

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF LESOTHO

‘Lived poverty’ in Lesotho: The contribution of conditional cash transfers to alleviate poverty in Qibing, Mafeteng

By

Lengau Letsie (200700318)

**A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Development Studies
in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for Master of Arts Degree
in Development Studies**

Supervisor: Dr Mokone 'Musi

NUL Roma

August 2023

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I give thanks to God for his blessings, the gift of life, and the courage he provided me to make it through the challenging path of my study.

My heartfelt gratitude goes to my supervisor Dr Mokone 'Musi who ensured that I managed to make this study a success through guiding, pushing and motivating me. Additionally, I want to express my gratitude to the WFP, the Ha Lekhari community, and the local chief for their suggestions.

I am most importantly grateful to my partner and son for the continued support and sacrifices they made. They allowed me to deny them their valuable time and focus on my study. My parents and siblings also deserve recognition in this study for the everlasting support and motivation they gave me throughout this study.

I sincerely appreciate your help, and I thank you all.

Declaration

To the best of my knowledge, the dissertation I'm submitting to the National University of Lesotho is entirely unique and hasn't been published or submitted before. The work of other academics has been properly cited.

Researcher

Date

L. Letsie

04/08/2023

Supervisor

Date

Abstract

Poverty is a multifaceted phenomenon that can be studied from different perspectives and this study used the 'lived poverty' index to study poverty. The purpose behind the study was to investigate the extent of 'lived poverty' in Lesotho as well as assessing the contribution of conditional cash transfers to alleviating it in Qibing, Mafeteng. The study used sequential explanatory mixed methods to collect data with quantitative data sourced from the Afrobarometer round 8 survey. Qualitative data was collected through key informant interviews and focus group discussions from a sample of 12 participants that was selected through purposive sampling. While quantitative data was analysed using SPSS 16.0, Qualitative data was analysed using Atlas.ti. using thematic analysis. The study's findings showed that Lesotho has a significant amount of 'lived poverty' with income poverty, water insecurity, and food insecurity being the most rampant components concentrated in rural areas and affecting mostly females than males. The findings further revealed that conditional cash transfers contributed to 'lived poverty' alleviation by addressing two components, income poverty and food insecurity providing beneficiaries with stipends and training beneficiaries on food preservation. The study recommends that the government and NGOs come up with projects that aim to alleviate 'lived poverty' in rural areas targeting most females.

List of tables

Table 4.1	Sex of the respondents
Table 4.2	Location of the respondents
Table 4.3	Summary of ‘lived poverty’ in Lesotho
Table 4.4	categories and themes
Table 4.5	Cross-tabulation results

List of Abbreviations

CCTs - Conditional Cash Transfers

COVID-19 - Coronavirus Disease-2019 -

DMA - Disaster Management Authority

ED - Electoral Division

FGD - Focus Group Discussion

GoL - Government of Lesotho

HIV/AIDS- Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome

KIIs - Key Informants Interviews

LVAC - Lesotho Vulnerability Assessment Committee

LBS - Lesotho Bureau of Statistics

NGOs - Non-Governmental Organisations

PHC - Population and Housing Census

SDG - Sustainable Development Goal

SPSS - Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software

TB-Tuberculosis

WFP - World Food Programme

Table of contents

Contents

Acknowledgements	i
Declaration	ii
Abstract	iii
List of tables	iv
List of Abbreviations	v
Table of contents	vi
Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study	1
1.1 Introduction and Background	1
1.2 Statement of the problem	4
1.3 Purpose	4
1.4 Research Questions	4
1.5 Research Objectives	5
1.6 Hypotheses	5
1.7 Significance of the Study	5
1.8 Structure	6
1.9 Chapter Summary	6
Chapter 2: Theoretical framework and Literature Review	7
2.0 Introduction	7
2.1 Theoretical Framework: Capability approach	7
2.2.1 Lived poverty: the concept and global perspective	8
2.2.2 ‘Lived poverty’: perspectives from Lesotho	12
2.3 Coping strategies for ‘lived poverty’	14
2.4 Conditional cash transfers	17

2.5 Chapter Summary.....	18
Chapter 3: Research Methodology.....	19
3.0 Introduction.....	19
3.1 Research paradigm and approach.....	19
3.2 Research Design.....	20
3.3 Population and Sampling.....	20
3.3.1 Population.....	20
3.3.2 Sampling.....	20
3.4 Data collection techniques.....	21
3.5 Data analysis and interpretation.....	22
3.6 Study Area.....	23
3.7 Reliability and Validity.....	23
3.8 Ethical Considerations.....	24
3.8.1 Voluntary participation.....	24
3.8.2 Confidentiality.....	24
3.8.3 Consent.....	24
3.9 Chapter Summary.....	25
Chapter 4: Data presentation, analysis, and interpretation.....	26
4.0 Introduction.....	26
4.1 Demographic characteristics of the respondents.....	26
4.1.1 Sex.....	26
4.1.2 Location.....	26
4.1.3 District.....	27
4.1.4 Education attainment.....	27
4.2 Results and findings.....	28

4.2.1 The extent of ‘lived poverty’ in Lesotho.....	28
4.3 The association between ‘lived poverty’ and the demographic variables.....	31
4.4 Chapter Summary.....	34
Chapter:5 Summary of Key findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations.....	35
5.0 Introduction.....	35
5.1 Summary of key findings.....	35
5.2 Conclusions.....	35
5.3 Recommendations.....	36
5.4 Limitations of the study.....	36
References.....	37



Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study

1.1 Introduction and Background

Poverty alleviation is a universal goal for all United Nations member states. The first Sustainable Development Goal SDG -1 focusing on 'No poverty' commits countries to reduce poverty in all its forms by the year 2030. As mentioned by Development Initiative (2021), a person's economic resources, which include money they make (income), the money they spend (expenditure or consumption), the money they save or the market worth of their assets (wealth), are used to determine their level of poverty. In addition to having insufficient resources, those who live in poverty frequently rank among the most vulnerable members of the society. They also have higher rates of new-born mortality, childhood stunting, and lower educational attainment (Development Initiative, 2019). On the same token, Afrobarometer argues that households are said to be poor if, in the past 12 months, they have gone without either food, cash income, clean water, health care, or cooking fuel either once or twice, severally, more often, or always (Mattes, 2020).

As a lower middle-income nation, Lesotho has a population that has generally lived below the poverty line at more than 50% (Chet al., 2020; World Bank, 2019). Ch et al. (2020) contend that poverty is unevenly distributed in Lesotho as rural areas account for 77.2% while the peri-urban and urban areas account for 5.8% and 20% of poverty respectively. In the case of age groups, poverty is distributed as follows: children 12.5%, adolescents 14.1%, adults 46.8%, and elderly 26.6%. Due to the lack of a proper statistical database in Lesotho, no clear records can be found that show the state of poverty before 2002. However, the World Bank (2019) reports that there was a significant decrease in poverty from 56.6% to 49.7 % between 2002 and 2017, rated at the national poverty line of M648.88 (2017 prices). It must be noted that the decrease in the rates of poverty was mainly in urban areas while rural areas continued to live in poverty. As the World Bank (2019) reported, there was a strong reduction in rate of poverty in urban areas while there was a stagnation in rural areas consequently furthering the gap between the urban-rural. To alleviate poverty in Lesotho, both the Government of Lesotho and development agencies have adopted among other poverty alleviation policies like conditional cash transfers. However, conditional cash transfers are mostly implemented in rural areas in districts deemed to have high rates of poverty.

Conditional cash transfers are defined differently by scholars and practitioners. However, they agree that conditional cash transfers are programs designed to assist beneficiaries with cash on the condition that they fulfil a certain condition set by the program (Avila 2012, CaLP, 2017 and Onwuchekwa et al., 2021). As Avila (2012) mentioned, CCTs are programs that offer cash transfers to qualifying and enrolled beneficiary households particularly if recipients fulfil the criteria set forth to advance social interest regarded as human capital. CaLP (2017) suggests that conditional cash transfers require beneficiaries to undertake a specific action to receive assistance. In the same manner, conditional cash transfers are said to mean interventions that provide cash assistance to a certain group of vulnerable people provided they meet the set requirements (Onwuchekwa et al., 2021).

In the mid to late 2000s, the Government of Lesotho introduced cash transfers namely Old Age Pension and Child Grant programs in 2004 and 2009 respectively to alleviate poverty, especially among children and old-aged populations. It must be noted that these are unconditional cash transfers. Being aware that incidences and severity of poverty persisted among vulnerable groups, about a decade later, the UN agencies especially the World Food Programme (WFP) as well as other developmental International NGOs also introduced conditional cash transfers. In 2014, the World Food Programme (WFP) implemented a cash-for-assets program in Mafeteng that was meant to assist beneficiaries with their immediate needs while also taking steps to decrease soil erosion (WFP, 2014). However, to my knowledge, there are no academic writings that show whether those conditional cash transfers indeed helped to alleviate poverty.

Nonetheless, in Lesotho, many studies have focused on unconditional cash transfers and most scholars have observed that unconditional cash transfers have positive impacts in alleviating households' poverty (Bello et al., 2008; Devereux & Mhlanga, 2008). As observed by Bello et al. (2008), as a result of Old-Age Pension cash transfers in Manonyane Community Council, households that lived below the poverty level were reduced from 90% to 70% as a result of Old-Age pension cash transfers. Devereux & Mhlanga (2008) discovered that unconditional cash transfers alleviate poverty of the beneficiary households as they increase the total household income substantially. However, their studies were conducted on unconditional cash transfers leaving an academic literature gap that needs to be filled by studying the contribution of conditional cash transfers to household poverty alleviation. It should be highlighted at this stage

that the above-mentioned studies on poverty were using a poverty live measure of poverty which focuses on only the economic aspect of life to measure poverty. This is the gap that this study is going to bridge as it is going to use the lived poverty index approach to measure poverty.

The 'lived poverty' index is a poverty measuring tool Afrobarometer devised that measures how often individuals lack fundamental essentials over the span of the year (Mattes, 2020). It normally focuses on how often people go without a basket of basic necessities such as enough food, enough water for home use, medical care, enough cooking fuel, and enough cash income. Though the lived poverty index approach has been used to measure poverty in many African countries with success, its major drawback is that it uses quantitative methods to collect and analyse data. The data shows that in many African countries, poverty is high, region-specific with rural areas taking the largest proportion, and gender-specific with females poorer than males, but the Afrobarometer data does not present reasons for the dynamics of poverty in Lesotho and other countries. Hence, this study used Afrobarometer data to investigate the poverty situation in Lesotho but to complement and fill the gap in Afrobarometer data. This study used the district of Mafeteng to investigate reasons behind the statistics presented by Afrobarometer data using the conditional cash transfers.

As it stands, the state of poverty in Lesotho is still worsening as she scored "doing worse" on SDG 1(No poverty) and SDG 2 (No hunger) as recorded by the Afrobarometer scorecard on performance on SDG (Afrobarometer, 2021). This could be attributed partly to the 2015/2016 El Nino drought as well as the COVID-19 pandemic (World Bank, 2019). It is reported by the World Bank (2019) that El Nino caused Lesotho to face one of its greatest rainfall shortages in decades. As a coping mechanism, most households in rural areas responded by reducing consumption by 23 percent hence putting themselves vulnerable to poverty. Consequently, the report further states that rural poverty was significantly higher than it would have been in the absence of the weather shock (El Nino) as it is estimated that rural poverty would have fallen to 54.6 percent with normal rainfall.

While still recovering from the El Nino drought, Lesotho was just like most countries hit by the COVID-19 pandemic around early 2020. The repercussions of COVID-19 left some households in poverty as in some instances, breadwinners succumbed to the pandemic and died. Some households were left with no source of income due to unemployment as people were laid off as

well as causing some small businesses to shut down. The COVID-19 is also believed to have elevated severe poverty by 50 million people worldwide as reported by the Development Initiatives (2021). As a result, poverty is still a persistent problem and continues to haunt many households in Lesotho which warrants the research to investigate the extent of lived poverty and analyse how initiatives like conditional cash transfers contribute to alleviating poverty.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The prevalence of poverty in Lesotho has been studied by different scholars from different angles, although one important angle ‘lived poverty’ has been ignored. Numerous scholars have studied poverty in Lesotho using other measures of poverty such as the poverty line index as well as the multidimensional poverty index (Ch et al., 2020 and World Bank, 2019). In a study to estimate gender gaps in multidimensional poverty in Lesotho, Ch et al. (2020) used the 2016 population and housing census dataset which revealed that females are multidimensionally poorer than males. In the same manner, using the national poverty line index to measure the poverty rate in Lesotho, the World Bank (2019) found that Lesotho was at 49.7% in 2017. Lesotho adopted CCTs as a policy to alleviate poverty (WFP, 2014). It is argued that WFP was the first agency to implement the conditional cash transfer program in the Mafeteng district in 2014 to address poverty and soil erosion (WFP, 2014). However, just like the Afrobarometer data shows, many households continue to live in poverty (Afrobarometer, 2021). Consequently, people will suffer from health and nutritional problems such as malnutrition, underweight and even death. That would mean that Lesotho has failed to address the SDGs -1 and 2.

1.3 Purpose

The purpose behind this study was to investigate the extent of ‘lived poverty’ in Lesotho using the Afrobarometer round 8 survey data and assess how conditional cash transfers contribute to alleviating it in Qibing, Mafeteng district.

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 What is the extent of ‘lived poverty’ in Lesotho?

1.4.2 What is the association between ‘lived poverty’ and the socio-demographic background of the participants?

1.4.3 What coping mechanisms do households employ to survive ‘lived poverty’ in Lesotho?

1.4.4 How do conditional cash transfer programs contribute to ‘lived poverty’ alleviation in Lesotho?

1.5 Research Objectives

1.5.1 To investigate the extent of ‘lived poverty’ in Lesotho.

1.5.2. To investigate the association between ‘lived poverty’ and the socio-demographic background of the participants.

1.5.3. To examine the coping mechanisms that households employ to survive ‘lived poverty’ in Lesotho.

1.5.4. To analyse the conditional cash transfer programs’ contribution to ‘lived poverty’ alleviation.

1.6 Hypotheses

H₀ There is no relationship between the demographic profiles (sex, education level, and location) of the respondents and ‘lived poverty’ (cash income poverty, fuel poverty, water scarcity, food insecurity, and lack of access to medical care).

H₁ There is a relationship between the demographic profiles (gender, education level, and location) of the respondents and ‘lived poverty’ (cash income poverty, fuel poverty, water scarcity, food insecurity, and lack of access to medicines).

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study may be significant to scholars interested in studying the poverty phenomenon in the context of Lesotho. This is because the study used a different approach to investigate the extent of poverty in Lesotho (lived poverty index) which is not common in Lesotho’s poverty literature. Some scholars used other poverty measures to measure the extent of poverty in Lesotho (Ch et al.2020; World Bank 2021). Ch et al. (2020) followed the multidimensional index to investigate gender gaps in the multidimensional index in Lesotho. As a result, this study sought to fill the slot that was left by other scholarly work that used the national poverty line index by adding four more components (food insecurity, water security, medical care, and fuel/energy poverty) apart from income to investigate the poverty rate in Lesotho.

Furthermore, this study may also be significant for policymakers and NGOs implementing conditional cash transfers. This is because some scholars have neglected conditional cash transfers but studied and observed that unconditional cash transfers impacted positively on poverty alleviation (Bello et al., 2008). This study closed that gap as it assessed whether conditional cash transfers are an effective policy for alleviating poverty.

Again, this study may be significant in that it used the explanatory sequential mixed methods approach in which the qualitative data explained the quantitative data. This study complemented the Afrobarometer surveys as it was built on the results of Afrobarometer round 8 survey data to investigate the extent of 'lived poverty' in Lesotho which is quantitative in nature. Therefore, this study may be significant to the Afrobarometer as the qualitative data results helped to explain the quantitative findings of the Afrobarometer.

1.8 Structure

This study is divided into 5 chapters, that is, introduction/background to the study, literature review, methodology, data presentation and analysis, and summary of key findings, conclusion, and recommendation.

1.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the background of both the state of poverty in Lesotho as well as the background of conditional cash transfer as a policy to alleviate poverty. It further entailed objectives the study sought to address guided by the research questions. The chapter also provided the hypothesis of the study.

Chapter 2: Theoretical framework and Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the reviewed literature around ‘lived poverty’ and conditional cash transfers. It starts with the theoretical framework that guides the study. Most importantly the chapter shows the worldwide perspective before getting into Lesotho’s perspective in three thematic areas namely, the extent of ‘lived poverty’, coping strategies against ‘lived poverty’ as well as conditional cash transfers.

2.1 Theoretical Framework: Capability approach

This study used the capability approach which has its roots in the works of economist and philosopher Amartya Sen and classicist and philosopher Martha Nussbaum. It has increasingly become a multi-disciplinary approach used in various academic disciplines such as development studies, welfare economics, social policy, and political philosophy. Proponents of this approach argue that it can be used to evaluate inequality, poverty, and the well-being of different members of a group (Robeyns, 2019).

As Oosterken (2009) stated, this approach relies on the belief that human capabilities, instead of earnings, assets, basic goods, joy or a combination of one’s joy and sorrows ought to serve as the main focus when assessing the issues of fairness, equality and growth. Capabilities are regarded as what people can actually accomplish and become or the favourable liberties people have to appreciate worthwhile beings and doings.

In the similar manner, Alkire (2002) argued that the capability approach is based on the notion that improving people’s ability to experience ‘valuable beings and doings’ should be the primary goal of human growth as well as poverty alleviation. People deserve to have the ability to make choices about matters vital to their lives and should be given exposure to useful resources they need to develop.

Various scholars used the same theoretical framework in their studies to investigate the impacts of cash transfers as a policy (Chikoko et al., 2021; Follet and Henderson, 2020). This framework was used by Chikoko et al. (2021) to examine the successes and difficulties of CCT in Zimbabwe. It was in that study where it was revealed through findings that the program enhanced the capabilities of adolescents and youths as it was reported that they started engaging

in safer sex practices such as increased use of condoms and reduction in forced sex. Similarly, Follet and Henderson (2020) applied the same approach to study the impacts on human capabilities brought by the cash transfers to the orphanage and disadvantaged children in Kenya. Their study showed that the program expanded human capabilities along several variations such as consumption of micronutrient-rich foods, dietary diversity, and years of schooling (Follet and Henderson, 2020).

As this research aimed to investigate the extent of ‘lived poverty’ as well as the contribution of conditional cash transfers to alleviating poverty in Qibing, this approach was the most suitable as the study findings revealed how people were capacitated on poverty alleviation strategies. The study further showed how conditional cash transfers enhanced their capabilities to fight ‘lived poverty’. Above all, the qualitative data explained the reasons behind the quantitative data which could not explain that the extent of ‘lived poverty’ may be due to lack of functionings among the poor.

Oosterlaken (2009) stated that among the primary ideas of capability approach are individuals, community and the environment which affect the transformation of products and services into functionings. Therefore, it is wrong to presume that the delivery of products and services leads to improvement of capabilities and functionings.

2.2.1 Lived poverty: the concept and global perspective

‘Lived poverty’ is a multi-faceted concept that manifests itself in different ways including lack of income and basic items like clean water, fuel, and food over a specified period (Mattes, 2020). This form of poverty is experienced differently in different countries and it has multiple causes, consequences, and measures to reduce it (Aswan et al., 2011).

‘Lived poverty’ firstly manifest itself through income poverty which can be regarded as a situation where one’s income level falls below the established poverty line suggesting that people are considered to be experiencing income poverty if their income is below US\$1 per day which may differ from time to time (Bayat and Jaiyeola, 2019).

Empirical data shows that different segments of the population worldwide experience income poverty (Akuraju et al., 2022; US Census Bureau 2020; Vogel and Alcantara, 2021). Akuraju et al. (2022) observed that there is unequal income distribution in India with the northern and

north-eastern states doing worse in terms of their population in the bottom two wealth quintiles. Similarly, in their study about rising housing costs and income poverty among the elderly in Germany, Vogel and Alcantara (2021) revealed that rising costs played a role in increasing income poverty among elderly citizens. In addition, the US Census Bureau (2020) found that black families experience higher income poverty levels than their white counterparts in the USA.

Furthermore, some scholars argue that the education levels of individuals contribute a lot in terms of their income poverty status (Aswan et al., 2011). In a study on the relationship between variables such as education level, gender, and experience of employed people and poverty in Pakistan, Aswan et al. (2011) found that there is a negative correlation between the educational level of an individual and the chances of being poor. Their findings revealed that the odds of being poor were decreasing as the education level increased.

On the other hand, scholars such as Chen et al. (2021) contend that an increase in income leads to a fall in poverty. They support their argument through the findings of their study that used Chinese Household Income Project data to study consumption and income poverty in China. Their study points out that there is an incidence of a fall in poverty measured in terms of income and consumption, as a result of China's rapid industrialization and economic growth. By the same token, Amar et al. (2020) suggest that to reduce poverty, countries need to develop policies that reduce the unequal distribution of income.

The second manifestation of 'lived poverty' is lack of energy /fuel poverty, which is regarded as a household's deprivation of a source of energy for home use (Adusah-Poki and Takeuchi, 2019; Bednar and Reames, 2020). Adusah-Poki and Takeuchi (2019) refer to energy poverty as a lack of sufficient choice in accessing adequate, affordable, reliable, high-quality, safe, and environment-friendly energy services to support economic and human development. In the same manner, Bednar and Reames (2020) state that a household is energy poor if it is not able to meet its energy needs.

Some scholars agree that energy poverty is not evenly distributed in the world as there is literature on energy poverty that suggests that the rural poor are the ones mostly experiencing energy poverty (Bouzarovski et al., 2020; Huld et al., 2021). Bouzarovski et al. (2020) posit that in Poland, those at risk of energy poverty are the citizens residing in detached houses rather than

those living in multifamily housing. This is because it is a common case that detached houses are much bigger than multifamily houses. On the same token, Huld et al. (2021) mention that about 56% of the Sub-Saharan African population lacks access to modern forms of energy.

Furthermore, there is growing evidence showing that energy poverty harms the poor's health. Ali et al. (2012) discovered that energy-helpless families have a greater likelihood of individuals experiencing respiratory issues among other health hazards. In support, Aristizabal et al. (2021) found in their study that energy poverty damages people emotionally and mentally due to unaffordable energy costs leading to anxiety and distress.

Thirdly, lack of access to medical care is another dimension of the lived poverty index, which is location-specific with rural residents in developing countries at higher risks. Bloom et al. (2008) point out that one of the requirements for better health services are good roads for people to go to health services, easy distribution of drugs and supplies, timely referrals in emergencies, and the supervision of the health workers. However, they state that there are no good roads in rural areas particularly in developing countries. Similarly, Wagstaff (2002) argues that travel time to health services is one of the important issues in health services. On the same token, Chen and Pan (2019) blame health poverty on the burden imposed by out-of-pocket payments for medical treatments in low and middle-income countries. Unless accompanied by advancements in health service quality, a high-cost leads to reduced or delayed health services utilisation (Wagstaff, 2002).

Studies are unanimous that there are measures to reduce health poverty (Bloom et al., 2008; Chen and Pan, 2019). Bloom et al. (2008) state that one of the strategies that are common among governments to improve access to health services is to build public clinics and hospitals in large numbers. In support, Chen and Pan (2019) mention that in Indonesia and Thailand, the poor are offered public health insurance without any co-payment required.

The fourth indicator of the 'lived poverty' index is water insecurity or failure to have access to enough water for home use which could be measured differently. Dharod and Nounkeu (2019) state that water insecurity is inconsistent access to sufficient amounts of safe and clean water for an active and healthy life. Bethancourt et al. (2022) say that water insecurity is a lack of stable access to sufficient and safe amounts for drinking and domestic use.

As much as water is a fundamental need for human life, there is evidence showing that there are lots of people who still do not have access to enough water. Dharod and Nounkeu (2019) mention that reports are showing that around 2.1 billion people in developing countries do not have access to potable water at home, with smallholder farmers and people living in slums or informal settlements in urban areas the most affected segments. In 2021, Bukusi et al. (2021) reported that there were at least 4 billion people who were encountering a problem of severe water scarcity for at least 1 month per year in the world.

Water insecurity has negative effects on human beings. The most affected are women and children as they are the ones charged with the responsibility of fetching water. One of the impacts of water scarcity is its ability to harm the health of those fetching it (Ahmed et al., 2019; Brewis et al., 2020). Ahmed et al. (2019) argue that water scarcity in Western marginalised populations of the Rajanpur district in Pakistan intensifies mothers' work burden and stress which often makes them vulnerable to maternal stress and sickness. In the same way, Brewis et al. (2020) posit that in an analysis of 8633 Nepali women, women from households that experienced both food and water insecurity had the highest blood pressure which is a common indicator of physiological stress. These scholars also point out that in Haiti, households that experience both food and water insecurity had more symptoms of depression and anxiety than households with just a deprivation of either food or water (Brewis et al., 2020).

On the same token, water insecurity negatively affects food security and nutrition (Ahmed et al., 2019; Bethancourt et al., 2022; Brewis et al., 2020). Ahmed et al. (2019) mention that the high levels of malnutrition that are characterised by stunting in the region of Rajanpur can be associated with water insecurity. In support, Bethancourt et al. (2022) state that water shortages and flooding events contribute a lot to malnutrition and food insecurity in that they hinder households and communities from growing and engaging in productive agriculture such as rearing livestock for food or income as well as growing of cash crops. Household water insecurity is a more feasible cause of food insecurity and therefore water insecurity and household food insecurity chronically coexist (Brewis et al., 2020).

One of the effects of water poverty is its ability to induce time poverty in women and children who fetch it (Brewis et al., 2020; Set'sabi, 2022). Brewis et al. (2020) mentioned that the time spent fetching water or recovering from water-related physical harm cannot be spent doing other

household activities such as kitchen activities. In the same manner, Set'sabi (2022) argues that women are often overburdened and as a result, they lack time to rest and re-energise themselves hence time poverty.

The fifth and last manifestation of 'lived poverty' is food insecurity. In academia and practice, food insecurity is regarded as a lack of access to sufficient food (Black et al., 2019, Dimitropoulos et al., 2020; Garg and Peltz, 2019). Black et al. (2019), contend that food insecurity is a limited or uncertain availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods or a limited or uncertain ability to acquire acceptable foods in socially acceptable ways. Similarly, Dimitropoulos et al. (2020) refer to food insecurity as a continuous panic or distress over access to adequate amounts of affordable and nutritious food at all times. In the same manner, food insecurity is known as the lack of reliable access to sufficient food to support an active and healthy life (Garg and Peltz, 2019).

Scholars have found that food insecurity harms vulnerable members of society such as children (Defeyter et al., 2020, Black et al., 2019; Garg and Peltz, 2019). Defeyter et al. (2020) state that children from food-insecure families are less likely to socialise outside of school with other children because they do not want other children and families to see them as poor. On the same token, Black et al. (2019) argue that food insecurity amongst young children is associated with poor health, hospitalizations, developmental risks, and behavioural problems. Garg and Peltz (2019) found in their study that children from food-insecure households in the US are associated with school absenteeism.

2.2.2 'Lived poverty': perspectives from Lesotho

Several studies have been conducted to address 'lived poverty' in its different forms in Lesotho as it happens elsewhere in the world. There has been a proliferation of studies addressing energy poverty (Eager et al., 2021; LBS, 2016; Mpholo et al., 2018). Eager et al. (2021) found that Lesotho has reached its peak demand of 161 MW compared to its national installed generation capacity of approximately 74 MW hence leaving the country with a huge supply deficit. On the same token, the findings of the LBS (2016) indicate that for cooking, paraffin is the most used fuel at 38.8 %, while gas is commonly used in urban areas, at 49.2% with 65.1% of rural areas using wood for cooking. In the same manner, Mpholo et al., (2018) contend that although some regions are connected to the grid, not all households are connected and even those that are

connected, households are still unwilling to use electricity thoroughly as they still use other forms of energy such as traditional biomass and paraffin.

Concerning water insecurity in Lesotho, numerous studies have been undertaken to understand water security in Lesotho (GoL, 2018; Skodjereite, 2021). The GoL (2018) report mentions that water-related challenges are more common in the lowlands of Lesotho where water availability is not consistent in different seasons and due to lack of infrastructural development. In the same manner, Skodjereite (2021) contends that by the year 2011, only 43.5% of the rural population was served by functioning water while 56.5% were either unserved or underserved.

However, some literature argues that the country has made significant progress in ensuring access to improved water (LBS, 2016; LVAC, 2017). The LBS (2016) findings suggest that most of the households (80%) in Lesotho use drinking water from improved sources in all settlement patterns with the remaining 20% using unimproved water sources. The report continues by mentioning that even in rural areas, 80.2% of households have access to improved sources of water. In the same manner, the findings from the 2017 Vulnerability Assessment and Analysis revealed that more than 90% of the interviewed households had access to safe water from different sources while the remaining 10% still used unsafe water sources (LVAC, 2017).

Studies reveal that in Lesotho, households normally experience food insecurity partly due to drought as most people depend on agricultural products for food. The LVAC (2019) report revealed that the drought that hit the country in October/November 2019 has led to further deterioration of the food security situation in the country in terms of the severity of the food consumption gaps. The report further indicates that in some districts, households have already depleted the stock from the previous harvest by May 2019. In the same manner, the UNRC (2019) report further indicates that, as predicted by the DMA and LVAC, in a period between September 2018 to May 2019, 487,857 people were food insecure and in need of humanitarian assistance resulting from delayed and below-average harvest.

On the same token, the literature argues that the shift in the use of land from farming to settlement is another factor that makes most households food insecure, especially in peri-urban areas. Thebe and Rakotje (2013) mention that households who owned land through allocation by chiefs sold their land or constructed accommodation facilities. The authors make a point in the case by taking peri-urban areas around the National University of Lesotho (NUL) where

landowners have built accommodation facilities for the university students hence neglecting agriculture.

In terms of income poverty, the already high level of lack of cash income caused by unemployment in Lesotho was worsened by the COVID-19 pandemic in 2019 to date. The pandemic caused many firms, organisations, and other entities to retrench workers as business was not good during the pandemic due to some restrictions put in place in response to the pandemic by the government. Tlali and ‘Musi (2022) conducted a study on the effects of COVID-19 on Ecotourism in Lesotho using thematic analysis on the case of Malea-lea Development Trust’s Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) which revealed that COVID-19 forced some workers to lose their jobs hence loss of income. This was attested to by all workers who felt that Covid-19 had hurt their production, jobs, and income-generating activities (Tlali and ‘Musi, 2022).

Regarding health poverty in Lesotho, the major public health threats are HIV/AIDS and TB. However, various studies show that patients have access to their treatment although there was a disruption in TB treatment during the COVID-19 era in Lesotho (Ahmed et al., 2019; Andom et al., 2023; Graaf., 2019). As mentioned by Ahmed et al. (2019), the Lesotho Population-based HIV Impact Assessment Survey results portray that 91.8% of people living with HIV who know their status are taking their antiretrovirals. The same statement was echoed by Graaf et al., 2019 who argued that utilisation of health services improved a lot as a result of the construction and refurbishment of old health centres such that the number of people who were on Antiretroviral Treatment (ART) had almost tripled to 180 000 by the end of 2016 (Graaf et al., 2019). Ahmed et al., (2019) posit that during the COVID-19 era, TB patients might have not come for check-ups afraid of being infected by the virus, even if they came, they would still not get the required services due to shortage of resources had they come to the centre.

2.3 Coping strategies for ‘lived poverty’

Coping strategies are referred to as responses that are used to react immediately to an event. Although they can increase a household’s ability to withstand immediate threats, they do not serve as long-term solutions nor do they reduce future vulnerability (Becker and Schlamovitz, 2020).

In terms of water scarcity, the most common coping mechanism is water storage. In the study conducted in urban Gaborone, Becker and Schlamovitz (2019) revealed that out of 58 respondents, 22 who had no indoor water connection used buckets to store water just to be safe since they did not know when the next water cut would be. The participants admitted that they store water in small buckets (20L-25L), Jojo tanks, and drums (Becker and Schlamovitz, 2019). That study used a qualitative approach in conducting data through semi-structured interviews with participants as well as conducting key informant interviews with professionals working on climate change among other key informants.

Another prominent coping mechanism unemployed to survive water scarcity is through accessing water from different water sources. Households normally seek different avenues where they can get water once their sources of water run dry. As revealed by Becker and Schlamovitz (2020), 21 out of 58 participants reported that in urban Gaborone they resort to buying water, 25 said that they get water from friends, family, neighbours, colleagues, or fellow church members while nine said they get water from formal institutions such as schools and universities or their workplaces.

Regarding food insecurity, the most common coping mechanism employed by households that do not have access to enough food for the households is rationing. This coping mechanism was confirmed by the respondents in a study that explored the coping strategies adopted by Iraya-Mangyan households during food insecurity in Abra, Occidental Mindoro, Philippines. As Declaro-Ruedas (2019) noted, most participants admitted that they often used the rationing strategy to cope with food insecurity.

Again, Declaro-Ruedes (2019) argues that one of the prominent coping mechanisms adopted for food insecurity is dietary change. The author posits the participants confirmed that they always used dietary change as a means to cope with food insecurity. They did that by relying on less preferred and less expensive food and by consuming less variety of food.

In the case of income poverty, the common practice in coping with a lack of cash income is to sell labour by doing odd jobs for other community members. In a study on disintegrating labour relations and depoliticised adaptation to climate change in rural Sao Tome and Principe, one participant revealed that as a coping strategy to climate change that affected their crop

production, she occasionally does laundry for her neighbours and works as a labourer in their fields (Mikulewicz, 2020).

Households that do not have access to health care services usually consult the traditional healers found in the communities for medical assistance. In a qualitative study on snakebites patients in Rwanda, Amuguni et al. (2022), found that factors like the lack of ambulances to transfer patients and long distances to hospitals caused delays in snakebite patients receiving professional medical treatment. Those factors force patients to resort to consulting traditional healers within communities who will in turn provide them with some herbal concoctions to deal with the snakebites.

The coping strategies put in place by households that cannot afford to have access to fuel for cooking in their households is the use of dirty energy sources such as cow dung, firewood, and paraffin among others. Using rural women and girls in rural South Africa as respondents, Longe (2021) revealed that to cook, most households used firewood. The reason being that it can be easily sourced from nature or neighbours.

One of the most identified coping strategies in Lesotho is rationing in times of lack of enough food. World Bank (2019) reveals that as a coping mechanism, most households in rural areas responded by reducing consumption by 23 percent in response to the El Nino-induced drought that brought poverty. Again, the households that do not have access to enough food borrow food from relatives and neighbours. In Lesotho, it has been a common practice ever since that whenever a household ran short of food, the household head would send children to go and borrow a mealie meal from the neighbours. It is mentioned by Freeman et al. (2008) the most vulnerable groups stated that they normally require assistance such as food aid from relatives.

In the case where households do not have access to cash income, literature argues that in Lesotho selling livestock to get money is a common practice (Freeman et al., 2008). This was corroborated by the study undertaken to assess the contribution of livestock to livelihoods and its role in risk management and coping strategies to identify livestock interventions that can be used to save lives and livelihoods in crises and emergency situations in Southern Africa. The study observed that selling livestock and other physical commodities was reported as important by the respondents. However, this is one of the riskiest coping mechanisms as it leads to depletion of stock and as a result, the household will suffer in the future (Freeman et al, 2008). Again,

Freeman et al. (2008) mentioned that one of the risky coping strategies used by vulnerable households include borrowing money from relatives and neighbours in Lesotho.

As a coping strategy for energy poverty, households normally mix the food that takes a long time to cook with warm water and cover them with blankets to preserve warmth. This practice is normally done in the afternoon so that the warmth can be preserved overnight and then the food be cooked in the morning therefore no longer taking too long to cook as they would be softer and half cooked by then. As mentioned by Nthunya (2007), pillows have been used to cover pots and retain heat allowing food to cook slowly and the conservation of energy.... Even the blankets have been used to cover pots and retain heat.

In coping with water scarcity, literature shows that households travel long distances to draw water from unprotected water sources to meet their daily households' needs (LVAC, 2019; Skodjereite, 2021). In 2019, the LVAC (2019) Report observed that due to drought that hit Lesotho around October/November 2019, water sources dried up and as a coping strategy, women, men, boys, and girls had to travel long distances to draw water from unprotected water sources. In the same manner, Skodjereite (2021) argues that there are still some communities in rural areas of Lesotho that have no water connections such as standpipes and water tanks, and as such, their only option for accessing water is to collect them from unprotected water sources such as dams, rivers, streams, and uncovered springs. This coping strategy is risky as it makes people vulnerable to water borne diseases such as cholera.

2.4 Conditional cash transfers

Some scholars argue that Conditional Cash Transfers (CCTs) play a big role in alleviating income poverty (Kakwani et al., 2005; Siena, 2015). Kakwani et al. (2005) argue that as a result of an increase in income of rural households brought by conditional cash transfers, the demand for agricultural products also increased. In the same manner, Siena (2015) observed that the beneficiary households that benefited from the Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program (4Ps) had their income-generating activities increased by 30% due to the introduction of the project.

In terms of food security, some studies show that CCTs lead to a positive impact on food consumption in countries where they have been used (Attanasio and Mesnard, 2005; Hoddinott et al., 2000). In Colombia, Attanasio and Mesnard (2005) observed that beneficiaries who benefitted from the Familias en Accion program improved their food consumption by 15% after

a year in the program. In the same manner, Hoddinott et al. (2000) revealed that the Progresia beneficiary families who were part of the program from 1997 had improved their average food consumption by around 10.6% in 1999.

In the case of health poverty, some scholars undertook studies to find the nexus between CCTs and health to study the contribution of CCTs to ending health poverty. Their results suggest that conditional cash transfers contribute to the better health of beneficiaries (Bamidele et al., 2018; Marchal et al., 2021). Badimele et al. (2018) note that in a study conducted by Meghna and Mylene that evaluated the impact of conditional cash transfer (CCT) programs in promoting healthy behaviours and improving health outcomes in Latin American countries, results showed that CCTs have been effective in increasing the use of preventive services, improving immunisation coverage and in encouraging healthy behaviours. Similarly, in a systematic review of the impact of conditional cash transfers on child health utilisation and child health in Sub-Saharan countries, Marchal et al. (2021) observed that in Tanzania, children who benefited from the TASAF CCT program had notably more regular clinic visits than children in the control group.

There is very limited literature regarding conditional cash transfers in Lesotho as most scholars have studied unconditional cash transfers. This may be attributed to the fact that conditional cash transfers are relatively a new policy of poverty alleviation compared to unconditional cash transfers and most cash transfers in Lesotho are unconditional so it is no surprise that they are the most studied between the two cash transfers.

However, scholars who studied unconditional cash transfers observed that they indeed help to fight poverty as they improve the incomes of the recipient households (Bello et al. 2008; Devereux and Mhlanga, 2008). Bello et al. (2008), discovered that as a result of Old-Age Pension scheme cash transfers in the Manonyane Community Council, households that lived below the poverty level were reduced from 90% to 70%. On the same token, when evaluating the Cash and food Transfers piloted by World Vision Lesotho, Devereux and Mhlanga (2008) observed that 94% of cash transfer recipients spent some of their transfers on buying food mainly staple food (maize or maize meal), beans and vegetables. These scholars further argue that most recipients used some of their transfers on non-food items such as clothes, health care and education, housing, and burial society contributions.

2.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter highlighted that the study was theoretically guided by the capabilities approach to study lived poverty. The chapter also showed the literature around the extent of lived poverty in the world around five core components namely income poverty, food insecurity, water insecurity, fuel poverty, and lack of access to medical treatment. It also entailed findings about the contribution of conditional cash transfers as studied by other scholars.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodological framework that guided this study. It further states the methods in terms of how, where, and to whom the data were collected. It again shows how both sets of data were analysed and interpreted in this study. Lastly, the chapter shows how the researcher enhanced the reliability and validity of both quantitative and qualitative strands of data.

3.1 Research paradigm and approach

A research paradigm is defined by Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) as the viewpoint, way of conceiving or a group of generally accepted opinions that guide the understanding of results of the study. They express the researchers broad philosophical orientations on the world around them and the sort of an inquiry they seek to conduct (Mat'saba-Makoa, 2022).

This study based itself on the pragmatism paradigm. Supporters of this paradigm hold the view that true knowledge can be obtained by using mixed methods rather than a single approach in research (Rahi, 2017). Furthermore, the proponents of this paradigm argue that it is underpinned by the belief that what is more important in research is the problem under study, not the approach that is being used to find true knowledge. This paradigm is considered a philosophical underpinning for mixed methods studies (Cresswell, 2023).

The study employed a mixed methods approach. Cresswell (2023) points out that the mixed methods approach includes the combination or integration of qualitative and quantitative research and data in research studies. Most studies used multi-dimensional index to measure poverty in Lesotho. To estimate gender gaps in multi-dimensional poverty in Lesotho analysing the 2016 Population and Housing Census results, Ch et al. (2020) used the multidimensional approach in their study based on three dimensions education, health, and standard of living.

It is argued that the early school of thought about the importance of mixed methods relied on the notion that all methods had their biases and weaknesses but the collection of both quantitative and qualitative sets of data neutralised the weaknesses of each set of data (Cresswell, 2023). In this study, the researcher mixed data at the data analysis stage where he embedded data such that qualitative data explained certain trends that emerged from the quantitative data.

3.2 Research Design

Research designs are known as types of inquiry within either qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods approaches that give a specific direction for procedures in a research. They are also called strategies of inquiry (Cresswell, 2023). This study employed an explanatory sequential mixed methods design. As mentioned by Leedy & Ormrod (2015), an explanatory sequential mixed method is a two-phase process with the quantitative phase coming first and the qualitative phase coming last. Phase 1 involves collecting a certain amount of quantitative data through experiments, ex post facto study or surveys to gather numbers (percentages or averages). Phase 2 comes later to collect qualitative data that will help the researcher give greater meaning to the numbers provided by the quantitative data. Cresswell (2023) mentions that this design is known as explanatory because the first phase which is quantitative is explained by a later phase which is qualitative. It is also known as sequential because the first phase that is quantitative is followed later by the qualitative phase.

In this study, the researcher used the Afrobarometer Round 8 survey results that were already available to investigate the extent of 'lived poverty' in Lesotho, (hence quantitative data) and analysed them. It is after the analysis of the quantitative data that the researcher was able to determine which data needed further explanation through qualitative data. He also collected qualitative data to address the second part of the study that sought to explore the contribution of conditional cash transfers to alleviating lived poverty in Lesotho.

3.3 Population and Sampling

3.3.1 Population

Rahi (2017) refers to the population as all people or items that one wishes to understand. In this study, the population for the quantitative data was derived from the Afrobarometer round 8 survey which were the nationals of Lesotho 18 years and above of age as provided by the Bureau of Statistics Population and Housing Census 2016 (Advison Lesotho, 2020). On the other hand, for qualitative data, the population in this study was made up of all beneficiaries who receive the WFP's conditional cash transfers in Qibing Community Council.

3.3.2 Sampling

Sampling is referred to as the process of selecting a segment of the population for investigation (Rahi, 2017). On the quantitative data set, the study relied on Afrobarometer round 8 survey data

in which stratified random sampling technique was used to select the sample. In research, stratified random sampling is referred to as a sampling process in which each sub-group commonly known as strata, is given an equal chance to be selected randomly. Each stratum was given equal proportionate representation (Rahi, 2017). The survey sampled 1200 adult Basotho to collect data across all 10 districts of Lesotho. According to Advision Lesotho (2020), the sample yielded a margin of error of +/-3 percentage and 95 percent confidence level.

For qualitative data, the researcher used a purposive sampling technique. Since the study was academic with time and financial resources, the researcher collected data at the easily accessible community where the CCT project operated. According to Nikolopoulou (2022), purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling where informants are selected due to the characteristics that are needed in the sample. That is, they are selected on purpose. In this study, some individuals were more relevant as they had the required information that informed the study. The sample was made up of 12 participants (11 females and one male). They included the beneficiaries of the CCT project, a chief who also serves as a councillor, and an official from the WFP which is the NGO providing the CCTs. The sample that was selected included only beneficiaries of conditional cash transfers and excluded all people who were not beneficiaries of the conditional cash transfers in Qibing.

3.4 Data collection techniques

In the case of the quantitative side, the Afrobarometer round 8 survey administered the questionnaire. The questions were close-ended and as such, prohibited the respondents from explaining their answers as they were provided with only multiple-choice questions where they had to select only one answer per question. As portrayed by Cresswell and Hirose (2019), types of questions in quantitative data include closed-ended questions that require a check for the most suitable answer such as strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree. Moreover, all the respondents were asked the same questions in the same sequence.

The Afrobarometer collected data by asking respondents the following questions, “over the past year, how often if ever, they or anyone in their households, gone without enough food to eat, enough fuel for cooking food, gone without cash income gone without enough clean water for home use and lastly gone without medicine or medical treatment”. Then respondents responded

by selecting one answer from the following, “always, many times, several times, once or twice, never” (Afrobarometer, 2021).

In the case of Qualitative data, the researcher used two data collection techniques. The first technique was a Focus Group Discussion (FGD). A focus group is described by Parveen and Showkat (2017) as an assembly of people that are convened with a purpose of taking part in an issue that is connected to them. In this study, the researcher organised an FGD made up of beneficiaries who participated in WFP’s conditional cash transfers to get their views about the extent of ‘lived poverty’ in their area and the contribution of conditional cash transfer programmes to alleviating ‘lived poverty’ in Qibing. The FGD was composed of nine females and one male.

The second and last technique used was the key informant interviews (KIIs). As described by Lokot (2021), in the family of research methods, KIIs may be unintentionally positioned as producing more valuable knowledge because of the status and expertise of the key informant. The scholar further argued that key informants are perceived as providing important knowledge. In the case of this study, the key informants were the local community leader (a chief who also doubles as councillor since the councillor died and was never replaced) as well as an official from the organisation providing conditional cash transfers.

3.5 Data analysis and interpretation

Data were analysed using two different tools since this study contains both quantitative and qualitative sets of data. Quantitative data was analysed using a Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software (SPSS) 16.0 version. The quantitative data was analysed in such a manner that the ‘lived poverty’ components were grouped into two groups ‘no poverty’ made up of “never” and “once or twice” and the second group meant ‘presence of poverty’ made up of “several times”, “many times” and “always”.

Qualitative data was analysed through Atlas.ti software using a thematic analysis. Thematic analysis according to Clarke (2012) is a method of systematically identifying, organising, and offering insight into patterns of meanings (themes) across a set of data. In this study after collecting data, it was transcribed to a Google document and then imported into Atlas.ti software. The researcher then followed a six-step approach to thematic data analysis (Clarke, 2012). The researcher firstly familiarised himself with data, generated initial codes, searched for themes that

emerged after data collection, reviewed potential themes, defined and named themes, and lastly produced the report that he used to analyse the given data.

Since there were two sets of data collected, the researcher integrated both sets of data through a merging approach to analyse and interpret the findings. As mentioned by Cresswell et al., (2013), integration through merging of data happens when researchers bring the two databases together for analysis and comparison. That was done because the qualitative data was collected to confirm or assess the validity of the quantitative data. Furthermore, the researcher narratively integrated data through a weaving approach which includes writing both qualitative and quantitative findings together on a theme-by-theme or concept-by-concept basis (Cresswell et al., 2013). In this study, the researcher analysed the quantitative data first for each theme, then immediately brought in the qualitative findings to confirm and explain the findings of the quantitative data for each theme.

3.6 Study Area

While for quantitative data the Afrobarometer used the whole country, the qualitative study was undertaken in Qibing community council in the Mafeteng district. Mafeteng was selected because it was one of the three districts in which WFP had the ongoing CCT project and it was also the district that had the highest representation in the Afrobarometer survey with 9.3% ahead of Mohale's Hoek and Quthing both at 8.0%

Mafeteng had a total population of 17374 (8707 males and 8667 females) which is about 9% of the total population of the district. It covers an area of 226.48 kilometres squared that is made up of nine Electoral Divisions (EDs) comprising 49 villages. There are about 2002 households, with 685 being female-headed and 108 child-headed households. There is one health centre in the council of Qibing (Lits'oeneng Health Centre), 17 primary schools, 4 secondary schools and no high schools (Mafeteng District Council, 2008).

3.7 Reliability and Validity

Reliability is regarded as the extent to which a research instrument consistently produces the same results if it is used in the same situation on repeated occasions whereas validity denotes the extent to which a concept is accurately measured (Heale and Twycross, 2015). It must be noted that these two principles are historically associated with quantitative data. To ensure the reliability and validity of the results in the quantitative strand of data, the Afrobarometer survey

produced a survey that yielded a confidence level of 95% and a margin of error of 2-3% (Advison Lesotho, 2020).

In the case of qualitative data, Hayes and Lemon (2022) argue that Guba and Lincoln 1985 founded trustworthiness criteria made up of four components credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability as a means to evaluate qualitative research. The argument for the substitution of reliability and validity as put forward by those two scholars was that it didn't make sense to judge quantitative and qualitative research using the same criteria.

To ensure the credibility of qualitative data in this study, the researcher used triangulation techniques in data collection. The researcher collected data through key informants who were interviewed separately and conducted one focus group discussion (FGD) at Ha Lekhari. Transferability in this study was ensured through the provision of necessary information such as sampling techniques, demographics, and other features of the participants.

In the case of dependability, the researcher narrated how data was collected, how categories were formed, and a detailed report on how decisions were made (Hayes and Lemon, 2020). Lastly, the researcher ensured confirmability in this study in that after every interview, he confirmed the answers provided by the respondents and reported what had been truly said by the respondents.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

3.8.1 Voluntary participation

The researcher told the participants from the onset that their participation was for free and can withdraw anytime as this study was for academic purposes.

3.8.2 Confidentiality

The researcher also made it clear to the participants that the answers they provided would be treated with high levels of confidentiality and wouldn't disclose their names as each respondent was assigned a number identifying them. The researcher further used labels such as KI1, KI2, and P1-P10 to represent different participants of the study.

3.8.3 Consent

The researcher went to the field with a consent form showing his name, institution name, and the purpose of his study. It was presented to the participants every time before the interviews.

3.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter highlighted that the study followed the pragmatic paradigm which was followed by a sequential explanatory mixed design. The chapter showed that the sampled respondents for the quantitative were all the Lesotho nationals above 18 years old and participants for the qualitative data were the beneficiaries of WFP. As for data collection, this chapter showed that the Afrobarometer survey administered the questionnaires to the respondents in the case of quantitative data while the researcher conducted the FGD and KIIs for the qualitative data. The chapter further showed that the quantitative data was analysed using SPSS while qualitative data was analysed using Atlas.ti software following thematic analysis. The study area as mentioned in this chapter was Qibing in Mafeteng District. The data provided in this study was derived after a strong guidance of reliability and validity techniques as shown in this study. The chapter lastly showed that the researcher based himself with ethical considerations such as voluntary participation, confidentiality and right to consent.

Chapter 4: Data presentation, analysis, and interpretation

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study, starting with demographics and location of study respondents and informants. Then it shows the findings of the study in relation to each research question. The data were analysed in such a manner that both sets of data were merged with qualitative data explaining the quantitative data.

4.1 Demographic characteristics of the respondents

4.1.1 Sex

For quantitative data, the Afrobarometer selected 606 males which translates to 50.5%, and 594 females which is 49.5% as shown in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Sex of the respondents

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Males	606	50.5
Females	594	49.5
Total	1200	100

Data source: Afrobarometer round 8 survey data 2021

The participants in the qualitative data were thirteen in total consisting of two females and one male as key participants, and nine females and one male in the focus group discussion.

4.1.2 Location

All three locations namely urban, rural, and peri-urban made up of 32.7%, 60.0%, and 7.3% respectively in the quantitative data.

Table 4.2 Location of the respondents.

Location	Frequency	Percentage
Urban	394	32.8
Rural	721	60.1
Peri-urban	85	7.1
Total	1200	100

Data source: Afrobarometer round 8 survey data 2021

However, the qualitative data was only collected from a rural location because the Conditional Cash Transfer projects were implemented in rural areas where poverty was deemed to be endemic.

4.1.3 District

In terms of district representation in the sample, quantitative data was collected from all the ten districts of Lesotho with Maseru contributing the highest sample at 27.3%, followed by Leribe with 15.3% and Berea with 14.0%. Mafeteng was represented by 9.3%, Mohale's Hoek by 8.0%, Quthing, and Thaba-Tseka had equal representation of 6.0%. Qacha's Nek, Mokhotlong, and Butha-Buthe had the second lowest representation of 5.3% each and lastly, Qacha's Nek had a 3.3% representation. The study used the Mafeteng district for qualitative data to represent the three districts where CCT programmes were active.

4.1.4 Education attainment

The majority of the respondents (41.7%) for quantitative data had primary education, those with secondary education contributed 36.6%. Those with no formal education contributed 11.4% while those with post-secondary education made 9.1%. Participants sampled for the qualitative data had different levels of educational attainment as the most educated participant had the university first degree.

4.2 Results and findings

4.2.1 The extent of ‘lived poverty’ in Lesotho.

Quantitative data showed that the majority of the households experienced ‘lived poverty’ when combining the three categories several times, many times and always. The quantitative data were analysed to measure the extent of lived poverty in Lesotho.

Table 4.3 Themes and categories

Causes of poverty	Copying strategies against poverty	Contribution of CCT to alleviate poverty
Lack of employment opportunities	Seeking of financial assistance	Cash transfers stipends
Lack of means of production	Food rationing within the household	Food preservation skills
Climate change		Income generating activities

Source : Own construction 2023

Table 4.4 summary of ‘lived poverty’ in Lesotho

	Income	Food	Fuel	Medicine	Water
Never	8.7	33.8	48.1	53.1	40.7
Just once or twice	8.2	22.4	16.3	18.2	14.5
Several Times	14.3	15.5	12.8	12.2	15.8
Many Times	28.4	25.2	17.6	11.9	19.6
Always	40.3	2.9	5.2	4.1	9.4
Refusal	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Don’t know	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Afrobarometer round 8 survey

From Table 4.4, it can be summarised that the most dominant ‘lived poverty’ components were lack of cash income (83%) followed by water scarcity (44.8%) and food insecurity (43.9%). Qualitative analysis showed that the sampled community in the Mafeteng district experienced ‘lived poverty’ as most of the key participants complained about a lack of income, water, and food insecurity confirming the quantitative data. Providing reasons for this situation, (P1) argued that lack of cash income is caused by lack of employment opportunities, especially amongst women who are caregivers to their grandchildren in their community. Similarly, other participants expressed concerns about their experiences of food and water poverty as (P3) mentioned that,

“climate change according to me is the root cause of food insecurity, we are hit by drought, hail, and early colds that affect our crops negatively”.

Concerned with water scarcity, (P1) complained that they fetch water from an uncovered spring and it's far from the village”.

To survive income poverty, the participants reported that they asked for loans from their neighbours, as (P3) argued that they had no option but to seek a loan from others so that they can buy feed for the poultry and piggery. Concerning food insecurity, the participants presented different categories that showed how they coped with food insecurity, mentioning that among others, they rationed their food amongst household members as (P4) mentioned,

“I normally ensure that all members of the household get something to eat in that I give each other only one portion of papa”.

The qualitative data showed that the contribution of the World Food Programme to alleviate ‘lived poverty’ was huge although it did not address the water insecurity issue as WFP is a food insecurity-oriented organisation. Participants from the WFP project explained that apart from providing beneficiaries with cash transfers, the WFP also capacitated them with food preservation skills that would help them to be food secure as (P3) argued that.

“We were capacitated with food preservation skills such as canning and drying, we can the beans and even dry the grapes that we grow at our gardens”.

However, qualitative data showed that there were mixed feelings about the contribution of the cash transfer programme to alleviating ‘lived poverty’. While other participants argued that it does help to alleviate poverty as mentioned by (P4) that,

“yes, CCT helps to reduce cash income poverty because when we have been paid, we are able to meet our basic needs such as buying school uniforms for our children and food”.

There were opposing views about this issue as KI1 argued that the project did not bring positive impact to the beneficiaries due to the fact that beneficiaries were paid later and forced to get into debts and consequently the stipend went straight into paying debts.

Quantitative data showed that the extent of ‘lived poverty’ is huge in Lesotho which was line with studies conducted in Lesotho and other parts of the world (Declaro-Ruedas, 2019, Freeman et al., 2008, LVAC, 2019) Pinedo, 2009, Schlamovitz, 2020, and Tlali and ‘Musi, 2022).

4.3 The association between ‘lived poverty’ and the demographic variables

To determine if there were associations or relationships (hypothesis tests) between variables of this study, the cross-tabulations (cross-tabs) were done by running chi-square tests. The inferential statistics obtained through the chi-square tests were used to infer if the associations obtained are reliable or by chance (Ndlanzi, 2021). In this study, the null hypothesis was tested on three demographic characteristics of respondents (sex, location, and education level) against the five ‘lived poverty’ indicators, (having gone without, cash income, enough food, enough water, enough fuel and medical care) to determine any significant relationship between the two groups of variables.

The alpha value used for testing the hypothesis was 0.05 since the Afrobarometer survey applied the confidence level of 95% in the quantitative data. Taylor (2019) advised that, for results with a 95 percent level of confidence, the value of alpha is 0.05. That meant that p-values were tested against the standard alpha value of 0.05 and if the result was less than or equal to 0.05, there was a significant relationship between the variables, and the null hypothesis was rejected. However, if the results were greater than 0.05, there was no significant relationship between the two variables, and the null hypothesis was accepted (Taylor, 2019).

Table 4.5 Cross-tabulation results between sex, location, and education level against ‘lived poverty’

Lived poverty indicators	Sex	Location	Education level
Gone without cash income	.171	.007	.004
Gone without enough food	.017	.000	.000
Gone without enough water	.030	.004	.070
Gone without enough fuel	.080	.000	.034
Gone without medical care	.003	.101	.000

Source: Afrobarometer round 8 survey

The first observation from Table 4.5 above was that there was a significant relationship between the sex of the respondents and three ‘lived poverty’ indicators being gone without enough food, enough water, and medical care as the p-values were 0.017, 0.03 and 0.003 respectively which were all less than 0.05, therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. Also, it was observed that for two ‘lived poverty’ indicators (gone without cash income and gone without enough cooking fuel) and sex, the chi-square p-values were greater than 0.05 at 0.171 and 0.80 respectively hence the null hypothesis was accepted as there was no significant relationship between sex of the respondents and whether they have gone without cash income or gone without enough fuel.

As quantitative data showed that there was a relationship between sex and ‘lived poverty’ without indicating which kind of association, the qualitative data in this study revealed that females were the ones experiencing food insecurity among other components of ‘lived poverty’ than males. The explanation provided for the inequality was that females in Lesotho do not own that much as mentioned by (KI2) that females do not own much production factors such as land and livestock. These findings testified to the literature which argued that poverty is experienced more by females than males in Lesotho (Ch et al., 2020; LBS, 2016).

Secondly, the chi-square test results between the location of respondents and five ‘lived poverty’ indicators from Table 4.5 showed a significant relationship between location and having gone without cash income (0.007), enough food (0.000), enough water (0.004), and enough fuel

(0.000). That meant that the null hypothesis was rejected. The chi-square test results for location and ‘having gone without medical care’ (0.101) were greater than 0.05 and showed that there was no significant relationship between the location of the respondents and having gone without medical care in the past year hence the null hypothesis was accepted.

Once again, quantitative data showed that there was an association between ‘lived poverty’ and location, the qualitative data confirmed the existence of that association as WFP showed that its program to alleviate poverty was implemented in the rural communities of Mafeteng, Mohale’s Hoek and Quthing district due to high poverty rates in them. KI2 shared the same sentiments as she mentioned that the project operated in Mafeteng, Mohale’s Hoek and Quthing because the assessments showed that those three districts were the ones prone to climate change effects such as drought and always had high numbers of food insecure population. Similarly, the respondents in the rural areas of Mafeteng confirmed that as (P1) argued that it is too desert in their area and the soil is not good for plantation. These findings confirmed the literature on the nature of poverty in Lesotho which argued that poverty in Lesotho is mainly concentrated in rural areas (Ch et al., 2020).

Thirdly, the chi-square tests were run to show a relationship between the educational level of individuals and ‘lived poverty’ as shown in Table 4.5 above. The results showed that there was a significant relationship between educational level and the chances of respondents having gone without enough cash income, enough food, enough cooking fuel, and medical care as the p-values were 0.004, 0.000, 0.34 and 0.000 respectively which were smaller than the 0.05 alpha value. Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. However, there was no significant relationship between educational level and chances of having gone without enough water as the p-value (0.07) was greater than 0.05 alpha value, hence accepting the null hypothesis. The findings of this study revealed that ‘lived poverty’ was associated with low educational levels as most WFP project beneficiaries have low levels of education. That was supported by (KI2) who mentioned that majority of WFP project beneficiaries have not gone beyond secondary education even though there were still graduates in the beneficiary lists.

4.4 Chapter Summary

The chapter presented the findings of both the quantitative and qualitative data sets. Quantitative data showed that the most prevalent ‘lived poverty’ components were income poverty, water

scarcity, and food insecurity. As shown in the chapter, qualitative data provided explanation for the reasons behind the extent of some 'lived poverty' components which included lack of employment opportunities and climate change. The chapter also showed that 'lived poverty' was more prevalent in rural areas and amongst females than males. One of the reasons that causes females to be experiencing poverty more than the male counterparts as shown in this chapter was that females did not own means of production. Furthermore, this chapter showed that to cope with 'lived poverty', participants sought financial assistance from other community members as well as rationing their food amongst family members.

Chapter 5: Summary of Key findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations

5.0 Introduction

The chapter shows the summary of key findings of the study, the conclusions drawn from the results and provide some recommendations. The chapter furthermore entails the limitations of the study.

5.1 Summary of key findings

The study firstly found that the extent of ‘lived poverty’ was huge in Lesotho showing that the most rampant forms of ‘lived poverty’ were income poverty, water insecurity, and food insecurity. That was evident in quantitative data as the majority of respondents showed that they had experienced cash income poverty more than any other form of ‘lived poverty’. The qualitative data explained that one of the reasons for the huge extent of income poverty was the high unemployment rate.

Secondly, the study found that there was an association between ‘lived poverty’ and socio-demographic variables (location and sex). Quantitative data showed that poverty in Lesotho was experienced more by females than their male counterparts. The qualitative data provided an explanation that females were likely to suffer ‘lived poverty’ more than males because they lacked production resources. These findings also confirmed the findings on the distribution of poverty in terms of sex in Lesotho (Ch et al., 2020).

Thirdly, the study observed that there were some coping mechanisms put in place by households to survive ‘lived poverty’. That was revealed by the qualitative data which showed that among others, to survive income poverty, households borrow money from their neighbours.

Fourth and lastly, the study revealed that the CCT programme contributed a lot to alleviating ‘lived poverty’ as the project capacitated the beneficiaries in food preservation in a quest to fight food insecurity. That was confirmed by (P3) who mentioned they can the beans and even dry the grapes that they grow in their gardens.

5.2 Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent of ‘lived poverty’ as well as to assess the contribution of CCT to alleviating it. Based on the findings, the study concludes that the most

rampant forms of ‘lived poverty’ in Lesotho are cash income poverty, water security, and food insecurity in that order.

The study further concludes that to a large extent, there was a significant association between ‘lived poverty’ and socio-demographic variables as most variables were statistically associated with lived poverty.

The last conclusion is that the CCT program helps to alleviate two forms of ‘lived poverty’ (cash income and food insecurity) in Qibing. This is because the stipends given to the beneficiaries help them to purchase their household needs. The CCT program also capacitated the beneficiaries in food preservation skills hence it confirmed the capability theoretical framework as shown in the literature (Alkire 2002).

5.3 Recommendations

The first recommendation is that the government and development partners should target mostly females in rural areas in their poverty alleviation projects as they were the most affected sex.

NGOs should take a blanket approach in their developmental projects so that they can cover a wide range of community problems in a single project. This is because the CCT project addressed only income poverty and food insecurity and neglected other challenges of the community such as water scarcity.

5.4 Limitations of the study

Firstly, the qualitative data of this study was collected only in one district Mafeteng in Qibing council whereas the quantitative data was a nationwide survey. The findings of this study may not reflect a true picture of the whole survey as Mafeteng made only 9% of the sample in the survey.

Secondly, the qualitative data of this study was only collected in one area (rural) as WFP’s CCT project was active only in rural communities of Mafeteng whereas the quantitative data was collected in all three locations therefore the results of this study may be biased towards one area.

References

- Adusah-Poku, F., & Takeuchi, K. (2019). *Energy poverty in Ghana: Any progress so far?* Kobe University Repository: Kernel. 10.1016/j.rser.2019.06.038
- Advison Lesotho. (2020). *Summary of Results: Afrobarometer Round 8 Survey in Lesotho*. afrobarometer.org. Retrieved December 14, 2022, from https://www.afrobarometer.org/wp-content/uploads/2022/02/afrobarometer_sor_les_r8_en_2020-07-24.pdf
- Afrobarometer. (2021). *Afrobarometer SDG Scorecard: Lesotho*. afrobarometer.org. Retrieved December 14, 2022, from https://www.afrobarometer.org/wp-content/uploads/2022/02/lesotho_sdg_scorecard_2021-afrobarometer-19may21_1.pdf
- Ahmed, N., Davia, S., Findley, S., Frederix, K., Gummerson, E., Longwe, H., Low, A., Manyau, S., McCracken, S., Radin, E., Scwitters, A., & Parekh, B. (2019). Association Between Severe Drought and HIV Prevention and Care Behaviors in Lesotho: A Population-based Survey 2016–2017. *Plos Medicine*, 16(1). 10.1371/journal.pmed.1002727
- Alcántara, A., & Vogel, C. (2021, July 5). *Rising Housing Costs and Income Poverty Among the Elderly in Germany*. www.researchgate.net. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/352994816_Rising_housing_costs_and_income_poverty_among_the_elderly_in_Germany
- Alkire, S. (2002). Dimensions of Human Development. *World Development*, 30(2), 181–205. <https://www.scribd.com/document/207213745/Alkire-2002#>
- Amuguni, H., Dam, A., Mutuyimana, M., Nduwayezu, R., Runanira, D., & Schurer, J. (2022, February 17). “*At the Hospital They Do Not Treat Venom from Snakebites*”: A Qualitative Assessment of Health Seeking Perspectives and Experiences Among Snakebite Victims in Rwanda. sciencedirectassets.com. <https://pdf.sciencedirectassets.com/320460/1-s2.0-S2590171022X00039/1-s2.0-S259017102200108/main.pdf?X-Amz-Security-Token=IQoJb3JpZ2luX2VjEFAaCXVzLWVhc3QtMSJHMEUCIHQzqHlqQKZ1Yw%2F5yJgiyiHepDKk0Gthax3UKbTbVZTmAiEAnpMN5nbw%2FCvjonH%2BeQ3cx7JbqN%2FnejCXgkLT>

Andom, A., Fejfar, D., Yuen, C., Ndayizigiye, M., Mugunga, J., & Mukherjee, J. (n.d.). The Impact of COVID-19 on Tuberculosis Program Performance in the Kingdom of Lesotho. *Tropical Medicine and Infectious Disease*, 8(3). 10.3390/tropicalmed8030165

Attanasio, O., & Mesnard, A. (n.d.). *The Impact of a Conditional Cash Transfer Programme on Consumption in Colombia*. Centre for the Evaluation of Development Policies. [https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/40369890/The_Impact_of_a_Conditional_Cash_Transfe20151125-27207-1p47m2p-libre.pdf?1448467555=&response-content-disposition=inline%3B+file+name%3DThe_Impact_of_a_Conditional_Cash_Transfe.pdf&Expires=1690975365&Signature=](https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/40369890/The_Impact_of_a_Conditional_Cash_Transfe20151125-27207-1p47m2p-libre.pdf?1448467555=&response-content-disposition=inline%3B+file+name%3DThe_Impact_of_a_Conditional_Cash_Transfe.pdf&Expires=1690975365&Signature=Avila, P. (2012). On the Evaluation of Conditional Cash Transfer Programs. Columbia University. 10.7916/D80Z79FW)

Avila, P. (2012). *On the Evaluation of Conditional Cash Transfer Programs*. Columbia University. 10.7916/D80Z79FW

Awan, M., Malik, N., Sarwar, H., & Waqas, M. (2011). Impact of Education on Poverty Reduction. *International Journal of Academic Research*, 3(1), 658-664. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/215442733_Impact_of_education_on_poverty_reduction/link/08a3afbddd755923cd10bce19/download

Bamidele, I., Elumah, L., & Yinusa, O. (2018). Workability of Conditional Cash Transfer Programme in Nigeria. *American Review of Political Economy*, 12(1), 1-18. 10.38024/arpe.148

Becker, P., & Schlamovitz, J. (2021). Differentiated Vulnerabilities and Capacities for Adaptation to Water Shortage in Gaborone, Botswana. *International Journal of Water Resources Development*, 37(2), 278-299. 10.1080/07900627.2020.1756752

Bednar, D., & Reames, T. (2020). Recognition of and Response to Energy Poverty in the United States. *Nature Energy*, 5(6), 432-439. <https://www.nature.com/articles/s41560-020-0582-0#citeas>

Bello, H., Letete, M., Rapapa, M., & Chokobane, L. (2008). An Evaluation of the Poverty Reduction Impact of the Non-Contributory Old Age Pension Programme in Lesotho: The Case of Manonyane. *Review of Southern African Studies*, 12(1&2), 76-106. <https://opendocs.ids.ac.uk/opendocs/bitstream/handle/20.500.12413/6401/H.Bello,%20M.Letete%20M.%20Rapapa%20and%20L.%20Chokobane.pdf>

Brewis, A., Workman, C., Wutich, A., Jepson, W., & Young, S. (2020). Household Water Insecurity is Strongly Associated with Food Insecurity: Evidence from 27 Sites in Low- and Middle-income Countries. *American Journal of Human Biology*, 32(1), e23309. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ajhb.23389>

The Cash Learning Partnership (CaLP). (2017, August 1). *Glossary of Cash Transfer Programme Terminology*. im-portal.org. Retrieved December 9, 2022, from <https://www.im-portal.org/help-library/glossary-of-cash-transfer-programming-ctp-terminology>

Ch, P., Machema, R., & Sakoane, N. (2020). Gender and Multidimensional Poverty in Lesotho. *Psychology and Education*, 57(9), 6522-6534. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/350884161_GENDER_AND_MULTIDIMENSIONAL_POVERTY_IN_LESOTHO/link/60b77e58a6fdcc476be1cb81/download

Chand, K., Choudhary, B., Akuraju, V., Dev, I., Anantha, K., Garg, K., Dixit, S., Kumar, S., Kumar, N., Ram, A., Sharma, P., Singh, P., & Singh, R. (2022). Impact of Soil and Water Conservation Measures on Farm Productivity and Income in the Semiarid Tropics of Bundelkhand, Central India. *Environmental Conservation*, 49(4), 263-271. 10.1017/S0376892922000352

Chen, C., & Pan, J. (2019). The Effect of the Health Poverty Alleviation Project on Financial Risk Protection for Rural Residents: Evidence from Chishui City, China. *International Journal for Equity in Health*, 18(79), 1-16. 10.1186/s12939-019-0982-6

Chen, Y., Xia, Q., & Wang, X. (2021). Consumption and Income Poverty in Rural China: 1995–2018. *Econpapers*, 29(4), 63-88. 10.1111/cwe.12383

Chikoko, W., Nyabeze, K., Zvokuomba, K., Mwapaura, K., & Mhizha, S. (2021). The Harmonized Social Cash Transfer Program in Zimbabwe: Achievements and Challenges. *Journal of Economics and Behavioural Studies*, 13(5), 12-21.: 10.22610/jebs.v13i5(J).3234

Clarke, V. (2012). Thematic Analysis. *APA Handbook of Research Methods in Psychology*, 2(1), 57-71. <https://doi.org/10.1037/13620-004>

Cresswell, J. (2023). *The Selection of a Research Approach*. SAGE Publications.

Cresswell, J., & Hirose, M. (2019). Mixed Methods and Survey Research in Family Medicine and Community Health. *Family Medicine and Community Health*, 7(2), 1-6. 10.1136/fmch-2018-000086

Creswell, J., Curry, L., & Fetters, M. (2013). Achieving Integration in Mixed Methods Designs-Principles and Practices. *Health Services Research*, 48(6), 2134-2156. 10.1111/1475-6773.12117

Declaro-Ruedas, M. (2019). Coping Strategies Adopted by Iraya-Mangyan Households During Food Insecurity in Abra Occidental Mindoro, Philippines. *Journal of Asian Rural Studies*, 3(1), 85-92.

Development Initiatives. (2019, July 10). *Closing the gap: priorities for the High-level Political Forum 2019*. devinit.org. Retrieved December 7, 2022, from <https://www.devinit.org/resources/closing-gap-priorities-high-level-political-forum-2019/>

Development Initiatives. (2021, November 10). *Poverty Trends: Global, Regional and National*. devinit.org. Retrieved December 7, 2022, from <https://www.devinit.org/resources/poverty-trends-global-regional-and-national/>

Devereux, S., & Mhlanga, M. (2008). *Cash Transfers in Lesotho: An evaluation of World Vision's Cash and Food Transfers Pilot Project*. Mhlanga Consultancy Services. <https://www.calpnetwork.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/01/cashtransfers-lesothowvi-evaluation.pdf>

Drennen, C., Coleman, S., de Cuba, S., Frank, D., Chilton, M., Cook, J., Cutts, D., Heeren, T., Casey, P., & Black, M. (2019). Food Insecurity, Health, and Development in Children Under Age Four Years. *Pediatrics*, 144(4), 1-11. https://watermark.silverchair.com/peds_20190824.pdf?token=AQECAHi208BE49Ooan9kKhW_Ercy7Dm3ZL_9Cf3qfKAc485ysgAAAYkwggMIBgkqhkiG9w0BBwagggMWMIIDEgIBADCCAwsGCSqGSib3DQEHATAeBglghkgBZQMEAS4wEQQMLTNbY9X5MdjmTKkkAgEQgIIC3BNXaF4JPeYVXOy7W5V61Ht1IR9kAACabgO8kI9leu

Eager, D., Jardine, T., Mohasoa, L., Molapo, T., Mothala, M., Mpholo, M., & Thamae, R. (2021). Lesotho electricity demand profile from 2010 to 2030. *Journal of Energy in Southern Africa*, 32(1), 41-57. : <https://dx.doi.org/10.17159/2413-3051/2021/v32i1a7792>

Elumah, L., Bamidele, I., & Yinusa, O. (2018). *Workability of Conditional Cash Transfer Program in Nigeria*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/329454243_Workability_of_Conditional_Cash_Transfer_Programme_in_Nigeria?enrichId=rgreq-82f63c63b22c2d9228230b5c3035c53d-XXX&enrichSource=Y292ZXJQYWdlOzMyOTQ1NDI0MztBUzoxMDM1MTcyNzQwODU3ODU2QDE2MjM4MTU4MjZlZnZl%3D&el=

Fetters, M., Curry, L., & Creswell, J. (2013). Achieving Integration in Mixed Methods Designs—Principles and Practices. *Health Services Research*, 48(6), 2134-2156. 10.1111/1475-6773.12117

Follett, L., & Henderson, H. (2020). *Cash and Capabilities*. Drake University. <https://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3578825>

Freeman, A., Kaitibie, S., Moyo, S., & Perry, B. (2008). *Livestock, Livelihoods and Vulnerability in Lesotho, Malawi and Zambia: Designing Livestock Interventions for Emergency Situations*. International Livestock Research Institute. <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/132631021.pdf>

Government of Lesotho (GoL). (2018). *National Strategic Development Plan 2018/19 to 2022/23*. Government of Lesotho. <https://www.gov.ls/wp-content/uploads/2021/06/National-Strategic-Development-Plan-II-2018-19-2022-23.pdf>

Graaf, P., Nkonyana, J., & Ntene, P. (2019, August 28). *Lesotho Compact - Health Sector: Final Analysis Report*. Millennium Challenge Corporation Lesotho Compact. Retrieved June 17, 2023, from <https://mcc.icpsr.umich.edu/evaluations/index.php/catalog/1640/versions/V2>

Heale, R., & Twycross, A. (2015). Validity and reliability in quantitative studies. *Evid Based Nurs*, 18(3), 66-67. 10.1136/eb-2015-102129

Hoddinott, J., Skoufias, E., & Washburn, R. (2000). *The Impact of Progresa on Consumption: A Final Report*. International Food Policy Research Institute. <https://ageconsearch.umn.edu/record/16023/files/mi00ho02.pdf>

Jaiyeola, A., & Bayat, A. (2019, November 14). *Status of Living Standards in Nigeria Between 2010 and 2013*. www.researchgate.net. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/337276754_Status_of_Living_Standards_in_Nigeria_between_2010_and_2013/link/5dcfae364585156b35165012/download

Kakwani, N., Soares, F., & Son, H. (2005). *Conditional Cash Transfers in African Countries*. United Nations Development Programme: International Poverty Centre. https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/66517196/CONDITIONAL_CASH_TRANSFERS_IN_AFRICAN_CO20210422-27596-1x4vd1d.pdf?1619081136=&response-content-disposition=inline%3B+filename%3DConditional_cash_transfers_in_African_co.pdf&Expires=1690290943&Signature=P07WSr

- Kivunja, C., & Kuyini, A. (2017). Understanding and Applying Research Paradigms in Educational Contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(5), 26-41. :10.5430/ijhe.v6n5p26
- Leedy, P., & Ormrod, J. (2015). *Practical Research: Planning and Design* (11th ed.). Pearson. Practical Research_ Planning and Design, 11th Edition (PDF Drive).pdf drive
- Lemon, L., & Hayes, J. (2020). Enhancing Trustworthiness of Qualitative Findings: Using Leximancer for Qualitative Data Analysis Triangulation Lexim. *The Qualitative Report*, 25(3), 604-614. <https://core.ac.uk/reader/288159890>
- Lesotho Bureau of Statistics (LBS). (2016). *2016 Population and Housing Census: Summary of Key Findings*. Lesotho Bureau of Statistics. <https://catalog.ihsn.org/catalog/8293/related-materials>
- Lesotho Vulnerability Assessment Committee (LVAC). (2017). *Vulnerability Assessment and Analysis Report*. Lesotho Vulnerability Assessment Committee. https://www.humanitarianresponse.info/sites/www.humanitarianresponse.info/files/documents/files/lvac_2017_assessment_report_final.pdf
- Liu, J., Jain, V., Sharma, P., Ali, S., Shabbir, M., & Ramos-Meza, C. (2022, July 6). *The Role of Sustainable Development Goals to Eradicate the Multidimensional Energy Poverty and Improve Social Wellbeing's*. pdf.sciencedirectassets.com. <https://pdf.sciencedirectassets.com/280851/1-s2.0-S2211467X21X00107/1-s2.0-S2211467X22000839/main.pdf?X-Amz-Security-Token=IQoJb3JpZ2luX2VjEHsaCXVzLWVhc3QtMSJGMEQCIFtPlWe5z7FEwQO3xGmRBT%2BogvDxVdQJk6UIRJPwWaATAiAcab2qI5%2BBBILUVyrJlQIM42mVUPEp%2BrEFNnWxbXT>
- Lokot, M. (2021). Whose Voices? Whose Knowledge? A Feminist Analysis of the Value of Key Informant Interviews. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 20(1), 1-8. 10.1177/1609406920948775
- Long, M., Gonçalves, L., Stretesky, P., & Defeyter, M. (2020). Food Insecurity in Advanced Capitalist Nations: A Review. *Sustainability*, 12(9), 1-19. <https://www.mdpi.com/2071-1050/12/9/3654>
- Longe, O. (2021). An Assessment of the Energy Poverty and Gender Nexus towards Clean Energy Adoption in Rural South Africa. *MDPI*, 14(12), 1-21. <https://www.mdpi.com/1996-1073/14/12/3708#>

- Mafeteng District Council. (2008). *Local Government District Information Handbook: A Compilation of Crucial Information for the District (Disaggregated Council-wise)*. Global Print. <https://www.giz.de/en/downloads/en-lesotho-district-information-handbook-mafeteng.pdf>
- Marchal, B., Onwuchekwa, C., & Verdonck, K. (2021). *Systematic Review on the Impact of Conditional Cash Transfers on Child Health Service Utilisation and Child Health in Sub-Saharan Africa*. www.frontiersin.org. <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpubh.2021.643621/full>
- Mat'saba-Makoa, M. (2022). *The Social and Economic Impact of COVID-19 on Small and Medium Enterprises in Lesotho: The Case of Retail and Trading Enterprises in Teya-teyaneng Town*. National University of Lesotho. 20.500.14155/1744
- Mattes, R. (2020, March 03). *PP62: Lived poverty on the Rise: Decade of Living-Standard Gains Ends in Africa*. afrobarometer.org. Retrieved February 03, 2023, from <https://www.afrobarometer.org/publication/pp62-lived-poverty-rise-decade-living-standard-gains-ends-africa/>
- Mikulewicz, M. (2021). Disintegrating labour relations and depoliticised adaptation to climate change in rural São Tomé and Príncipe. *Geographies of Labour in a Changing Climate*, 53(3), 422-430. 10.1111/area.12630
- Miller, J., Frongillo, E., Weke, E., Burger, R., Wekesa, P., Sheira, L., Mocello, R., Bukusi, E., Otieno, P., Cohen, C., Weiser, S., & Young, S. (2021). Household Water and Food Insecurity Are Positively Associated with Poor Mental and Physical Health among Adults Living with HIV in Western Kenya. *The Journal of Nutrition*, 151(6), 1656–1664. 10.1093/jn/nxab030
- Morse, J., Barrett, M., Mayan, M., Olson, K., & Spiers, J. (2002). Verification Strategies for Establishing Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 1(2), 13-22.
- Mpholo, M., Kukeera, T., & Steuerwald, D. (2018). *Africa-EU Renewable Energy Research and Innovation Symposium 2018 (RERIS 2018)*. Springer. 10.1007/978-3-319-93438-9_8
- Ndlanzi, S. (2021). *Challenges affecting e-Health adoption in South African public hospitals: A case of Edendale hospital*. University of Kwa-Zulu Natal. researchspace.ukzn.ac.za/handle/10413/19540

Nikolopoulou, K. (2022, August 9). *What Is Convenience Sampling? | Definition & Examples*. scribbr.com. Retrieved December 7, 2022, from <https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/convenience-sampling/>

Nikolopoulou, K. (2022, August 11). *What Is Purposive Sampling? | Definition & Examples*. scribbr.com. Retrieved December 7, 2022, from <https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/purposive-sampling/>

Nounkeu, C., & Dharod, J. (2019). Status on the Scale Development to Measure Water Insecurity Experiences at the Household Level: A Narrative Review. *Advances in Nutrition*, 10(5), 864–875. <https://academic.oup.com/advances/article/10/5/864/5484787>

Nthunya, E. (2007). *Findings of a Survey on the Acceptance of a Heat Retention Device in Lesotho*. National University of Lesotho. <https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/document?repid=rep1&type=pdf&doi=263fa3958a4feb26720103086aa634f379a95b76>

Onwuchekwa, C., Verdonck, K., & Marchal, B. (2021, July 14). *Systematic Review on the Impact of Conditional Cash Transfers on Child Health Service Utilisation and Child Health in Sub-Saharan Africa*. pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov. Retrieved December 9, 2022, from <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/34336755/>

Oosterlaken, I. (2009). Design for Development: A Capability Approach. *Massachusetts Institute of Technology Design Issues*, 25(4), 91-102. Y2xquflYTCiOI_YLVQuzj3luHH1AdfKYtKjioTckjD_NniScQy5at1CtU_f5jKXzCY_alKX7Y2oDMMxBJaBMx_CnnOzoFBbKxM7sog

Parveen, H., & Showkat, N. (2007). *Data Collection*. e-PG Pathshala. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/319128325_Data_Collection

Paslakis, G., Dimitropoulos, G., & Katzman, D. (2021). A Call to Action to Address COVID-19-Induced Global Food Insecurity to Prevent Hunger, Malnutrition, and Eating Pathology. *National Library of Medicine*, 79(1), 114-116. 10.1093/nutrit/nuaa069.

Peltz, A., & Garg, A. (2019). Food Insecurity and Health Care Use. *Pediatrics*, 144(4), 1-8. 10.1542/peds.2019-0347

Peters, D., Garg, A., Bloom, G., Walker, D., Brieger, W., & Rahman, H. (2008). *Poverty and Access to Health Care in Developing Countries*. New York Academy of Sciences. <https://nyaspubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/epdf/10.1196/annals.1425.011>

Rahi, S. (2017). Research Design and Methods: A Systematic Review of Research Paradigms, Sampling Issues and Instruments Development. *International Journal of Economics & Management Sciences*, 6(2), 1-5. 10.4172/2162-6359.1000403

Robeyns, I. (2019). *The Capability Approach*. Routledge. https://www.academia.edu/41362525/Capability_approach

Schurer, J., Dam, A., Mutuyimana, M., Runanira, D., Nduwayezu, R., & Amuguni, H. (2022, February 24). “At the Hospital They Do Not Treat Venom from Snakebites”: A Qualitative Assessment of Health Seeking Perspectives and Experiences Among Snakebite Victims in Rwanda. *Toxicon*. Toxicon: X 14 (2022) 100100

Seliane, M. (2022). *The Impacts of Covid-19 on Household Food Security for Remittance Recipients as Livelihood Source of Income in Lesotho; The case of Lilala Community o*. National University of Lesotho.

Set'sabi, S. (2022). *Environment and Poverty*. National University of Lesotho.

Shahid, M., Ahmed, F., Cao, Y., Qureshi, M., Zia, S., Fatima, S., & Guo, J. (2021). A Qualitative Exploration in Causes of Water Insecurity Experiences, and Gender and Nutritional Consequences in South-Punjab, Pakistan. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 18(23), 1-14. 10.3390/ijerph182312534

Siena, J. (2015). *The Effect of Conditional Cash Transfer Program on the Livelihood Assets of the Low-income Household Recipients in the Province of Apayao, Philippines: The Case of Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program (4Ps)*. Erasmus University Thesis Repository. <https://thesis.eur.nl/pub/33844/>

Skodjereite, H. (2021). *Evaluating Water Allocation Within the Water-Energy-Food Nexus in the Lowlands of Lesotho*. Norwegian University of Science and Technology. 11250/2788541

Sokołowski, J., Lewandowski, P., Kielczewska, A., & Bouzarovski, S. (2020). A Multidimensional Index to Measure Energy Poverty: the Polish Case. *Energy Sources, Part B: Economics, Planning, and Policy*, 15(2), 92-112. 0.1080/15567249.2020.1742817

Szabó, S., Pascua, I., Puig, D., Moner-Girona, M., Negre, M., Huld, T., Mulugetta, Y., Kougias, ., I., Szabó, L., & Kammen, D. (2021). *Mapping of affordability levels for photovoltaic-based electricity generation in the solar belt of sub-Saharan Africa, East Asia and South Asia*. www.nature.com. <https://www.nature.com/articles/s41598-021-82638-x#citeas>

Taylor, C. (2019, April 29). *What Is the Difference Between Alpha and P-Values?* ThoughtCo. <https://www.thoughtco.com/the-difference-between-alpha-and-p-values-3126420>

Thebe, V., & Rakotje, M. (2013). Land Strategies and Livelihood Dynamics in Peri-urban Communities: Challenges to Land and Agricultural Policy in Lesotho. *African Studies*, 72(3), 399-415. DOI: 10.1080/00020184.2013.851468

Thin, K., Frederix, K., McCracken, S., Letsie, M., Low, A., Patel, H., Parekh, B., Motsokane, T., Ahmed, N., Justman, J., Callaghan, L., Tembo, S., & Schwitters, A. (2023). Progress toward HIV Epidemic Control in Lesotho. *PMC*, 33(15), 2393–2401.

Tlali, L., & 'Musi, M. (2021). Gender Equality and Empowerment through Corporate Social Responsibility in Ecotourism at Malealea, Lesotho: A Qualitative Study. *Athens Journal of Tourism*, 8(4), 247-268. 10.30958/ajt.8-4-3

United States Census Bureau. (2020, November 16). *Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Poverty Rates Projected to Widen in 2020*. nlihc.org. <https://nlihc.org/resource/racial-and-ethnic-disparities-poverty-rates-projected-widen-2020>

Wagstaff, A. (2002). Poverty and Health Sector Inequalities. *Policy and Practice*, 80(2), 97-105. <https://www.scielosp.org/pdf/bwho/2002.v80n2/97-105/en>

WFP. (2014, March 5). *Cash for Assets Changes Lives in Lesotho*. wfp.org. Retrieved December 10, 2022, from <https://www.wfp.org/videos/cash-assets-changes-lives-lesotho>

WFP. (2022, October 6). *Lesotho, Asset Creation and Public Works Activities: Evaluation*. wfp.org. Retrieved December 7, 2022, from <https://www.wfp.org/publications/lesotho-asset-creation-and-public-works-evaluation>

World Bank. (2019, December 18). *Lesotho Poverty Assessment: Poverty and Inequality Remain Widespread Despite Decline*. worldbank.org. Retrieved December 7, 2022, from <https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/lesotho/publication/lesotho-poverty-assessment-poverty-and-inequality-remain-widespread-despite-decline>

World Bank & Bureau of Statistics. (2019). *Lesotho Poverty assessment: Progress and Challenges in Reducing Poverty*. The World Bank. <https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/387071576240590486/pdf/Lesotho-Poverty-Assessment-Progress-and-Challenges-in-Reducing-Poverty.pdf>

Young, S., Bethancourt, H., Ritter, Z., & Frongillo, E. (2022). Estimating National, Demographic, and Socioeconomic Disparities in Water Insecurity Experiences in Low-income

and Middle-income Countries in 2020–21: A Cross-sectional, Observational Study Using Nationally Representative Survey Data. *The Lancet Planetary Health*, 6(11), E880-E891. [https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanplh/article/PIIS2542-5196\(22\)00241-8/fulltext](https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanplh/article/PIIS2542-5196(22)00241-8/fulltext)