro, 2006). It is worth noting that this kind of poverty is found in low-income countries characterized by oppression and exploitation. The disadvantaged people of such countries are exploited through cheap labor and treated unjustly by the rich. In Zimbabwe, for example, the rich survive while the poor are exploited for cheap labor both locally and as immigrants in neighboring countries.

2.1.1.10 Endemic Poverty:

This refers to poverty caused by low productivity and poor resource base which results in low income, poor nutrition and poor health (Jazairy et al., 1992). This type of poverty is usually susceptible to subsistence farmers, small fishermen, herdsman. It is characterized by alienation, isolation, technological deprivation and lack of assets.

2.1.1.11 Generational Poverty:

This occurs in families where at least two generations have been born into poverty (Jensen, 2009). Families living in this type of poverty are not equipped with the tools to navigate themselves out of their situations. Additionally, the report from Michigan Commission Community Action and Economic Opportunity indicates that such families have children who will face many barriers in the quest to reach moderate income and a sustainable quality of life which is often exacerbated by social, economic and cultural factors (Michigan Commission Community Action and Economic Opportunity, 2015). This type of poverty is predominantly characterized by hopelessness, which creates impenetrable bondage for a person. Individuals experiencing this situation are prone to immediate survival instincts and gratification instead of devising long-term solutions to their wicked problem.

2.1.1.12 Material poverty (material deprivation):

Material poverty refers to the inability of individuals or households to afford consumption goods such as clothes, food, pen, television set, radio, etc. and activities that are typical in a society at a given point in time, irrespective of people's preferences for these items (OECD, 2007). This form of poverty is sensitive to differences in standards of living between individuals and households.

Poverty is therefore not usually caused by one thing but many interactive variables that cluster in poor people's experience and definitions of poverty (Narayan, 1999) as shown by the various forms of poverty previously outlined. The author postulate that ignoring those experiencing multiple deprivation forms of poverty blunts the attention of policymakers to focus on the increasing numbers of people living in poverty other than extreme or chronic poverty. Henceforth, poverty is the result of economic, political, socio-economic, cultural and environmental processes constantly interacting with each other and frequently reinforcing each other in ways that exacerbate the deprivation in which poor people live (World Bank, 2000). We are basically on the edge of a cliff whereby people in the grip of poverty's multidimensional web will implode. There is no simple solution to world poverty due to its dimensional nature.

2.1.2 Poverty in sub-Saharan Africa

Sub-Saharan Africa has become a new hot spot of multiple threats to poor people's lives and livelihoods (World Bank, 2020). COVID-19, armed conflict and climate change are the driving forces of poverty. Extreme poverty is increasingly becoming concentrated in sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank, 2018a). In 1990, 15 percent of the extremely poor people lived in the region, and this increased to 56 percent in 2015 unlike in the East Asia and Pacific region where 52 percent of the extremely poor population were found in 1990 but constituted only 6 percent in 2015 (World Bank, 2018b).

Of the 43 countries in sub-Saharan Africa with available data on poverty trends, 29 have seen an increase in the number of people living in extreme poverty since 1990. Rises in the extremely poor population were most acute in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Madagascar and Nigeria. Population growth and the unequal distribution of economic gains have led to a steady rise in the number of people in poverty in many economies in SSA despite general economic

expansion (World Bank, 2018a). Botswana's economy is estimated to have contracted by 7.9 percent in 2020 due to the effect of COVID-19 pandemic on key sectors, especially tourism and mining (World Bank, 2021). Using the upper-middle-income country threshold, unemployment has increased to 24.5 percent and the poverty rate is estimated to have reached 60.2 percent in 2020 from 57 percent in 2019 (World Bank, 2021). The worsened economic status of Botswana makes poverty alleviation even harder than before as people have lost employment, and with the attendant increased mortalities of COVID-19 related deaths and slow economic recovery of the private sector.

2.1.3 Causes of poverty

According to Haushofer and Fehr (2014), in their study of the psychology of poverty, they found out that poverty causes stress and negative affective states which might influence individuals to be short-sighted and risk-averse decision making thereby, limiting attention and favoring habitual behaviors at the expense of goal-directed ones. Henceforth, according to this study, one may argue that these psychological effects result in perpetuated poverty. This further explains why other people may be able to move out of poverty while others remain despite intense measures of poverty reduction. Furthermore, a study conducted by Mani et al. (2013) asserts that there is an adverse impact of poverty on individual cognitive function because when an individual is preoccupied with financial worries, this reduces mental resources that could be used for other tasks.

According to the poverty traps model, behavioral poverty traps are caused by low effort and low aspirations, standard poverty traps characterized by external constraints. This model suggests that for one to accumulate wealth, it is possible to break the poverty trap by altering individual aspirations. Thus policy approaches should influence aspirations among the poor to break the behavioral poverty trap.

2.1.4 Measurement of poverty

The analysis of poverty is multidisciplinary. It goes from ethics to economics, from political science to human biology and any type of measurement rests on mathematics. Moreover, poverty is multifaceted according to the types of deprivation, and it is also gender and age-specific. The multidimensionality also complicates the aggregation necessary to perform the efficiency analysis of policies (Asselin, 2009).

The measurement of global poverty ought to reflect how the estimated minimum threshold of living meets basic needs in society. However, measures of poverty are based on income and consumption data (Foster, 2007; Slabbert & Ukpere, 2011) often “anchored in core biological needs” (Ferreira et al., 2015, p. 5). Researchers at the World Bank (2016) have been trying to assess the extent of poverty across the globe since 1979 and more systematically since 1990 when they started monitoring global poverty using an international poverty line. The International Poverty Line is derived from the national poverty line of the world’s poorest countries at a certain point in time and expressed in US dollars using Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) exchange rates. PPP rates are based on private consumption data generated by the World Bank International Comparison Program (ICP). The World Bank’s ICP is centered on national household survey data using income and consumption distributions from 131 countries, which are then used to periodically update how prices compare across countries, which in turn leads to a revision of the international poverty line. The ICP determines which are the poorest countries, according to their criteria of income and consumption distributions, and uses their data to base their PPP exchange rates (L’Huillier, 2016).

The World Bank’s method of measuring global poverty by setting an absolute international poverty line is seeking to keep the line’s real value constant even as relative prices change. The minimum amount needed to survive increased from \$1.25 in 2008 to \$1.90 in 2015. This increase does not indicate that global poverty statistics improved: rather reflects changes in the PPPs of poor countries. In addition, the international poverty line disregards the multidimensionality of poverty, as it only measures absolute poverty, not relative poverty or social exclusion poverty levels. L’Huillier (2016) indicates that the World Bank declares that ending poverty in all its forms will require a multidimensional measurement of global poverty that goes beyond an artificially created international poverty line. Henceforth, Ravallion (1998, p. 1) makes the point that “a credible measure of poverty can be a powerful instrument for focusing the attention of policymakers on the living conditions of the poor.”

Laderchi et al. (2003) confirm that different methods and measurements for poverty carry variable implications for policy and the targeted poor people. This is further shown by some empirical work in Peru and India which indicate a great disconnection between poverty measurement methods, for example monetarily, nearly half the world population is poor but not according to the capability method. Hence, the definition of poverty does not matter for poverty eradication strategies.

A study conducted by Vijaya, Lahoti, & Swaminathan (2014) on moving from the household to the individual on multidimensional poverty analysis found that individual-level measures can identify substantial differences in poverty that are masked when using household measures. This implies that individual disaggregated data and analysis can provide a useful complement to household-level poverty measures.

Poverty is therefore a multidimensional phenomenon whose causes, definition, forms, perpetuation and management have a political and institutional dimension arising from the combined action of economic, social, political, institutional and cultural factors (Einar & Alessandro, 2001)

2.2 Poverty Alleviation

Like any other concept, 'poverty alleviation' has its social history and genesis. The development of the concept of "poverty alleviation" resulted from the disillusionment of the trickle-down theories of the 1960s (Wilson et al., 2001). The theories posited that development achieved at the national level automatically improves the well-being of the grassroots population. Research and experience show that in cases where growth occurs, it does not benefit the poor. In the SSA region, the situation was doubly worse because the economies stagnated since the late 1960s but more ominously the number of people who live in absolute poverty increased rapidly (Wilson et al., 2001; Wekwete, 1999). The latter was true of Latin America and Asia despite measurable growth. This led to the recognition of 'poverty alleviation' as a development objective in the late 1970s.

Viewed from an African perspective, the concept of 'poverty alleviation' is a reflection of social imperatives in developed countries and a culmination of the rise of the welfare state (Wilson et al., 2001). John Maynard Keynes pointed out that mass poverty was a liability in a developed economy in so far as it restricted the 'propensity to consume' among the majority of the population (Keynes, 1946). If this was the economic foundation of the welfare state then 'poverty alleviation' becomes nothing more than a mopping-up operation, namely guaranteeing a decent livelihood for the lowest 20 percent of the lower 20 percent of the population (Wilson et.al, 2001). Based on this perspective 'poverty alleviation' is at best a product of welfare economics and at worst charitable neo-liberalism.

Nevertheless, the term 'alleviate' means to lessen, or make less severe, pain or suffering and assumes the existence of the means to do so (Wilson et al., 2001). As clearly stated by Kolawole

& Torimiro (2006), International Monetary Fund (IMF) and International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) policies promotes equality, encourage the disadvantaged people to be actively involved and sustainably use the environment and the 'poverty-reducing growth' (which seeks to generate income-earning opportunities and improved access to services for the poor).

Over the last 60 years, the philosophical stance of international development agencies whose mandate was to promote development especially in less developed countries needs to be questioned. In practice, neither poverty alleviation nor development has occurred in Africa, Latin America and South Asia. According to the United Nations Development Programme (2014) in 2013, 10.7 percent (767 million) of the world's population lived on less than US\$1.90 a day, down from 12.4 percent (881 million) in 2012 and 35 percent (1.85 billion) in 1990. According to the latest World Bank estimates, the share of Africans who are poor fell from 56 percent in 1990 to 43 percent in 2012. The bank further states that poverty has been slow in fragile countries and rural areas remain much poorer. In South Asia on the other hand, statistics show a 50 percent decline almost from 505 million poor people in 1990 to 256.2 million in 2013. Latin America, similarly shows a decline from 45 percent to 25 percent between 2000 and 2014 using a \$4 a day poverty line (Levy, 2016). Nonetheless, while poverty rates have declined in all regions, progress has been sporadic. Poverty remains largely a rural problem, and a majority of the world's poor will live in rural areas for many decades to come (Leary, 2016). It is a problem, which people in developing countries continue to face (Tan, Nguyen, & Dung, 2011). Nonetheless, recent poverty estimates show a regional poverty rate decrease by 1.6 percent between 2016 and 2018 (Schoch & Lakner, 2020). In Southern Africa in 2011, 19.3 percent of Botswana's population was living in poverty, while Namibia had poverty incidence of 26.9 percent.

The scale of the economic inequality is staggering, most especially in the SSA region. Whereas in 1990, the SSA region only accounted for 15 percent of the global poor (Banya, 2012; World Bank, 2016), it has been recently reported that the region now accounts for half of the global poor (World Bank, 2015). In addition, it is estimated that every child born in SSA "owes" over \$330 in foreign interest debt as their respective countries spiral into ever-increasing foreign debt, exacerbating poverty levels (Dear et al., 2013). As noted by Ukpere & Slabbert (2007, p.

5), “most of the incidents increasing the rate of poverty around the world today cannot be attributed to nature, but man and the selfish capitalist institutions created by man”.

The contentious debate on the effectiveness of economic and social policy in Africa over the past decades continues unresolved. It could be argued that the disparate views on the role of reform in poverty alleviation are that we remain largely ignorant of what has happened to poverty in the last decade (Sahn & Stifel, 2000). Furthermore, a lack of government focus on their national goals and objectives would engender their respective countries being open to systematic economic plundering from aggressive transnational corporations and financial institutions whose sole focus is on their respective bottom lines. The Fairtrade Foundation (2016, p. 1) claims that “unfair trade rules deny poor countries nearly \$ 700 billion every year.” On another note, several factors which can aggravate the persistence of poverty in SSA is the debilitating national debts, where countries are vulnerable to the dictates of national economic organizations that favor Western interests and cultural genocide where individuals lose the social context from which they draw their identities as “global village” leads to the homogeneity of culture and identity in favor of Western culture (Nadrag & Bala, 2014).

Kirmayer & Minas (2000) argue that globalization negatively affects the bio-psycho-social-spiritual balance of individuals. Kirmayer (2001) suggests that an individual’s “identity” plays a huge role in terms of their explanatory models, coping mechanisms, and social response to situations and as such influences psychiatric disorders. As two of the dimensions of poverty are poor social relations and poor physical well-being, the loss of cultural identity can have an impact on poverty levels. This is particularly so as funding for mental health issues is not deemed a priority in the health budget of developing countries leading to an increase in those experiencing social exclusion poverty (Adato et al., 2006). Understanding these issues, therefore, would mean improving our understanding of the underlying social and economic processes that have contributed to changes in economic well-being.

Evidence from southern Africa suggests that even when the state's poor policies are relatively well-developed, their successful implementation is dependent on wider social and cultural forces and the degree of their ‘embeddedness’ in a specific society (Wilson et al., 2001). Institutional factors are critical in ensuring the successful implementation of pro-poor policies for the improvement of livelihoods.

Due to widespread poverty in rural areas, the government incurred substantial expenditures through the implementation of poverty alleviation programmes. Currently, the government

instead of individual families is held responsible for improving the lives of vulnerable people who cannot help themselves. Thus, the government introduced programmes and policies to address the growing poverty problems in the community. Nevertheless, Osei-Hwedie (1993) suggests that programmes in Botswana targeted at the alleviation of poverty have yielded no significant results. He argues that notwithstanding the wide spectrum of development schemes and subsidies, it is mostly the affluent, better educated, most vocal groups who benefit and men than women. Osei-Hwedie (1993) further argues that poverty remains despite all the efforts and a wide range of resources poured into Social Development Programmes.

2.2.1 Poverty Alleviation Programs

In the wake of the global economic crises in 2008, policymakers in Africa began to increasingly view safety nets as core instruments for reducing poverty, addressing inequality, and helping the poor and vulnerable households survive the crises (Tesliuc, 2013). Universally, the modern state is responsible for the well-being and welfare of its citizens. According to Magombey & Odhiambo (2017), poverty reduction policies in Botswana are three-pronged. Firstly, they increase income and livelihood for the poor. Secondly, they support infrastructure development in basic social service provision such as education and health. Third, they focus on short-term relief through social welfare programmes. In order to attain poverty alleviation in any social milieu, there is need to ensure appropriate, feasible and sustainable programs.

2.2.1.1 Safety nets

According to Spicker, Leguizamón & Gordon (2013), a safety net is a form of protection that supports people where other forms of support systems failed. They are developed to protect vulnerable people. It is based on transfer payments, means testing or some equivalent form of assistance. According to the World Bank Group (2001), the idea of safety is based on the assumption that the safety net programmes are used to mitigate the effects of poverty and other risks on vulnerable households. Spicker et al. (2013) assert that there are two types of safety nets which are either public safety nets based on formal programmes run by the government that aims to provide additional income or in-kind help to vulnerable households while private safety nets or informal private safety net refer to obtaining safety and protection for persons through networks of local reciprocity (social capital). These include community-based informal arrangements such as when family members in different households support each other through hard times with food, cash or labor and public safety nets include cash transfers, food-related programmes, prices and other subsidies, public works, micro-credit, school scholarships, fee waivers for health care-services (World Bank Group, 2001). Safety nets only aid the poor but

do not prevent poverty (Spicker et al., 2013). Similarly, Van Oorschot (2002), asserts that safety nets are costly to administer, give rise to poverty traps, stigmatize the recipients and have problems of incomplete take-up. They also reduce poverty and promote inclusion especially with service provisions that aid all citizens.

The social safety net intends to “fill gaps, target the poor, directly address adjustment costs, and explore and experiment with more efficient approaches to poverty alleviation” (United Nations Research Institute for Social Development [UNRISD], 1994: 6). Botswana is providing social safety nets guided by the former Vision 2016 pillar of a “A compassionate, just and caring nation” which includes one of the main factors in the pillar as; “Social Safety Net which is enshrined in the philosophy that “[a]ll people will have access to productive resources, regardless of ethnic origin, gender, disability or misfortune. Botswana will have succeeded in helping people to escape from the poverty trap, and play a full part in society”.

Social insurance spending accounted for 1.2 percent of GDP and consisted of contributory pensions mainly for public sector employees. To support employment, Botswana also finances several active labor market programs whose total spending represent 0.17 percent of GDP in 2012/13. Social assistance spending represents another 1.7 percent of GDP, allocated to a diverse mix of programs that address the most vulnerable groups in the country. The social assistance program mix includes a public works program (Ipelegeng); a social (non-contributory) old-age pension; cash and in-kind assistance for destitute (indigent) persons and families who take care of orphans; nutrition programs for infants and pregnant and lactating women; and school feeding for primary and secondary school children.

Another area of spending focuses on sponsorships and scholarships for students in tertiary education, accounting for 1.4 percent of GDP spent in 2012/13. These policies lie at the border between human capital development policies and the safety net. While Botswana has many social protection programs, some of them are rather small relative to the number of poor people or target groups they try to cover, limiting their effectiveness.

The following are some of the social safety nets that exist in Botswana as interventions to the vulnerable populations

- i. Old Age pension scheme
- ii. Destitute Persons programme

- iii. Orphan Care
- iv. Community Home-Based Care
- v. World War II veterans programme
- vi. Remote Areas Development Programme
- vii. Labour-based public works and drought relief programme (Ipelegeng)
- viii. Primary school feeding
- ix. Education sponsorship

Botswana relies on a surplus budget to alleviate poverty, in rural areas but, in the long run, it has not fully addressed the issue of increasing and sustaining productivity among the rural poor. Poverty in rural Botswana has increased to a point where some villages have lost economic viability and social cohesion due to a lack of access to productive resources under changed demographic conditions (Mafeje, 2001). Worse still, receiving destitution allowances has become a way of life of the many rural communities and remote settlements. One can argue that in the short run the safety nets including poverty alleviation programmes of the Botswana Government had proved successful in the ‘short run’, however, in the long run, they have not offered long-lasting solutions to rural underdevelopment and poverty in rural areas.

In a way to address the situation, Botswana Government had introduced the Poverty Alleviation Flagship Programmes to promote long-run solutions to poverty and underdevelopment in rural and urban areas. These flagship programs pioneered by the former President of the Republic of Botswana, Lieutenant General Dr. Seretse Khama Ian Khama, were geared towards asset accumulation, for example, housing for the poor, capital purchases for income-generating projects, early childhood education and many others. In confirmation, You (2014) found that lack of agricultural asset accumulation plays an unneglectable role in causing the household to be trapped in persistent poverty. In his recommendations, he argued that future reform and policymakers should pay attention to building households asset base.

The Government of the Republic of Namibia (GRN) developed a Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS) containing three areas of concern:

“(1) how to foster more equitable and efficient delivery of public resources, in the context of Namibia’s commitment to regional decentralization for poverty reduction countrywide; (2) how to accelerate equitable agricultural expansion, including consideration of food security and other crop development options; and (3) options for non-agricultural economic empowerment, including an emphasis on informal and self-employment options” (Louis Raymond, Webster, & Adongo, 2006).

The United Nations Development Programme report noted the patterns of poverty and inequality in Namibia over the last seventeen years. The general findings indicate a declining trend in both poverty and inequality.

Employment creation was found to be among the best policy options for reducing poverty as data suggested that the ability of Namibians to escape poverty could depend on their ability to obtain wages and or salaries from employment. Poverty was found to be varying across different regions of the country and rural and urban areas.

“The incidence of poverty is currently estimated at 28.7 percent of the population with more women (32 percent) than men (26 percent) being poor. About 37.4 percent of the poor live in rural areas compared to 14.6 percent in urban areas. The depth of poverty is estimated at 8.8 percent while poverty severity is 3.9 percent. The incidence of the severely poor is estimated at 7.0 percent in urban areas compared to 20.4 percent in rural areas” (United Nations Development Programme, 2012).

With poverty incidences of 55.2 and 50.2 percent, Kavango and Caprivi are the poorest regions in Namibia, respectively. These regions have more than half of their population under poverty. Subsistence farmers and pensioners face a greater likelihood of living in poverty. The poor were found to have disproportionately lower levels of education and lower access to services. Access to information was found to be lower among the poor, with only relatively fewer of the poor owning a radio. Sixty-eight percent of those owning or having access to a field for crops were found to be poor, while just over half (51 percent) of those owning or with access to grazing land are in poverty.

Similarly, like Botswana Namibia has the social safety net programme which includes: Old Age Pension, Disabled Person’s Pension, Blind Person’s Pension, War Veteran’s allowance, Maintenance grants, Foster parent allowance, Place of safety grants (abused children), subsidies to welfare organizations, school feeding programme (Subbarao, 1998).

As literature has indicated, findings from NHIES conducted in 1994 showed the following multi-dimensional factors of poverty:

“...since consumption alone does not determine the quality of life, other dimensions such as health, education, and interaction with the society can be used to measure the extent to which people suffer from poverty. In 1998, 12 percent of children were found to be underweight and 29 percent of people did not reach the age of 40 years. ...indications of being ‘health-poor.’ Furthermore, 19 percent of adults (more than 15 years old) were illiterate, otherwise known as ‘education-poor’. In addition, 28 percent of the population had to walk more than one hour to the nearest shop and public transport, and 29 percent had no access to a radio. These are indications of being ‘participation-poor’. The dimensions of poverty vary

by region. 85 percent of consumption-poor households are located in rural areas, making their living from subsistence farming primarily in the northern and northeastern communal areas. Furthermore, poverty is concentrated among groups, which have historically been disadvantaged. Huge income disparities exist between language groups. Moreover, female-headed households are more prone to poverty than male-headed households. Cultural and social conditions in Namibian society maintain unequal status, especially in terms of their entitlements to resources and access to decision making. Along with subsistence farmers, poverty can be found amongst farm and domestic workers. Furthermore, elderly and people with disabilities, young women and men, and recent migrants into marginalized urban areas are disproportionately affected by poverty. Finally, many poor households rely on the state pension as an important income source” (United Nations Development Programme, 2012).

The reduction of poverty is more than simply a technical matter. There are wide-ranging factors that contribute to the creation and maintenance of poverty and, hence, its reduction. The reduction of poverty requires the application of several principles and approaches that establish a foundation on which programmes and services can be designed, delivered and assessed. These principles underlie the design and operation of poverty eradication strategies. They have been informed by the PRS, but also draw from international best practices in poverty reduction and programme governance.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

This research used various theories and perspectives to explain the concept of poverty.

2.3.1 Structuralism

Structuralism was developed by Wilhelm Wundt and his mentee Edward Bradford Titchener. Structuralism postulates that poverty is caused by structural factors that exist within the economy and promoted by the interrelated institutional environments which favor certain groups based on either class, gender or race (Jordan, 2004). According to Curran & Renzetti (1993) due to the fixed and static economic structure, the poor are in poverty not by lack of ambition but by limitations that exist in a society where access to resources, jobs and institutional rewards and resources is inadequate.

Although what Wundt posits may seem trivial, it is, in fact, crucial in terms of today's concern over the unequal distribution of resources between nations, within societies and individuals. Economies are rapidly growing but the inequality gap keeps on increasing between individuals, societies and within countries (Bourguignon & Morrisson, 2002). Of the various institutional environments that tend to sustain a multitude of economic barriers to diverse groups, it is discrimination based on race and gender that creates the most deceptive obstructions (Bourguignon & Platteau, 2015). The disproportionately high rate of poverty among women may be viewed as the consequence of a patriarchal society (Abramovitz, 1996). In this regard, the rise in poverty among women is an important structural level variable to consider as shown in the literature.

Wilson argues that the "social isolation" of inner-city and rural poor populations creates a self-reinforcing and dichotomous situation between the urban poor and the affluent suburban middle class (Wilson, 1987). For example, as most Batswana migrate to urban areas to seek employment and other opportunities, the people left behind are relatively uneducated, unskilled and lack the kind of mainstream role models that would help them to transition to a desirable level of socio-economic conditions. As a result, they suffer disproportionately from urban unemployment, low wages, unequal distribution of wealth and resources, and relatively poor social and educational services.

This study, therefore, adopted structuralism as one of its theoretical perspectives. The structural theory looks at society as the root cause of poverty. Literature reveals that wealth is unevenly distributed in societies and Botswana is not an exception where there is a noticeable, unequal distribution of wealth (Draft, 2009; Wang & Zou, 2007; World Bank, 2015). This encourages

the rich to become richer and the poor to be poorer. Curran & Renzetti (1993) contend that the rich is reinforced by the government's policies that assist the rich to accumulate even greater assets.

Although the poor are often blamed for their plight, research indicates that it is the structural factors that determine what they are (Curran & Renzetti, 1993). According to Curran & Renzetti (1993) what society gives or what it fails to give determines people's life patterns. In Botswana, for instance, there is an unequal distribution of resources between urban and rural areas (Kgosimore et al., 2014; Saunders & Bradbury, 2006; Siphambe, 2007; World Bank, 2015). The fact that rural Botswana do not have access to resources leads them into destitution. As the government fails to create employment for rural people, they continue to wallow in poverty (Manwa & Manwa, 2014). However, the rural economy as well has its own merits, where subsistence farmers have a property in terms of livestock and small stock which in most cases is prone to diseases such as Foot and Mouth. According to Peters (1994), cattle in Botswana hold a symbolic value of social and political power as well as a source of food and cash.

2.3.2 Ecological Perspective

The ecological approach that has emerged from the early works of Germain (1973) and others (Barker, 1973; Grinnell, 1973) offers a rich theoretical base that practitioners can translate into effective social work practice. The ecological approach provides strategies that allow the social worker to move from a micro-level of intervention to a macro-level of social treatment. It not only helps the social worker impact the clientele system through policy and planning activities but also psychotherapy and other micro-level approaches (Pardeck, 1988). Thus, direct and indirect practice strategies for intervention are combined into a congruent practice orientation when working with the clientele system through the ecological approach.

The ecological approach suggests that the primary premise explaining human problems is derived from the complex interplay of psychological, social, economic, political and physical forces (Siporin, 1980). This approach accords due recognition to the transactional relationship between environmental conditions and the human condition. It allows the practitioner to effectively treat problems and needs of various systemic levels including the individual, family, the small group, and the larger community (Pardeck, 1988). The practitioner can easily shift from a clinical role to a policy and planning role within the broad framework of the ecological approach.

Six distinct professional roles have evolved from the ecological framework. These roles have also been identified as an intricate part of advanced generalist practice by several writers (Anderson, 1981; Hernandez, Jorgensen, Judd, Gould, & Parsons, 1985). They allow the practitioner to work effectively with five basic clientele systems, that is, the individual, family, small group, organization, and community.

“The six professional roles are defined as follows:

- 1) Conferee: the practitioner serves as the primary source of assistance to the client in problem-solving.
- 2) Enabler: the actions taken by the practitioner to facilitates and enhance the environment for the client.
- 3) Broker: the practitioner links the client with relevant services or goods.
- 4) Mediator: the practitioner reconciles the differing parts within the client 's system to ensure unity.
- 5) Advocate: the actions taken by the practitioner to secure services or resources on behalf of the client when there is resistance or when they are non-existence.
- 6) Guardian: the practitioner takes protective action when the client' competency level is inadequate or performs a social control function” (Pardeck, 1988).

There is blurrity of roles when using the ecological perspective because they intersect with each other. For example, the role of a conferee and enabler at times are used simultaneously. The ecological approach results in a dynamic integration of practice roles (Pardeck, 1988).

Furthermore, three concepts have evolved that serves as an organizing theme for the ecological approach which is the behavioral setting, ecosystem, and transaction (Siporin, 1980). This implies that the client's behavior is not only shaped by the environment but the behavioral change of the client also shapes the environment. The client also functions in more than one ecosystem which includes, self, family, neighborhood and the entire community as depicted in the diagram of the ecological model, Figure 2. What is powerful, however, about the ecosystem is that the client's social functioning is interrelated with the environment, and the client is an inextricable part of the ecological system (Hobbs, 1980). Consequently, the client's ecosystem is composed of numerous overlapping systems including the family, the workplace, and the community, as well as other critical subsystems unique to each client.

Siporin (1980) concurs that the ecological approach appears to be an extremely appropriate strategy for practice given the context of practice. The ecological approach provides a balance between the person and the environment. The perspective provides practitioners with an integrative approach to practice that allows for new ways of assessing and treating problems (Pardeck, 1988). Given this situation, practitioners can now conceptualize the problems confronting clients in such a way that effective treatment involves not only working with the

client but also the systems that facilitate social functioning including the client's family, neighborhood, community and other critical social systems (Siporin, 1980). This is depicted in the figures below.



Figure 2. The ecological model

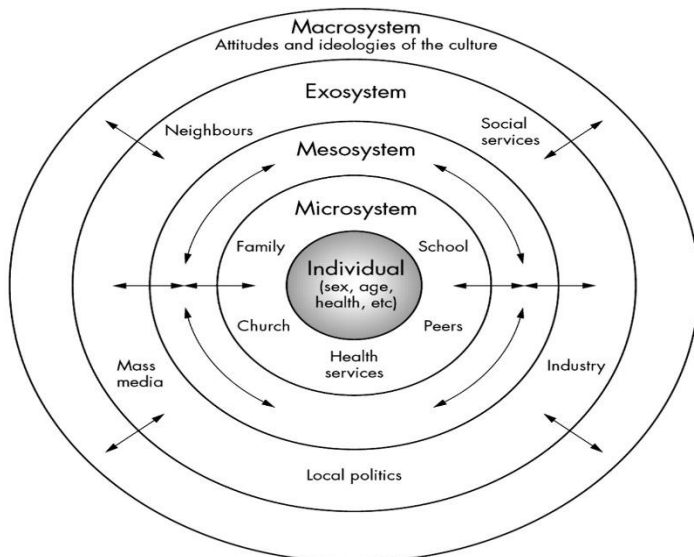


Figure 3. Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory of development
Santrock *et al*, (1992)

2.3.3 Capability Approach

The capability approach of Amartya Sen focuses on what people can do and be, as opposed to what they have, or how they feel. Sen (2009) argues that when investigating well-being, the focus should shift from ‘the means of living’ such as income to the ‘actual opportunities a person has’ specifically their functioning and capabilities. Functioning refers to the various things a person succeeds in ‘doing or being’, such as participating in the life of society, being healthy, and others while ‘capabilities’ refer to a person’s real or substantive freedom to achieve such functioning (Sen, 1999). The approach places emphasis on the capabilities a person has, irrespective of whether they choose to exercise these or not.

From a capability perspective, poverty is seen as the deprivation of certain basic capabilities which differ, as Sen has argued, ‘from such elementary physical ones as being well-nourished, being adequately clothed, sheltered, avoiding preventable morbidity, and so forth, to more complex social achievements such as taking part in the life of the community, being able to appear in public without shame’ (Sen, 1995). There is no suggestion that the capabilities concerned should be determined without reference to prevailing living standards and Sen has been clear that such standards will influence the selection of relevant capabilities (Sen, 1984).

The capability approach questions the significant role often afforded to income in poverty measurement. Sen draws a distinction between the actual opportunities, or capabilities, a person has, which he argues are intrinsically important, and their income, which is merely a means to such opportunities, and whose importance is thus both instrumental and contingent (Sen, 2009). This relates to the distinction between direct and indirect concepts of poverty drawn by Ringen (Ringen, 1988). Direct concepts of poverty focus on cases where living standards fall below a certain level, and typically assume that this is because of a lack of resources. Indirect concepts focus on cases where resources fall below a certain point and typically assume that this results in a low standard of living (Berthoud & Bryan, 2010; Ringen, 1988).

The capability approach holds that people have varying needs and will thus require diverse levels of resources to achieve the same standard of living. For example, the additional costs associated with a disability might mean that a person living with a disability requires a greater amount of resources to achieve the same standard of living as an able-bodied person (Sen, 2009). Sen uses the term ‘conversion factors’ to refer to this variability in translating resources (or means) into capabilities (or ends). And while he discusses such conversion factors primarily in theoretical terms, the mismatch between indirect and direct measures of poverty has been

one of the primary empirical findings from poverty analysis in the field of Social Policy in recent decades (Bradshaw & Finch, 2003; Gordon & Levitas, 2000).

In prioritizing the intrinsic importance of what people can do or be over the resources they possess; the capability approach is unambiguous in favoring a direct approach to poverty alleviation. However, there is a strong tradition of direct conceptualization of poverty, social exclusion and deprivation which can also claim to focus on what people can do and be.

Poverty in its multi-dimensionality has been variously viewed and explained by different theories and perspectives. Various literature shows that poverty cannot be understood using one perspective, thus a better understanding of poverty and the interaction between different dimensions allows a more informed choice in the design and implementation of appropriate policies to reduce poverty as shown by structuralism, ecological perspective and capability approach.

Factors influencing the implementation of poverty eradication programs evolve from the aforementioned theories, and from which the poor may positively derive socio-economic benefits. The structural perception of poverty looks at poverty as a result of social injustices promoted by social structures. In a study on the perception of poverty conducted in Malawi, Dunga & Mafini (2019) found that most female-headed households, households with lower education levels, larger households and households from rural areas were inclined to the structuralist perception. The respondents believed their poverty status was caused by structural injustice. To remediate the structural injustices, therefore, it is necessary to determine people's capability as well as their ecological environment so as to ensure that relevant programs address these injustices. Lekobane & Mooketsane (2016) recommend that in responding to the needs and priorities of the rural poor, it is necessary to shift from ambiguous policies to target specific social groups and address particular constraints they face.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

Poverty is a multi-faceted concept. A lot of studies has been done on its causes, effects, multi-dimensionality, interventions to address it (Addae-korankye, 2014; Alkire & Robles, 2015; Alkire & Santos, 2010, 2013; Centre, 2005; Guo, Harris, Yeung, Linver, & Brooks-Gunn, 2002; Jackson, 1997; Louis Raymond et al., 2006; Mbaiwa, 2005; Ramakgathi, 2014; Srinivas, 2015; Vaz, Alkire, Quisumbing, & Sraboni, 2013). This study seeks to identify factors influencing the implementation of poverty eradication programs in selected communities in the Okavango Delta. Since the initiation of the Poverty Eradication programmes especially the alternative packages, the assessment was not carried out to evaluate the impact of its benefits on the beneficiaries. The conceptual framework will provide a brief examination of some major factors that influence the implementation of poverty alleviation programs and how other variables can deflect the benefits of the programs. The diagram below shows the factors and variables that have an impact on whether a beneficiary of the poverty eradication programme receives the expected outcome.

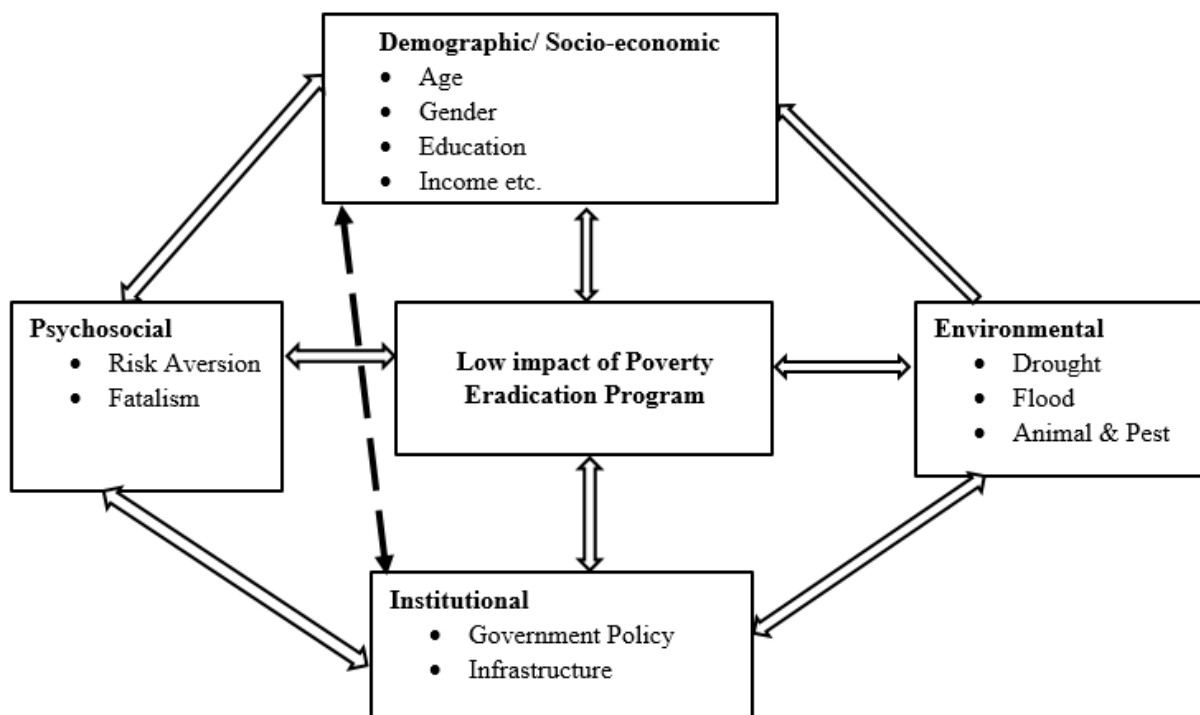


Figure 4. Conceptual framework showing the factors influencing poverty eradication programmes' benefits

2.4.1 Demographic/ socio-economic factors

Literature shows that demographic and socio-economic factors impact poverty. A study conducted by Sekwati, Narayana & Raboloko in 2012 on understanding the nature of household poverty found that there is a positive and significant relationship between household size, total household consumption expenditure and household poverty status (Sekwati, Narayana, & Raboloko, 2012). As reflected in Figure 4 above, the lack of benefits from the outcome of the programmes is influenced by variables such as age, gender, family size among others. Furthermore, a study conducted by Lawson et al. (2003) found that lack of education and key assets are crucial factors linked with people staying poor or unable to escape poverty. They further asserted a strong regional dimension to chronic poverty. This is clearly shown by the conceptual framework in which these variables have an impact on the implementation of poverty alleviation programmes.

2.4.2 Psychosocial factors

According to Alesina et al. (2001), there are behavioral biases or internal constraints such as myopia, lack of willpower and lack of aspirations which are often cited as traits from which the poor likely suffer as reflected in the model. Similarly, Appadurai (2004) argued that the lack of capacity to aspire to break the cycle of poverty is an important reason for the persistence of poverty. Furthermore, the psychological impact of living in poverty is mediated by shame, stigma and humiliation of poverty (Ormel, 1994). On another note, Dake (1991) suggested that the worldview of women tends to be such that greater fatalism and perceived lack of control over their lives lead to a magnification of risk potential and thus more conservative behavior. Studies have shown that men are more risk averse as compared to women when it comes to investing. A study conducted by Haushofer & Fehr (2014) indicated that poverty causes stress and negative states which in turn may lead to short-sighted and risk-averse decision-making, possibly limiting attention and favoring habitual behaviors at the expense of goal-oriented ones. They further stipulated that people living in poverty, especially in developing countries, have repeatedly been found to be more risk averse and more likely to discount future payoffs than wealthier individuals (Haushofer & Fehr, 2014).

2.4.3 Environmental factors

In a study conducted by Wunder (2001) in identifying the causal link between poverty alleviation and natural tropical forests, there are few “win-win” synergies between natural

forests and national poverty reduction which may help to explain why the loss of tropical forests is ongoing. This according to Wunder, may have an important implication for our understanding of 'sustainable forest development' and for the design of both conservation and poverty alleviation strategies. The environmental factor is crucial for the study more so, that the area is a tourism site and the Delta is a pristine Ramsar Site. There are both pull and push variables that affect the benefits people can derive from the poverty alleviation program in a tourism site. The wild animals can destroy the crops or the projects especially those in agriculture thus reducing benefits, or fishing in the Delta might increase the source of income as fish would be sold and other natural resource products such as baskets sold to tourists. One might conclude that natural resources serve as safety nets for families in rural areas who depend on them for survival especially during periods such as drought for example soil, water, animals among others. Henceforth poor rural communities might sacrifice long-term benefits of conservation to satisfy short-term deprivations such as consumption.

2.4.4 Institutional factors

Policies and frameworks that guide any poverty alleviation program have a role to play in ensuring that beneficiaries finally reap the benefits of the programs. Institutions may either promote the benefits of the program or evade them either through assessing those who are eligible, by monitoring or duplicating the services provided by the various departments. Infrastructure is also influential on how people derive benefits from any implemented program.

In their study on factors affecting the progress made in antipoverty interventions in Bangladesh, Kabir & Maitrot (2018) identified five factors, which determined the effectiveness of those interventions. These included environmental factors (health shocks, natural hazards and vulnerabilities); household demography; inappropriate Income Generation Activity (IGA) planning, implementation and monitoring; dependence/ inaction; and political and social instability. These factors are similar to those developed in the above conceptual framework as informed by the theories of poverty. It should be noted that the influence of these factors varies across individuals even if the support and interventions are the same, the outcomes will differ. For example, in some studies, the family's household size influences antipoverty efforts. The larger the size of the beneficiary's household, the more the negative effect on their economic growth and wellbeing. Other studies found that larger family sizes contributed to poverty incidence and poverty endurance especially in the Philippines and the SSA countries (Maralani,

2008; Orbeta, 2005; Virola et al., 2007) while Kabir and Maitrot (2018) found that larger families (>5 members) with a single income earner failed to achieve optimal improvements.

2.5 Literature Gaps

To address social and economic challenges, Botswana in 2010 shifted its policy direction from poverty alleviation to a more robust approach to poverty eradication. A century later, academic literature is scarce on the government's poverty eradication programmes and policies' impact (Badimo, Mogomotsi & Mogomotsi, 2020) and how the implementation of such programmes is affected by various factors. Therefore, this study set out to determine the factors that influence the implementation of PEP in selected communities in Ngamiland West, Botswana. This dissertation brings into focus how socio-demographic, environmental, institutional and psychological factors influence benefits derived from the implementation of PEP.

2.6 Chapter summary

Poverty is defined as consisting of any form of injustice, which is a source of social exclusion, in the provision of living conditions essential for human dignity where people are trapped within social, cultural, political, and economic systems. There are various forms of poverty such as absolute (chronic, extreme), relative, social exclusion, interstitial (pockets), peripheral and overcrowding poverty, Other include traumatic or sporadic, zero-sum, endemic, generational, material and child poverty. Literature shows that poverty is concentrated in the SSA most especially as a result of conflicts, climate change, pandemics, psychological distress, etc.

Poverty measures are based on income and consumption. In Botswana, poverty reduction policies increase income and improve livelihood for the poor, support infrastructure development in basic service provision and provide short-term relief through social welfare programmes. Various literatures show that poverty cannot be understood from only one perspective. Thus, a better understanding of poverty and the interaction between different dimensions allows a more informed choice in the design and implementation of appropriate policies to reduce poverty as shown by structuralism, ecological perspective and capability approach. Henceforth poverty can only be reduced but not entirely eradicated.

To determine the effectiveness of antipoverty interventions environmental factors (health shocks, natural hazards and vulnerabilities), household demography, appropriate IGA planning, implementation and monitoring, dependence/ inaction and political and social instability factors ought to be assessed. Indeed, literature is scarce on the government's poverty eradication

programmes, policies' impact and how the implementation of such programmes is affected by various factors. This, therefore, necessitates the need to conduct a study on determining how socio-demographic, environmental, institutional and psychological factors influence benefits derived from the implementation of PEP in the study area.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter entails the methodology used in the study. It outlines the study area, sampling and sample size, instrumentation, data collection, data analysis, pre-testing and ethical consideration.

3.2 Study area

The Okavango Delta is situated in Ngamiland District in the North West of Botswana. There are arid lands, swamps, channels, lagoons, grasslands, lakes and countless islands of various shapes and sizes in the delta. The predominant ethnic groups in the Okavango sub-district are Bayei, Batawana, Baherero, Bambukushu and Basubiya. Most groups form their settlements along the river, which they use for subsistence fishing and providing water for livestock. Furthermore, they plough on flood plains (molapo farming) where they grow maize and sorghum. It can be concluded that the major economic activities in the delta include tourism, livestock rearing, handicrafts, small-scale industries and farming (Mbaiwa, 2005). The Okavango sub-district is largely rural with a population heavily reliant on farming.

Despite having an internationally recognized World Heritage and Ramsar Site (Okavango Delta and Tsodilo Hills) in the District, poverty is persistent (Mogalakwe & Nyamnjoh, 2017). This is attributed to the ‘enclave’ and ‘internal colonial character’ of the tourism sector (Mbaiwa, 2005). Unlike in other areas abundant with natural resources, Ngamiland West continues to wallow in poverty while other regions advance in development especially with infrastructure. Kolawole (2014) shares that infrastructure in Ngamiland is beyond comprehension because of lack of electricity and potable water in certain communities, poor inaccessible road conditions among others. Figure 5 below shows the map of Okavango sub–district where the study was carried out.

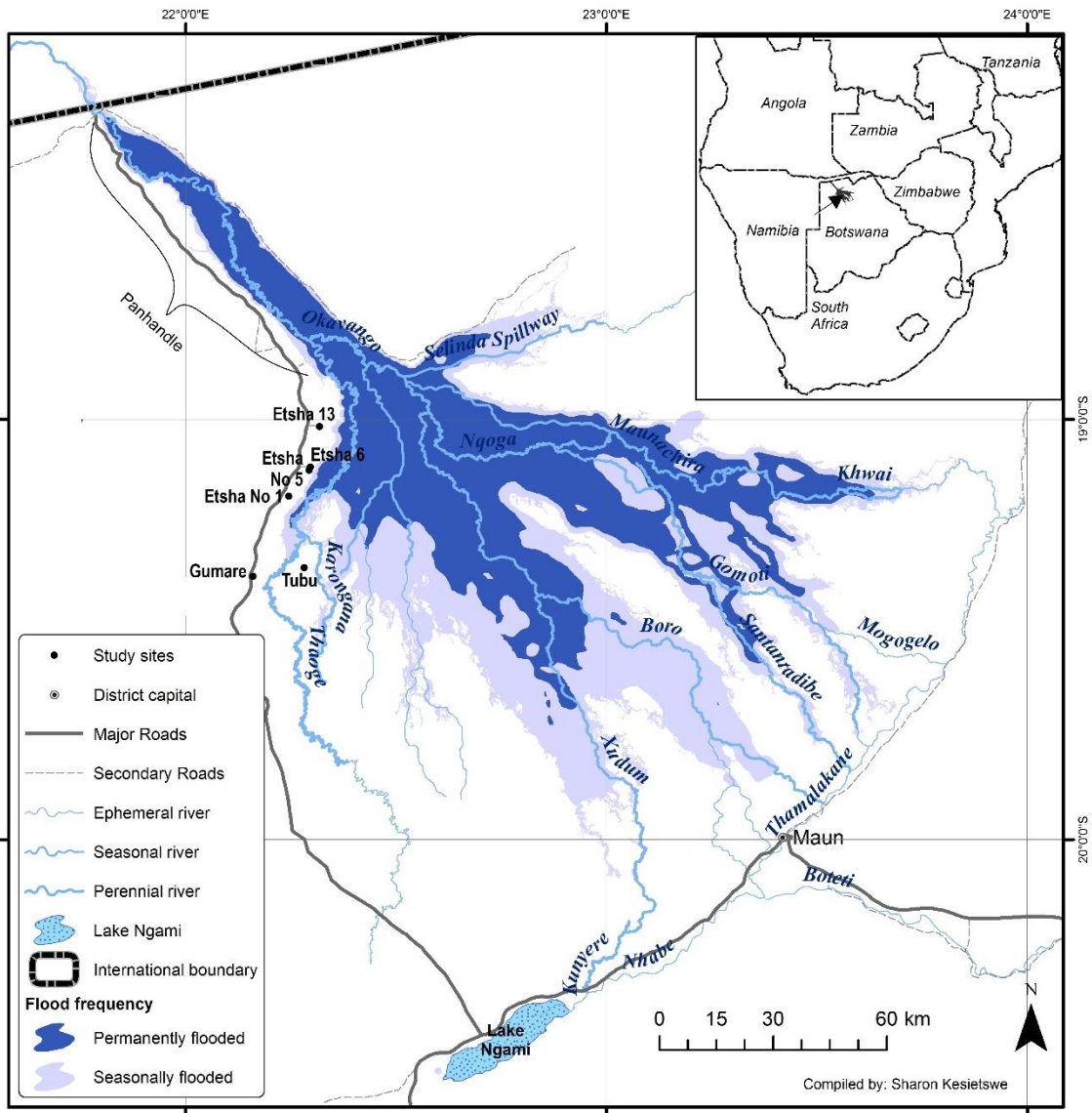


Figure 5. Map of Okavango Sub-district

Six villages along the panhandle in the Ngamiland West were selected as study sites for data collection as shown in Figure 5 above. Gumare was chosen as the main study area because of its population size comprising 8212 people and 2001 households, with a poverty rate of 0.328 percent and an estimated rural poor population of 2694 individuals in Ngamiland West as compared to others such as Shakawe with a population size of 6780 people and 1592 households, and having a poverty rate of 0.377 percent and an estimated rural poor population of 2556 individuals (Statistics Botswana, 2015). Despite the high poverty rate of Shakawe, Gumare was selected because of its population density as well as the number of households

which are higher than the former². Table 1 below shows the statistical information of all study sites. There was no data for Etsha 1 and Etsha 5.

Table 1: Statistical data on poverty for study sites

Indicator	Gumare	Tubu	Etsha 1	Etsha 5	Etsha 6	Etsha 13
Number of Household	2001	130	No data	No data	1026	603
Population	8212	583	No data	No data	4902	2646
Poverty rate	0.328	0.238	No data	No data	0.41	0.359
Estimated District poverty	0.375	0.375	No data	No data	0.375	0.375
Estimated poor in the village	2694	139	No data	No data	2010	950

Source: Statistics Botswana (2015)

3.2.1 Study population

The study population comprised the beneficiaries of the Poverty Eradication Flagship Program in the selected communities of the North West side of the Okavango Delta along the panhandle who were aged 18 and above (see, Table 1). The flagship program focused on alleviating poverty, earning dignity and attaining food security especially from Agricultural products as reflected by the awarded packages.

3.3 Research design and approach

The study adopted a case study research design using a mixed-method approach to collect and analyze data on factors influencing the implementation of poverty eradication programs in selected communities of Ngamiland West, Botswana. The researcher based the inquiry on the assumption that collecting diverse types of data best provides a more complete understanding of a research problem than either quantitative or qualitative data (Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, this approach neutralizes the weaknesses of each form of data (Creswell, 2014). The mixed-method approach helped collect information about perceptions of community people in multi-dimensionality of poverty, identify challenges associated with the implementation of the poverty eradication programs, etc. Case studies are used in many areas to critically assess certain topics or programs (Creswell, 2014) in the everyday contexts in which they occur (Yin, 2009) as was the case in this study. Crowe et al. (2011) further states that the case study approach captures information on explanatory “how”, “what” and “why” questions. This

² The number of households is the unit of analysis for determining poverty.

approach helped to ascertain how certain factors influenced the implementation of PEP in Ngamiland West. However, this approach delimited the study scope because of its biasness and contextuality in relation to Ngamiland West only, making it impossible to generalize the results. According to Creswell (2014), mixed-method is about combining and integrating qualitative and quantitative research and data in a research study. Qualitative research uses techniques such as interviews, observations, and report findings in words (Chilisa & Preece, 2005) as against quantitative research, which uses surveys and produce data in the form of numbers (Neuman, 2014).

3.3.1 Sampling procedure and sample size

Research consent was obtained from Okavango sub-District Council. A letter through fax was sent to the Senior Council Secretary to authorize data collection. The researcher received a database from the Okavango sub-District Council that comprised all beneficiaries including those who had not received project packages and those who were not yet ready to start operating at the time of the study. The research design took into consideration beneficiaries who were operational since inception and were either fully or partially equipped to operate. The study population were any beneficiary aged 18 and above of PEP residing in any of the selected communities of Ngamiland West. The eligibility criteria (as indicated in a government document) are stated as follows: Botswana citizen aged 18 years and above; able to undertake the project; earning or living on a monthly income not more than P300 (USD1.25/day); earning seasonal or occasional or temporary income such under Ipelegeng programme; having spouses not earning monthly income above P300.00 unless such income is seasonal, occasional or temporary; having livestock not exceeding six (6) cows or fifteen (15) small stock; and should be a beneficiary of the Poverty Eradication Programme or other government programme who have suffered the loss of assets or livestock due to disease or other natural disasters as verified by the Ministry responsible for the related project (Poverty Eradication Guideline, 2012).

A total of six study sites situated in the western part of the Okavango Delta were purposively selected because of their proximity to Gumare and accessibility. Approximately 287 beneficiaries were identified in the six villages of Etsha 1, Etsha 3, Etsha 5, Etsha 6, Tubu and Gumare from the poverty eradication database. Respondents were therefore, purposively selected in the six study sites based on certain criteria including availability for interview, distance traveled, training received, packaged (fully/ partial) and respondent's willingness to be

interviewed. Based on the predetermined sample size of 167, balloting were done by randomly selecting 167 folded papers numbered from 1 to 287, which had earlier been shaken together in a hat. The numbers which were aligned with the respondents were then sorted according to their villages especially those within reach from Gumare. The respondents were then contacted for directions and scheduling appointments. Furthermore, purposive sampling was also used to select leaders (2 headmen and 5 Village Development Committee members) of the 6 communities and PEP beneficiaries whose projects were successful as key informants. One (1) FGD session was held in Tubu village. The sample size of 167 PEP beneficiaries was determined by the Taro Yamani formula.

The total sample size for quantitative data was calculated using the Taro Yamani formula

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2} \quad n = \frac{287}{1+287(0.05)^2} = \frac{287}{1+287(0.0025)} = \frac{287}{1.7175} = 167$$

Where:

n= sample size required

N=number of people in the population

e= allowable error (i.e. 0.05%)

The sample size was 167.

3.4 Instrumentation

Two categories of variables (independent and dependent variables) were measured in the study. Independent or explanatory variables (Xs) in the study included age, gender, income level, educational level, religion, risk aversion and fatalism. The dependent variable (Ys) was measured by project performance with the extent to which they have met the PEP objectives. The interview schedule comprises the construction of items placed on a 5-point Likert rating scale to which respondents were asked to respond in terms of whether they agree or disagree with them. Furthermore, a key informant guide was also used to collect data from key respondents.

3.4.1 Measurement of variables

Demographic and socio-economic characteristics: The measured characteristics included age, gender, marital status, income, education, religion and household size. Age was measured by the number of years an individual lived on earth. Gender was categorized and coded by the sex of the individual as either 1 (male) or 2 (female). Marital status was categorized and coded as

either 1 (Married), 2 (Single), 3 (Divorced), 4 (Cohabiting) and 5 (Widowed). Income was measured by the amount, which an individual earned per month. Education was measured by the number of years an individual has had formal education. Religion was categorized based on the faith of the individual. Household size was measured by the number of individuals who eat from the same pot and sleep in the same compound for more than 1 week. Association membership was measured by the number of associations to which an individual belongs and the roles they play in the association.

Psychosocial variables such as risk aversion (the tendency to avoid delving into an unknown venture) and fatalism (which is resignation to fate) were measured through a set of at least 8 items/ statements placed on a Likert rating scale of 1-5 from Strongly agree (5 points); Agree (4 points); Undecided (3); Disagree (2); to Strongly Disagree (1). Other variables (such as infrastructure, government policy, environment, etc.) were also rated on a 5-point Likert scale. The life span of the project was measured using numeric values (number of years the business operated) which were then categorized.

The dependent variable (i.e., impact of PEP implementation) was measured through a set of items (minimum of 8 statements) also placed on a Likert rating scale of 1-5 (1 =least important and 5=very important).

3.4.2 Pre-testing

One of the data collection instruments (interview schedule) was pre-tested amongst the beneficiaries of PEP in Shorobe. The interview schedule was pre-tested to determine the reliability and validity of the instrument.

3.5 Data collection

Both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods were used in the study. Mixed method collection strategies are those that are explicitly designed to combine elements of one method such as structured survey interviews with elements of other methods such as unstructured interviews, observations or focus groups in either a sequential or a simultaneous manner (Axinn, Thomas, & Arland, 1991). It was relatively easier to collect both quantitative and qualitative data at once during fieldwork, rather than to revisit the field multiple times for data collection (Creswell, 2014). Close-ended and open-ended interview schedules were used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. In addition, a focus group guide was used to collect in-depth data from beneficiaries regarding their perception of poverty and its multi-dimensionality.

There were 10 key informant interview schedules, 1 focus group discussion with 7 members and 60 questionnaires administered.

3.5.1 Interview schedule (face-to-face)

The interview schedule was used to collect both close and open-ended questions from the beneficiaries of PEP. It has the highest response rate and room to probe and seek clarity (Kreuger & Newman, 2006). In addition, an interview schedule was used to probe the PEP beneficiaries' world, opinions, thoughts and feelings. Semi-structured interviews combine close and open-ended questions (to elicit unexpected types of information) (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Sixty beneficiaries responded to the interview schedule. The interview schedule collected both quantitative and qualitative data as per the objectives of the study. Furthermore, the interviewees were asked questions concerning their feelings and thoughts about poverty and factors that affect the implementation of PEP. Despite its advantages, the method is costly (in terms of time, resources) and one must guard against the prejudices associated with certain responses.

3.5.2 Key informant guide

A key informant guide was designed to collect in-depth qualitative data (on factors influencing PEP program implementation) from key informants. It helped to seek clarifications from the respondents, some of which were not beneficiaries of PEP (Local headmen).

3.5.3 Focus group discussion

Focus group discussion (FGD) was conducted because it provided a strategic form of qualitative research in which attitudes, opinions or perceptions towards an issue or programme were explored through a free and open discussion between members of the group and the researcher (Kumar, 2014). A focus group generally has either 8-12 participants (Krueger, 1994; Stewart & Smith, 1995) or 4-6 participants (Strong, Ashton, Chant & Crammond, 1994). The benefits of using FGD include the tendency to provide information on the dynamics of attitudes and opinions in the context of the interaction that occurs between participants (Morgan, 1988); the possibility of encouraging a greater degree of spontaneity in the expression of views than alternative methods of data collection (Butler, 1996) as well as the provision of a safe forum for the voluntary expression of individual participants' viewpoints (Vaughn, Sinagub & Schumm, 1996). However, FGD is expensive and responses could be biased because of the

moderator or the group members' inability to express their opinions. One FGD comprising 7 members was conducted to ensure that the objectives of the study were met. The FGD focussed on selected participants who had received a full project package from the PEP. The focus group guide collected views from members on the role of civil society to ensure success in the implementation of PEP, awareness on available policies and programmes among others.

3.6 Data analysis

Data analysis is a process whereby data is checked, cleaned and transformed to discover useful information to support decisions and it has multiple approaches of being conducted. Quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, frequency distribution and percentages to summarize the data. Firstly, data from the questionnaire (Likert scale and polar questions) was tested for normality using Cronbach especially in determining reliability and internal consistency of the data set. Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used to test the correlation between quantitative, explanatory variables (Xs) and dependent variable (Y). Chi-Square was used to test the association of categorical variables (non-parametric test) at a 5 percent level of significance. Lastly, multiple regression was used to test the relationship between variables. The data was analyzed using two statistical software, Microsoft Excel 2016 and IBM SPSS v24.

Qualitative data from Focus Group guides and interview guides were analyzed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis entails identifying patterns or themes within qualitative data (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). Firstly, data was captured using an audio recorder during focus group discussions and was later transcribed word for word (verbatim transcription) and responses to the interview guide were transcribed to Microsoft Excel sheets. Themes were then identified and analyzed using Braun & Clarke's six-framework for doing a thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This involved the researcher's familiarization with the data through repetitive readings, coding themes using labels, which were then collated to generate initial themes. The themes were then reviewed against the data to determine their responses to research questions. They were later defined and named as per their scope and focus and finally the researcher's write-up of weaving together the analytic narrative and data extracts and contextualizing the analysis about the research questions.

3.7 Ethical considerations

The authorities were first informed that the study was for academic research and that participation of the beneficiaries was voluntary. Beneficiaries were informed about maintaining the confidentiality of the information shared and that their identity will not be disclosed. Parties were notified that the researcher might publish the results after sharing them with the Council and the beneficiaries on how the PEP program can be improved in the sub-district. Beneficiaries were also informed that they were free to decline participation in the study since it was voluntary.

3.8 Chapter summary

The study was conducted in six communities of Ngamiland West District in Botswana. The study population comprised of the beneficiaries of the Poverty Eradication Flagship Program. The research adopted a case study research design and a mixed-method approach was used to collect and analyze the data. The six study sites were purposively identified using predetermined criteria of availability, distance traveled, training received, consent, and project participants' status (those who had not received project packages, those who were not yet ready to start operating and those who were operating at the time of the study). The measured variables among others included, participants' age, gender, marital status, income, risk aversion, fatalism, education, religion and household size were measured.

Data were collected using interview schedules and focus group guides. Respondents were purposively selected. Key informants comprised of 2 headmen and 5 village development committee members of the 6 communities. Only 1 focus group discussion was held in one of the villages with 7 members. Quantitative data was collected from 60 respondents using a questionnaire.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents data analysis and discussions. This study examined factors influencing the implementation of poverty eradication programs in selected communities of Ngamiland West, Botswana. The following hypotheses were formulated in the null form:

- i. There is no significant relationship between beneficiaries' demographic and socio-economic factors and the implementation of the poverty eradication programs.
- ii. There is no significant relationship between institutional factors and the implementation of poverty eradication programs.
- iii. There is no significant association between beneficiaries' livelihoods and the of PEP.
- iv. There is no significant relationship between environmental factors impact on the implementation of the poverty eradication program in the study area.

The chapter begins by analyzing respondents' demographic and socio-economic characteristics and summarizes the results through descriptive statistics. Secondly, inferential statistics are presented in line with the hypotheses of the study. Finally, a summary and conclusion are provided at the end of the chapter.

4.2 Demographic and Socio-economic attributes

The study analyses factors influencing the implementation of the poverty eradication programs in selected communities which are Gumare, Tubu, Etsha number 1, Etsha number 5, Etsha number 6 and Etsha number 13. Demographic and socio-economic factors which influence the implementation of PEP such as sex, age, marital status, ethnicity, religion, level of education, means of livelihood, income, family size, etc. were all considered. All the participants were beneficiaries of PEP.

4.2.1 Sex

Table 2 below shows that majority (86.7%) of the respondents were females and only 13.3 percent were males. The results confirm that as villages are disadvantaged and isolated, able-bodied young men escape rural poverty in search of employment in cities and leave behind women, the aged and children who have to devise coping strategies for their survival (Kolawole

& Torimiro, 2006). Consistent with the results were the findings from Makebea, Moses & Kaisara who conducted a study in Bodibeng and Kareng, in a similar rural environment where they found that women were the dominant respondents because of their societal roles of being 'home caretaker' while men were at the cattle post (Makebea, Moses, & Kaisara, 2012). According to the Botswana Demographic Survey of 2006, Ngamiland West has a high rate of women-headed households at 59.3 percent (Central Statistics Office, 2008). Furthermore, this implies that a higher number of female participants may have received more poverty eradication projects than males.

4.2.2 Age

Data in Table 2 below shows that the average age of respondents was approximately 41 years (SD=11.30). Half (50%) of the respondents were aged 18-38 years. This suggests that majority of youths in the Okavango Sub-district participated in the poverty eradication program. Youth refers to any person who falls within the age range of 18-35 years according to the Youth Development Fund application guideline and form. This finding is validated by the results of the 2011 census report, showing Botswana as a youthful population of about 47 percent, with a higher female population of 50.7 percent (Kgosimore et al., 2014). However, age is a hindering factor in the respondents realizing the impact of the programs on their lives. The programs are physically demanding such as farming. The common decline in health (such as poor mobility) as people age (Fonta, Nonvignon, Aikins, Nwosu & Aryeetey, 2017) may be causing the decline in the beneficiaries' impact of the program. In addition, the respondents have indicated poor health facilities in the Okavango District which does not assist in the beneficiaries' health issues. Coupled with poor health facilities, older respondents are disadvantaged the most due to health reasons such as high blood pressure and osteoporosis therefore they may no longer be able to keep up with the demand of the program.

4.2.3 Marital Status

Data in Table 2 below shows that 48.3 percent of the respondents were single, 38.3 percent cohabitating, 6.7 percent were both married and widowed. The analysis reveals that majority of the respondents were single. These results reflect on the level of household income for the PEP participants and the kind of support they could receive. Mooketsane (2016) in her publication corroborates these findings by noting that in Botswana, poverty is highest amongst single-headed households.

4.2.4 Ethnic group

Table 2 below shows that there were over 5 ethnic groups in the Okavango Sub-district. The analysis reveals that most (43.3%) of the respondents were of Bayei ethnicity. Bahambukushu were the second large group at 40 percent while the least identified ethnicities were in the other category.

Table 2: Distribution of beneficiaries by their demographic characteristics

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage	Measures of central tendency
Sex	Male	8	13.3	
	Female	52	86.7	
	Total	60	100	
Age	18-38 years	30	50	M=40.68 SD=11.30
	39-59 years	27	45	
	60+ years	3	5	
	Total	60	100	
Marital Status	Married	4	6.7	
	Single	29	48.3	
	Cohabiting	23	38.3	
	Widowed	4	6.7	
	Total	60	100	
Ethnicity	Bayei	26	43.3	
	Bahambukushu	24	40.0	
	Batawana	1	1.7	
	Baherero	1	1.7	
	Other	5	8.3	
	Basubiya	3	5.0	
	Total	60	100	

Source: Field survey, May 2017

4.2.5 Religion of the beneficiaries

Table 3 shows that majority (96.7%) of the respondents were Christians while only 3.3 percent were not affiliated to any religion.

4.2.6 Level of education

Table 3 shows that 43.3 percent of the respondents had primary school-leaving examination certificate while 38.3 percent obtained a secondary school certificate. The results further show that 5 percent of the respondents received non-formal education as against the 10 percent of the non-literate respondents. Tertiary education was the least (3.4%) level of education as compared to others including those with no education. The analysis shows that majority of the respondents received primary education. The level of education was important to the study because understanding business basics and receiving training required beneficiaries' ability to read and write, and able to make informed business decisions. Despite the results of the study, the

Botswana Multi-Topic Household survey 2015/16 report indicates that Ngamiland West is the second district in Botswana with low literacy rates (41.6%) and is mostly affected by poverty (Botswana Multi-Topic Household Survey 2015/2016, 2015). The analysis further implies that the beneficiary's level of education is important in terms of business growth, and the like.

Table 3: Distribution of beneficiaries by their socio-economic characteristics

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage %	Measures of central tendency
Religion	Christianity	58	96.7	
	No Religion	2	3.3	
	Total	60	100	
Level of Education	Primary	26	43.3	
	Secondary	23	38.3	
	Tertiary	2	3.4	
	Non-Formal	3	5.0	
	None	6	10.0	
	Total	60	100	
Livelihood	Business	37	61.7	
	Ipelegeng	11	18.3	
	Sale of veld products	2	3.3	
	Farming	5	8.3	
	None	5	8.3	
	Total	60	100	
Income earned in a group	100-500	18	30.0	
	501-2000	19	31.7	
	2001-3500	9	15.0	
	3501-5000	1	1.7	
	5000+	2	3.3	
	0.00	11	18.3	Mean=BWP1087.10 SD=1434.75
Total	60	100		

Source: Field survey, May 2017

4.2.7 Means of livelihood

Table 3 shows various means of livelihood of the beneficiaries. Approximately 61.7 percent of the respondents operated a business and 18.3 percent of them were hired in Ipelegeng. The sale of veld products such as fish, wood, grass, etc. was ascribed 3.3 percent while farming and no means of livelihood constituted 8.3 percent apiece of the responses. One may deduce that due to the rural background and way of life of the people in the Okavango sub-district, their means of livelihood are limited. Notwithstanding low yields, farming is practiced alongside owning a business and working in Ipelegeng during the slack period. Interestingly, respondents showed Ipelegeng to be their source of employment and cash income. Reardon & Vosti, (1995) confirmed that the rural poor in fragile areas diversified their sources of income through the non-agricultural sector to manage risk and alleviate poverty as is the case with the beneficiaries of the poverty eradication program or safety nets.

4.2.8 Income of the beneficiaries

Table 3 shows the distribution of beneficiaries' income in a group by their expected monthly earnings expressed in Botswana Pula (BWP). The average income of project beneficiaries was BWP1087.10 per month with a standard deviation of BWP1434.75. While 31.7 percent earned between BWP501-BWP2000 per month and 30 percent of the respondents earned between BWP100-BWP500. Nonetheless, 15 percent of the beneficiaries earned between BWP2001 and BWP3500.00 per month. Approximately 1.7 percent of the respondents earned between BWP3501 and BWP5000 per month while only 3.3 percent earned above BWP5001 per month. As evidenced in the result, the minimum amount (supplementing business with Ipelegeng, a drought relief program) had a high percentage which is attributed to the minimum amount paid in Ipelegeng of BWP540.00 or those receiving old-age pension aged 65+. The amount of money earned by the respondents is the key indicator to realizing the impact of the program. The main purpose of the PEPs is so that beneficiaries can create a living for themselves (Jongman, 2018) and that involves making enough money to take care of their families' finances, health and daily needs such as food and clothing.

4.2.9 Sources of livelihood prior to the project

Table 4 shows the distribution of beneficiaries as per other sources of livelihood prior to the project. A proportion of 23.3 percent of the beneficiaries shows farming as their source of livelihood before starting the poverty eradication project. With a slightly less margin of 3.3 percent, business (20.0%) was shown as a source of livelihood before the project. Other sources of livelihood such as menial jobs, clearing other people's fields in exchange for a small harvest, etc. comprised 16.7 percent while 11.7 percent of the respondents showed both Ipelegeng and farming as their previous source of livelihood. The remaining 29.4 percent was accounted for by various sources of livelihood such as Ipelegeng, safety net beneficiary, sale of veld products and some other unspecified livelihood activities. The data illustrate that beneficiaries of PEP were farmers.

Table 4: Distribution of beneficiaries by other sources of livelihood prior to the project

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage %
Other sources of livelihood prior to the project	Business	12	20.0
	Others	10	16.7
	None	3	5.0
	Both Ipelegeng & menial jobs	1	1.7
	Safety net beneficiary	4	6.7
	Both business & farming	2	3.3
	Ipelegeng	1	1.7
	Sale of veld products	4	6.7
	Fishing	2	3.3
	Farming	14	23.3
	Both Ipelegeng & farming	7	11.7
	Total		60

Source: Field survey, May 2017

4.2.10 Association membership status

Figure 6 shows the distribution of respondents according to their association membership status. Most (66.6%) of the respondents did not belong to any association. While only 21.7 percent were ordinary members in their respective associations or clubs, 11.7 percent of them were committee members.

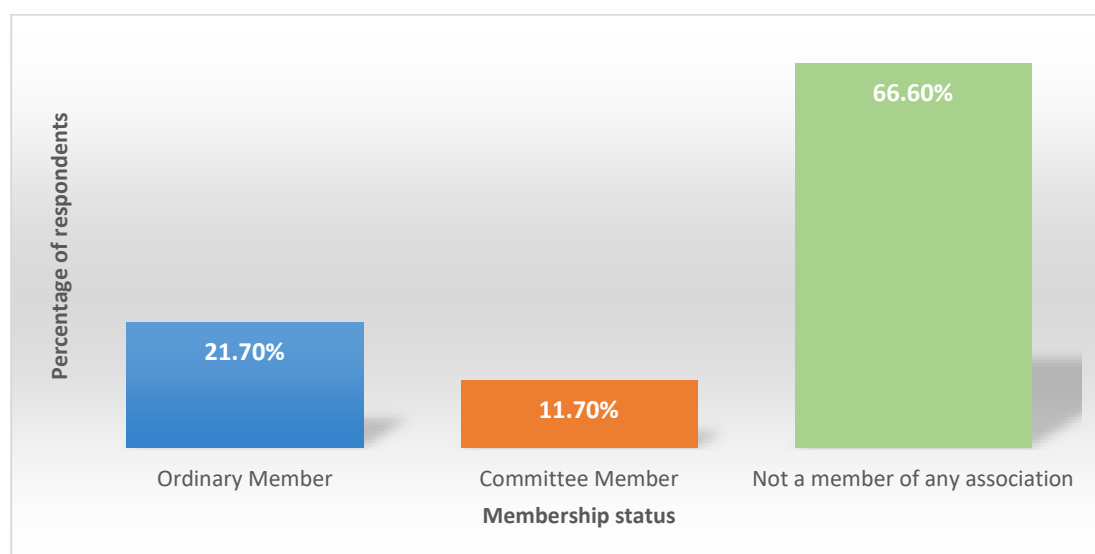


Figure 6: A bar chart showing the distribution of the association membership status of beneficiaries

Source: Field survey, May 2017

4.2.11 Family size of the beneficiaries

Table 5 shows the distribution of respondents according to their family sizes. The average family size was 8. Most 40 percent of the respondents indicated that they had between 6 – 10

people living in their household, while 31.7 percent were between 1-5 persons. The largest household size of over 16 persons was ascribed 6.7 percent.

Table 5: Family size of pep beneficiaries

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage %	Measures of central tendency
Family size	1-5	19	31.7	Mean =8.28 SD=4.33
	6-10	24	40	
	11-15	13	21.7	
	16+	4	6.7	
	Total	60	100	

Source: Field survey, May 2017

4.2.12 Position of the beneficiary in the household

Figure 7 shows the distribution of the respondents according to their position in the household. A significant number of 61.6 percent of the respondents were heads of the household. The analysis shows that PEP beneficiaries are decision-makers in their households and these may negatively influence how business proceeds are used to meet household demands, and which may shorten the lifespan of the project if misappropriated. Some 26.7 percent were breadwinners while only 11.7 percent were just household members. The analysis implies that rural households are led by enterprise owners or project owners especially those in PEP. Consequently, the success or failure of the project is based on the ability of the household to withstand any shocks without using the business proceeds. Those who are ordinary household members are more likely to have the ability to save their proceeds unlike those who are breadwinners and heads of a household.

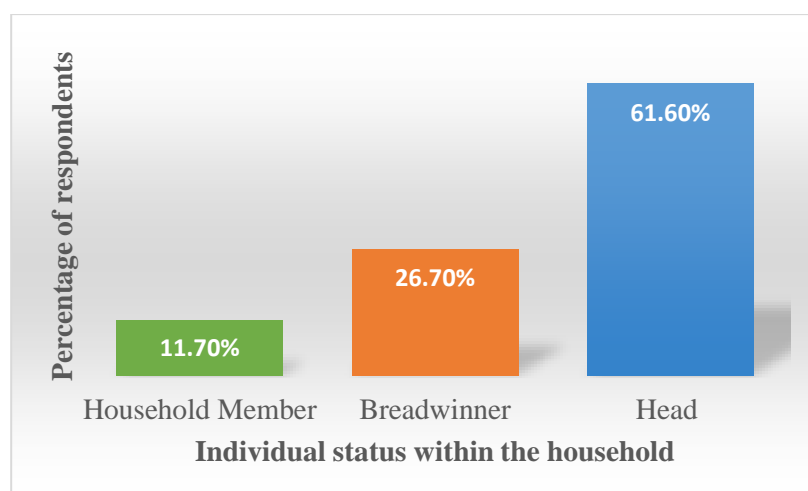


Figure 7. Distribution showing the position of the respondent in the household

Source: Field survey, May 2017

4.2.13 Flagship projects received by respondents

Table 6a, 6b & 6c shows the distribution of the flagship project amongst the beneficiaries. A fairly significant proportion of 28.3 percent of the beneficiaries rear small stock while 23.3 percent operated a bakery and 15 percent hairdressing. The least received flagship project at 1.7 percent were beauty salon, carpentry, tyre services, tent hire, laundry, music band and popcorn production. The analysis shows that the beneficiaries were small stock farmers. The findings demonstrate that certain economic projects are gender-biased. Table 6a demonstrates that the majority (100%) of male respondents preferred carpentry, tyre services and music band unlike majority of females (between 85% to 100%) who preferred operating a beauty salon, tent hiring, pot hiring, laundry, backyard gardening, tailoring, bakery, rearing of small stock, etc. It could be deduced that the flagship projects were pro-women because the majority of the projects were associated with feminine responsibilities. Nevertheless, the assumption is that agriculture-focused households might escape poverty by providing food security and income in situations where the beneficiaries are small stock farmers. Gassner et al. (2019) further emphasize that if the gap between actual and potential yields is closed, smallholders will grow sufficient crops to feed their families with a surplus to sell and by that means meet their food security needs and have an income that could move them out of poverty.

Table 6a: Distribution of the flagship program

Flagship projects		Sex of respondent		Total	
		Male	Female		
Received flagship program	Count	3	14	17	
	Rearing of Small stock	% within Received flagship program	17.6%	82.4%	100%
		% within Sex of respondent	37.5%	26.9%	28.3%
		% of Total	5.0%	23.3%	28.3%
	Count	0	1	1	
	Beauty salon	% within Received flagship program	0%	100%	100%
		% within Sex of respondent	0%	1.9%	1.7%
		% of Total	0%	1.7%	1.7%
	Count	1	0	1	
	Carpentry	% within Received flagship program	100%	0%	100%
		% within Sex of respondent	12.5%	0.0%	1.7%
		% of Total	1.7%	0%	1.7%
	Count	1	0	1	
	Tyre Services	% within Received flagship program	100%	0%	100%
		% within Sex of respondent	12.5%	0%	1.7%
	% of Total	1.7%	0%	1.7%	

Source: Field survey, May 2017

Table 6b: Distribution of the flagship program

Flagship projects		Sex of respondent		Total
		Male	Female	
Tent Hire	Count	0	1	1
	% within Received flagship program	0%	100%	100%
	% within Sex of respondent	0%	1.90%	1.7%
	% of Total	0%	1.7%	1.7%
Pot Hire	Count	0	2	2
	% within Received flagship program	0%	100%	100%
	% within Sex of respondent	0%	3.8%	3.3%
	% of Total	0%	3.3%	3.3%
Bakery	Count	2	12	14
	% within Received flagship program	14.3%	85.7%	100%
	% within Sex of respondent	25%	23.10%	23.30%
	% of Total	3.3%	20%	23.3%
Laundry Services	Count	0	1	1
	% within Received flagship program	0%	100%	100%
	% within Sex of respondent	0%	1.9%	1.7%
	% of Total	0%	1.7%	1.7%
Backyard Gardening	Count	0	5	5
	% within Received flagship program	0%	100%	100%
	% within Sex of respondent	0%	9.6%	8.3%
	% of Total	0%	8.3%	8.3%
Hair Dressing	Count	0	9	9
	% within Received flagship program	0%	100%	100%
	% within Sex of respondent	0%	17.3%	15%
	% of Total	0%	15%	15%
Music Band	Count	1	0	1
	% within Received flagship program	100%	0%	100%
	% within Sex of respondent	12.5%	0%	1.7%
	% of Total	1.7%	0%	1.7%

Source: Field survey, May 2017

Table 6c: Distribution of the flagship program

Flagship projects		Sex of respondent		Total
		Male	Female	
Egg Production	Count	0	2	2
	% within Received flagship program	0%	100%	100%
	% within Sex of respondent	0%	3.8%	3.3%
	% of Total	0%	3.3%	3.3%
Pop Corn Production	Count	0	1	1
	% within Received flagship program	0%	100%	100%
	% within Sex of respondent	0%	1.9%	1.7%
	% of Total	0%	1.7%	1.7%
Dress Making	Count	0	4	4
	% within Received flagship program	0%	100%	100%
	% within Sex of respondent	0%	7.7%	6.7%
	% of Total	0%	6.7%	6.7%
Total	Count	8	52	60
	% within Received flagship program	13.3%	86.7%	100%
	% within Sex of respondent	100%	100%	100%
	% of Total	13.3%	86.7%	100%

Source: Field survey, May 2017

4.2.14 The exact year the project started operating

Figure 8 below shows the exact year the project started operating. Most 35 percent of the projects started operating in 2015. In 2014 and 2016 a fair proportion of 26.7 percent of the projects started operating.

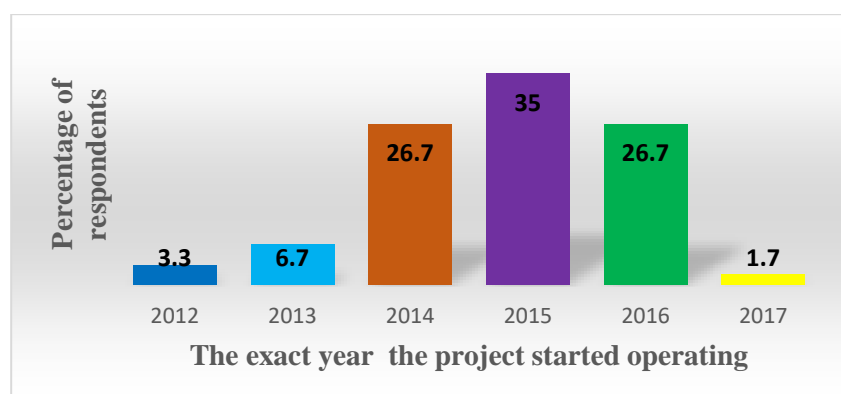


Figure 8: The exact year the project started operating

Source: Field survey, May 2017

4.3 Institutional factors' influence on the implementation of the PEP

Table 7 below shows respondents' perceptions on how institutions affect the implementation of PEP. Most (78.3%) of the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed that government provides information on how to access poverty eradication programs. Furthermore, half of the

respondents strongly agreed/agreed to be satisfied with the service they received from the government, while 46.6 percent strongly disagreed/disagreed with being satisfied with government service.

Most (75%) respondents opined that the government policy on poverty eradication indeed favors the commoners or poor people while 12.4 percent strongly disagreed/disagreed. A significant proportion of 88.5 percent of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed with the statement that ‘government makes it easy for people to access its poverty alleviation programs. However, respondents from the interview and focus group indicated that as much as the process is easy to do, it takes a long time for them to finally receive their projects. A study by (Ng & Sashi, 2008) emphasized that the group most affected by poverty and that faces most difficulties in accessing poverty eradication programmes were single parents.

The majority of the respondents 76.6 percent strongly disagreed/disagreed with provision of facilities to operate the projects while 23.4 percent strongly agreed/agreed to be provided with facilities. Half (50%) of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed that it is difficult to implement the project because of the way it is designed while 41.6 percent strongly agreed/agreed that the program design makes it difficult to implement it. At least 48.4 percent of the respondents equally strongly agreed/agreed and strongly disagreed/disagreed with the statement that government provides entrepreneurial coaching to assist beneficiaries in running the business. This evenness could be accounted for by the basic pre-training that all applicants receive before packaging in a particular project which entails both business management basic skills and practical operation of the project. As well as the fact that once the pre-training is done no coaching is done hence the strongly disagreed/disagreement statement.

Table 7: Respondents’ perceptions on how government policy or framework influence PEP implementation

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Government provides information on how to access Poverty Eradication Programs implemented in my community.	4(6.7) *	8(13.3)	1(1.7)	15(25.0)	32(53.3)
Government policy on poverty eradication favors the commoners/poor people.	4(6.7)	4(6.7)	1(1.7)	15(25.0)	36(60.0)
Government makes it easy for people to access its poverty alleviation programs.	3(5.0)	3(5.0)	1(1.7)	18(30.0)	35(58.3)
Government provides a level playing field for people to participate in the programme.	1(1.7)	2(3.3)	1(1.7)	21(35.0)	35(58.3)
Government provides the facilities for implementing the projects.	42(70.0)	4(6.7)	0(0)	11(18.3)	3(5.0)
The programs seem to be difficult to implement because of the way government has designed them.	17(28.3)	13(21.7)	5(8.3)	17(28.3)	8(13.3)
Government provides entrepreneurial coaching to assist me in running my project.	16(26.7)	13(21.7)	2(3.3)	19(31.7)	10(16.7)
I am satisfied with the service I receive from government.	17(28.3)	11(18.3)	2(3.3)	13(21.7)	17(28.3)

Source: Field survey, May 2017

*Percentages are in parenthesis ()

Table 8 shows the distribution of respondents’ perceptions on how infrastructure affect program implementation. Data shows that 58.3 percent of the respondents strongly disagreed/ disagreed with the statement that there were tarred roads in their community, while 40 percent agreed with the viewpoint. Approximately 72 percent of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that their communities only had a gravel road while 26.6 percent strongly disagreed/disagreed with the statement. Roughly 65 percent of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that the health facility in their community is inadequate while 33.3 percent strongly disagreed/disagreed. This difference is accounted for by the fact that Gumare which is treated as an urban village has health facilities unlike in other neighboring villages, even though minimal and most specialized services are accessed over 200km away. Only 51.7 percent of the respondents indicated that public transport was not adequate with about 45 percent indicating adequate public transport.

The respondents indicated that the government does not provide any silo facilities and irrigation services to them. While 76.6 percent of the respondents agreed that they had access to potable water, 88.3 percent of them either strongly agreed or agreed that they had access to electricity and 63.3 percent also strongly agreed or agreed that they had access to the Internet. Surprisingly 88.4 percent of them either strongly agreed or agreed that they had access to telecommunications despite irregular networks. About 65 percent of the respondents disagreed to accessing banking facilities as they indicated that there was only 1 bank that provides services

to the Okavango sub-district. Respondents strongly agreed/agreed to access agricultural extension services at 58.3 percent while 25 percent strongly disagreed/disagreed. Majority 78.3 percent of the respondents strongly disagreed/ disagreed with government providing marketing facilities for their projects.

Table 8: Distribution of respondents by their perceptions on how infrastructure influences PEP implementation

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
There are tarred roads in my community.	29(48.3)*	6(10.0)	1(1.7)	17(28.3)	7(11.7)
There are only gravel roads in my community.	11(18.3)	5(8.3)	1(1.7)	41(68.3)	2(3.3)
The health facility in my community is inadequate.	11(18.3)	9(15.0)	1(1.7)	20(33.3)	19(31.7)
Government provides adequate health facility in my community.	32(53.3)	14(23.3)	1(1.7)	11(18.3)	2(3.3)
There are adequate public transport facilities in my community.	12(20.0)	19(31.7)	2(3.3)	21(35.0)	6(10.0)
Government provides a silo/ storage facilities for agricultural produce in my community.	24(40.0)	6(10.0)	28(46.7)	2(3.3)	0(0)
Government provides efficient irrigation facilities in my area.	16(26.7)	8(13.3)	28(46.7)	6(10.0)	2(3.3)
Government provides potable water in my community.	6(10.0)	7(11.7)	1(1.7)	19(31.7)	27(45.0)
I have access to electricity provided by the government.	1(1.7)	6(10.0)	0(0)	30(50.0)	23(38.3)
There are Internet facilities in my community.	7(11.7)	11(18.3)	4(6.7)	32(53.3)	6(10.0)
I have access to banking facilities	18(30.0)	21(35.0)	5(8.3)	16(26.7)	0(0)
Government provides agricultural extensions services.	7(11.7)	8(13.3)	10(16.7)	15(25.0)	20(33.3)
Government provides marketing facilities in my community.	26(43.3)	21(35.0)	1(1.7)	10(16.7)	2(3.3)
Government provides telephone facilities for effective communication in and outside my community.	2(3.3)	4(6.7)	1(1.7)	40(66.7)	13(21.7)

Source: Field survey, May 2017

*Percentages are in parenthesis ()

4.4 Environmental impact on the implementation of the Poverty Eradication program

Table 9 shows the distribution of respondents on how they perceived the impacts of environmental factors on the implementation of poverty eradication programs. While 38.4 percent of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed that drought had affected the productivity of their project, 40 percent of them strongly agreed/agreed that drought indeed affected the productivity of their projects. It is noteworthy that individuals' standpoint is influenced by the type of project they implemented. For example, the small stock project would

be greatly affected by drought due to overgrazed, dry free-range grazing fields. Partly buttressing this, Lekobane & Mooketsane (2019) state that the declining agricultural productivity which is the predominant household rural activity is largely associated with intermittent rainy seasons, persistent droughts, lack of drought power and lack of proper agricultural technology. On another hand, there are certain projects, which would thrive during a drought spell, and this include backyard gardening and bakery. This is shown by the 8.3 percent who agreed/strongly agreed that drought increases the productivity of their project as against the 66.7 percent of respondents who strongly disagreed/disagreed with any positive role of drought in increasing project profit. Drought reduces the profit margins of projects as shown by 46.7 percent of the respondents.

Flooding or heavy rainfall affected the productivity, profits, operational times and accessibility of the business. About 62.4 percent strongly agreed/agreed that indeed flooding affected the productivity of their project. However, 70 percent of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed that during flooding, their businesses closed down while 26.6 percent of them confirmed that they had to close shops during floods. Closing their businesses could be attributed to lack of operational space, distance traveled to the market as well as poor conditions of the available space of operation such as leaking roofs. Only 32.3 percent of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that flooding hindered customers from accessing the products or services offered while 60 percent strongly disagreed/disagreed that flooding prevented customers from accessing their businesses.

One respondent from the focus group opined that “flooding greatly affect livestock and small stock. During floods, there is no movement of people as the whole area is covered in water.”

Majority (54%) of the respondents disagreed/strongly disagreed with the statement that “the nature of my project warrants that there are more customers during flooding periods”.

Majority (53.3%) of the respondents were undecided as to whether or not “animal destruction affects the productivity of my project”. Only 26.6 percent of the respondents confirmed that wild animals affected the operational times of their projects. Nonetheless, 58.5 percent were undecided as to whether wild animals affected the operational times of their projects. More than half (51.6%) of respondents strongly agreed/agreed that pest outbreaks affected the productivity of their projects. While 58.5 percent were undecided on the statement that wild

animals destroyed their crops and livestock jeopardized the success of their business, 16.7 percent strongly agreed/agreed that wild animals destroyed their crops and livestock hindered the success of their projects. However, 51.4 percent of the respondents strongly agreed that they would relocate their projects during flooding, drought, or pest outbreaks.

Table 9: Distribution of how environmental factors impact the implementation of the PEP

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Drought has affected the productivity of my project.	16(26.7)*	7(11.7)	13(21.7)	9(15.0)	15(25.0)
Drought reduces the profits derived from my project.	15(25.0)	4(6.7)	13(21.7)	16(26.7)	12(20.0)
Drought increases productivity of my project.	27(45.0)	13(21.7)	15(25.0)	3(5.0)	2(3.3)
Flooding has affected the productivity of my project.	12(20.0)	8(13.3)	2(3.3)	16(26.7)	22(36.7)
During flooding, my business does not operate.	11(18.3)	31(51.7)	2(3.3)	11(18.3)	5(8.3)
Flooding prevents customers from accessing my business.	11(18.3)	25(41.7)	4(6.7)	15(25.0)	5(8.3)
The nature of my project warrants that there are more customers during flooding periods.	16(26.7)	17(28.3)	8(13.3)	10(16.7)	9(15.0)
Animal destruction affects the productivity of my project.	10(16.7)	4(6.7)	32(53.3)	3(5.0)	11(18.3)
Wild animals affect operational times of my business.	11(18.3)	5(8.3)	35(58.3)	2(3.3)	7(11.7)
Wild animals destroy my crops and livestock, causing the success of my business to be jeopardized.	12(20.0)	3(5.0)	35(58.3)	1(1.7)	9(15.0)
Pest outbreak affected the productivity of my project.	4(6.7)	1(1.7)	24(40.0)	5(8.3)	26(43.3)
During either flooding, drought and animal or pest outbreak, I relocate my project elsewhere.	4(6.7)	1(1.7)	24(40.0)	5(8.3)	26(43.3)

Source: Field survey, May 2017

*Percentages are in parenthesis ()

The most commonest environmental factors, which influenced the implementation of the PEP were inadequate market, poor economic status and wildlife impact on farming. There was a group consensus in which these themes were identified. Majority of the respondents indicated that there is no market for their products because people are unemployed hence the absence of cash flow. They also recounted the frequent crop destructions by wild animals especially elephants during the dry season and the failure of the Wildlife Department to heed their complaints (see, also, Noga et al., 2018).

4.5 Effects of Psychosocial factors on program impact

4.5.1 Risk aversion

Data in Table 10 shows the distribution of the beneficiary's risk aversion tendency. While 73.4 percent of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that they were afraid to act impulsively in undertaking any business ventures, only 21.7 percent strongly disagreed/disagreed with the statement. Most (93.4%) respondents admitted that they weighed their options before undertaking any business while 5.0 percent disagreed that they weighed their options before acting. More than half (56.6%) of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that "I am afraid of doing something I have never done before" while 43.3 percent of them disagreed with the statement. Approximately 65 percent of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that they felt comfortable doing what they knew best while 28.7 percent strongly disagreed that they were comfortable exploring new things.

Only 60 percent of the respondents indicated that they could take a risk with their future while 28.3 percent strongly disagreed with risking their future. The majority (80%) of the respondents stated that other people would describe them as cautious individuals. Most (75%) respondents strongly disagreed that "I do not want to go an extra mile to make my project succeed" while 18.4 percent strongly agreed to just being complacent in doing the normal things of the project.

Almost half (46.6%) of the respondents stated that they did not associate the word 'risk' with 'failure,' while 40 percent strongly agreed that risk was associated with failure. However, 70 percent strongly associated 'risk' with 'opportunity' while 20 percent were undecided and 10 percent strongly disagreed. Majority of the respondents (86.7%) strongly disagreed/disagreed that they were afraid to succeed while only 13.3 percent agreed that they were afraid of whether they would succeed or not.

Table 10: Frequency distribution of beneficiaries by risk aversion (n=60)

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I am afraid of acting impulsively.	31(51.7) *	13(21.7)	3(5.0)	9(15.0)	4(6.7)
I always weigh options before acting.	34(56.7)	22(36.7)	1(1.7)	2(3.3)	1(1.7)
I am afraid of doing something I have never done before.	14(23.3)	20(33.3)	0(0)	13(21.7)	13(21.7)
I feel comfortable in doing what I know best.	18(30.0)	21(35.0)	4(6.7)	13(21.7)	4(6.7)
I can take a risk with my future.	13(21.7)	23(38.3)	7(11.7)	9(15.0)	8(13.3)
People who know me would describe me as a cautious person.	21(35.0)	27(45.0)	8(13.3)	3(5.0)	1(1.7)
I do not want to go an extra mile to make my project succeed.	7(11.7)	4(6.7)	4(6.7)	13(21.7)	32(53.3)
I associate the word 'risk' with failure.	2(3.3)	22(36.7)	8(13.3)	11(18.3)	17(28.3)
I associate the word 'risk' with 'opportunity.'	19(31.7)	23(38.3)	12(20.0)	2(3.3)	4(6.7)
I am afraid of succeeding.	3(5.0)	5(8.3)	0(0)	10(16.7)	42(70.0)

Source: Field survey, May 2017

*Percentages are in parenthesis ()

4.5.2 Fatalism

Table 11 below shows the frequency distribution of the beneficiaries' fatalistic tendencies. Most (80%) of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed that '[r]egardless of my determination to improve my socio-economic well-being through poverty eradication, what will be will still be'. More than half (51.6%) of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed that poverty was an act of God or gods. Majority (90%) of the respondents strongly disagreed that there was no use trying to change circumstances that seemed hopeless. Most (80%) of them, however, strongly disagreed/disagreed that '[I] do not think I want to exert my energy on what I think I cannot change'. While a majority (76.7%) of them strongly disagreed/disagreed that they were born to be poor. Most (81.6%) of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed that fate should be allowed to take its course. Half of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed that they will be wealthy when they are destined to be. Majority (86.7%) of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed that when faced with adversity, they tend to give up easily. While 67.7 percent strongly disagreed/disagreed that an individual is likely to be poor if they are unlucky. Most (86.6%) of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed that '[r]egardless of the effort a person makes in ensuring that a project succeeds, one may remain a poor person.

Table 11: Distribution of beneficiaries by their fatalistic tendency (n=60)

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Regardless of my determination to improve my socio-economic wellbeing through Poverty eradication, what will be will still be.	18(30) *	30(50)	0(0)	6(10.0)	6(10.0)
Poverty is an act of gods or God.	23(38.3)	8(13.3)	8(13.3)	8(13.3)	13(21.7)
There is no use trying to change circumstances which seem hopeless.	29(48.3)	25(41.7)	1(1.7)	3(5.0)	2(3.3)
I do not think I want to exert my energy on what I think I cannot change.	28(46.7)	20(33.3)	4(6.7)	8(13.3)	0(0)
I believe I was born to be poor.	34(56.7)	12(20.0)	3(5.0)	10(16.7)	10(16.7)
I let fate take its course.	26(43.3)	23(38.3)	7(11.7)	3(5.0)	1(1.7)
I will be wealthy when if I am destined to be.	13(21.7)	17(28.3)	2(3.3)	22(36.7)	6(10.0)
In the face of adversity, I tend to give up easily.	39(65.0)	13(21.7)	2(3.3)	3(5.0)	3(5.0)
An individual is likely to be poor if s/he is unlucky.	18(30.0)	22(36.7)	4(6.7)	7(11.7)	9(15.0)
Regardless of the effort made in ensuring that that a project succeeds, one may still remain poor a person.	35(58.3)	17(28.3)	3(5.0)	4(6.7)	1(1.7)

Source: Field survey, May 2017

*Percentages are in parenthesis ()

4.6 Program impact on the rural livelihoods

Table 12 shows the distribution of PEP beneficiaries on how they perceived the impact of government poverty eradication programs on their livelihoods. More than half (56.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that the programs enabled them to have a consistent source of income. Most (73.3%) of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that they could feed and clothe their families. In addition, 68.3 percent strongly agreed/agreed that they could financially support their families. Half of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that their projects have enabled them to purchase assets. These findings show that the program probably has made a positive economic impact on certain individuals as they were able to purchase assets and support their families. One respondent provided similar feedback during the interview and FGD sessions viz: *“I built a house, connected electricity, purchased a plot and my life has improved.”*

Another respondent who was chair of VDC said that *“people are now able to support themselves while others are wasting money on clothes.”*

More than half (58.4%) of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that their health had improved since they started operating the project. Majority (70%) of the respondents indicated improved psychosocial benefits. About 73.4 percent of them opined that their self-esteem greatly increased and improved since they participated in the program. Most (76.6%) of the respondents said they had earned respect from both their community and family members since they started participating in PEP. Furthermore, 77.4 percent felt dignified despite operating

small businesses and could support themselves financially. They also believed that their status improved in the society. Majority (73.3%) of the respondents opined that they were happy and peaceful since they started the project. Approximately 60 percent of the respondents strongly agreed/agreed that poverty was a thing of the past in their households since their projects started operating.

Table 12: Distribution on program impact on the rural livelihoods

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
The program has enabled me to have a consistent source of income.	11(18.3)	8(13.3)	7(11.7)	16(26.7)	18(30.0)
My participation in the program has afforded me the opportunity to be able to clothe and feed my family.	7(11.7)	5(8.3)	4(6.7)	23(38.3)	21(35.0)
The program has enabled me to purchase assets.	11(18.3)	15(25.0)	4(6.7)	13(21.7)	17(28.3)
Since participating in the program, poverty is a thing of the past in my household.	8(13.3)	7(11.7)	9(15.0)	24(40.0)	12(20.0)
I can financially support my family since operating my project.	10(16.7)	4(6.7)	5(8.3)	24(40.0)	17(28.3)
The program has enabled me to be financially secure as I no longer borrow from others.	10(16.7)	8(13.3)	13(21.7)	22(36.7)	7(11.7)
Since running my business, I rarely fall sick as my health has improved.	8(13.3)	9(15.0)	8(13.3)	25(41.7)	10(16.7)
My self-esteem has increased/ improved since I participated in the program.	7(11.7)	6(10.0)	3(5.0)	19(31.7)	25(41.7)
I have earned respect from my family & community since operating this project.	7(11.7)	3(5.0)	4(6.7)	25(41.7)	21(35.0)
Since operating this project, I feel that I am now a dignified person.	8(13.3)	1(1.7)	4(6.7)	16(26.7)	31(51.7)
I now have peace of mind and I'm happy since I started this project.	8(13.3)	3(5.0)	5(8.3)	14(23.3)	30(50)
My status in the community has improved since I began to operate the project.	8(13.3)	3(5.0)	5(8.3)	20(33.3)	24(40.0)

Source: Field survey, May 2017

*Percentages are in parenthesis ()

4.6.1 Program challenges and suggested improvement

The challenges faced by PEP beneficiaries in the study and how improvement could be made in the programs as suggested by them are summarized in Table 13.

Table 13: Challenges identified and suggested improvement by beneficiaries

Theme	Challenge description	Improvement of the program
Packaging	Wrong package; structures for projects are poorly built	Thorough assessment and ensuring beneficiaries receive the packages they want. Monitoring & inspections of structures for projects to promote quality.
PEP training	Brief time allocation for training; training language is a barrier, monitoring of job shadowing (observing, working alongside someone to gain experience in the project)	Beneficiaries indicated the need for a longer training to enable them to understand the business concepts. The language of instruction should sync with participants' level of education; job shadowing to be monitored as placement agencies do not properly share skills with the beneficiaries.
Project monitoring	Projects are not monitored; skewed towards succeeding projects	Frequent monitoring of projects; and business coaching.
Equipment	Wrong equipment purchased in relation to size, use, relevance; breakdown	Beneficiaries to be enabled to participate and identify equipment they need for their projects.
Utilities	Water shortage with high bills,	Government to assist with payment of water bills especially in projects such as backyard garden.
Infrastructure	Bad road conditions, inadequate transport	Improvement of roads in the sub-district to enable more transport which will in turn increase business opportunities for beneficiaries to travel and sell their products.
Facilities	Inadequate facilities such as bank, health facilities; they must travel to Maun for specialists; lack of operational spaces	More mobile banks to be introduced such as First National Bank Botswana, Standard Chartered, Banc ABC, Botswana Savings Bank. Other health facilities to be availed as the sub-district is growing; Government to assist with operational spaces where beneficiaries can rent, and which is closer to the market.
Programs	Other programs only available in Maun; over reliance on the drought relief program- Ipelegeng	Respondents indicated that majority of programs could only be applied for and accessed in Maun, which is far and costly from the sub-district. Diversity of public programs which will create employment as everyone queues up for Ipelegeng.
Market	Distance from the market, insufficient supply of stock; lack of market; poor marketing skills	Beneficiaries stated that stalls for their projects should be set up closer to the market as customers will not travel far to access services. Introduction of marketing strategies to attract customers in the village to purchase their products i.e. business fairs/expos, value chains, etc.
Diseases	Pest and disease outbreaks which are endemic; beneficiaries' failure to buy medication thus losing their assets to outbreaks	Veterinary services to urgently respond to reports of endemic diseases that affect small stock projects; PEP to have at least a start-up of immunisations for small stock and all animal projects until beneficiary can now maintain their stock including animal health.
Institutional support	Implementing officers not providing feedback on complaints and reports especially veterinary; assessments takes a long time before individuals are packaged	Regulations set up to stipulate monitoring visits of projects and provision of feedback on reports; assessment to be completed in a brief period to avoid beneficiaries giving up on receiving assistance.
Psychosocial pathologies	Helplessness, resignation and complacency of beneficiaries; entitlement mentality and expectation that livelihoods should be provided by government; high dependency syndrome on government	Business mentorship of the beneficiaries to understand successful operation of profit-making businesses; psychosocial support to encourage them and assist in problem solving, being self-sufficient and independent.
Rural livelihood	Restriction on business variability; farming as source of livelihood; Ipelegeng as the employing scheme; poor public service delivery; unemployment; poverty; poor infrastructure, telecommunications and amenities	Various businesses introduced should be those that have the potential to succeed in the rural areas; performance management systems (PMS) for officers to monitor their service provision in rural areas; creation of employment opportunities in rural areas and improvement of the infrastructure, telecommunications and amenities.

Source: Field survey May 2017

A summary of the program improvement indicated that beneficiaries suggested program assessment, which should be done within a short period. They emphasized that applicants should be provided with program packages as soon as they have undergone training. They also stated that program officers need to pay frequent visits to the project sites. Marketing skills, as well as entrepreneurial coaching, should be provided for beneficiaries continuously. Regarding packaging, beneficiaries emphasized the need to provide contextual program packages, which are suitable for the environment, and which are completely issued to avoid delay in project implementation.

4.7 Categories of poverty eradication programs and rural livelihood

Figure 9 shows the available poverty eradication initiatives (including business, Ipelegeng, sale of veld products, farming, etc.) introduced to participants. Lekobane & Mooketsane (2016) indicate that incidences of poverty declined with increases in cattle herd and small stock sizes which implies that livestock plays an important role in rural poverty. Consequently, small stock initiative is common among the participants whose livelihoods are based on ipelegeng or nothing. Participants whose livelihoods are production and service-based business activities (bakery, hairy dressing and others) have benefited most in the program (see, Figure 8). Those engaged in civil service and fishing did not benefit from any of the poverty eradication programs (projects respondents were implementing).

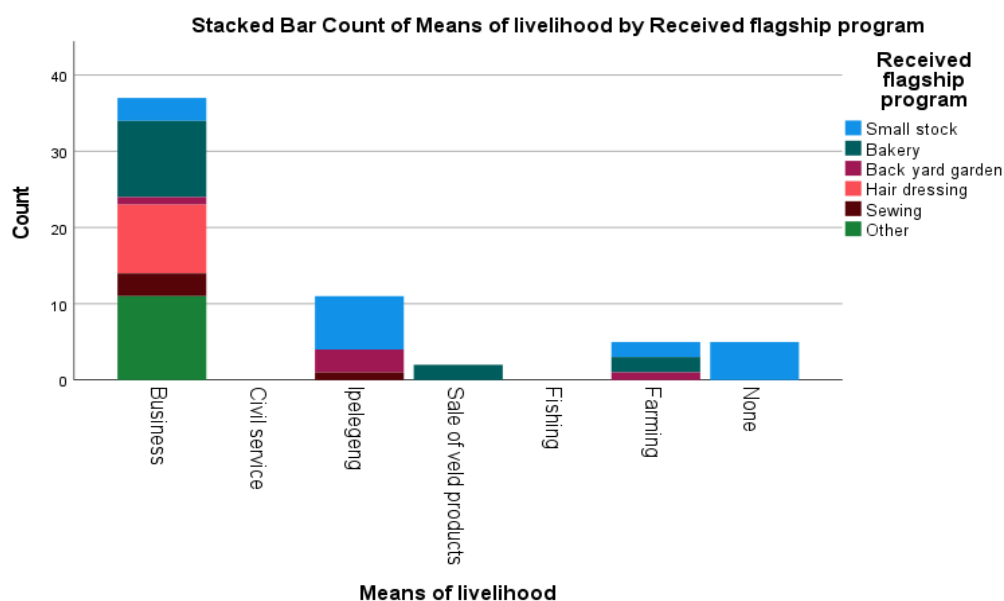


Figure 9: Visual exploration of rural livelihood and distribution of poverty eradication program
 Source: Field survey May 2017

A Pearson Chi-square test was carried out to assess whether there was any association between the implementation of PEP and improvement in rural people's livelihoods. As shown in Table 14, there was no significant association between poverty eradication programs ($\chi^2 (52) = 50.621, p \geq .528$) and improved rural livelihoods. The result implies that PEP did not have any direct impact on the rural livelihoods of the beneficiaries. According to Gassner et al. (2019), it is important to note that subsistence agriculture is usually expected to bridge the gap between increased yields and household income for families to escape poverty.

Table 14: Chi-square analysis of poverty eradication programs and the rural livelihood of the community

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	50.621 ^a	52	.528
Likelihood Ratio	56.472	52	.312
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.828	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	60		

a. 67 cells (95.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .03.

Source: Field survey May 2017

4.7.1 Relationship between explanatory variables and the impact of PEP implementation

The Pearson correlation matrix in Table 15 shows the directional relationships between all quantitative variables investigated in the study. Only four factors (age of respondents, amount earned, infrastructure and government policy) were found significantly related to the program impact. The results show a weak positive but significant relationship between the income from a project ($r = 0.358; p \leq 0.05$) and PEP impact. Also, infrastructure ($r = 0.378; p \leq 0.05$) and government policy or framework ($r = 0.353; p \leq 0.05$) had positive but relatively weak correlations with project impact. Conversely, there is a weak but negative correlation between respondents' age ($r = -0.383; p \leq 0.05$) and the impact of PEP.

Table 15: Pearson Product-Moment Correlation matrix showing the relationship between explanatory variables influencing the impact of PEP

	Age of respondent	Income	Association membership	Household size	Lifespan of Project	Risk aversion	Infrastructure	Government	Environmental	Fatalism	Program impact
Age of respondent	1	-.190	-.192	-.110	-.185	.125	-.175	-.056	-.038	.067	-.383**
Income		1	.412*	-.013	.185	.009	.124	.051	-.057	-.161	.358**
Association membership			1	.109	.035	.149	-.197	.090	-.206	.035	.059
Household size				1	.074	.015	.046	.085	-.024	-.087	.064
Lifespan of project					1	-.360*	-.054	-.429*	.048	-.005	-.196
Risk aversion						1	-.237	.211	.037	.196	-.072
Infrastructure							1	.237	-.069	-.354*	.378*
Government policy								1	-.071	-.059	.353*
Environmental impact									1	.039	-.023
Fatalism										1	-1.82
Program impact											1

*p≤0.05

Source: Field survey May 2017

4.7.2 Regression analyses of the average project impact

Multiple regression analysis was used to test the relationships between explanatory variables and dependent variable Y (PEP impact) (Table 16 below).

Table 16: Regression analyses of the average project impact

Variables	Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.488	2.041		1.709	.094
Risk aversion	-.385	.369	-.133	-1.044	.301
Infrastructure	.494	.305	.199	1.616	.112
Government Policy	.349	.240	.182	1.452	.153
Environmental impact	.040	.171	.025	.235	.815
Fatalism	-.020	.214	-.011	-.094	.926
Age of respondent	-.033	.012	-.314	-2.767**	.008
Income	.000	.000	.313	2.737**	.009
Lifespan of project	-.226	.110	-.274	-2.059*	.045

Source: Field survey, May 2017
 **t value is significant at $p \leq 0.01$
 $R = 0.426$
 $R^2 = 0.435$

Table 16 shows the results of the regression model summary of the average project impact as explained by three explanatory variables as shown below:

$$Y = a + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + B_3X_3 + \dots + error$$

where Y=predicted value for the average project impact
 a = value of y intercept
 B = rate of change to the i^{th} value
 X_1 =Age of the respondent
 X_2 = Income
 X_3 = Project lifespan

Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure that there is no violation of the assumption of normality (through analysis of normal probability plot: P-P of the regression standardized

residual), and linearity (through visual inspection of the scatterplots). As shown in Table 16, only three of the independent variables (that is, age of respondents, income and the lifespan of the project) contributed significantly to the variation or change in the impact of PEP implementation in the study area. Specifically, there is a negative but significant relationship between respondents' age ($t = -2.767$; $p \leq 0.01$), lifespan of the project ($t = -2.059$; $p \leq 0.05$) and impact of PEP implementation. This statistical value for age might imply that the older the participants become, the less the impact, which PEP had on their socio-economic wellbeing. Senility might engender lethargy, which invariably contributes significantly to the ineffectiveness of an entrepreneur in the organizational and operational dimensions of the business. Also, the older the project becomes, the less the impact of PEP on the entrepreneur. Conversely, there is a positive and significant relationship between the income earned ($t = 2.737$; $p \leq 0.01$) and the impact of PEP. This implies that the more the income earned by the participants, the higher the impact of PEP on their socioeconomic wellbeing. R^2 explains the percentage contribution of all the three significant variables in the model to the variation that occurred in Y (the impact of PEP). Thus, R^2 explained 43.5 percent of the change in the impact of PEP on participants' socio-economic conditions.

4.8 Chapter Summary

This section presents a summary of the results of the hypotheses tested in the study. The first hypothesis, which stated that there is no significant relationship between beneficiaries' demographic and socio-economic factors and the implementation of PEP, was rejected. Specifically, the results of the study show a negative but significant relationship between respondents' age, life span of the project and the impact of PEP implementation. In other words, the older an individual becomes, the lesser the impact that PEP has on their socio-economic wellbeing. Furthermore, there is a significant relationship between income earned and the impact of PEP. Thus, the higher the income earned by the beneficiary, the higher the impact of PEP on their socioeconomic wellbeing.

The second hypothesis, which stated that there is no significant relationship between institutional factors and implementation of PEP was also rejected. The results had a positive but relatively weak relationship between institutional factors and PEP impact. This implies that institutional factors have positive effect on the implementation of PEP but their effects are not

really impactful on project implementation. Also, the third hypothesis tested if there was any association between PEP implementation and rural people's livelihoods. The results, however, show that there was no significant association between the two variables. The results imply that PEP may not have had any direct impact on improved livelihoods of the beneficiaries. Lastly, the fourth hypothesis, which tested that there was no significant relationship between environmental factors and the implementation of PEP, was accepted because the low value of the test statistic indicated so.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The section highlights the summary of key findings of the study, its conclusion and recommendations.

5.2 Summary

The study aimed to establish factors influencing the implementation of Poverty Eradication Programmes in selected communities in Ngamiland West, Botswana. These factors included demographic and socio-economic characteristics of project participants as well as institutional and environmental factors.

Major findings showed that the majority (86.7%) of the beneficiaries were females and single with an average age of 41 years. Most of the study participants were heads of households with an average family size of 8 members. Their average income was BWP1087.10 per month. Results further showed that most (81.6%) of the beneficiaries either received primary or secondary-level education and only 33.4 percent of the beneficiaries were members of associations. Findings revealed that farming was their source of livelihood before the implementation of PEP projects and the majority of them rear small stock in the PEP initiative. Analysis indicated that the age of respondents and their monthly income had a statistically significant relationship with the implementation of PEP.

Institutional factors especially infrastructure and government policies as well as environmental factors had an impact on PEP implementation. Most (78.3%) of the respondents confirmed that government provided information on how to access the poverty eradication programs. The respondents opined that government policy on poverty eradication indeed favored the commoners or poor people since the government made it easy for people to access PEP.

Analysis showed that many of the beneficiaries had access to potable water (76%), electricity (88.3%) and internet connectivity (63.3%). The Pearson Chi-Square analysis showed that infrastructure and government policies had a significant association with the implementation of poverty eradication programs. This implies that good and reliable infrastructure and policies are needed for the successful implementation of PEP. These findings buttress IFAD's, which claims that it is common for micro or start-up entrepreneurs to be constrained by poor access to markets, lack of training, finance and technology, and lack of sufficient government investment policies to address these problems (IFAD, 2017). The multiple regression conducted showed that 43.5 percent variations in the impact of PEP were explained by respondents' age, income and project lifespan.

Environmental issues were perceived by project participants as one of the significant challenges affecting the productivity and operations of their business. These issues ranged from drought, flooding, human-wildlife conflict and even pest outbreaks. The results showed that the majority of respondents indicated that drought affected the productivity of their projects considering the type of project, which the beneficiaries implemented. For instance, small stock projects were affected by drought with a lack of grazing fields. The findings showed that drought negatively affected the productivity of certain projects while others (such as backyard gardens) prospered during drought periods. Additionally, floods and heavy rainfall also affected the productivity, profits, operational times and accessibility of the businesses. Also, projects with short life cycles appeared to be successful due to the kickstart support and stock inventory, which diminished over a short period.

Generally, the respondents believed that PEP significantly improved their livelihoods. Apart from bringing a significant improvement in their finances, PEP also enhanced their health, self-esteem, status and general wellbeing. Although respondents were favorably disposed to information and training provided by the government and had overall ease of access to PEP initiatives, their main concerns were in the provision of facilities and weak entrepreneurial coaching/monitoring by the government after funding.

In terms of how to improve on PEP initiatives, regular and timely program assessment, provision of program packages for all trained applicants, frequent visits of program officers to the project sites, and provision of marketing skills and entrepreneurial coaching were suggested by the participants. In addition to the above suggestions, issues on product packaging, which is contextual by design and suitable for the environment, and which are complete during allocation are necessary to avoid delay in project implementation.

5.3 Conclusion

Botswana aspires to become a poverty-free, high-income country by the year 2036. In reaching this broad objective, the country has implemented many initiatives including poverty eradication initiatives such as small stock, fish farming, bakery, etc. The study concluded that certain poverty eradication programs helped to reduce poverty in rural areas, but the poverty gap remains an issue because the benefits of the initiatives are still skewed due to the influence of certain factors. Age, which is a determinant factor in the success or failure of a program, deserves a major consideration in program implementation if only to maximize profits and success rate of the initiatives. As motivation for success significantly derives from earned monetary gains or benefits, income obtained from projects by individual PEP operators naturally affects their livelihoods and performance. Therefore, beneficiaries were successful in projects that were environment compliant and had a quick turnaround.

Situating the capability approach within the context of this study, it is crucial for rural communities to determine what works for them in relation to any economic empowerment initiatives. Specifically, environmental, socioeconomic, psychosocial and institutional factors play a key role in any poverty eradication initiatives. Clearly, rural development strategies should ensure the availability of basic services like electricity, water, health care, and availability of finance institutions to ensure successful economic empowerment initiatives aimed at poverty reduction.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings in this study, the following recommendations are made:

- There is a need to underscore gender equity during program implementation in order to ensure men's adequate participation in development initiatives.
- The provision of marketing and banking facilities will go a long way in assisting program beneficiaries to realize their business objectives.
- Proposed projects need to be contextual and environmentally compatible in order to increase their sustainability and profit margin.
- There is a need to provide continuous training and coaching for PEP participants to enhance their entrepreneurial skills and effectiveness.
- Consideration of psychological factors as key components of entrepreneurship development and rural livelihood programs might be appropriate.
- Policymakers or administrators might consider improving service delivery to enhance the success of PEP implementation.
- There is a need to ensure a shortened implementation phase and systematic monitoring of projects throughout the entire life of the business.

5.5 Suggestions for future research

- To better understand the implications of these results, future research could target a broader population for ensuring a more generalized conclusion on the research problem.
- There is a need for a longitudinal study that could provide information on the trend and progress of PEP wherever they are implemented in Botswana.

5.6 Chapter Summary

The chapter shares the summary of key findings of the study. The study found that the age of respondents and their monthly income had a statistically significant relationship with the implementation of PEP. Institutional factors especially infrastructure and government policies as well as environmental factors had an association with PEP implementation as indicated by the results of the Pearson Chi-Square analysis. Generally, the respondents believed that PEP

significantly improved their livelihoods. The study concluded that certain poverty eradication programs helped to reduce poverty in rural areas, but the poverty gap remains an issue because the benefits of the initiatives are still skewed towards age and the influence of certain factors.

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APPENDIXES
Instruments



[INSTRUMENTS]



.....
EVA KEBADILE
MDP Student University of Botswana- Okavango Research Institute

Dear Respondent

My name is Eva Keadile. I am a 2nd year Masters in Development Practice student at Okavango Research Institute, University of Botswana. I am presently undertaking a study on “**Factors influencing the implementation of poverty alleviation programs in Gumare community in the Okavango Delta, Botswana.**”

The Objectives of my study are:

1. To investigate beneficiaries’ demographic and socio-economic factors impacting on the benefits derived from the implementation of the poverty alleviation flagship program in Gumare community.
2. To establish how institutional factors influenced the implementation of the programs in Gumare.
3. To establish how environmental factors impacted on the implementation of the poverty alleviation program in Gumare.
4. To determine the impact of the programs on rural livelihoods in the community.
5. To analyze perceptions of community people on the multi-dimensionality of poverty.”

The study will not accrue any financial benefit; however, it will assist the Poverty Eradication Office and Government in formulating policies and guidelines that will best serve the interests of the people as well as the Gumare residents. I therefore kindly request to interview you as previously agreed. Please note that I value your response and it will be treated with supreme confidentiality and anonymity.

The interview will take approximately 20 minutes.

Thank you for your support.

.....

Signature of the interviewer

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

SECTION 1: DEMOGRAPHIC & SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

No	QUESTION (<i>POTSO</i>)	RESPONSE (<i>KARABO</i>)																								
1	Name: What is your full name? <i>leina la gago ka botlalo ke mang?</i> Optional																									
2	Identity No/ <i>nomore ya Omang</i>																									
3	Age: (Confirm from ID)	Day / <i>letsatsi</i> month/ <i>Kgwedi</i> Year/ <i>Ngwaga</i>																								
4	Sex /Bong	<input type="checkbox"/> Male/ <i>rre</i> <input type="checkbox"/> Female/ <i>Mosadi</i>																								
5	Marital status/ seemo sagago sa lelwapa ke sefe?	<input type="checkbox"/> Married/ <i>Nyetswe</i> <input type="checkbox"/> Single/ <i>ga ke a tsewa</i> <input type="checkbox"/> Cohabiting/ <i>ke na le tsal</i> <input type="checkbox"/> widowed/ <i>ke moswagadi/ motlholagadi</i>																								
6	Religion: What is your religion? State it. / <i>O dumela mo tumelong efe? / e bue</i>																									
7	Ethnicity/ Letso/ Morafhe																									
8	Level of Education: What is your highest level of education? <i>O tsene sekolo go felela fa kae?</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> Primary <input type="checkbox"/> Secondary <input type="checkbox"/> Tertiary <input type="checkbox"/> Non- Formal <input type="checkbox"/> Adult Education <input type="checkbox"/> None																								
9	What is your source of livelihood? /O itshetsa ka eng? (<i>tick where appropriate</i>)	<input type="checkbox"/> Business <input type="checkbox"/> Civil Service <input type="checkbox"/> Ipelegeng <input type="checkbox"/> Sale of veld products <input type="checkbox"/> Fishing																								
10	Income: how much do you earn in a month?..... (Tick relevant range)	<input type="checkbox"/> P100– P500 <input type="checkbox"/> P500- 2000 <input type="checkbox"/> P2000- P3500 <input type="checkbox"/> P3500 – P5000 <input type="checkbox"/> P5000+ <input type="checkbox"/> Nothing																								
11	Other sources of Livelihoods: / <i>a go na le ka fa o itshetsang ka teng gape?</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes/ <i>ee</i> <input type="checkbox"/> No/ <i>nyaa</i>																								
12	Association membership: State/ <i>A o leloko la mokgatho mongwe? /o bue</i>	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="width: 25%;">Association</th> <th style="width: 25%;">Ordinary member</th> <th style="width: 25%;">Committee member</th> <th style="width: 25%;">Officer</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td> </td><td> </td><td> </td><td> </td></tr> <tr><td> </td><td> </td><td> </td><td> </td></tr> <tr><td> </td><td> </td><td> </td><td> </td></tr> <tr><td> </td><td> </td><td> </td><td> </td></tr> <tr><td> </td><td> </td><td> </td><td> </td></tr> </tbody> </table>	Association	Ordinary member	Committee member	Officer																				
Association	Ordinary member	Committee member	Officer																							
13	Family size: How many people reside here? <i>Le nna le le ka e mo lapeng?</i>																									
14	Position held in the household: <i>maemo a gago mo lapeng ke mang?</i>																									
15	Flagship programme benefited from: / o tsera lenaneo lefe la nyeletso lehuma?																									
16	Commencement of project: O simolotse lenaneo ka ngwaga ofe?																									
17	Life span of the project: <i>o na le lebaka le le kae project e ntse e dira?</i>																									

18	Is the project still operational? A <i>project e santse e dira?</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No
19	Source of Livelihoods prior to project implementation: What was your source of livelihood before the project?/ <i>o ne o itshetsa ka eng pele ga lenaneo? (tick appropriate)</i>	<input type="checkbox"/> Business <input type="checkbox"/> Civil Service <input type="checkbox"/> Ipelegeng <input type="checkbox"/> Sale of veld products <input type="checkbox"/> Fishing <input type="checkbox"/> Farming <input type="checkbox"/> Safari camp <input type="checkbox"/> House maid <input type="checkbox"/> None <input type="checkbox"/> Safety net beneficiary <input type="checkbox"/> Others.....

SECTION 2: PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS – RISK AVERSION

For each of the following questions below, tick the response that best describe your actions about the statement, where 5= Strongly Disagree; 4=Disagree; 3= Undecided; 2=Agree; 1= Strongly Agree

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I am afraid of acting impulsively. <i>Ke tshaba go dira dilo ke sa ikakanya</i>					
I always weigh options before acting. <i>Ke kala ditshwetso pele ga ke di diragatsa</i>					
I am afraid of doing something I have never done before. <i>Ke tshaba go dira dilo tse ke iseng ke di dire.</i>					
I feel comfortable in doing what I know best. <i>Ke siame ke dira se ke se itseng</i>					
I can take a risk with my future. <i>Nka baya isago ya me mo diphatseng</i>					
People who know me would describe me as a cautious person. <i>Batho b aba nkitseng bat la re ke motho yo o seka sekang pele.</i>					
I do not want to go an extra mile to make my project succeed. <i>Ga ke battle go bereka phetelela gore kgwebo ya me e atlege</i>					
I associate the word ‘risk’ with failure. <i>Lefoko la ko kotsi ke le tshwanthsa le go sa atlega.</i>					
I associate the word ‘risk’ with ‘opportunity.’ <i>Lefoko la kotsi ke le tshwantsha le tshono.</i>					
I am afraid of succeeding. <i>ke tshaba go atlega.</i>					

SECTION 3: PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS – FATALISM

For each of the following questions below, tick the response that best describe your thoughts about the statement, where 5= Strongly Disagree; 4= Disagree; 3= Undecided; 2=Agree;1 = Strongly Agree

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Regardless of my determination to improve my socio-economic wellbeing through Poverty eradication, what will be will still be					
Poverty is an act of gods or God. <i>Lehuma ke tiro ya badimo, Modimo</i>					
There is no use trying to change circumstances which seem hopeless. <i>Ga go tlhoke gore a leke go fetola seemo se se senang phetogo</i>					
I do not think I want to exert my energy on what I think I cannot change. <i>Ga ke tshamikise matsapa a me ka se ke lemogang gore nka se se fetole</i>					
I believe I was born to be poor. <i>Ke dumela gore ke ne ke tsholetswe go humanega</i>					
I let fate take its course. <i>Ke tlogela isago e tsaya tsela ya yone.</i>					
I will be wealthy when if I am destined to be . <i>ke tla huma ha nne e le tshwanelo</i>					
In the face of adversity, I tend to give up easily. <i>Ha ken a le mathata, ke itlhoboga ka pela.</i>					
An individual is likely to be poor if s/he is unlucky. <i>Motho yo o bati o ka nna a humanega</i>					
Regardless of the effort made in ensuring that that a project succeeds, one may still remain poor a person. <i>Le ha o ka ngakalla jang go dira gore kgwebo e atlege, motho o tswelela fela a humanegile.</i>					

SECTION 4: ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT

For each of the following statement below, tick the response that best describe your thoughts about the statement, where 5=Strongly Disagree; 4= Disagree; 3= Undecided; 2=Agree ; 1= Strongly Agree

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Drought has affected the productivity of my project. <i>Leuba le ama thobo ya project ya me</i>					
Drought reduces the profits derived from my project. <i>Leuba le fokotsa morokotso wa me</i>					
Drought increases productivity of my project <i>Leuba le oketsa thobo ya me</i>					
Flooding has affected the productivity of my project. <i>Morwalela o ama thobo ya project</i>					
During flooding, my business does not operate. <i>Ha go le morwalela, kgwebo e a tswala</i>					
Flooding prevents customers from accessing my business. <i>Morwalela e kganela bareki</i>					
The nature of my project warrants that there are more customers during flooding periods. <i>Kgwebo ya me e dira thata ka nakotsa morwalela/ pula jalo jalo</i>					
Animals destruction affects the productivity of my project. <i>Diphologolo di ama thobo ya me</i>					
Wild animals affect operational times of my business <i>diphologolo tsa naga di ama nako ya tiro ya kgwebo ya me</i>					
Wild animals destroy my crops and livestock, causing the success of my business to be jeopardized. <i>Diphologolo tsa naga di senya dijwalo tsa me di baa kgwebo ya me mo diphatseng</i>					
Pest outbreak affected the productivity of my project. <i>Diji di ama thobo ya me</i>					

During either flooding, drought and animal or pest outbreak, I relocate my project elsewhere. <i>Fa go le dipula, morwalela, Leuba le diji, ke fudusa kgwebo ya me</i>					
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SECTION 5a: INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS- Government Policy / Framework

For each of the following statement below, tick the response that best describe your thoughts about the statement, where 1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Undecided; 4=Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Government provides information on how to access Poverty Eradication Programs implemented in my community. <i>Goromente o mphile dikitso gore nka bona jang lenaneo</i>					
Government policy on poverty eradication favors the commoners/poor people. <i>Tsamaiso ya nyeletso lehuma e thusa ba kobo dikhutshwane</i>					
Government makes it easy for people to access its poverty alleviation programs. <i>Goromente o dira gore go nne motlhofo go bona lenaneo</i>					
Government provides a level playing field for people to participate in the programme. <i>Goromente o neile mongwe le mongwe tshono</i>					
Government provides the facilities for implementing the projects. <i>Goromente o re thusa ka ha re ka direlang dikgwebo teng</i>					
The programs seem to be difficult to implement because of the way government has designed them. <i>Lenaneo le thata go le tsamaisa ka fa le tlhailweng ka teng ke Goromente.</i>					
Government provides entrepreneurial coaching to assist me in running my project. <i>Goromente o re rutuntsha ka tsa go tsamaisa dikgwebo.</i>					

I am satisfied with the service I receive from government. <i>Ke kgotsofaletse thuso e ke e boneng mo Goromente</i>					
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SECTION 5b: INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS- Infrastructure

For each of the following statement below, tick the response that best describe your thoughts about the statement, where 1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Undecided; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly Agree

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
There are tarred roads in my community. <i>Go na le sekontere mo Motseng</i>					
There are only gravel roads in my community. <i>Go na le tsela ya gravel e le nosi.</i>					
The health facility in my community is inadequate. <i>Kokelo ya rona ga e a lekana.</i>					
Government provides adequate health facility in my community. <i>Goromente o re fa ditirelo tsa botsogo tse di lekaneng</i>					
There are adequate public transport facilities in my community. <i>Dipalamo tsa setshaba di lekane mo Motseng.</i>					
Government provides a silo/ storage facilities for agricultural produce in my community. <i>Goromente o re fa ha re ka bayang thobo ya temo teng.</i>					
Government provides efficient irrigation facilities in my area. <i>Goromente o re fa ditirelo tsa nosetso</i>					
Government provides potable water in my community. <i>Goromente o re fa metsi a nowang</i>					
I have access to electricity provided by the government. <i>Goromente o tisitse motlakase</i>					
There are Internet facilities in my community. <i>Re na le maranyane a internet/ mafaratlhatlha</i>					
I have access to banking facilities					

Government provides agricultural extensions services. <i>Go na le balemisi</i>					
Government provides marketing facilities in my community. <i>Re thusiwa ka mafelo a go ipapatsa</i>					
Government provides telephone facilities for effective communication in and outside my community. <i>Goromente o tisitse maranyane a ditlhaeletsanyo</i>					

Would you say, the infrastructure has a role to play in poverty alleviation and the success of your project? Explain How?

SECTION 6: PROGRAM IMPACT

On each of the following statement, select the one that describes your current situation since you started operating the PEP where 1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Undecided 4=Agree 5 = Strongly Agree

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
The program has enabled me to have a consistent source of income. <i>Lenaneo le nthusitse gore ken ne le madi kgwedi le kgwedi.</i>					
My participation in the program has afforded me the opportunity to be able to clothe and feed my family. <i>Lenaneo le nthusitse gore ke kgone go jesa le go apesa ba lapa la me.</i>					
The program has enabled me to purchase assets. <i>Lenaneo le nthusitse go reka dithoto.</i>					
Since participating in the program, poverty is a thing of the past in my household. <i>Sale ke tsenelela lenaneo lehuma ga le yo.</i>					
I can financially support my family since operating my project. <i>Ke kgona go thusa ba lapa la me ka madi</i>					
The program has enabled me to be financially secure as I no longer borrow from others. <i>Ga ke sa adima madi a batho ntateng ya lenaneo</i>					
Since running my business, I rarely fall sick as my health has improved. <i>Sale ke simolola kgwebo ga ke sa lwala.</i>					

My self-esteem has increased/ improved since I participated in the program. <i>Boleng jwa me bo oketsegile sale ke tsenelela lenaneo</i>					
I have earned respect from my family & community since operating this project. <i>Ba lelwapa la me le morafhe ba a ntota.</i>					
Since operating this project, I feel that I am now a dignified person. <i>Ke ikutwa ke le mototo.</i>					
I now have peace of mind and I'm happy since I started this project. <i>Mowa wa me o na le kagiso e bile ke itumetse</i>					
My status in the community has improved since I began to operate the project. <i>Maemo a me mo Motseng a lemotshega.</i>					

SECTION 7: PROGRAM IMPROVEMENT

On each of the following statement, select the one that describes your recommendations in improving the Poverty Eradication Program.

Statement	Yes	No
The program's assessment should take a short time. <i>Dipatisiso di tshwanetse go tsaya nako e khutshwane</i>		
Assessed takes a long time to be completed. <i>Dipatisiso di tsaya lobaka le lelele.</i>		
After undergoing training, packaging should be done quickly. <i>Moikopedi o tshwanetse go neelwa dilwan ka bofefo fa a tswa ithutuntshong</i>		
The program officers need to visit the project site frequently. <i>Babereki ba lenaneo ba tshwanetse go etela dikgwebo kgapetsa kgapetsa.</i>		
The program should teach participants marketing skills. <i>Lenaneo le tshwanetse go ruta ka tsa ipapatso.</i>		
The program should offer entrepreneurial coaching. <i>Lenaneo le tshwanetse go rutuntsha ka tsa kgwebo.</i>		
The beneficiaries should be given their preferred Business package. <i>Baikopedi ba tshwanetse go neelwa project e ba e batang.</i>		
The packages should be locality specific. <i>Di project di tshwanetse go tsamaisana le tikologo</i>		
Packages should be issued as a complete set. <i>Dilwana tsa lenaneo di ntshiwe di le mmogo.</i>		

Seasonal packages should be closely monitored. <i>Dikgwebo tsa dinakwana di tshwanetse go lebelelwa thata.</i>		
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FOCUS GROUP GUIDE

Date:.....

	Name & Surname	Sex	ID No	Cellphone
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
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7				
8				
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10				
11				
12				

QUESTIONS

SECTION 8: FOCUS GROUP GUIDE

1. How would you define poverty? What are your thoughts concerning poverty?
2. What is your thought concerning family size and poverty? Does the number of dependents matter? Elaborate.
3. Are there any other programs you have benefited from? How?
4. How has institutional factors influenced implementation of the PEP in Gumare?
5. What are the problems that are encountered when implementing these projects?
6. Is there any role that the private or civil society play in ensuring the success of the PEP?
7. Are you aware of any policy that guide PEP? If yes, list?
8. How has the environmental factors impacted on the implementation of the PEP in Gumare?
9. What changes/ impact has the PEP brought to the beneficiaries?
10. What are the challenges that you encounter regarding floods, drought, wild animals & pest?
11. What do you as a person consider as being poor?
12. In your own words define poverty?
13. Poverty is a multi-dimensional concept. What is your view?
14. In your own candid opinion, in what way do you think the government can better alleviate poverty?

SECTION 9: INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. How would you define poverty? What are your thoughts concerning poverty?

2. What is your thought concerning family size and poverty? Does the number of dependents matter? Elaborate.

3. Are there any other programs you have benefited from? How?

4. How has institutional factors influenced implementation of the PEP in Gumare?

5. What are the problems that are encountered when implementing these projects?

6. Is there any role that the private or civil society play in ensuring the success of the PEP?

7. Are you aware of any policy that guide PEP? If yes, list?

8. How has the environmental factors impacted on the implementation of the PEP in Gumare?

9. What changes/ impact has the PEP brought to the beneficiaries?

10. What are the challenges that you encounter regarding floods, drought, wild animals & pest?

11. What do you as a person consider as being poor?

12. In your own words define poverty?

13. Poverty is a multi-dimensional concept. What is your view?

14. In your own candid opinion, in what way do you think the government can better alleviate poverty?

Reliability analysis results using Cronbach Alpha

In order to test for reliability analysis of likert and polar questions, Cronbach's Alpha was used to determine internal consistency of the data set. The variables that were tested includes risk aversion, fatalism, environmental impact, government policy framework, infrastructure, program impact and program improvement.

Reliability Statistics

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items	Analysis
Risk Aversion	.454	.476	10	Low reliability
Fatalism	.790	.803	10	High reliability
Environmental Impact	.725	.716	12	High reliability
Government Policy Framework	.306	.310	3	Low reliability
Infrastructure	.545	.559	14	High reliability
Program Impact	.967	.968	12	Very high reliability
Program Improvement	.797	.824	2	High reliability