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**SOCIAL PROTECTION AS A MECHANISM FOR PROMOTING
THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION FOR VULNERABLE CHILDREN IN MWENEZI
DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE**

BY

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION**

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Social protection has been introduced against the backdrop of fears that many children were not able to access their right to education. However, there have been raging debates on whether the mechanism really works to effectively support the right to education of these children. It is on the backdrop of such debates that the study was undertaken, to find out if social protection was effectively being implemented to support the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe. Given the nature of variables and research questions, the study was located within the pragmatic paradigm. A mixed-method approach and concurrent triangulation approach to closely examine the issues under study was adopted. A combination of stratified random sampling and purposive sampling approaches were used to identify the subject for the study. Data were then collected from various respondents that were considered knowledgeable about the issues under discussion. These included district level officials from Ministry of Primary Education, Ministry of Labour and Social Services, District Administrator, Chief Executive Officer as well as Civil Society Organisations. Also included as sample of the study were school heads, teachers, children and community groups. Face to face interviews, Focus Group Discussions and a survey teacher questionnaire were used to solicit the data.

The study confirmed the multi-dimension nature of vulnerabilities that children in Mwenezi district were facing. Meanwhile, various social protection programmes that were seeking to address the issues of child vulnerabilities were found to be in place. Providers ranged from Government, Civil Society and private players (individuals or companies). Of significance were good practices in some communities even though these communities were not aware that they were making positive contributions to the enhancement of educational opportunities. Though, these programmes were on the ground and functional, it was their management that became the focus of much scrutiny. The programmes and their management were indeed making a contribution to enhance children's right to education. However, there were areas that required improvement in order to raise their contribution to higher levels. The results further revealed that there was need to embrace a broader spectrum of participants, including communities and children. The institutional arrangements were also noted as requiring

review to inject urgency and efficiency. Also recommended was the enhancement of awareness, training and networking activities by implementers, while the Government system should not involve more players but improve the systems that place children at the centre. An alternative model for social protection delivery was recommended for consideration.



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DECLARATION

I hereby solemnly declare that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis entitled “Social protection as a mechanism for promoting the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi District, Zimbabwe” is my original work and not submitted in any other institution of Higher Learning for the award of any degree or qualification. Where I have used information from the published or unpublished work of other scholars, I have acknowledged such sources in both the text and list of references.

Signature



Date

10 June 2019



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DECLARATION ON PLAGIARISM

I, Sibangani Shumba, student number 201703815 hereby declare that I am fully aware of the University of Fort Hare's policy on plagiarism and I have taken every precaution to comply with the regulations.

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DECLARATION ON RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my parents Luke Shumba, Tendai Shumba and my Swedish mother Signe Frostin. It is also dedicated to my wife Dr. Jenny Shumba, my children, grandchildren and siblings.



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ACRONYMS

CADE:	Convention against Discrimination in Education
CCW:	Community Care Worker
CESCR:	Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
CSC:	Community Selection Committee
CSO:	Civil Society Organisation
DA:	District Administrator
DSWO:	District Social Welfare Officer
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
HRBA:	Human Rights Based Approach
ICESCR:	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
MT:	Means testing
NSPPF:	National Social Protection Policy Framework
NSPSC:	National Social Protection Steering Committee
NGO:	Non-Governmental Organisation
PMT:	Proxy-means testing
PSS:	Psychosocial Support
SADC:	Southern African development Community
SSPEC:	Social Services and Poverty Eradication Cluster
TWG:	Technical Working Groups
UDHR:	Universal Declaration for Human Rights
UNCRC:	United Nations Convention on the Right of the Child
VHW:	Village Health Worker

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CHAPTER ONE

1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Every citizen across the globe is entitled to enjoy basic human rights, including the right to education (United Nations, 2015). However, reality shows that due to different circumstances, not all people enjoy such rights. When access and participation in education is under threat, duty bearers go out of their way, including invoking social protection measures in defence of that right (Sepúlveda & Nyst, 2012). Defined as measures that seek to confront poverty and other vulnerability barriers that stand in the way, social protection is seen as a possible solution, outside other legislative provisions, for upholding the right to education (Concern Worldwide, 2011; Tomasevski, 2001). Debates continue to rage as to whether social protection does, and should, have space to address specific rights such as those of education. In response to these debates, this study sought to examine whether, and to what extent, social protection mechanism provides answers for the education needs of vulnerable children in Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe. This chapter provides context to the study and covers background to the study, statement of the problem, research questions, purpose of the study, significance of the study, delimitations of the study, limitations of the study, definition of key terms as well as chapter outlines.

1.2 Contextualising social protection

The importance of education has been and continues to be the subject of much scholarly debate. It can prevent poverty from passing from one generation to another (Kulild, 2014; UNESCO; 2001). When education is interrupted, children's lives are endangered (Tomasevski, 2001).

There have been further arguments on the importance of education in the life of every citizen. Due to its multiplier effect, it empowers those who receive it to exercise their economic, social and cultural rights (such as the right to work and the right to food), civil and political rights (such as the right to vote and the right to free speech) and that it has a major role in improving one's self-esteem and facilitating social mobility (De Berco, 2014).

Given its importance, United Nations duly declared education as a human right and all member states signed up to the commitment to see to the protection and upholding of that right. Since then, the right to education has been enshrined in other global and regional human rights treaties and as a consequence, most countries are making efforts to include its provisions into national legislation. However, notwithstanding these legal commitments, reality shows that the right to education is not universally enjoyed. According to UNESCO (2015: i): *"There has been tremendous progress across the world since 2000 – but we are not there yet"*. Often, poverty and vulnerability are major barriers that stand in the way (Holmes, 2004). Realising the inadequacy of generic legislative efforts, a popular attempt at a solution for states and governments has been to take the social protection route, the purpose of which is to confront the poverty and vulnerability barriers that prevent enjoyment of the right to education for children.

Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2004: i) define social protection as:

all public and private initiatives that provide income or consumption transfers to the poor, protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks and enhance the social status and rights of the marginalised; with the overall objective of reducing the economic and social vulnerability of poor, vulnerable and marginalised groups.

Barrientos (2004), another prominent scholar, takes a more pedestrian approach to explaining social protection; suggesting that first, communities and households face multiple contingencies threatening their living standards, yet these families and communities have limited capacity to protect themselves against such contingencies. Second, such vulnerability often breeds poverty and deprivation; with the consequence that households resort to desperate measures that may include under-

investing in their future, taking children out of school, working in informal jobs, selling household assets and foregoing necessities such as medical care. In the face of such a scenario, social protection is seen as:

all interventions from public, private, voluntary organisations and social networks, to support communities, households, and individuals, in their efforts to prevent, manage, and overcome a defined set of risks and vulnerabilities ...the purpose of which is to strengthen the capacity of those communities, households and individuals to overcome their vulnerability, by protecting their living standards and promoting the investment needed for advancement (Barrientos, 2004:3).

The two definitions highlight three key tenets of social protection; firstly, it targets groups identified as already poor or vulnerable or at risk of falling into poverty and vulnerability; secondly, part of its purpose is to strengthen capacity of providers so as to prevent or reduce vulnerability; and thirdly, that there are multiple sources of social protection programmes. Barrientos' (2004) identifies these providers as including government agencies, civil society, the private sector, communities and households. Such diversity in providers has obvious benefits, especially against the backdrop of weakened government capacity.

What is noteworthy is that neither children nor education are explicitly referenced as part of the 'big social protection envelope', risking their exclusion when social protection programmes are implemented. If the right to education has to get the priority it deserves, some protagonists see it necessary to link it directly with poverty in order to define more targeted social protection interventions. Children and Young People Scrutiny Committee (2013), whose interest in the right to education discourse is trying to establish that link, have argued that lack of financial resources and income are only part of the story in the conception of poverty. It also embraces lack of material, cultural and social resources that affect aspirations, experiences and life opportunities of individuals. According to the committee:

Living in poverty creates material, social and personal barriers to attainment in school. Material barriers include a lack of educational resources at home, such as books, internet access, and a lack of money to pay for school trips and experiences. Social barriers include

a poor home learning environment, and low levels of parental education and support for education. Personal barriers include low self-esteem, lack of confidence, and a lack of social and emotional maturity. If these barriers can be addressed, there is no reason why young people can't achieve at school (Children and Young People Scrutiny Committee, 2013: 9).

Thus, the answers are partly financial and also bring in other social and personal dimensions over which schools cannot take full responsibility. A holistic approach that includes school level interventions as well as programmes which focus on parents and the wider community is required (Children and Young People Scrutiny Committee, 2013). Among others, these include counselling, provision of reading resources, family engagement events and other confidence-boosting initiatives.

1.2.1 Types of social protection

Social protection generally falls into the three areas. These include social transfers, social insurance and labour market interventions (Othniel, 2013). Each of these has characteristics that define the target, operational procedures and sources.



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1.2.1.1 Social transfers

Social transfers are the primary forms of social protection availed to individuals or households, and are often based on their vulnerability category (Arnold, Conway, & Greenslade, 2011). In many countries, these are state provided and can come in cash or in-kind and vulnerability is the main eligibility criterion. Some social transfers can be broadly targeted at low-income groups (Barrientos, 2010). Typical examples include **cash transfers** (conditional or unconditional), **social pensions** (usually targeted by age), **in-kind transfers** (economic and livelihood asset transfers to households). Unless attached to a requirement that the beneficiary meets certain conditions (such as ensuring school attendance), the challenge of the household targeted measures is the absence of guarantees that the benefits will trickle down to the child level. Given such circumstances, a more child-focussed type of assistance, such as school feeding

programmes are usually preferred. These can have direct effects of promoting enrolment and attendance (Norton, Conway, & Foster, 2001).

1.2.1.2 Social insurance

Social insurance are contributory programmes where participants make regular payments to cover costs related to life-course events such as maternity, unemployment or illness (Barrientos, 2010). Their contributory nature links social insurance programmes to the labour market and cover mostly formal workers (Norton et al., 2001). Typical examples include health insurance, unemployment insurance or disaster insurance. The connection with support to education is remote, and is only related in terms of ability of parent or guardian capability to continue bearing education costs in spite of loss of job or ill-health.

1.2.1.3 Labour market interventions



Labour market interventions are programmes that seek to provide protection for poor people who are able to work (Arnold et al., 2011). The most basic example is those that help the unemployed and the most vulnerable to find jobs. Training or policies to promote small and medium sized enterprises are typical examples of active labour market interventions. Meanwhile, interventions such as maternity benefits, injury compensation, and sickness for those that are already employed are often considered passive interventions (Barrientos, 2010). Whether labour market interventions are active or passive, the net effect is increase in disposable income which improves affordability, an enabling condition for accessing and utilising education services (Babajanian, Hagen-Zanker & Holmes, 2014). Thus, labour market interventions are indirectly related to education in that they support individuals who, in turn, can support education costs such as school fees or other education related costs.

1.2.2 Some reflections on social protection and education

Social protection has attracted views from both its supporters and critics. On a positive note, Holmes (2010) believes that most social protection programmes are good for

education since they address those concerns that act as barriers to universal education. Expressing a similar view is the World Bank (2004) that goes to great lengths to illustrate how social protection serves the needs of the education sector. On one hand, is the bank's argument that direct payments in cash or in kind have benefitted education programmes while, interventions such as school feeding have been known to stimulate enrolment and attendance. In addition, public works programmes, that come as social protection interventions have been used to create and maintain school infrastructure and/or roads that facilitate access to schools (World Bank, 2004). A study by Najy, Devoto, Duflo, Dupas and Pouliquen (2015) showed that small unconditional cash made to fathers of school-age children resulted in large gains in school participation. Just as these arguments were beginning to give hope for an important avenue towards right to education, others such as the European Parliament, argued that social protection outcomes had not quite matched the investments. They attributed this to concerns surrounding funding, design of programmes and targeting (Natali, 2013).

These apparent conflicting viewpoints bring questions to the discourse: were these arguments not foreseen when the idea of social protection was mooted and declared a human right? Is there value, from an educational perspective, of investing into social protection? By looking at social protection 'through the right to education lense', the study hopes to shed more light on the veracity of these contrasting perceptions. Studies, especially in Zimbabwe, have tended to focus on either education or social protection with little attention on their relationship. Thus, the study was undertaken with the hope of contributing towards filling this gap. The next section focuses on the background to this study.

1.3 The Social Protection Mechanism

Social protection has always been part and parcel of human life. However, its enjoyment of prominence and political support has been *"in the context of the development and poverty-reduction discourse"* (Sepulveda & Nyst, 2012:11) in the last few years. The following sections serve to illustrate its historical perspective, how widespread it has become and the more recent trends at the global, African and

Zimbabwean stages. The discussion touches on both generic as well as specific initiatives that target education.

1.3.1 The global perspective

Motivated by the need to provide protection against risk and assistance to the destitute, nations across the globe have come up with various forms of social protection programmes. Wealthy nations have been developing sophisticated institutional arrangements for that purpose (Norton, Conway and Foster, 2001). In the United Kingdom, the 1942 Beveridge Report recommended that basic social protection, from the “cradle to the grave”, should be the aim for every citizen in the post-1945 period (Field, 2012). However, the absence of specific reference to education appears to marginalise it (education) in social services provision. Analysts, however, suggest that provision for education would be inevitable, given that the school age population was on the “cradle to the grave” pathway. Separate developments show specific provisions being made for education.

The United States, on the other hand, crafted a robust legal framework that demonstrates the diversity of its social protection programmes. Among others, these include: Social Security Act, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act 1965 and the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act. These were meant to provide benefits to the elderly and persons with disabilities; federal assistance to high-poverty schools and access to health care coverage, respectively. Thus, the USA has both general and education-targeted social protection programmes whose implementation falls in the hands of numerous state and local institutions.

According to the European Report on Development (2010), the European Union (EU) has embraced the concept of Social Protection, with investment ranging from 12.4% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in Latvia to 31.5% in Sweden going into social protection programmes. This has seen millions of Europeans being able to weather their personal and collective crises. Social Protection is viewed not just as a right, but also an investment necessary for the success of the wider development approach by helping to combat poverty, reduce vulnerability to shocks and promote inclusive development and growth (European Report on Development, 2010). The European

Union did not omit the education sector with specific targeted policies in place. However, it appears much more needed to be done to convince the Director General of external Affairs, European Parliament (2013) that social protection was doing enough to match the investments.

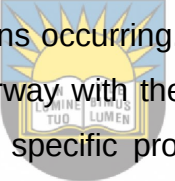
The Russian Social Protection system makes poor families with children their target (Sederlof; 2000). This response is motivated by changing economic and social circumstances that have witnessed increasing poverty levels. For instance, in Russia, as much as 12% of GDP is allocated to formal social protection that covers: labour pensions, unemployment compensation, family allowances, sickness and maternity benefits, and housing allowances (Sederlof; 2000). Conscious of the specific needs of young people, the Russian social protection system included separate education programmes to make it more child-sensitive and child-targeted.

Latin American Social Protection started as occupational schemes for public sector workers, the military and urban private sector workers in the early twentieth century. From the word go, it attracted major criticisms of excluding informal workers and the poor (Ferreira & Robalino, 2010). The mechanism then went through a phase of panic responses that brought about fragmented safety nets triggered by rising poverty, vulnerability and inequality that were coming from the economic crises of the 1980s. The programmes largely relied on external support. Much of Latin America today boasts of the much acclaimed conditional cash transfer programmes that have become the prevalent model of income support, albeit exhibiting diverse designs across member countries. While, these address poverty and vulnerability concerns, their relevance to supporting the right to education is the proviso that family members, usually children, meet certain conditions such as school attendance and health care use. Although the success of the programmes is well documented, teething implementation challenges that include targeting and monitoring issues remain (Soares, Osorio, Soares, Medeiros & Zepeda, 2009; Santos et al, 2011).

Not to be outdone by other regions, social protection in the East and South East Asia region has been historically characterised by a common reliance on family-based support. However, it should be noted that, a dominant model has not been possible because different countries, or groups of countries, follow different policy pathways (Barrientos & Hume, 2009). Inevitably, this has led to different responses with social

insurance being predominant in the economically stronger countries namely: Korea, Taiwan, Malaysia, Thailand and Singapore. Meanwhile, there has been a shift towards social assistance in Indonesia following the financial crisis of the late 1990s. The rapid economic transformation in China and Vietnam, on the other hand, influenced the direction of their social protection response (Barrientos and Hulme, 2009). For instance, through the Minimum Living Standards Scheme, urban China saw social assistance rapidly increasing at the expense of social insurance (Barrientos & Hulme, 2009; Golan, Sicular & Umaphathi (2014). At the same time, rural China was settling for the dominance of health protection schemes as well as a universal education assistance scheme that exempts poor families *“from paying tuition fees and related expenses and they are also entitled to free textbooks and subsidised boarding”* (Zhu, 2012:49).

From the foregoing, vulnerability runs through as an underlying concern, even in the context of developed countries. In their case, the major preoccupation is with the prevention of vulnerability situations occurring. Thus, it may be inferred that broader social protection efforts are underway with the education component either silent or absent. However, there are also specific programmes with a focus on education. Whatever form social protection takes, the key question is whether education rights are sufficiently promoted.



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While Social Protection efforts are underway with vulnerability (potential or real) as the underlying concern, a major criticism of global social protection efforts is its fragmented nature, coupled with silence over its direct education focus. The launch of the Social Protection Floor (SPF) initiative (SPI), which outlines a set of basic social rights, services and facilities that each and every citizen in the world should enjoy, is considered a progressive move towards the solution (International Labour Organisation, 2014; Nyenti & Mpedi, 2012). However, ILO acknowledges that the fundamental human right to social security remains unfulfilled for the large majority of the world's population. A study on Social Protection as a Mechanism for protecting the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district was necessary not only to understand it better but also as part of the process of seeking solutions.

1.3.2 The African Context

Social protection in Africa has a historical dimension that has been characterised by informal systems of mutual support, which, for centuries, have been central pillars of family and community life within a kinship model (Devereux & Getu, 2013; Chitonge, 2012). Under such a model, the raising of children by family members when their own parents are not able to do so for one or more reasons is regarded as normal. However, with the environment becoming increasingly complex, the effects of underperforming economies, massive job losses, disease burden and high poverty and vulnerabilities are blunting some of these traditional systems.

Social protection has become more formalised and broader to encompass a range of interventions (Oduro, 2010). Thus, *“social protection interventions usually include measures to provide adequate housing and nutrition, ensure access to education and health and promote social inclusion and political stability”* (Omilola & Kaniki, 2014). Invariably, as the last resort, government has become the provider of social protection interventions even though other partners have come into the picture.

Guided by the declaration of social protection as a human right, most African countries have gone on to embrace it in their legislative frameworks, paving the way for implementation of a variety of programmes.

In Ghana, their social protection framework is guided by provisions of its National Social Protection Strategy whose main mechanism is the contributory pension scheme. The strategy is rooted in country's Constitution which espouses a human rights philosophy (Government of Ghana, 2007). Its goal is to protect the rights of extremely poor and vulnerable people. The strategy also provides for education, health and livelihoods support. The Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty Programmes provides conditional and unconditional cash transfers to 20% of the extremely poor and vulnerable households in order to smoothen consumption and increase access to services and opportunities (Dittoh, 2016).

In Kenya, a key constitutional provision binds the state to *“provide appropriate social security to persons who are unable to support themselves and their dependents”* (Kenya Constitution). Emanating from this position, cash transfer programmes are becoming a more integral part of that country's social protection system where

expenditure on social protection is on the increase.

Meanwhile, Rwanda presents unique social protection initiatives, whose major preoccupation is reducing the proportion of people living in extreme poverty (Omilola & Kaniki, 2014). The main delivery strategy is that of social transfers, where a local programme, Vision 2020 Umurenge programme (VUP) is implemented through: public works (providing work on community infrastructure projects);

- Direct support (providing cash transfers to extremely poor households and those unable to work because of age, disability or illness); and
- Financial support (providing loans to individuals, groups and cooperatives selected on the basis of their business proposals) (Omilola & Kaniki, 2014).

Therefore, one would ask, where does education feature in all these efforts?

A key feature in Rwanda is the promotion of access to education where one of the most important programme is the provision of free basic education to all for the first nine years. This is achieved through capitation of grants to government and subsidised schools while previously marginalised students study for free at secondary school level (Omilola & Kaniki, 2014). Meanwhile, genocide survivors, who are considered as very vulnerable, are able to access essential educational services through the Genocide Survivor Assistance Fund (FARG) Programme. In addition, Government has partnered with development agencies to provide feeding in 300 schools that were identified before and after the 2009 Comprehensive Food Security Vulnerability Analysis and Nutrition Survey (Murphy-McGreevey, Roelen, & Nyamulinda, 2017).

While several African countries put poverty at the centre of most social protection interventions, they equally put considerable focus on the broader role in the provision of effective developmental objectives that include access to education and health. These are two of the areas that have been identified as critically important for socio-economic development (Omilola and Kaniki; 2014). Some countries add conditionalities in the delivery of their social protection programmes to enhance child welfare support in general and right to education support in particular. Ghana, for instance, provides some social protection programmes that require families to ensure “enrolment and retention of children in school, birth registration of new born babies

and their attendance at postnatal clinics, full vaccination of children up to the age of 5, non-trafficking of children and their non-involvement in the worse of child labour” (Roelen & Chettri 2014:17). School feeding programmes are also a common strategy to stimulate enrolment and attendance nationwide or in selected regions. These are typical in Ghana and Ethiopia, while other African countries have fee waivers for the most vulnerable children.

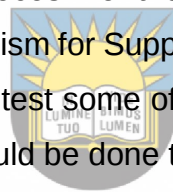
Southern African Development Community (SADC) community has found common purpose in the minimum social protection floor initiative; seeking to develop or amend existing framework to uphold and protect the rights of those likely to be affected. According to the SADC agreement, social rights, services and facilities that are provided should be at the minimum essential levels as provided in human rights treaties (Nyenti & Mpedi, 2012). SADC goes further to define a basic range of essential transfers, in cash and in kind, paid to the poor and vulnerable to provide a minimum income, security and access to essential health care; and geographical and financial access to essential services such as water and sanitation, adequate nutrition, health and education (Nyenti & Mpedi, 2012).

Refreshingly, SADC, makes reference to education among the social services. SADC member states have gone further to conclude various instruments, seeking to (a) coordinate, harmonise and rationalise social protection policies throughout the region; (b) provide for the establishment of harmonised social protection programmes throughout the region and (c) provide member states with strategic direction and guidelines in the development and improvement of social security schemes. Separate protocols on health and education and training were also signed.

Within the Southern African Development Community (SADC), South Africa enjoys very high standing in terms of social protection provision; allocating 3.5% of its 2010/2011 GDP to social assistance programmes (Devereux, 2010). The most significant of these include three child focused grants (the Child Support Grant, Foster Child Grant, and Care Dependency Grant). Regarding Child Support Grant, preliminary evaluation results suggest that a commitment to education is yielding results with increased school enrolments (Department of Social Development (DSD), South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) and UNICEF, 2010).

In a fashion similar to the global context, the African perspective embraces a wide range of social protection programmes; some of which target broader vulnerabilities while, others have education as their specific target (Chitonge, 2012). Be that as it may, the likelihood of smooth delivery may still be a pipe dream if the experience of some African countries is anything to go by. The concern in such situations is that good policy may not necessarily translate into action on the ground. The case of the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) in Ghana, though neatly laid out on paper has experienced massive disbursement delays (Othniel, 2013). Meanwhile, the School Feeding Programme in Kenya has been characterised by logistical challenges as well as, inadequacy of resources (Omilola & Kaniki, 2014). In almost all cases, sources of financing include both the Government and Development Partners. Lack of consensus regarding the effectiveness of delivery of programmes is a reality check to some problems that manifest and affect implementation process.

Mwenezi district might be a microcosm of the African continent. However, the study on Social Protection as a Mechanism for Supporting Right to Education for Vulnerable in Mwenezi District may serve to test some of the broader level theories and policies and provide insights into what could be done to better manage the programmes.



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1.3.3 The Zimbabwean Context

Historically, Zimbabwe has been embracing social protection, within the framework of international treaties and agreements and a Zimbabwean social protection legislative framework (Mtapuri, 2013). Largely, social protection programmes have been *resting on three universal* pillars of (a) **social** assistance/social safety nets (cash transfers, public works programme, or fee waivers for basic services); (b) **social insurance** (including old-age and disability pensions, health insurance, and unemployment insurance) and (c) **labour market programme** (such as skills-building programmes, job-search and matching programmes, and improved labour regulations) (Zimbabwe Policy Brief, 2014). The Ministry of Labour and Social Services has been taking the lead in coordinating all social protection related policies and programmes while multiple ministries and agencies, including non-state actors, have been involved in implementing the programmes. Concerns abound regarding the effectiveness of social protection policies and programmes, especially during the recent economic crisis. For

example, the poor have been facing significant barriers to education. The concerns are captured in some of the following statements (Newsday, 2015).

Zimbabwe has failed to get the desired results from its social protection programmes due to the fragmentation of activities (Vice-President of the Republic of Zimbabwe); and

Social sectors were exclusively dependent on donor funding which is unsustainable and unhealthy for the country's sovereign aspirations (Unicef Representative).

One of the key issues cited as a reason of failure of social protection programmes in promoting the right to education is the lack of child focus, where children are denied opportunities to participate in the design, implementation and evaluation of social protection programmes (UNICEF, 2010). Another concern presented is that although both social protection and education are enshrined as rights in separate sections of the same international instruments, it remains unclear how they align with each other and how social protection, through its various schemes, embraces education provision and participation. There is also lack of consensus over the effectiveness of social protection in promoting the right to education (Chikova, 2013; Ferreira & Robalino, 2010). In Mwenezi district, concerns have also been raised over availability and quality of education even though it is known that education-targeted social protection programmes have been implemented in the district (CONTRAD Information, 2017; Matenga, 2014).

Given the diverse opinions, albeit expressed at different platforms, the study was undertaken to understand what is taking place on the ground with the regard to the phenomenon under study. The dearth in research on 'right to education inspired' social protection, in both Zimbabwe and in Mwenezi district, is on its own a significant gap. This study hoped to contribute to filling that gap and to add to the body of existing literature on the subject.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

Various social protection programmes have taken root in Zimbabwe. However, debates still rage at both formal and informal levels, within academic circles and on development practitioner and media platforms regarding social protection measures and their specific role and contribution in promoting the right to education. Besides identifying specific programmes and speculating about their relative influences, there is equally lack of clarity about how the programmes are being implemented. Moreover, it is not clear what programmes are in place and how are they being monitored to promote the right to education of these vulnerable children, hence the continuing debates.

By carrying out this study, the researcher hoped to unpack the goings-on at the school level in terms of the activities and their implementation so as to provide some answers to the questions. Besides, studies undertaken around these issues tended to focus either on social protection or education with little effort towards looking at the relationship between the two. This has left a gap that this study hopes to fill.

In Mwenezi district, concerns have also been raised over availability and quality of education even though it is known that social protection programmes have been implemented in the district (CONTRAD Information, 2017; Matenga, 2014). In addition, observations have been made concerning the strategies employed by schools, government and other providers in delivering Social Protection programmes to support the right to education. Therefore, the study sought to find out how the Social Protection Mechanism promotes the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe.

1.5 Research Question

Based on the stated problems, the overriding research question of this thesis was:

How does the Social Protection Mechanism promote the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe?

1.6 Research Sub-Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions;

1. What are the vulnerabilities that pose a threat to enjoyment of the right to education by vulnerable children in Mwenezi district?
2. What Social Protection programmes are delivered in support of the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district?
3. What strategies do schools and other providers use in delivering Social Protection programmes that seek to support the right to education?
4. What strategies are used by the Government system to support schools and other providers to deliver social protection programmes to promote the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district?
5. How might the current Social Protection delivery framework (policies and practices) need to adapt to better support the right to education?



1.7 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify education targeted social protection programmes and analyse their delivery in the context of promoting right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district of Zimbabwe.

1.8 Significance of the Study

Formulation of good and sound policies thrives on the availability of relevant information. Policy makers and those in positions of influence in Government and other stakeholder groups are expected to benefit from the findings of this study in their efforts in policy development to address any identified gaps. The findings should provide the evidence needed to review existing social protection policies from a “bottom-up,

evidence-informed policy” perspective to promote effective implementation and monitoring and evaluation of social protection programmes.

The findings of this study might also be useful to implementers of social protection programmes, especially from the perspective of unmasking opportunities and challenges, hitherto unanticipated. This will help strengthen those areas already doing well while improving on gaps and inadequacies.

In light of scant research on the subject, this study was expected to fill that knowledge gap on how social protection ‘comes to life’ at the school level, in addition to opening streams of interest from other researchers on the interplay between social protection and education provision.

Vulnerable children in Mwenezi district should be the ultimate beneficiaries. If gaps detected by the study and implementation loopholes are redressed, this might lead to early detection and intervention that may open up streams of opportunities for a majority of vulnerable children towards their right to education.



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1.9 Delimitation of the Study

The study took place in 11 Primary Schools in Mwenezi district. It focused on the implementation of social protection programmes and how they contributed to the promotion of the right to education for vulnerable children in that district. Study participants included district Ministry officials, civil society organisations, school heads, teachers and children as well as members from the community.

1.10 Limitations of the Study

The study experienced some limitations when it was conducted. However, measures were taken to mitigate the effects of such limitations. The first limitation was related to difficulties in accessing some data collection sites due to heavy rains that had been received in the district. However, the research team gave itself enough time to reach

those sites via the longer routes that had to be used. The sites were also characterised by intense teaching and learning activities and the researcher consistently made sure to arrive well before the appointment time to ensure this would not lead to cancellations and rescheduling.

The researcher also faced the initial challenge of some participants ‘shying away’ from a new face. However, cooperation and willingness to participate improved once the purpose of the research was explained and confidentiality was guaranteed. Evidence of permission from Ministry Head Office and the Provincial Education Office provided the confidence that participants needed. Even when a request was made to record the proceedings, the participants did not show any discomfort.

1.11 Definition of Terms

This section provides definition of terms as they are used in this study. Some of the issues are elaborated further in the review of literature. These include poverty, social protection, child-sensitive social protection, social transfers and vulnerability.

Poverty

Phillip and Rayhan (2004) define poverty as a reduction or complete lack of access to resources that should satisfy basic needs. Poverty manifests in various ways that include “lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments; and social discrimination and exclusion” (UNICEF, 2010:13).

Social protection

Social protection refers to:

a group of policy measures and programmes that reduce poverty and vulnerability and seek to protect society’s more vulnerable members against livelihood shocks and risks, enhance the social status and rights of the marginalised, protect workers and diminish people’s exposure to

risks associated with ill-health, disability, old age and unemployment
(UNICEF, 2010:13).

Child sensitive social protection

By its nature and purpose, the notion of social protection already benefits children, even without explicitly targeting them. However, not all such programmes would have a soft spot for children, hence the notion of child-sensitive social protection, is defined as being about putting children at the centre by providing *adequate child and maternal nutrition and access to quality basic services for the poorest and most marginalised, among other benefits.*

Social transfers

This refers to primary forms of social protection (Arnold et al., 2011) that are provided by public and civic bodies (in cash or in kind) to those in danger of falling into poverty where recipients are not required to pay for them (Othniel, 2013). This definition suffices for the purpose of this study, whose interest is finding how such and similar programmes benefit the right to education for marginalised children.

Vulnerability

The term vulnerability refers to "exposure to contingencies and stress, and difficulty in coping with them" (Phillip and Rayhan, 2004:5). Vulnerability comprises of an external dimension (risks, shock and stress to which an individual is subjected) and an internal side (where an individual is defenseless, and lacking means to cope).

Duty bearer

Duty bearers are those defined as having obligations under the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UCRC) for respect, protection and fulfillment of child rights. In most countries, the state is the primary duty bearer.

Right holder

Every human being is inherently a right holder who should enjoy universal human rights that must be guaranteed. In the context of this study, children are the right holders who deserve special attention in terms of protection of their rights.

1.12 Chapter outline

The study was organised in six chapters as follows:

Chapter One: Introduced the study by covering the background, statement of the problem, research questions, purpose of the study, significance of the study, delimitations of the study and definitions of key terms,

Chapter Two: Covered review of literature related to the study. It is divided into two parts; one covering literature related to the theoretical framework and the second covering literature related to research questions,

Chapter Three: Focused on the research methodology; covering the research paradigm, approach, research, population, sample and sampling procedures, negotiating entry, data collection procedures, data collection instruments, credibility and trustworthiness, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures and ethical considerations.

Chapter Four: Presented and analysed the collected data.

Chapter Five: Focused on the discussion of the findings.

Chapter Six: Provided summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

1.13 Chapter Summary

The chapter covered the introductory part of the study. It includes background to the study, statement of the problem, research questions, purpose of the study, significance of the study, delimitations of the study and definitions of key terms and chapter outlines. The next chapter presents literature review in two parts: literature related to the theoretical frameworks and literature based on research questions.

CHAPTER TWO

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided the background to the study, outlined the problem statement, together with research questions, purpose, significance and delimitation of the study. Terms that are consistently used in the study have been defined and chapter outline provided. The current chapter, which is presented in three parts, looks at literature related to this study. The first part takes a look at conceptual frameworks that underpin this study, the second part discusses the theoretical frameworks utilised and the third part takes a focus on literature related to the research questions.



2.2 Conceptual framework

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2.2.1 Right to Education

The declaration of education as a human right was, in part, motivated by the consideration that education was too important to leave it to chance. In addition to earlier proponents of its human rights status, Human Rights Watch (2016), underscores that importance by identifying three areas of human interest that education was meant to serve. These include (a) provision of life skills and knowledge that could break generational cycles of poverty; (b) concrete improvements in health and nutrition; and (c) the protection factor by which children who are in school are less likely to come into conflict with the law and, are much less vulnerable to rampant forms of child exploitation, including child labour, trafficking, and recruitment into armed groups and forces.

Others saw education directly serving to provide other human rights benefits. In that context, De Berco (2014: 265) wrote;

Education works as a multiplier since it in turn enables people to exercise other human rights such as economic, social and cultural rights, the right to work and the right to food, and civil and political rights, such as the right to vote and the right to free speech. To be educated improves one's self-esteem and facilitates social mobility.

The declaration was also motivated by the need to address inequalities where some groups were prioritised ahead of others. The global community is awash with examples of countries where education was used as an instrument to perpetuate social differences. This included different schools for different races, different curricula for different groups and, in worst case scenarios, communities that were completely shut out of educational opportunities. Given these scenarios, the United Nations saw it fit to declare education a human right in order to level the ground.

2.2.1.1 The legal framework



Global framework

According to UNESCO, (n.d.):

International human rights law lays down obligations which States are bound to respect. By ratifying international human rights treaties, States assume obligations and duties under international law to respect, to protect and to fulfill human rights.

Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) provides for education as a human right. Among other commitments, the UDHR also makes the declaration that education should not just be a right for everyone but that it shall remove all barriers that might threaten denial for any group; it shall also be free and compulsory. Once the elementary stage was taken care of, provision of education at higher levels would be on the basis of merit (United Nations, 2015). Furthermore, the purpose of education shall include the development of the whole person; the promotion of respect for human rights and tolerance for the human race and the provision for parental freedom to choose the kind of education they feel should be available to their children. Article 26, therefore, provides for a synopsis of the purpose and institutional delivery

arrangements, including removal of access barriers and the perceived benefits that come with participation. Education has become one of the most important rights in international human rights law. Its obligations are to respect, protect and fulfill each of its essential features of availability, accessibility, acceptability and adaptability. By implication, failure to provide education constitutes a violation of that person's right.

The right to education is, subsequently, protected by a variety of other instruments; including the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) (articles 13 and 14: 1966); and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) (articles 28, 29 and 30: 1989). Both make the declaration on 'right to education' without conditions. Additional provisions such as making education provision free are also a feature of both instruments. It is acknowledged that fee payment could be a barrier to accessing education for those that are resource poor. The UNCRC also builds-in this clause to the effect that the less resource endowed nations could seek support from those better endowed in the spirit of collaboration (UNCRC, 1989). This is an acknowledgement that some countries could face challenges in taking the commitments forward on their own.

Subsequent frameworks in support of the right to education came in the form of:

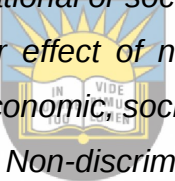
- a) World Declaration on Education for All (1990),
- b) Dakar Framework for Action: Education for All (2000) and
- c) Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (2015).

Whereas all three are in accord with principles of 'universal access to education', the cornerstone of the right to education as defined in the UNESCO constitution lies in the Dakar Framework. This framework is considered to have been more robust since it was not just a declaration but a tangible framework of action that was to be achieved within a 15-year timeframe. A point of note is that the United Nations generally and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) have been fully supporting the development of the various frameworks and instruments on the right to education. UNESCO has gone further to provide technical support to member states in their efforts to translate the instruments into action. The current study was an interrogation of the extent to which these good efforts were translating into reality, for vulnerable children with regard to their right to education.

2.2.2 Efforts to eliminate discrimination in Education

Making provisions for the right to education by the United Nations was no mean achievement. However, the global community, led by the United Nations, acknowledged the possibility that some sections of the population such as ethnic minorities, women, migrant workers, refugees, children on the move, working children and those living with disabilities might face challenges in enjoying that right. Efforts to mitigate such exclusions saw some treaties, in addition to their agitation for the right to education for all persons, build-in clauses that sought to protect the right to education of particular categories of vulnerable people and children. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), for example, enshrines prohibition of discrimination by saying:

... any discrimination on grounds of race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status with the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing the equal enjoyment or exercise of economic, social and cultural rights constitutes a violation of the Covenant. Non-discrimination is therefore an obligation for which non-achievement automatically violates economic, social and cultural rights



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(ICESCR: articles 2 (2) and 3, 1966)

Meanwhile, the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR), established by the United Nations has one of its mandates as monitoring compliance of member states with provisions of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). For instance, the ICESCR underscores that position when it observes that any state in which individuals are deprived of essentials such as food, healthcare, basic shelter or the most basic forms of education is failing to discharge its duties under the ICESCR terms and conditions.

The committee goes further to warn that discrimination on any grounds such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or any other status purposefully meant to nullify or impair the equal enjoyment or exercise of economic, social and cultural rights constitutes a violation of

the Covenant (ICESCR, Articles 2 (2) and 3). *“Non-discrimination is therefore an obligation for which non-achievement automatically violates economic, social and cultural rights”* (De Beco, 2014: 263).

With more specific reference to discrimination in the education sector, UNESCO (1960) produced the Convention against Discrimination in Education (CADE), the only legally binding international instrument with an exclusive focus on prohibiting discrimination in education. The Convention provides for non-discrimination in accordance with provisions of the UNESCO constitution (Article I, paragraph 2 b); It makes the following provisions;

- *The States Parties to this Convention undertake furthermore to formulate, develop and apply a national policy which, by methods appropriate to the circumstances and to national usage, will tend to promote equality of opportunity and of treatment in the matter of education and in particular:*
 - *To make primary education free and compulsory; make secondary education in its different forms generally available and accessible to all; make higher education equally accessible to all on the basis of individual capacity; assure compliance by all with the obligation to attend school prescribed by law;*
 - *To ensure that the standards of education are equivalent in all public educational institutions of the same level, and that the conditions relating to the quality of the education provided are also equivalent;*
 - *To encourage and intensify by appropriate methods the education of persons who have not received any primary education or who have not completed the entire primary education course and the continuation of their education on the basis of individual capacity;*
 - *To provide training for the teaching profession without discrimination.*
- (Convention Against Discrimination in Education, Article 5: 1960)

The CADE provisions clearly embrace non-discrimination in availability and accessibility generally; in standards of provision, in teacher training and provision for

those who have ‘never been to school’ and ‘non-completers’ of primary school education. This shows the need to take non-discrimination across diverse facets and areas of educational provision. Furthermore, there is recognition of the value of taking care of some disadvantaged groups such as those that never had the educational opportunity or lost that opportunity due to no fault of their own. Provision for their circumstances implies creating opportunities for re-establishing their lost opportunities. The mention of completion of primary education is of significance as it implies the minimum aspiration for all to achieve.

The provisions of the foregoing covenants and instruments provided motivation for the current study, which sought to explore efforts underway, if any, and to what degree vulnerable groups were taken care of, particularly children and the provision to right to education. It is also about the extent to which duty bearers as well as their partners have not only embraced non-discrimination in theory but also in practice through the implementation of social protection programmes.



2.2.2.1 National legal framework

In addition to ratifying both global and regional treaties, Zimbabwe has made headway in domesticating provisions on the right to education. This is carried in a number of instruments, the principal ones being the Constitution of Zimbabwe (2013) and the Education Amendment Act No. 2 (2006). It is recognised that there are various other downstream policies and guidelines meant to operationalise the Constitution and Education Amendment Act No. 2, including those related to Social Protection. The following are the provisions of the principal documents:

Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (No. 20) Act 2013, provides that:

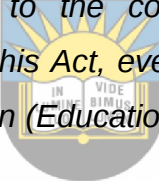
Every citizen and permanent resident of Zimbabwe has a right to a basic State-funded education, including adult basic education; and further education, which the State, through reasonable legislative and other measures, must make progressively available and accessible (Article 75).

The emphasis on every citizen precludes, at least on paper, discrimination on any grounds whatsoever. There is further recognition that there could be barriers along the way. Hence, the inclusion of the clause that education must be state funded, at least for the basic level. Whereas the constitution lays a broader framework, it also provides for legislative and other measures with an emphasis on ensuring that education is not only available but also accessible. Given these provisions, the study was keen to find out the extent to which these were applicable in Mwenezi district. The fact that vulnerable children exist is indisputable but what exactly is being done to realise their right to education and what is the contribution of social protection towards such efforts?

At a more specific level was the promulgation of the Education Amendment Act No. 2 of 2006 that makes the following provisions, specific on children's fundamental right to education:

Notwithstanding anything to the contrary contained in any other enactment, but subject to this Act, every child in Zimbabwe shall have the right to school education (Education Amendment Act No. 2; Section 4 (1)).

The Act further adds:


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It is the objective in Zimbabwe that primary education for every child of school-going age shall be compulsory and to this end it shall be the duty of the parents of any such child to ensure that such child attends primary school (Education Amendment Act No. 2; 2006: Section 5).

Going by provisions of the constitution of importance to note is that

The duty bearer, one tasked with responsibility to ensure enjoyment of the education right, is specified as the **government** while;

The right holder, the one eligible to enjoy the right, is the **citizen**;

In the case of the Education Amendment Act No. 2 (2006), the right holder is specified as the **child** while;

The duty bearer (by mandate), shifts to the **parent**; who must ensure school attendance at the primary school level.

While the two are not necessarily contradictory, in the context of the cascading duty of care and provision, the researcher was also curious to find out how these responsibilities were assigned and taken care of at implementer level. This is pertinent in the context of the study – responsibilities and roles in availing and executing social protection services. Is there role conflict? Are there gaps remaining uncovered? How does this affect delivery for the fulfilment of the right to education? These are some of the questions the study sought to address.

2.2.3 Dimensions of the right to education

Although interpretation and application of Human Rights Law is up to individual State parties, depending on their particular circumstances, there is a perception that education, regardless of its form and level, should exhibit the interrelated and essential features” of availability, accessibility, acceptability and adaptability (Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1999; Tomaševski, 2001). This section seeks to clarify these key concepts, also known as the 4As, that are common to education in all its forms and levels in relation to the right to education discourse.

2.2.3.1 Availability

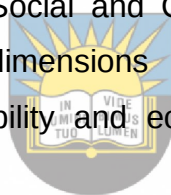
Availability of Education implies supply side issues. To this end, the State has an obligation to establish educational institutions and make them available in sufficient quantities (Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1999), together with whatever it takes to make them functional. Among others, infrastructure classrooms, sanitation facilities, libraries, safe drinking water, trained teachers and teaching and learning materials are identified as essential (Tomaševski, 2001). In the event of State lack capacity to avail and fund such institutions, its obligation rests on permitting other players, including non-state actors, to establish such institutions and provide the required resources (De Feyter & Isa, 2005). In some earlier writings, Vos (1996), referred to these as inputs to the system, some of whose indicators include number of schools, teachers, buildings and teaching material supplies. The basic availability

argument is that there must be schools and other institutions, alongside the infrastructure and facilities to make provision of education possible.

With reference to the current study, issues of interest included an assessment of the state of availability of schools, infrastructure and learning materials. This is against the backdrop of research supported findings that poor learning environment may be a disincentive to enrolment or lead to dropout of those already enrolled (Abu-Hamad, Jones & Pereznieta, 2014). An assessment of the existence of social protection programmes and the extent to which they support such provisions was undertaken.

2.2.3.2 Accessibility

Education accessibility is a demand issue. Its preoccupation has to do with factors that determine use and accessibility (demand) of the schools and facilities by individuals. The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1999), identifies three interacting and overlapping dimensions of accessibility that include: non-discrimination, physical accessibility and economic accessibility. The Committee explains these as follows:



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Non-discrimination

As long as persons of school going age reside within the boundaries of a State party, they must have access to education. This equally applies to non-nationals, regardless of their status. Children also face discrimination based on family and cultural background. These have proved to be insurmountable hurdles for some vulnerable children. UNICEF (2016) suggests that ethnic origin or disability could be grounds for discrimination. The principle of non-discrimination, therefore, carries with it the connotation of providing education for all, regardless of status.

Physical accessibility

It is preferable if education is provided within safe, physical reach; usually through attendance at a school or other relevant facility. Studies have found that geographical distance to school can have major effects on children's participation in education (Ahmed & Zeshan, 2014). Besides being a distance issue, physical accessibility could be about having access into learning facilities, even if the school is just around the

corner. This includes children with disabilities for whom classroom inaccessibility may be due to absence of ramps and other enabling conditions.

Economic access

Economic access refers to affordability. Globally, research is awash with examples of prohibitive costs such as direct private costs of education (fees, materials, and uniforms) as well as foregone earnings of individuals and households. The provision that “whereas primary education shall be available “free to all”, States parties are required to progressively introduce free secondary and higher education” (International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights; Article 13(2), 1966)) is an expression of awareness that financial barriers could deter children enrolling and participating in school education. In terms of intent, Zimbabwe has made provision (via the Education Amendment Act No. 2) that “tuition in schools in Zimbabwe be provided for the lowest possible fees consistent with maintenance of high standards of education” (Education Amendment Act No. 2: 25:04 (06)). This arises from the fact that user fees, as a demand side factor, are often a barrier that prevents many children, especially the vulnerable, from getting into school.

This study took the issue of accessibility as an area of immense interest and sought answers to questions such: To what extent is education accessible for all vulnerable children in Mwenezi district? In the case of threats to accessibility, what measures are being taken to mitigate the barriers, and how is their delivery managed?

2.2.3.3 Acceptability

Acceptability is an equally important dimension of right to education. It refers to the extent to which education is seen to be serving the needs and interests of its users, including issues of the curriculum and teaching methods. Users of the education are primarily the students themselves but it also matters to families and communities what type of school their child goes to and what they learn in those schools. An important facet of acceptability is highlighted by the addition of ‘quality’ before education in some policy documents. Although quality could be a ‘pull’ or ‘push’ factor, hence an aspect of ‘right to’ education, in the main, considerations of quality are often a concern for

those already in the system or know the system. Hence, it is a component that falls within what Tomaševski (2001) calls right 'in' education rather than right 'to' education. Be that as it may, an Indian study has shown that satisfactory educational services have a significant impact on demand for education, with the likelihood of female education increasing by 11 % if the family was satisfied with educational services provided by the school (Ahmed & Zeshan, 2014).

The right to education message for governments is to ensure that the education they make available should not only be accessible but should also be of good quality. If the 'quality fails', there is likelihood that it may fail to attract learners or may lose those already enrolled through non-attendance and dropping out. The quality checklist would include aspects such as: minimal standards of health and safety (complementary services), the general deportment and professional requirements for teachers. Invariably, such minimum standards are set and enforced by governments. Minimum standards could also be broadened to include availability and suitability of textbooks, and language of instruction for indigenous and minority groups. In her primer, Tomaševski (2001) also includes such issues as prohibition of corporal punishment, absence of learner to learner types of abuse and consideration of children as important actors in processes and decisions that affect them.

In relation to the afore mentioned assertions, the study sought to find out to what extent schools in Mwenezi district pass the acceptability test. This was much a subject of interest as the availability of programmes that sought to address this issue, their management and their contribution to the acceptability dimension.

2.2.3.4 Adaptability

Adaptability of education refers to its flexibility to meet the needs of particular groups. Once education is flexible to the needs of the group, it is seen as acceptable. This 'right to education' dimension is considered to satisfy two elements of "*right in*" education as well as, what is termed "*right through*" education (Tomaševski's (2001). The former has to do with suiting the needs of groups such a minority and indigenous children, working children, children with disabilities and child migrants and travellers. Often, this is realised through timetable adjustments; accessibility of facilities; use of

indigenous language as a vehicle of instruction; mobile classrooms and teachers. The “right through” education, on the other hand, has to do with advancing other rights such as elimination of child labour, child marriage and prevention of child soldiering *‘through the education platform’* (Tomaševski’s, 2001). Put differently, this is about education serving as a vehicle through which other rights can be promoted. An education that tackles such issues is considered to be fulfilling the basic education right as it embraces the ‘No Child Left Behind’ Policy.

The focus of the study was also to find out whether such issues manifest in primary schools in Mwenzi district as well as, the availability of social protection programmes that work to address these concerns.

In concluding this section, it is important to note that Tomaševski’s (2001) comprehensive 4-As model (availability, accessibility, acceptability and adaptability) provides an important template for a total assessment of the right to education provision. However, it does not say that each social protection programme must address all the issues across the 4-As. The more it does the better. The dimensions also do not work in isolation but in a complementary fashion where, by supporting elements in one dimension, elements in other dimensions are also supported. Given all these dimensions, the basic question that this study sought to address was: to what extent do social protection mechanisms take focus on, and address, the salient issues coming out of the categories?

2.2.4 Social Protection

Any meaningful discussion of social protection can only take place in the context of the vulnerability it seeks to address. Thus, as a prelude to the discussion, it was necessary to take a close look at the issue of vulnerability. The section looks at the nature of vulnerability, illustrates its causal and compounding factors and its effects in the context of right to education. The discussion then takes focus on the response actions of social protection, its meaning and rationale, the dimensions of social protection, social protection models, and draws implications for the current study.

2.2.4.1 Understanding child vulnerability

In the context of children, the key target of the current study, vulnerability describes the state of being weak, defenseless and having limited means to cope (Phillip & Rayhan, 2004). The notion of 'defenselessness' suggests the existence of 'forces', which the individual child has to grapple with in the event of an 'attack'. However, if the child is truly vulnerable, the capacity to fend off or mitigate the attacks is diminished. Phillip and Rayhan (2004) suggest that such forces could come as unpredictable events or stress, together with the difficulty in coping with them.

From the above, vulnerability has two dimensions; an internal dimension within the individual child and an external dimension that comprises of one or more contingent events (risks, shock and stress) coming from an environment external to that individual (Phillip & Rayhan, 2004). If the individual is strong enough, he/she may withstand the stressful external situations. However, if weak, these external events can compound the level of vulnerability.

The notion of vulnerability is taken further with identification of five vulnerability categories (Weithorn, 2018:7), focusing on both the individual and the externalities;

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- a) Harm-based vulnerability – susceptibility to physical or psychological harm from exposure to certain stimuli or situations;
 - b) Influence-based vulnerability – susceptibility to influence, pressure or coercion by others;
 - c) Capacity-based vulnerability – arising from immature decisional and self-protective capacities;
 - d) Status-based vulnerability – arising from legal, social concomitants of minority status and subordination to the authority and control of others;
 - e) Dependency – based vulnerability – arising from greater dependence or reliance on others to meet one's basic needs.

According to UNICEF (2004), child vulnerability can also be viewed through a rights based lens. Vulnerable children are those that fail to access their rights to survival, development, protection and participation. Such a situation arises from lack of or diminished capacity. These usually emanate from ‘depriving’ or ‘harmful’ physical, social, cultural, economic or political circumstances and environment in which the children find themselves.

From the foregoing, two features of vulnerability emerge: (a) that of the central figure, the individual, who is impacted; and (b) the external dimension of various forces that come to bear on the individual. This is normally accompanied by harsh consequences on the well-being of the individual. The section takes a closer look at the sources of vulnerability. If these factors and consequences are known, those who help would know what to target. The individual child must be the beneficiary.

2.2.4.2 Child vulnerability: sources and impact on right to education



According to the Southern African Development Community (SADC) (2010), circumstances that cause child vulnerability could be the condition or state of the child, the family/household; or environment or community in which that child lives. Vulnerability factors, which are variously described as ‘problems’, ‘disadvantages’ and ‘risk factors’, can relate to the child, their parents, or other individuals that care for them as well as their socio-economic context (Jopling & Vincent, 2016). Whereas such circumstances could be the sources of vulnerability, they can equally be opportune platforms to tackle vulnerability. Solutions can come from the spectrum of the significant others (Jones, Presler-Marshall, Cooke, & Akinrimisi, 2012).

The child as a source of vulnerability

The individual child may be their own worst enemies, to the extent of failing to take advantage of opportunities that present themselves. Such is the case for learners who absent themselves from school without permission (truancy). Even though the causes may be linked to family or other factors, the reality is that this affects their success at school. Missed lessons often result in decline in academic performance or dropping out of school altogether (Rivers, 2010). There are also instances where children are

prevented from taking advantage of opportunities by their conditions and circumstances, in spite of having “a right to an education which is appropriate to their needs” (Griffin, 2014:8). Such is the case for children with physical disabilities and other special needs that prevent them from getting themselves to school, unless someone helps them. Even if they do, they may still be unable to access learning facilities that are usually ‘disability unfriendly’ or simply because the learning environment is not adapted to their situation.

The school as a source of child vulnerability

Schools and their environs have also been described as respite institutions or ‘safe zones’, especially for those children whose home environments have become unbearable. However, they can also become vulnerability minefields, such as when an environment of school related gender based violence is allowed to prevail. Among other factors, the unfriendly teacher, the bully in the child’s own classroom, the hostile school environment may be enough to instil fear and emotional disequilibrium and drive the child away. Even if the learner persists on attending school, concentration levels may be compromised. Some schools are characterised by shortages or absence of facilities (classrooms, toilets, playgrounds) and school provisions (textbooks, stationery). These can become deterrents to children’s access and learning (Shahidul & Zehadul Karim, 2015). Findings of a study in Malawi showed that unavailability of toilets and female hygiene facilities resulted in girls’ frequent absence from school (Grant, Lloyd & Mensch, 2013).

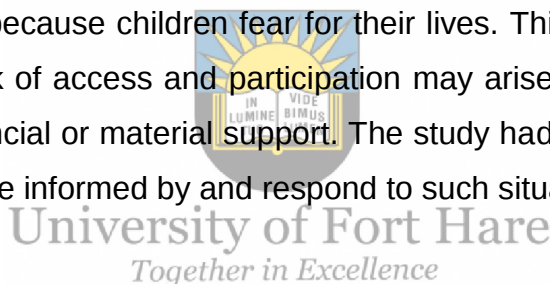
Home/community as sources of child vulnerability

At the community/home front, the factors can be economic, social and/or cultural (Shahidul & Zehadul Karim, 2015). Economic factors make can make it difficult for some parents to pay fees and avail school provisions for their children, mainly arising from poverty and unemployment. In such cases, the child is not likely to remain in school. Social factors can also be at play. For example, perceptions still hold in some communities that boys should be given priority ahead of girls when educational investment choices are made, leaving the girl child exposed and vulnerable (Roelen & Chettri, 2014). Some scholars have found that cultural elements are linked to children’s prolonged absence from school and eventually dropping out altogether. In rural Malawi, Holcamp (2009) chimes in with the examples where parents consider the education of girls of little value since they marry and go to another family. Meanwhile,

Save the Children (2005) also found that cultural norms and beliefs and rituals have much to do with limited educational opportunities for some children.

According to Phillip and Rayhan (2004), Family level vulnerability factors can equally trigger detrimental effects on the child's possibility of coming to school, concentrating in class and remaining in school. A child coming from a home best described as a 'perpetual war zone' between the parents may have attendance disrupted or may be too traumatised to make any useful gains from classroom learning. A child heading a household would ordinarily have to attend to the welfare of younger siblings before thinking of coming to school or doing homework. Resultantly, irregular attendance sets in and eventually dropping out becomes the final straw. Unless interventions come to their rescue, such children, who already carry the vulnerability tag as head of household, is likely to miss out on education opportunities available.

Crime-infested communities, by their life-threatening nature, will be a deterrent to school attendance because children fear for their lives. This suggests that there are situations when lack of access and participation may arise from factors that are not solely linked to financial or material support. The study had interest in understanding how programmes are informed by and respond to such situations.



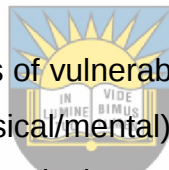
There are also issues related to school location variables such as distance between home and school. This has been found to be a strong barrier to children's access to education (Shahudal & Zehadul Karim, 2015). Similarly, Ahmed and Zeshan, (2014: 138) had this to say on the same;

The distance of the school from the home was found to be an important determinant of female education; the chances that a female will receive an education decrease if the school is located far from home. Our results indicate a negative and significant impact of an increase in distance of the school from home. Female education chances decrease by 2.8 % if there is 1 % increase in the school distance.

Performance of some household chores can also have a detrimental effect on children's participation in education (Shahudal and Zehadul Karim, 2015). Boys can be assigned to herd cattle while girls have to tend to smaller children at the expense

of going to school. For example, household chores such as cooking, washing up and fetching water and firewood have been found to be so time-consuming on the girl child, to the extent that they neither rest nor are able to do homework.

These views and perceptions have important implications for the current study. On the receiving end is the individual child who may be experiencing developmental difficulties or is in the middle of deprived and damaging circumstances. On the other hand, are the causal factors in the community, home and school? In the delivery of social protection responses, there might be need to target the individual child as well as the environmental conditions that trigger the vulnerability. Whereas these characterisations may appear clear, the challenge for the practitioner (relevant officials, communities and school personnel) is how to detect and identify, at the child, family and community levels, the vulnerable cases that require support. Jopling & Vincent (2016) provide some observable indicators.



There are a number of symptoms of vulnerability that include low school attendance, low performance, disability (physical/mental) or illness, emotional or psychological problems, abused (emotional, physical, sexual), drug abuse, signs of hunger and being withdrawn, fatigue, aggressiveness, poor hygiene, dirty clothes, child's non-involvement in play or has unusually high knowledge of sex issues (Jopling & Vincent, 2016). The wide array of symptoms makes both identification and response to vulnerability a complex affair because they are not all exposed at once. Children may exhibit a number of these vulnerability symptoms, making response equally complex. Besides, the teacher may not always be equipped in all the spheres, making it necessary to call on the services of stakeholders to identify these cases. Part of this study was to examine how child vulnerability was identified and to what extent it was addressed. At the family level, indicators of child vulnerability may include parents or caregivers who are: unable or unwilling to care, poor or alcoholic or emotionally unstable or handicapped or very sick (such as bed ridden). Other symptoms could include cases of overcrowded households, divorced parents, abusive family or parents, lack of financial resources and lack of parental guidance and direction (Jopling and Vincent, 2016). The same authors also argue that the community itself could place children at great risk of vulnerability through exposure to dangerous situations and substances, high poverty levels, unsafe environment (informal

settlements, lack of toilets, high crime) and prevention from normal life (schooling, play) (Phillip & Rayhan, 2004).

Thus, at these levels, any manifestation of the above indicators point to some potential need for support. Taken in isolation, these indicators may just be signs of problem areas. However, it must be remembered that some children face multiple vulnerability factors that interact and co-exist. When this happens, the risk to vulnerability gets higher (Sabates and Dex, 2012 in Jopling and Vincent (2016)) and the threat to the right to education gets more pronounced. The next section looks at the concept of social protection.

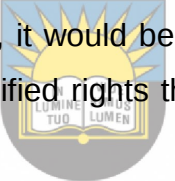
2.2.4.3 Social protection - meaning and rationale

Social protection has many perspectives, some of which are informed by one's background. However, the consensus appears to point to poverty and vulnerability as the two major threats to people's well-being, while any efforts to confront them is the gist of social protection interventions. Norton, Conway and Foster (2017) define social protection as public actions that are taken in response to levels of vulnerability, risk and deprivation. This comes in alignment with an earlier definition: that of social protection as public actions to reduce poverty and vulnerability and aid the world's poorest and most vulnerable in managing external economic, social and natural shocks and risks (Conway, de Haan, & Norton, 2000; Ortiz, Fajth, Yablonski, & Rabi, 2010). These definitions point to the need for action, often by some external persons or agencies, in the face of threats on the well-being of individuals or groups of such affected individuals.

An equally relevant perception of the scope and purpose of social protection is that it comes in the form of programmes that seek to tackle vulnerability. The chief target are those individuals that are already chronically poor and those that are vulnerable to falling into poverty, because they are not able to cope with shocks and stresses that come their way. Social protection may also be defined as “all public and private initiatives that provide income or consumption transfers to the poor, protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks and enhance the social status and rights of the

marginalised” (Devereux & Sabates-Wheeler, 2004 cited in Browne, 2015: i). The last definition recognises that there are categories of people who are already poor, vulnerable and marginalised. It is for such groups that social protection measures are being taken, to prevent and mitigate risks. One way to fight such harm is to provide education to empower people.

The emphasis on poverty brings to mind economic shocks and stresses. However, behind the economic considerations may be socio-political risks, some of which may be linked to such issues as gender, ethnicity or disability (Holmes & Jones, 2013; Baulch, 2011). This means that in looking at vulnerability, there is need to look beyond what the definitions highlight if interventions are going to be appropriate. A further note is that these definitions apply to the population generally and normally sideline children in their implementation. This is done on the assumption that once adult beneficiaries are taken care of, benefits will spill over to children through investment in health and education programmes for children. Benefits, however, do not necessarily trickle down to the child level. Given this view, it would be beneficial to have some programmes that target either children or specified rights that they must enjoy. In support of this idea are programmes that:



include protection from violence, exploitation and neglect, as well as the ability of children to have both voice and agency in their families, schools and communities, irrespective of age, gender, religion, ethnicity, race, class or (dis)ability (Jones & Samuels, 2014: 218).

An important feature of social protection is that it needs to be perceived in a much broader sense than just financial support. Other forms could include material transfers in support of those vulnerabilities that attract such support. If not provided, the consequences for the right to education could be adverse. If, for example, shortage of food is the threat, school feeding may be the best option. However, where there is evidence of children living under stressful conditions, psychosocial support could be the answer.

Much has been given as the reasons for introducing social protection programmes and generally these are seen from two sides: welfare and productivity oriented. Growing evidence suggests that “effective, efficient, and equitable social protection programmes can directly reduce poverty and inequality and help families become

more resilient by enabling them to smooth consumption and manage shocks” (Andrews, Das, Elder, Ovadiya, and Zampaglione 2012:6). Largely, this is true of programmes in the largely consumptive safety nets/social transfer category. However, other programmes do come with productivity and growth thrust, especially when they focus on labor policies. These may include “building and protecting human capital assets, increasing access to jobs and freeing families to make productive investments with higher returns because of a greater sense of security” (Andrews, Das, Elder, Ovadiya, and Zampaglione 2012:6).

2.2.4.4 Dimensions of social protection

Social protection generally covers three areas that include social transfers, social insurance and social legislation (Othniel, 2013). The discussion looks at each type, examining its main tenets and providing examples accordingly. An attempt is made to link each type with support to the right to education.



2.2.4.4.1 Social transfers

Social transfers are a form of social assistance provided by public and/or civic bodies to those members of society who are in danger of falling into poverty. Such transfers can be in cash or in kind and recipients are not required to pay for them through premiums or taxes (Othniel, 2013; UNICEF, 2012). Examples can differ from country to country. However, popular ones include cash transfers and cash for work programmes. For social transfers to serve their purpose well, they should be predictable enough to ensure certainty. Social transfers can contribute to: reducing income poverty and hunger, improving the efficiency of household investments empowering poor people by providing greater security and stability and strengthening local economies and investment in productive activities (UNICEF, 2010). At a more specific front, social transfers could be specifically targeted to support education. Cash transfers, school construction materials, school provisions (equipment and stationery) and school feeding programmes are good examples at the school level. The last examples speak to programmes in support of either school places, quality of learning or hunger that might deter school attendance.

2.2.4.4.2 Social insurance

Social insurance is a form of social protection mechanism whose ultimate purpose is to provide various forms of support to recipients in times of hardship. The recipients must have contributed to the creation and sustenance of the scheme, usually managed by the state (Othniel, 2013). Examples include health insurance, unemployment insurance and contributory pensions (UNICEF, 2012). Their contributory nature makes social insurance programmes partially self-financing and, therefore, more financially sustainable. However, these have been criticised on the grounds that they favour formal sector workers and those able to make regular contributions at the expense of those in the informal sector, especially women and young people (Labour and Economic Development Research Institute of Zimbabwe (LEDRI) (2017)). It is a little more difficult to envisage how these can support education directly, except by paying their school expenses for recipients.

2.2.4.4.3 Social legislation



This is the legal framework that defines and protects citizens' rights, and ensures minimum civic standards to safeguard the interests of individuals, examples of which include the Labour Act, maternity and paternity leave, minimum and equal pay legislation (Dictionary of American History, n.d.)

Taken collectively, an important aspect of the social protection dimensions is their tendency to take care of all the phases of a person's life through a wide range of instruments: including income support, child grants, disability benefits, and pensions. This includes, education focused tools such as scholarships, vouchers or school-based feeding programme. An important question being: how does this support the right to education at the relevant stages? This was of specific interest to this study.

2.2.5 Child-sensitive social protection

One of the key challenges of social protection programmes is lack of child-sensitivity (UNICEF, 2010). The African Child Policy Forum (2013) defines child-sensitive social protection as obligations on governments to take measures to provide adequate social protection to children. The provision of such measures must be rights-based and focus

on a range of levels, including policy, institutional and budgetary issues. The purpose of such measures is to support children's survival, development and protection from deprivation and exploitation. This deliberate intervention and focus comes against the backdrop of the tendency of social protection programmes to sideline children, even though they are one of the most vulnerable groups, constituting a substantial proportion of the world population.

The foregoing does not suggest that social protection must be entirely focused on children, but that the programmes, while broad and inclusive, be sensitive to the specific needs of children; without neglecting the needs of other vulnerable groups (UNICEF, 2010). These must be properly managed to prevent an accumulation of problems that come back to haunt the countries in the future. It is further argued that child-sensitive social protection must be all of the following:

- Protective – safeguard household income and consumption levels in order to maintain child well-being
- Preventative – provide households with alternatives to negative coping strategies that might otherwise increase child risk (such as dropping out of school),
- Promotional – supports active investment into critical aspects of children's development such as education and health,
- Transformative – addresses structural and societal power imbalances that create or sustain child vulnerabilities; encourage equity and empowerment (African Child Policy forum, 2013).

The concept of child-sensitive social protection was relevant to a study like this one; whose prime interest was the right to education. Fundamentally, right to education is about children. The focus on education-targeted social protection programmes must, first and foremost, recognise and prioritise children. The interest will be on analysing the extent to which various programmes actually prioritise child beneficiaries and how in the process they are able to meet the child-sensitive characteristics of protection, prevention, promotion and transformation.

2.2.5.1 Models of social protection

There are a number of models of social protection that could have important implications for a study of this magnitude. For the purpose of this study, focus was on the life-cycle and the targeted and conditional models.

2.2.5.2 The life-cycle model

The life-cycle model depicts a series of stages that individuals experience, starting from pregnancy until old age. The concept has close resemblance to “the cradle to the grave” that characterised social protection provision in the United Kingdom (Stamp: 2015). Figure 2.1 illustrates the model.

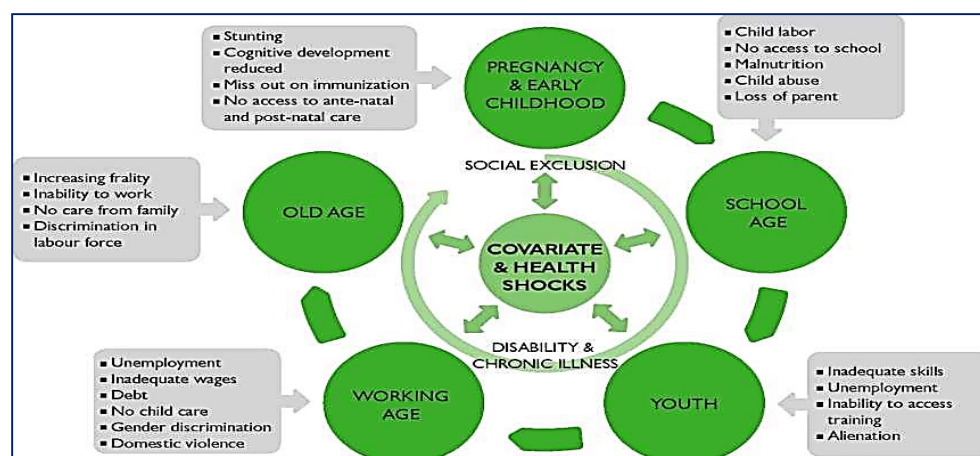


FIGURE 2-1: THE LIFE-CYCLE SOCIAL PROTECTION MODEL

According to the model, a life-cycle has five (5) stages that include pregnancy and early childhood, school age, youth, working age and old age. Each stage is characterised by a set of risks/challenges or vulnerabilities that are peculiar to that stage. By way of examples, these would include stunting, reduced cognitive development and missing out on immunisation at pregnancy and early childhood stage; other examples are: child labour, lack of access to school, child abuse for the school age stage; inadequate skills, unemployment for youth stage; unemployment, inadequate wages, debt for working age stage and increasing frailty at old age.

According to this model, social protection responses will differ according to the risks/challenges or vulnerabilities that characterise each stage (Cain, n.d). For the primary school age category, the stage corresponding to the proposed study, the risk would be “no access to school”, while other risks such as child labour, malnutrition, child abuse and loss of parent may represent the reasons behind that lack of access to education. These are some of the enormous barriers to receiving education that children face. Others have been identified as lack of quality education, education costs (school fees and related expenses), discrimination (on grounds of gender, disability, and minorities), sanitation, child labour, and widespread violence in schools’ (Human Rights Watch, 2016).

Social transfers would be the usual logical mechanism at this level, while social legislation would also be relevant by way of stipulating the rules, regulations and standards meant to be followed. Meanwhile, the covariate health shocks, social exclusion, disability and chronic illness tend to exacerbate the plight of each category. In relation to this study, the life-cycle model does not just allow an understanding of the issues that relate to the relevant stage but that, an understanding of those related to other studies will provide a more complete understanding. In addition, the influence of covariate factors cannot be ignored due to ever-arching implications to their effect on the right to education.

2.2.5.2.1 Targeted and conditional model

The objective behind this model is that of poverty prevention through the human capital development window. This rests on the philosophy that the mechanism must serve to mitigate current poverty through an income supplement while preventing future poverty by creating incentives for families to invest in human capital. The conditional human capital development angle would be looking at aspects such as access to health and education. This model has worked well in Mexico where a programme gives cash to female heads of poor families every two months in exchange for sending their children to school, improving their diets, keeping up with their vaccination schedules and attending health clinics (UNDP, 2005). As a result, from an education perspective, children are said to be staying more in school, and dropouts have declined significantly while transition rates (primary to secondary) for girls have increased. The current study sought to find out how schools in Mwenezi district could benefit from such an

approach. How would this translate to right to education benefits for vulnerable children? This study hoped to provide answers to these and other related questions.

2.2.6 Social protection and right to education interface

Significant progress has been recorded in the fulfilment of the right to education since World leaders agreed to prioritise education at Jomtien in 1990 (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2015). However, United Nations and global education policy experts warn that such success needs to be celebrated with caution because it left behind millions of children and young people on account of their vulnerabilities. According to Human Rights Watch (2016), more children and adolescents are at risk of dropping out of school and many of those at school face unsuitable learning conditions. Responsibility for this ‘failure’ lies squarely with governments whose responsibility it is to ensure that no child or young person is without education. The Human Rights Watch (2016) adds that the shortfall between the educational reality that children experience around the world and what governments have promised and committed to through human rights treaties subsists (Human Rights Watch, 2016).

The significant question for human rights proponents is: How do we end the education deficit? Could social protection, through such actions as removal of obstacles that stand in the way of children’s access to schools, be part of the answer? It also extends to such efforts as tackling violations, abuses, or situations that keep children out of school; ensuring national legislation includes protection for the right to education. In addition, this also means adopting mechanisms to monitor the enforcement of compulsory education at a local level, including actions by school officials, parents, or community leaders which could jeopardise children’s access to education (Human Rights Watch, 2016).

In view of the above, it does appear that education provision and social protection have a symbiotic relationship. When education opportunities seem to fail on account of different vulnerabilities, social protection comes to the rescue. Part of the focus of this study was to find out how this relationship pans out: whether and how social protection could be said to support the right to education for vulnerable children.

2.2.6.1 Social protection programmes in support of the right to education

In general, social protection programmes do not just happen. There must be a vulnerability situation they are meant to prevent or to which they are responding. This is to ensure that vulnerabilities in which children find themselves do not disrupt their education opportunities. This section attempts to examine the triggers of education-targeted social protection programmes and the specific vulnerabilities that they are targeting. After all, appropriate social protection interventions must be informed by a risk and vulnerability assessment and analysis (Holmes, 2010).

Programmes in support of education availability

In situations where there is a scarcity of educational institutions (schools), many children do not go to school. Although quality remains a key concern, public works programmes have been used to improve infrastructure such as school buildings as well as availing a cash component that can be used to pay fees (Holmes, 2010:5). While looking at benefits of an economic or social nature, resettlement programmes can sometimes overlook such essential elements as provision of essential services in the form of schools and clinics. Under such situations, children find themselves at risk of missing out on their right to education.

According to Tomasevski (2001) provision of schools could come as a social and economic right. As such, Government is required to establish schools and/or to fund them or use a combination to ensure education is available. On the other hand, if this is done as a civil and political right, then the Government is expected to permit establishment of educational institutions by non-state actors.

Programmes in support of education accessibility

Social protection can support education through programmes that target the cost of schooling, which constitutes a major barrier (Dryden-Peterson, 2010). As a result, social protection programmes such as fee waivers, mostly targeting primary level, support education by removing school fees for poor households. Sometimes girls are specifically targeted (Holmes: 2010).

The cash transfer option has also proved its mettle in improving education outcomes, which include increased enrolment, attendance and attainment (Holmes, 2010). Even when the transfers come unconditionally, observation have been made that some

families prioritise books and uniforms as expenditure items when they receive income support. In South America, the majority of cash transfer programmes are conditional; where government or non-governmental organisations make regular payments of money (in some cases in kind) to individuals or households on condition that they comply with certain conditions relating to human capital development. In these cases, the objective is to decrease chronic or shock induced poverty, providing social protection, addressing social risk or reducing economic vulnerability, while promoting human capital development (Samson, Mac Queen & Van Neikerk, 2006; Davis, Dajdone, Dewbre & Covarrubias, 2015). Studies have shown that these transfers have resulted in increased school enrolment, while school feeding has both nutritional and enrolment benefits (Holmes, 2010).

The case of Orphans and other vulnerable children, who are already in-school, needs immediate redress. Thus, these children could be single or double orphans but their fate is more or less the same as they cannot afford the costs of schooling and face the additional burden of stigmatisation as orphanhood normally associated with HIV and AIDS. The case is worse for those who live in child headed households due to the heavy burden imposed by domestic and economic responsibilities (Fleming, 2015). The long and short is that they need additional support. Of importance to note such children are usually at the risk of infection themselves because of lack of parental guidance, economic hardships and increasingly susceptible to abuse and exploitation (Mwoma & Pillay, 2016).

In the Australian state of Victoria, it is recognised that there are various categories of children that face vulnerability and education disadvantage, at both the kindergarten and school levels. The state government is focused on helping such children to benefit from the education system with responses that include increased investment in child healthcare programmes. Further, through the implementation of this education programme there are supported playgroups, and free kindergarten (for early childhood care and support), while funding is made available to support camps, sport and excursions as well as breakfast for 25 000 students (Victoria State Government, 2016). In South Africa, support for vulnerable and educationally disadvantaged children includes the Government's 'no fee' policy, provision of books and stationery for all children and Government soup kitchens for provision of meals to Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC). Other organisations (non-state) are known to be providing

school uniforms. These efforts have drawn more children to enroll and attend school, thus enhancing their right to education access (Mwoma & Pillay, 2016). However, gaps in coverage still remain.

By default, girls are known to be a vulnerable group, almost always getting less preference than boys when it comes to education opportunities. In Burkina Faso, Plan USA supported girls' education programme (BRIGHT), seeking to improve their educational outcomes in areas where enrolment rates were lowest. This happened through a package of interventions that included construction of primary schools, water collection points, provision of gender-segregated latrines, take-home food rations for those with attendance rate exceeding 90%, community mobilisation and providing a holistic package (Plan International USA Inc., 2017). The programme included innovative girl-friendly interventions that saw provision of pre-schools where students could take their younger ones, and capacity building of Ministry officials and employment of more female teachers. These programmes were sustained by a combination of Government and community interventions (Plan International USA Inc, 2017). A preliminary evaluation found that girls' primary school enrolment went up by 20% and there were improvements in Mathematics and French scores for both boys and girls. Furthermore, an impact evaluation, conducted four years after project close-out, showed that schools that were under the BRIGHT programme were more accessible, had better infrastructure and resources, employed more teachers and sustained girl friendly characteristics compared to those that did not have the programme. Besides, and more importantly, these schools had experienced a 6% reduction in child marriages in surrounding villages. It was concluded that:

Altogether, the estimated impacts suggest that a school construction programme that provides access to and improves the quality of schools for children in rural Burkina Faso can have lasting impacts on a generation of children in the country. However, it appears that the complete package of complementary interventions that accompanied school construction was vital if the impacts on the children in the targeted communities were to be sustained at a higher level. In addition, maintaining the girl-friendly characteristics of the primary schools is an important factor for the programme to continue to yield larger positive impacts on girls (Plan International USA Inc, 2017).

In India, universal access and quality remain elusive in spite of policy and constitutional provisions on education access (Country Policy Brief, 2009). For them, meaningful access “requires high attendance, progression through grades with little or no repetition, and learning outcomes that confirm that basic outcomes are being mastered” (Country Policy Brief, 2009:2). Disadvantaged groups include poor children and girls and, in addition, variations also exist across regions, states, geographical areas. As a result, some caste and ethnicity groups and tribes continue to have less access. The following provides a summative statement regarding the Indian situation:

there are many interacting factors which contribute to exclusion from schooling. The Indian context is so diverse that social stratification, gender inequity, location and poverty vary greatly across States and communities and often interact. Together they form a complex nexus of exclusion and it is important to understand relationships between factors (2009:3). When they do have access, it is of poor quality (Country Policy Brief, 2009).

In response, a massive infrastructure development programme and teacher recruitment drive got underway at the national level. On the other hand, the District Primary Development Programme, with the support of both multilateral and bilateral donors brought in additional resources. The focus was on improvement of school environment (buildings, tap water provision, toilet facilities) as well as provision of instructional materials and teacher training. Meanwhile, community mobilisation efforts saw the formation of village education committees, parent-teacher and mother to mother associations. Although quality continues to be an issue, there have been improvements in student enrolment and retention (Country Policy Brief, 2009).

Programmes in support of education acceptability

The case of Orphans and other vulnerable children who are already in school is worthy the attention it deserves. Among other needs, they require food to ensure that children get the energy to play and learn. However, some children come to school with no breakfast at home, these readily fall prey to hunger, resulting in diminished participation at school. In their study, Mwoma and Pillay (2016) indicated that indeed some children came to school already hungry. This has resulted in suggestions that such children be provided with meals at school and also rations to take home. These

findings are consistent with earlier findings by Santa-Ana-Tellez et al (2011) that nutrition interventions were needed and these included take home rations.

Programmes in support of education adaptability

While these children are already vulnerable, a further challenge may be how to cope with life situations that they face at home, especially looking after parents who are terminally sick. The question maybe: do they have the skills to do that? This may result in impaired participation in education such as by not attending school regularly failure to do homework. Mwoma & Pillay (2016) suggest providing life skills as a response to such situations. There are also suggestions of extra support from teachers (after school) or social workers due to peculiarity of their problems as part of a well-planned programme.

In line with Bronfenbrenner's social ecological theory, a collaborative responsibility, where it exists, among family, school and government can go a long way in ensuring children are assisted in all facets. Dealing with only one aspect while leaving other issues unattended may prove costly in the end (Mwoma & Pillay, 2016). Reason being such children need all round assistance.

South-East Asia block, have 10-members namely: Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, LAO PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam). All these have varied levels of development and demographic characteristics. However, they do have one issue in common. That is, they have a convergence of thought in terms of their human development policies, based on the belief that education is a key enabler for entry into a knowledge based economy and a global environment (Sadiman, 2004). They have formed SEAMEO (Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organisation) to be the major vehicle and platform for education development efforts in the region.

All the countries give unequivocal support to education rights for their citizens. Issues of equity and quality are given special emphasis in both constitutional provisions and education policy frameworks. However, despite such positive initiatives, provision of equity and quality in reality has been elusive across the region and within countries (Sadiman, 2004).

...opening access to quality education and learning opportunity to all children and people is not always easy as there are a number of constraints. The basic challenge is how to meet these two conflicting requirements: on the one hand the demand for rapid expansion of the scale of provision and on the other hand the requirement to improve the quality of provision. There is a tendency that quality is not adequately addressed (being sacrificed) due to the fast expansion of learning opportunity (Sadiman, 2004: 2).

Equity issues emanate from wide variations on account of rural-urban divide, between provision in state and private institutions and also due to gender and other socio-economic variations: lack of schools and classrooms. In addition, other facilities, shortage of qualified teachers, inadequate textbooks and other learning materials, especially in remote schools have also come to the fore. Vulnerability is not just about individual children but also the environment in which they live.

Meanwhile, quality is equally varied but the region has opted to look at the education provision as a system and as a way to better understand the issue of quality education. Reference is made to the input-process-output-feedback characterisation that is found in most systems. Whereas inputs include students (the raw materials), curriculum, learning materials, teachers, school leadership, learning facilities and the environment, the process involves interactions between learners and their teachers and output is what comes out of that process

Queensland (Australia) came up with Action Plan for Rural and Remote Education (2011-2015) as a response to the systemic marginalisation that has left vulnerable students with little or no access to education (Department of Education and Training, 2011). The plan, which had both an equity and quality focus targeted students who were geographically-isolated through provision of hostel accommodation, instructional and learning materials and remote area allowances. Parents with education support services such as parenting for those with disabled children and emotional well-being of young people were also brought on board. Teacher support consisted of improved incentives to attract and retain quality teachers in remote schools. Moreover, there were induction programmes put in place for newly appointed principals of remote

schools. Though not evaluated, it is understood this went a long way to improve quality of education and provide for equity.

Although Tomaševski's (2001) 4-A model is an important reference framework, the programme interventions are not necessarily structured in similar fashion. Often, these are overlapping and complementary in nature, sometimes a single intervention spilling over into more than one category. For example, while provision of classrooms and textbooks are essentially availability issues, they are equally key to provision of quality and acceptable education. Accordingly, this section looked at different interventions within the education sector of different countries, the vulnerabilities they were addressing and the perceived contribution to promoting the right to education through a number of social protection programmes. Examples are drawn from different countries across the globe.

2.3 Theoretical Framework



Theoretical frameworks are academic traditions that serve as organisational 'hooks' on which to 'hang' research projects (Evans, Coon & Ume, 2011). A theoretical framework may assist in such things as research design" and *"provide an orderly, efficient scheme of bringing together observations and facts from separate investigations, assist in summarising and linking findings into an accessible, coherent and useful structure; guide understanding of phenomena – both the what and why of their occurrence..."* (Polit & Beck, 2004 in Evans, Coon and Ume, 2011: 3). The current study on "Social Protection as a Mechanism for Promoting the Right to Education" is underpinned by two theoretical frameworks: human rights based approach and Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory.

2.3.1 Rights Based Approach

Development practice has largely been informed by charity or needs based models. These were premised on the notion that certain categories of people, such as the poor or children, were less able to participate in determining their own destiny, a position arising from their perceived subservient roles (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007; Offenheiser

& Holcombe, 2000). Accordingly, philanthropists made decisions on their behalf, based on their perceived needs. Largely, assistance provided was short-term and, once the support period had ended, beneficiaries resorted to their original state.

Following the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, voices grew louder in criticising the traditional needs based approaches on the grounds of objectifying beneficiaries. Human Rights Based Approach (HRBA) began to find space and traction in development practice (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007). In essence, HRBA;

focuses on the inalienable human rights of each individual, as expressed in United Nations instruments, and on governments' obligation to fulfil, respect and protect those internationally defined human rights and, in so doing, it aims to support and empower individuals and communities to claim their rights (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007:2), including right to education and social protection.

The definition brings out three key pillars of the HRBA, which must manifest from the moment the programme is designed, through implementation processes to the outcomes. These include (a) the approach's enduring normative characteristic and the need to act in accordance with standards as set out in the human rights instruments, together with the principles that underpin them; (b) the government's moral, social and legal duty to fulfil or cause fulfilment of those rights; and (c) the people's empowerment dimension (Sepulveda & Nyst, 2012; Oxfam, 2014). The last pillar appears to be especially significant, with views from Piron (2004) underlining its purpose as that of making people active citizens with rights, expectations and responsibilities so that they are able to take their own decisions and not necessarily have them made on their behalf at all times.

In light of the foregoing, development actors must view the HRBA "as a catalyst that can transform the practice of development from a focus on identifying and meeting needs to enabling people to recognise and claim their rights ..." (Nyamu-Musembi & Cornwall, 2004:54). HRBA is considered a form of 'best practice' from the perspective of design and management of any development programme (Oxfam, 2014). This means that provision of education and enabling social protection services, issues central to this study, should not be viewed as acts of benevolence but a fulfilment of claims to children's rights.

2.3.2 Legal framework

Given that both education and social protection are deeply entrenched in the realm of human rights, their provision, first and foremost, must be done in accordance with standards set in the human rights instruments; these include, among others: United Nations Declaration for Human Rights (Articles 26 and 22), International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) (articles 13 and 14) and right to social protection (article 9) (Sepúlveda and Nyst, 2012) as well as the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (articles 26 and 28).

Provision of education and supporting social protection services must be done from a human rights perspective as guided by the provisions of these global instruments, together with those of regional and national instruments. Be that as it may, compliance with international standards is considered as the only first step of the human rights approach as “social protection must be enshrined and defined in national legal frameworks, and supported by a national strategy and action plan” (Sepúlveda & Nyst, 2012: 26). Such a strategy and related action plans must set out eligibility requirements for social protection. This helps to guarantee transparency, avail information about existing programmes and define roles and responsibilities of all involved in the delivery of social protection programmes. In addition, financial requirements must be adequate, benefits predictable and mechanisms for complaints and appeal accessible. Furthermore, participation channels for beneficiaries must be provided for (Sepúlveda & Nyst, 2012). The current study, in part, sought to answer questions related to whether provision social protection programmes that focus on promoting education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district are compliant with requirements of the specified human rights instruments. Subsidiary questions relate to why and/or why not? Based on the findings, recommendations are then made on how best to make improvements.

2.3.3 Rights holders and duty bearers

Another key pillar of the HRBA is related to the key players in the subject of interest. These can be identified as right holders (children) and duty-bearers (often the state, but also non-state actors) engaging in a power-relations process in which rights

holders lay a claim on their rights (to education and social protection) and duty bearers are bound by the obligation and power to fulfil, protect and impact upon the rights of those holders (InsightShare, 2010; Moncrieffe, 2004 and Boesen & Martin, 2007). In that scene, development stakeholders (rights based organisations) become the 'referee' whose role is, on one hand, to empower rights holders to claim their rights and demand accountability from duty bearers. On the other hand, their duty is to strengthen duty bearers' capacity to respond and be accountable in protecting, respecting and fulfilling human rights in what should be seen as a spirit of fair play (Nyamu-Musembi & Cornwall, 2004). Typically, the end result must be 'change' in the lives of people, emanating from the empowerment processes. Change is also expected to come from institutional, legal, environmental, economic, technical, social and cultural conditions arising from the efforts of both the duty bearer and right holder. Critical questions of interest to the study are: What role is Government playing as a provider of last resort? How is it facilitating provision in the event of capacity constraints on its part? What empowerment processes are in place and how are they yielding desired outcomes? Thus, HRBA will serve as a suitable framework for this study as it will help in the analysis of the roles of the key players: duty bearers, rights holders or catalysts (development stakeholders), whether they understand their own and each other's roles. The study also sought to identify if the stakeholders were aware of their roles and the extent to which they play such roles according to the rules and expectations in the delivery of education and social protection services to support vulnerable children.

2.3.4 Human rights values and principles

Outside adherence to a legal framework, a key tenet of the HRBA to programming is the application of underlying human rights values and principles to the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of social protection programmes (Sepúlveda & Nyst, 2012). According to UNESCO and UNICEF (2007:115); "Among these human rights principles are: universality and inalienability; indivisibility; interdependence and inter-relatedness; non-discrimination and equality; participation and inclusion; accountability and the rule of law". The next section takes a brief look at some of these values and principles and the implications for the proposed study.

Universality and inalienability

This is about the fact that human rights are for all members of society and cannot just be given away, either through one's volition or through the action of others (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007). In Mwenezi, are there people (children in particular) who, for one reason or another have their rights to education and social protection denied or withdrawn? The principle is also violated if there are others who, by virtue of their circumstances are unable to enjoy these rights.

Interdependence and inter-relatedness

The underlying principle is that some human rights depend on each other. The enjoyment of one right may well depend on whether or not another right has been enjoyed. Often, if a child is denied the right to food or health, the probability of their right to education or life being violated for that matter inevitably becomes high. The point has been made elsewhere that because vulnerabilities can be such a complex mix, an isolated response may not provide the answer. Although the focus of the study was social protection programmes as they seek to promote the right to education, it was necessary to understand the bigger picture.



Non-discrimination and equality

In simple terms, the principle is based on the notion that all human beings are born equal and thus places everyone on an equal footing and demands that there be no discrimination on any grounds. If discrimination, real or potential, is detected, HRBA should have measures in place to deal directly with the sources of discrimination. Inequalities on grounds such as marginalisation are much too common in different communities in Zimbabwe. Could Mwenezi be an exception? The study looked at whether special measures were or could not be taken to address them. Often, some vulnerabilities 'hide' because of the manner in which data is handled. According to UNICEF (2007), disaggregation by various categories such as location, sex and disability helps to give visibility to vulnerable groups for prioritisation in interventions. The study took particular interest and sought to assess the application of this principle in the delivery of education and the associated social protection services, especially

against the backdrop of children's different circumstances and exposure to different vulnerability types.

Participation and inclusion

The basis of this principle is that all people, no matter their social status or any other circumstances, have an entitlement to participate when issues that affect them arise. Participation must be free and meaningful and include areas such as decision-making, programme planning and implementation (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2007). In the case of the current study, participation was analysed from the perspective of whether or not all groups were afforded the chance to do so. What were the implications of participation, or lack thereof, on the effectiveness of delivery of social protection programmes and promotion of the right to education?

2.3.5 Ecological Systems Theory



This study on social protection as a mechanism of promoting the right to education for vulnerable children was also guided by the Ecological Systems Theory. Originally attributed to Bronfenbrenner, the theory is based on the premise that every human being develops through a process of interaction with their environment (Walker, 2016). However, Bronfenbrenner acknowledges the complexity of the environment and admits that although recognising the principality of the individual developing child (at the centre), there are five environmental layers of influence, including the additional fifth layer to describe time. The layers are bi-directional; meaning that an inner layer influences and is influenced by an outer layer. The intensity of each layer depends on its position relative to the child (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

The ecological systems theory is often illustrated as a series of five concentric or 'nested' circles to reflect the relationships among the different levels (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). While each circle defines a separate system, it is considered to be part of a hierarchical structure that serves to illustrate how this comes together to bear on the individual at the centre. The five different ecological levels range from the microsystem (nearest the child), the mesosystem, the exosystem and the macrosystem (furthest from the child) and the chronosystem. Some authors just illustrate this with an arrow across the other systems. Figure 2.2 provides an overview of the 'nested' systems.

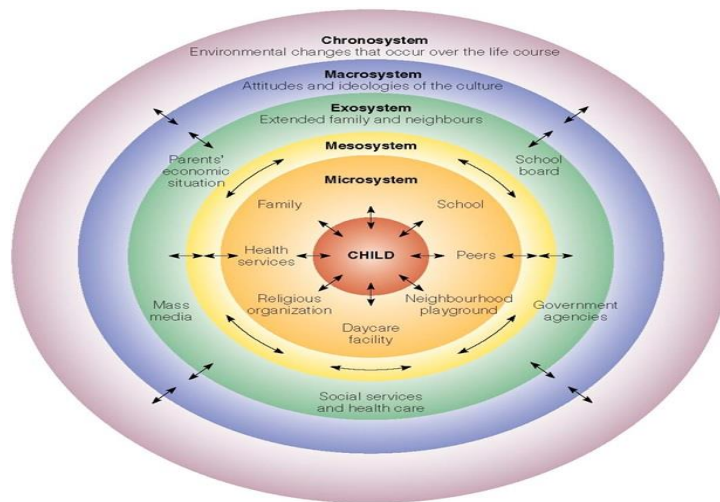


FIGURE 2-2: OVERVIEW OF THE ECOLOGICAL SYSTEMS THEORY

(Adapted from Bronfenbrenner's, 1979, 2005)

The layered environmental system around the child is a reflection society. With interest focussed on the individual child, the Mwenezi community in which that child is developing, relative to education and social protection, is characterised by different members. Some of these members are very close to the child and others distant but all have influence on the child's access to these services. What follows is a more detailed analysis of the implications and relevance of this theory to the study.

2.3.5.1 The individual child

The individual child is at the core of the complex web and has characteristics that include sex, age, health and other individual variables that interplay with the environment. How that individual develops and behaves becomes a product of factors in the various layered nets. In the context of the current study, the developing individual is the vulnerable school child who triggers the need for social protection support in order to enjoy the right to education. These are developmental issues that interplay with the characteristics of the individual child and the manner in which the vulnerable child grapples with them is a function of the multi-layered influences. In turn, how the child behaves also has some bearing on the environmental context. Needless to say, some of these characteristics could be the grounds on which decisions of whether or not to support the child are made. These could also have a bearing on other children's

situations and disposition to opportunities. Thus, the study of this type could not ignore the characteristics of this innermost system.

2.3.5.2 The microsystem

The developing individual is 'nested' within the next level (the microsystem), which defines the complexity of the relationship between the developing child and the environment in their immediate setting (Bronfenbrenner, 2005). Essentially, this is about the family and neighbourhood whose occupants include people with whom the individual interacts face to face, through observation, experience or participation in their activities. Included are those in the home (parents, siblings), school (fellow students, teachers) and friends (Salem Press Encyclopedia, 2016). It should be noted that while the child affects people of the microsystem, that system equally affects how the child develops. In the current study, this immediate environment could not be ignored in managing responses to the social protection issues and processes. The microsystem elements have an immediate bearing on the individual child and are also best placed to understand the nature of the vulnerability. They must, therefore, actively participate in delivering the solution, especially considering that social protection and education itself is not just about financial and material needs but also about the social and psychological aspects. Positive parenting, for example, has a direct impact on children. Therefore, in order to understand and develop meaningful solutions, the study also needed to take a focus on parents, schools as well as children (HM Government, 2018; Waldfogel & Washbrook, 2011).

2.3.5.3 The mesosystem

In the mesosystem, the environmental influences and interactions become increasingly complex. Elements within this system interact among themselves as well as show linkages with those between at least two settings as shown by arrow: from microsystem, through mesosystem to exosystem. Ordinarily, at least one setting does not contain the developing individual. However, events that occur influence process within the immediate setting that include the developing individual. In the current study on social protection as a mechanism for promoting right to education, the individual's

community is enlarging. A change in social protection delivery policy and practice may emanate from here: the leadership in the ward and from child protection committees, some of whom would be in selection committees that develop criteria for beneficiary selection. Their decisions may come to bear on whether or not the individual (vulnerable child) is able to access the services that enhance or retard their right to education.

2.3.5.4 Exosystem and Macrosystem

The exosystem and macrosystem, encompass factors that the developing individual neither causes nor affects because they are far removed from him/her. Examples would include neighbourhood, industry, media, the culture and subculture, beliefs and laws or other broader social context issues in which the developing individual lives. It is unlikely that the individual ever has any direct contact with these but what happens there has an influence on his/her behaviour. Because of these influencing forces, though not directly, engagement with them enables a better understanding of the issues that affect vulnerable children (McLinden, 2017). Some of the elements such as the media could be influential in advocating on behalf of children while others such as industry might come in with social protection support programmes for the vulnerable children.

2.3.5.5 The chronosystem

This is about the individual's developmental experiences over his/her lifetime. Although the individual finds themselves enmeshed multiple environmental ecosystems, which influence their development, the additional dimension of time affects changes over time; such as changes in family structure, physical location, employment status of parents. Inevitably, such changes bring about new realities (Neal and Neal, 2013). It will be useful as part of this study how the time dimension has and is impacting on the lives of vulnerable children in Mwenezi communities.

2.3.5.6 Summary implications of the ecological systems theory

This theory finds relevance in the current study on social protection as a mechanism of promoting the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district. No single factor affects the child's development, but the interplay of variables in all the five levels. Children and their vulnerabilities need to be understood in the context of their families and environments as well as changes over time. Any interventions, therefore, have to be informed by a developmental approach that tackles all ecological levels (Vincent, 2015; Cefai & Camilleri, 2015). Thus, a close look at the ecological systems theory enable the researcher to better understand the social protection delivery processes as a factor in promoting the right to education.

2.3.6 Ecological Systems Theory and Human Rights Framework Interface

The two theoretical frameworks have much in common and should work synergistically to promote social protection provision in the context of right to education. The centrality of the vulnerable individual child is a feature of both theories and, as beneficiary, is the rights holder. Those lying in the outer circles (systems theory) are the significant others who seek to provide for the needy child (Human Rights Framework). Whereas those significant others can create conditions of vulnerability, they also present opportunities to be part of the solution. The child must enjoy social protection services by right or by virtue of being inside the systems. Either way, this demonstrates the synergy between the Human Rights Framework and the Systems Theory.

2.4 Strategies used by schools and other social protection providers to deliver social protection programmes that support the right to education

In terms of delivery of education-related programmes, schools and other providers (NGOs, CBOs and community) are responsible for the day to day delivery issues, usually within a guiding Government policy framework. Unless otherwise directed, each community comes up with its own strategies that work in the context of their realities. However, there are often generic strategies that local implementers use. Strategies considered include the following: community awareness creation,

beneficiary selection, networking and collaboration, training for implementers and support and monitoring. Challenges experienced and how they are resolved are considered within the context of each strategy

2.4.1 Awareness creation

2.4.1.1 Importance of creating awareness

A good programme intervention is one that starts off with community awareness in order to share information and stimulate demand for the services (Cheetham, 2002). Awareness-raising campaigns can be defined as “organised communication activities which aim to create awareness on particular topics ...” (Masiulienė et al., (2015: 4). The need for awareness creation was echoed by the Ministry of State for Environmental Affairs Public Awareness and Communication (n.d), which postulated that it breeds success since it creates space for possible collaboration and buy-in from targeted stakeholders, especially communities. Furthermore, a focus on the benefits should boost efforts such as social marketing because communities need to appreciate and accept the messages. According to that Ministry, the issue is not whether awareness creation should be done but how it should be conducted.

Awareness creation has been shown to be of great value when carefully managed. In the United States, for instance, the Head-Start Programme, which focused on children of the poor, owed much of its success to the heightened public awareness about its purpose. The awareness had been brought about by combined efforts of its protagonists and those of the media (Barnes-Proby, Schultz, Jaycox, & Ayer, 2017). The programme was not only widely accepted but increasingly grew in stature, attracting increasing budgetary allocations from successive US governments. Most important, this programme received significant acclaim in other countries as a step in the quest for human rights promotion (Barnes-Proby, Schultz, Jaycox, & Ayer, 2017).

In Egypt, the Ishraq Programme for marginalised girls owes its massive acceptance to parental and community orientation right from the beginning. Its subsequent success manifested through increased enrolments, reintegrating the girls into formal schooling, improved literacy and other life skills as well as closing the gender gap

(Galal, 2014). It was given added strength and acceptance by the involvement of village committees made up of parents, religious leaders and other influential people in the awareness raising campaigns. Its major advantage was that; people could relate to local community members whom they knew. Their messages included the importance of education toward girls and assisting girls in taking part in local village services, such as health, including social and economic services such as banking, post office and school (Galal, 2014).

In Malawi, an evaluation of Orphan care activities with a focus on provision of shelter for pre-schools, and trained caregivers; rehabilitation of boreholes; and provision of teaching materials, among other activities, showed the benefits of awareness creation. Emerging from the evaluation report was that awareness creation had enhanced community ownership, especially commitment from local leadership, and multi-sectoral support, which became key to programme implementation efforts (Schenk, 2009). In addition to the above, other studies agreed and concluded that investment in awareness creation stimulated increased participation and galvanised communities to heightened interest and support for an after school programme for children with disabilities (Unger, Woolfolk, Harper & Cuevas, 2008).

Linked with the foregoing assertion, awareness activities for any programme seeking to benefit communities should not be taken for granted. It is not only essential as a key programming strategy but also due to the immense benefits that emanate from awareness efforts. These include community buy-in, which augurs well for ownership and sustainability (Galal, 2014; Barnes-Proby, Schultz, Jaycox, & Ayer, 2017; Unger, Woolfolk, Harper & Cuevas, 2008). Given the foregoing, this study sought to find out the extent to which awareness was carried out in social protection programmes for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district.

2.4.1.2 Strategies for awareness creation

The importance of awareness creation needs to be supported by clear strategies to add value to participation in the programme in question. For that reason, clear and unambiguous strategies need to be adopted for use.

Awareness creation process steps should include, among others, clear identification of stakeholders and the tools in the communication kit (Ministry of State for Environmental Affairs Public Awareness and Communication (n.d)). Furthermore, the Ministry is expected to identify direct meetings, publications or media as key elements of that communication toolkit. However, the Ministry warns against insensitivity to local circumstances since what works in one situation may not necessarily work in all other situations.

In support of the foregoing, Barnes-Proby, Schultz, Jaycox, and Ayer (2017) provide a detailed package that could serve awareness efforts well. According to the authors, outreach activities for awareness creation should not be limited to new programmes but also serve to enhance participation in existing programmes. Purposefully designed outreach programmes and activities as well as building partnerships, funding agencies, and communities create co-ownership that brings about success. These should include clear identification of target population, obtaining input from community and other stakeholders, be culturally sensitive in the messages to be used and take advantage of various platforms in the community (Barnes-Proby, Schultz, Jaycox, & Ayer, 2017). Masiulienė, et. al., (2015) contribute to this debate by proposing a package that includes planning, goal setting, target audience, message, stakeholder engagement, communication channels, resource management and multi-sectoral collaboration as essential elements of any successful awareness-raising campaign.

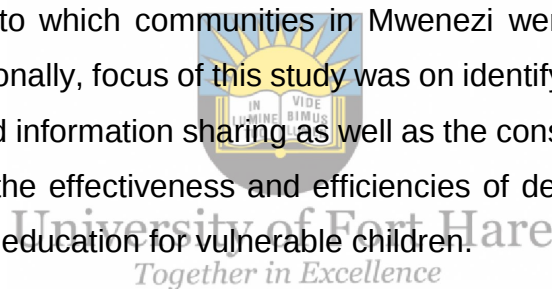
2.4.1.3 Challenges associated with creating awareness

Often, awareness-creation efforts should never be assumed to be problem free as these can face a number of challenges which in essence should be confronted upfront rather than just wished away. Besides the challenge of reaching out to the remotest of communities, there is always the added challenge of getting the message appreciated in conservative communities. This applies especially if, for example, the programmes are seen as challenging the cultural fabric of the affected communities. In Malawi and Zambia, a challenge of community apathy manifested when it came to implementing awareness programmes. Although the agreement was that village committees would spearhead community-level mobilisation and awareness, it was found that these had not been formed and no tangible steps were being taken towards

the care and support of vulnerable children (Donahue & Mwewa, 2006). The answer was partially found in relentless efforts, including harnessing support from influential leaders and community members.

Although this is not commonly noted in the literature, these findings imply that there could be a silent fear that awareness could stimulate too much demand beyond resources available; meaning that when too many get to know, a crisis of expectation can be created, resulting in overwhelming demand over what the programme is able to support. However, this should be mitigated by use of clear eligibility criteria.

The current study was on delivery of social protection programmes that targeted the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district; whereby the programmes were expected to be implemented within a socio-cultural milieu. The extent to which the community context and stakeholders had a bearing on the level of support the programmes enjoyed was of the essence. It was, therefore, part of this research to find out the extent to which communities in Mwenezi were aware of the available programmes. Additionally, focus of this study was on identifying steps taken to ensure such awareness and information sharing as well as the consequences of such efforts, or lack thereof, on the effectiveness and efficiencies of delivery of the programmes vis-a-vis the right to education for vulnerable children.



2.4.2 Beneficiary targeting and selection

Social protection provision is fundamentally about matching vulnerability against responding programmes and initiatives. Best case scenario is where the resources that programmes bring exceed or just match the needs on the ground. However, experience has shown that this is never the case as needs always exceed capacity to support. Thus, there must be a justifiable mechanism of determining who the programme will support and who it will not support. Beneficiary targeting and selection become key strategies for resource allocations. This section reviews literature on targeting and selection; covering the value of the strategy and what it takes to implement it in the context of various attendant challenges. In the context of this study, an underlying consideration is whether the targeting and selection measures provided

reasonable guarantees of support to the right education cause for vulnerable children under the social protection programmes.

2.4.2.1 The concept and purpose of beneficiary targeting and selection

According to Kuhn, Brosig and Zhang (2016), an important feature of programme design is beneficiary targeting and selection. In simple terms, targeting involves defining and selecting those that will benefit from the programme. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2016) has provided a comprehensive context of both concept and rationale of beneficiary targeting and selection. This is what the organisation had to say:

Whereas many countries in Southern Africa have increased their commitment to the provision of noncontributory social protection (social assistance) measures to groups of the populations that are exposed to different sources of risks, a critical issue faced by all countries in the development of social protection systems is how to select beneficiaries. Given the tight fiscal constraints on the one hand, and the widespread poverty and vulnerability levels on the other, countries are not able to effectively cover everyone in need of social assistance, particularly during the early stages of developing their social protection systems. The numbers of people in need are too great and place excessive demands on a country's limited financial resources (ILO, 2016:5).

Targeting and selection become inevitable with demand for services and outstripping supply. Thus, the critical issue about targeting and selection is not whether it should be done but about making the hard choices of how it shall be carried out, who shall be included and who shall not.

Beneficiary targeting and selection is a strategic mechanism that underpins the beneficiary identification process. By careful implementation of the mechanism, the neediest are identified and prioritised from a bigger pool of aspirants (Grosh, 2014).

The study on social protection in support of the right to education in Mwenezi district could not escape the scrutiny of these processes. It had to begin with understanding

the perceptions of respondents of issues surrounding beneficiary targeting and selection, specifically: what they thought about the need for targeting and selection.

2.4.2.2 Implementing beneficiary selection

Beneficiary selection is a highly contentious process, characterised by sensitivities, around who gets and who does not in the context of widespread poverty. Once the Government has provided policy direction in terms of targeting and selection, it gets down to implementers on the ground to translate those policies into practice. Among other activities, it has to do with issues of registration and selection.

According to ILO (2016), translating policies into implementation is where, for example, errors of inclusion and exclusion do manifest the most. Other factors that come into play include diagnosis of need, availability of budget and factors of the political economy (Grosh, 2014). One way is to select in accordance with guidelines provided by the state.

Use of selection guidelines

Targeting and selection of beneficiaries is often done in accordance with guidelines provided by the Government. For instance, in Zimbabwe, the Government sets out the targeting criteria and shares these with lower levels for implementation (Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare, 2016). In the main, these embrace geographical targeting that includes all beneficiaries within a defined geographical area. It also comes down to specifying the category of coverage such as all primary schools. However, as long as the programme will reach some and not all within that defined area/category, further guidance is needed. Means testing, proxy-means testing and community targeting may be considered. Often, a combination of more than one targeting system is recommended.

Role of stakeholders in beneficiary identification and selection

There have been arguments of perceived value in community input and participation in beneficiary targeting and selection processes (Browne, 2013; Robertson, et al., 2012). The involvement of community members allows the programme to capitalize on existing structures and social and cultural knowledge. Besides, this serves to

improve ownership of the programme, transparency and fairness (Samson, 2009), while reducing the potential for jealousy and conflict (Robertson, et al., 2012).

A mechanism of community involvement is the use of selection committees. These are made up of community leaders and/or members. Such committees determine individual eligibility based on inside knowledge. Studies on the effectiveness of community-based cash transfer programmes in Kalomo (Zambia) and Mchinji (Malawi) have shown the use of selection committees yielding high incidence of accuracy and efficiency (Schuring, Boonstoppel & Michelo, 2007; Miller, Tsoka & Reitchet, 2008). Although targeting focus was the household, there were education benefits that included payment of school fees, buying uniforms and paying for other school related expenses. In spite of its successes, community selection was not without fault as errors of inclusion and exclusion emerged. Subjectivity also crept into the process (Miller, Tsoka & Reitchet, 2008). In Zimbabwe, community participation in the selection of beneficiaries of an education assistance programme is reported to have been successful through improved ownership and conflict reduction (Chiroro, Musker & Smith, 2012). However, as in other countries, a criticism that emanated from an ex-post evaluation was that of weak administrative capacities. The recommendation was that use of committees alone was not full proof, but consistent reference to guidance on selection criteria (Stoeffler, Mills & del Nino, 2016).

Given its clear benefits, it was of interest in the current study to examine the extent to which stakeholders, especially communities, were involved in beneficiary selection in Mwenezi and the benefits realised. Whatever the mechanism used, it was assessed for its impact on the programmes with a view to improvement.

2.4.3 Networking, collaboration and mutual support

No single organisation has all the answers to programming. This applies to implementing social protection activities that seek to promote the right to education. At the local level, organisations can achieve more by networking and collaboration to accomplish goals that they would not achieve as individual organisations. This can be done in various ways:

2.4.3.1 Sharing information

At the simplest level, organisations can gain much by simply exchanging information (networking) on what they are doing (HM Government, 2018). For example, organisations working in the same area, most probably with the same target groups can forestall activity clashes by sharing their calendar of events. It is also argued that what may start as regular networking meetings “to compare notes” can result in a decision to work on certain tasks together. Networking platforms can include lunchtime meetings, sharing newsletters, participation in e-mail networks and seminars and conferences.

2.4.3.2 Coordination

Organisations can work together at a higher level than simply networking through coordination. Coordination involves each organisation modifying its activities to enable working together for the purpose of providing better services to their clients. A good example is where organisations go beyond sharing calendars of events change events to avoid conflicts. When this happens, gaps are filled, activities and prevents are streamlined and duplication is avoided because a coordinating relationship requires more organisational involvement, time, and trust than a networking relationship (Rico, Sánchez-Manzanares, Gil, Alcover & Tabernero; 2011).

2.4.3.3 Cooperation

The third level in which organisations can work together is through a cooperation relationship. This is an arrangement which goes beyond “sharing information” (networking) and “making adjustments” to their activities (coordination). The whole process entails sharing resources, such as staff, expertise, space and funds, to be able to do a better job. Cooperation is of a much higher order and calls for more trust and commitment. Organisations may have to let go of their organisational beliefs and practices to make cooperation work.

2.4.3.4 Collaboration

An even higher level of organisations working together is that of collaboration; that involves moving away from the philosophy of individualism to one of genuine partnership; seeking to help each other bolster their capacities to do their jobs. For example, when at least two community based organisations (CBOs) apply for training, they are both putting their time and credibility on the line in order to raise funds in an effort to improve the capacity of each organisation. In the process, each organisation is not just carrying its share of responsibilities but also the credit and recognition that comes with it.

Collaboration is a lot smoother if organisations are in the same sector. However, more often, a community is made up of organisations from different sectors. In this case, multi-sectoral collaboration is the way to go. According to Axner (2017), multi-sectoral collaboration happens when organisations and individuals representing different sectors (private, public, nonprofit, private citizens) from different parts of the community form a partnership for the purpose of solving systemic problems besetting their community, such as a failing education system. Once these parties agree to work together, they must put aside individual organisational or sectorial interests in order to give priority to the common good of the community. Multi-sectoral collaborations present more complex and challenging situations but the rewards can also be greater, if it works well (Gratton & Ericksen, 2007).

2.4.3.5 Challenges of networking and collaboration

It is the assumption that there would be several organisations implementing different education support programmes in Mwenezi district. Working relationships were of particular interest and significance to this study. This would serve to strengthen those areas already working well while working to improve those that are not functioning well.

2.4.4 Training of implementers

Training is vital for any organisation for the purpose of expanding knowledge and skills to enhance better performance. The time and effort spent in training is a worthwhile investment that serves to improve employee performance, address gaps and weaknesses and increasing productivity, among other benefits. As a pre-requisite to training, important considerations include identifying targets and their training needs as well as designing the appropriate curriculum for the training.

2.4.4.1 Identification of targets for training

This is an important form of capacity building suitable for stakeholders nearest to the point of service delivery. The training could come in generic or targeted form with both an administrative and technical pitch, depending on the areas of need. Even where training has been undertaken before, it should be considered when a new intervention comes into force; the reason being that there is usually a mismatch between what implementers are used to and the demands of the new project.

Areas of focus could include programme management (including monitoring and evaluation), financial management and technical aspects. The probability, of every programme coming with new features is high, hence the need to take training as an ongoing process. Beneficiaries could also gain from training to enable them to know their rights and responsibilities.

2.4.4.2 Training curriculum and materials

When training is undertaken, a well-defined curriculum, usually accompanied by training materials, should be used to ensure consistency from one training to another and from one group to another. Major features of the programme, together with child protection issues where it covers children should feature prominently. In Indonesia, the training of officials following the Tsunami in social research methodologies enabled them to better deliver through data that was collected and management to inform decisions (Cypryk & Ovadya, 2014).

What training has been or is being offered in Mwenezi and how have the participants responded to it? In addition, how is its usefulness perceived by stakeholders and participants in terms of enhancing programme delivery? These questions were of interest in the study on social protection programmes as a mechanism for promoting the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district.

2.4.5 Programme monitoring

2.4.5.1 Concept and rationale of monitoring

Mahmood, Anwar and Khan (2012) define monitoring as a mechanism that management uses to obtain basic information about the implementation of programme or project. According to them, organisations will use different models for the monitoring function: some opting for internal monitoring while others depend on an external model, where a third party monitors the programme.

Some systems put in place specific units. The Government of the State of Punjab, for example, instituted Programme Monitoring and Implementation Unit (PMIU) for its secondary schools' Programme to 'keep an eye on the day to day activities of its education institutions, the ultimate purpose of which is to:

Ensure the effectiveness of the activities being undertaken; efficiency with which they are being implemented; the continued relevance of the proposed actions in an evolving environment to assess the impact and determine the sustainability of the outputs; and to propose corrective course of actions whenever necessary (Sajjad & Shah, 2013:3).

The activities of the PMIU were well supported by external Monitoring and Evaluation validation processes, focusing on different components of the schools' functioning. The results were a combination of timely reporting, gap identification and recommendations for improvement.

2.4.5.2 Community participation in programme monitoring

The enhancement of programme effectiveness could emanate from community level monitoring (Ahmed & Zeshan, 2014). The participatory approach in monitoring and evaluation of social protection programmes enables detection of problem areas and facilitates corrective action. The participation of children and their families is merited with elements of timeliness, effectiveness and ownership, all essential elements of sound programming (UNICEF, 2012a; Kaplan & Jones, 2013). In particular:

Child participation in policy formulation at all stages of social protection policy design, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation helps in the identification of specific needs and vulnerabilities, while giving an empowering voice to those most directly impacted (UNICEF, 2012a).

In spite of the value that clearly emerges from these arguments, children remain largely excluded from monitoring activities.

Studies have shown that participatory approaches add value to interventions. For example, a participatory research by female participants on the South African Child Support Grant revealed unique perspectives on the issues of stigma, dependency and deservedness around cash transfers (Hochfeld & Plagerson, 2011). In Kenya, a participatory study on the Community Capacity Support Programme showed that on-going data collection and reporting by the community enhanced programme improvement and commitment (Skovdal et al., 2011).

Since most programmes take place at the school level, some institutions prefer monitoring to be undertaken at the school level rather than at the broader community level. Good lessons can be learnt from the Bolsa. Once the beneficiary learners had been identified, a list was compiled for each school and handed over to the school for use in monitoring participation and compliance (Hellman, 2015). The register was regularly marked by teachers and the information relayed back to implementing teams for corrective action or sanctions (ibid). What made it more useful was that the form came with a list of reasons for learner non-participation.

In the assessment of implementation of social protection programmes in Mwenezi district, the current study referenced research-based guidelines provided in the literature as supported by Cypryk & Ovadia (2014) and Martinez (2015).

2.4.5.3 The role of beneficiaries in programme monitoring

The beneficiary is one of the most important sources of information for purposes of monitoring delivery compliance. It could consist of a simple mechanism such as a beneficiary complain desk where someone helps to address concerns brought by beneficiaries. The help can also be a referral if the issue is outside the scope of the centre. A good example is that of the Brazilian Bolsa Familia that provides for client services where beneficiaries can take their concerns. In the first instances, it serves as a centre of information about programmes functioning and can be reached at designated hours by phone, e-mail or physical visits (Hellman, 2015).

The feedback mechanism has helped the Bolsa Familia to improve its services



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2.5 Strategies used by the Government system to support schools and other social protection providers to better deliver social protection programmes that support right to education for vulnerable children

In many countries, delivery of social protection services rests with the Government through provision of guidance and support. The Government may also be involved in the delivery of some actual activities through its lower structures. Thus, the focus of this section is on strategies the government system uses to support schools and other service providers for effective delivery of social protection programmes and the right to education for vulnerable children. Some of the strategies considered include: programme design, provision of policy and operational guidance, harmonisation and coordination and capacity development support

2.5.1 Programme design

According to Holmes (2010), countries implement various types of social protection programmes in accordance with their legal and policy commitments. Issues of programme design come to the fore because what we get at the end of the programme is dependent on what we put in at the front end; that is the design (Ray, 2018). United States Agency for International Development (USAID) (2011) stresses on the same position, arguing that strategic design models are not just about content/focus but also consider issues to do with approaches; because the “how” of programme design may have a bearing on how easy or difficult implementation of the programme becomes. Ray (2018) views design as having to do with identification of who is responsible for the project, a description of the goals to be reached, objectives, outcomes and major deliverables of that programme, among other components. This sections reviews literature on two key strategies of programme design: involvement of stakeholders and the relationship that the new programme may have with already existing programmes.

2.5.1.1 Stakeholders participation in programme design

The point is already made that one of the key strategies that has been found to work effectively is that of involvement of stakeholders, including communities and interest groups, at the design stage of the programme. Such consultations result in improved ‘buy-in’ from, and ownership by, the community while responding to the needs of that community (Holmes, 2010; United States Agency for International Development (USAID), 2011). The authors contend that participatory components should not be limited to service provision but include programme governance and accountability.

Although education is seen as an important target sector for social protection, few of these programmes target the sector directly. It takes careful, strategic design processes to ensure that education is adequately supported. According to Jones and Samuels (2014), where education programmes are concerned, as is the case covered under this study, these social connections can and should include education service providers. This should serve to provide technical and specialised insights regarding the consequences of meeting (or ignoring) education support for vulnerable children. Evidence from studies on the role of cash transfers on education and child protection

in Kenya, Palestine and Peru have shown that the chances of success are enhanced if communities are involved in programme design, monitoring and evaluation to promote transparency, accountability and child wellness outcomes (Jones & Samuels, 2014).

Apart from community level stakeholders who are largely the beneficiaries, effective designs also require the participation of other stakeholders such as government officials, civil society and those from the private sector. Whereas bringing them on board may augur well for support of the programme, it is also vital that space to transform the social relationships that generate and entrench poverty and vulnerability is provided. Studies show the positive outcomes of a consultative, participatory approach programme design. The study of the Isharq programme (Galal, 2014) is a good example of the benefits of such consultative approach. Having experienced problems of low enrolment, dropouts and erratic attendance in the first phase of the programme, project staff carried out consultations with stakeholders, including communities, on how the programme could be improved in the scale-up phase. This resulted in the adoption of stakeholder recommendations to set flexible hours and schedules for programme participants. Out of these ideas, programme staff developed a seasonal calendar that resulted in increasing attendance by 80 to 90 percent during the scale-up phase.

Whereas evidence from literature and related studies points to the value of stakeholder participation in designing social protection programmes, the study, in part, sought to analyse to what extent stakeholder participation was used as a programme design strategy to support implementers of programmes that sought to promote the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi. An assessment of how that strategy worked and contributed to the right to education was of interest.

2.5.1.2 Relationship between new and existing programmes

Holmes (2010) identifies direct targeting as a possible strategy for design of social protection programmes. He provides examples of direct targeting as including those that support school infrastructure, provision of furniture or instructional school materials. This makes the programme relevant to the very specific needs of the

community and beneficiaries in that sector through clarity of purpose and other operational parameters. However, while such specific social protection programmes have the focus and potential to succeed because of absence of distraction by other community activities; these programmes have also had a fair share of criticism. For instance, critics agitate for more comprehensive programme packaging in which education activities are implemented alongside other development initiatives (Mears, Singletary & Rogers, 2011). They argue that apart from dividing communities and the energy they put into development efforts, programmes that operate in silos do not benefit from synergies and complementarities of related sectors.

Programme relationship with programmes already on the ground, especially if that relationship is a positive one, is considered, in the literature, a key design feature of successful social protection programmes. One possible strategy is to design programmes with a broad focus, incorporating education benefits. Mears, Singletary and Rogers (2011) posit that such programmes, coming as they do within the framework of a holistic package, are more likely to deliver on results than those that come with a single focus. The researchers illustrate with evidence from a 12-dimensional programme that incorporated, among its components, a focus on the neediest, capacitation of families and caregivers through livelihood programmes. In addition, the programme also included factors such HIV prevention and awareness among youth, provision of day care services, provision of health services, support to schools to enable access for boys and girls and a child protection component reaped more benefits for educational support. Premised on the argument that education cannot stand alone, a neglect of related sectors might have adverse effects of what one seeks to achieve with an education-related social protection programme.

A review of literature provides ample examples of programmes with either a multi-focus or where new elements are mainstreamed into already existing programmes. The Afghan community cash for work programme, for example, ended up linked to and facilitating schools rebuilding exercise while a similar cash transfer programme in Cambodia reduced socio-economic gradients in enrolment and attendance outcomes (Holmes, 2010). In Brazil, the Bolsa Familia enjoys integration with other Cash Transfers, Social Assistance and Production Inclusion programmes. These arrangements have seen Bolsa Familia enjoy greater success (Hellman, 2015).

At times programmes simply have to come up with complementary activities such as birth registration, child protection or early marriages awareness which, by themselves, could constitute important barriers that often deter children from registering in school (Holmes, 2010). The Isharq programme succeeded because it addressed, within its non-formal arrangements, issues of birth registration and medical check-ups, among other benefits. It also succeeded because it aligned activities with the existing girls' education programme as a step towards sustainability (Galal, 2014). Such diversification provides opportunities to address other community concerns and, thus, garnered more community support.

While the broadened view may be more involving, it nevertheless yields far-reaching outcomes for the education of vulnerable children. Part of the study interest was to determine the extent to which such a design model was used and its bearing on the success or otherwise of the social protection programmes seeking to support the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district.



2.5.2 Policy and operational guidelines

2.5.2.1 Provision of policy framework

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The importance of a social protection provisioning need not be over-emphasised; hence its delivery cannot be left to chance. The need to legislate and provide policy guidelines on how they should be delivered is largely recognised. A country's social protection policy framework should not only be guided by needs on the ground but also by global and regional instruments that the country may have signed to, the purpose of which is to provide assurance of compliance and that no one who is deserving is left behind.

A social protection policy framework (including guidelines and long term goals) is necessary because it "provides a reference for development researchers, policy makers and practitioners who want to know which obligations are created by existing human rights laws and standards and in what way they are relevant to the design, implementation and evaluation of social protection programmes" (<http://social>

protection-humanrights.org/framework/). A social protection policy framework should provide guidance for development of related social protection programmes.

Much of global social protection guidance has been provided by ILO and the World Bank, both of whom recognise the critical role social protection policies play in realising the human right to social security for reducing poverty and inequality. ILO (2014), for example, believes this can be achieved through boosting human capital and productivity, supporting domestic demand and facilitating structural transformation of national economies. The World Bank, on the other hand, suggests that the policies should fall into at least one of the three conceptually and operationally separate but mutually reinforcing agendas (Hall, 2007).

(a) Social welfare (provision of social welfare services in the areas of education, health, nutrition, population and social security, including pensions), the underlying rationale of which is enhancing human capital which, in turn supports economic growth;

(b) Social protection (the construction of social safety nets targeted at the poorest groups), coming in the wake of structural adjustments. Its motivation is to tackle absolute poverty and includes measures such as social funds and conditional cash transfer (CCT) programmes;

(c) Social development; with a community-driven development, social accountability, conflict prevention, and participation and civic engagement agenda, among others.

At Africa level, the African Union Committee on Social Development developed a Social Policy Framework for use by its member states. The Union set thematic focal priorities and developed a monitoring and evaluation framework to support implementation (African Union Commission-Department of Social Affairs; 2008). Meanwhile, other countries have taken the challenge to their respective governments and developed social protection frameworks to guide both policies and programmes.

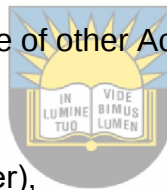
In 2012, the Government of Malawi launched the National Social Support Policy (NSSP), aiming to address the high levels of poverty and ultra-poverty in the country by adopting a harmonised approach to social protection. The policy aims to coordinate, expand and strengthen Malawi's main social protection programmes and to better

integrate the social protection system in other priority sectors such as agriculture and disaster risk management (Holmes, et al., 2018).

In Zimbabwe's social protection policy framework begins with the Government's commitment to various regional and international declarations on the rights and protection of children as well as the need for alignment with national legislative framework (Constitution of Zimbabwe, 2013). At a general level, specific acts that form the basis for social protection in Zimbabwe include:

- Social Welfare Assistance Act (Chapter 17:06),
- Disabled Persons Act (Chapter 17:01),
- Private Voluntary Organisations Act (Chapter 17:05),
- Refugees Act (Chapter 4:03),
- National Heroes Dependent Act (Chapter 10:06)
- Older Persons Act (Chapter 17:11).

However, there is a wide range of other Acts that make children their focus. These include the following:



- The Children's Act (Chapter),
- Guardianship of Minors Act (Chapter 5:08),
- Social Welfare Assistance Act (Chapter 17:06),
- Maintenance Act (Chapter 5:09),
- Education Amendment Act No. 2 (2006),
- The Birth and Death Registration Act (Chapter 5:02);
- The Child Abduction Act (Chapter 5:05),
- The Customary Marriages Act (Chapter 5:07)
- The Marriage Act (Chapter 5:11);
- The Deceased Estates Succession Act (Chapter 6:02)
- The Magistrates Court Act (Chapter 7:10).

For the purpose of this study, the Education Amendment Act No. 2 (2006) was of particular significance. In spite of the above impressive list, the argument that social protection policies remain largely fragmented and suffer from lack of coherence persists, a situation that has led to fragmented implementation of programmes (Chikova, 2013; Gandure, 2009).

Uncoordinated delivery, inadequate and exclusionary measures, lack of centralised coordination, weak monitoring and evaluation framework and lack of people awareness of available services are typical consequences (Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare, 2015). Only recently has Zimbabwe committed to the development of a comprehensive framework from which all implementers will draw, with the three social protection policy components which include social assistance, social insurance and labour market interventions.

Analysis of the social protection policies shows the main avenue for delivering social protection as the social assistance component with vulnerability and inequality headlining this pillar. Education falls under this social assistance pillar. Although the policy makes the household the point of reference this is seen as a convenient arrangement for identification purposes. However, it is the children, many of whom are orphans and vulnerable, in those households who are the beneficiaries. According to Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare (2015), some of the specific measures include exemptions and fee waivers to all primary and secondary school children identified as coming from poor households, grants and/or loans to all students in tertiary institutions who come from poor households and strengthen measures that serve to prevent child labour. The inclusion of tertiary institutions demonstrates, at policy level, what could be said to be a generous commitment by a country whose resources are not in abundance. Another key feature of the proposed policy is the reference to child labour, previously seen as a key barrier preventing access to education.

In view of the foregoing, the study also focused at the social protection policies within Zimbabwe in order to understand how they guide the delivery of education related programmes in the district of Mwenezi and the extent of their positive use. This analysis also included compliance with international policy frameworks as well as, stakeholder and beneficiary knowledge and awareness of the policies to enable them to demand the services from providers

2.5.2.2 Provision of operational guidelines

2.5.2.2.1 Targeting and selection guidelines

The argument is already made that whenever demand for services exceeds supply, some form of targeting and selection has to be undertaken in order to come up with eligible beneficiaries (Kuhn, Brosig & Zhang, 2016; Grosh, 2014; ILO, 2016). Whereas implementation of selection mechanism in practice rests with implementing stakeholders, including communities, the Government is mandated to provide policy and operational guidance as well as, resources that may be required. This section examines the rationale, actual provision and implementation of targeting and selection guidelines.

In many countries, the Government is the overall responsible authority for social protection (Browne, 2013). Accordingly, issues such as targeting and selection are guided by a defined Government policy framework. According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2016), such a policy framework can be defined at three levels that include:

Level 1 – the policy/political level:

This level entails a Government policy choice that relates to the objective of the social protection programme. This is against the backdrop of various policy challenges that may be competing for Government attention. The Government can come up with various social protection policy instruments to address challenges such as poverty reduction, provision of income security for the elderly, improving child nutrition. In relation to the current study, the Government could seek to support children's right to basic education. In this case, the focus is on children as the category of the population that the Government decides to prioritise.

Level 2 – economic level: The economic level is about Government decision on the proportion of the chosen category that can be covered by the available fiscal resources. It is acknowledged that the Government may have inadequate resources to target the entire category prioritised under level 1. When this happens, it might call for narrowing down to a subset of the larger group in line with available resources. In the case of the current study, the policy focus would be vulnerable children, which

could be further delimited to those at primary school level, all in an effort to address the issue of inadequate resources.

Level 3 – the technical level:

Even when a policy decision has been made about the specific category, there could still be challenges related to the actual identification of those that must benefit. According to ILO (2016), this calls on the Government to design an appropriate methodology to correctly identify a fit for purpose instrument from a technical point of view for the beneficiaries.

In terms of policy, choices may have to be made, for example, between universal and targeted approaches to reaching the populations that require assistance (Kaplan & Jones, 2013). Decisions may also have to be taken whether targeting should be on geographical consideration or some other social or vulnerability criteria (Holmes, 2010; Tercelli, (n.d), Samson, 2009). Ordinarily, common targeting strategies include geographical targeting, means-testing and community based targeting.

(a) Geographical targeting

This strategy includes the entire population of a deprived region, where beneficiary residence becomes the deciding factor (Samson, 2009). It then becomes an issue of whether the identified population falls inside or outside the boundaries of the defined region. Although geographical targeting may appear to be one of the simplest to implement, it can result in errors of inclusion and exclusion. Inclusion refers to the state of catering for those within the defined geographical area who do not deserve while, exclusion entails leaving out those outside the area who may deserve (Kaplan & Jones, 2013). Use of the geographical targeting strategy puts aside such considerations as the status of the individual social protection beneficiary. Those from affluent families also stand to benefit, simply because they fall within the defined geographical area. Meanwhile, children coming from very poor families may not benefit if they are not part of the region in question. Critics of geographical targeting have expressed preference for assessments of applicant individual eligibility rather than the blanket geographical system. Coady, Grosh and Hoddinott (2004) propose use of means-testing (MT), Proxy-means testing (PMT) and community-based targeting.

(b) Means testing (MT) and proxy means testing (PMT)

Means testing is based on the belief that individual or household assets or income may be an indicator of the level of need and, thus, eligibility for social transfers is determined by assessment of individual household information (incomes and expenditure). For example, the Rural Minimum Living Standard programme of China used a means-test approach where exclusion criteria was defined around existing labour capacity, ownership of certain household assets were considered so were the luxurious assets and living conditions and existence of relatives who could support applicants (Kuhn, Brosig & Zhang, 2016). The downside of means testing is that of huge investments in time and staff to administer the process. Mechanisms to locate beneficiaries and monitor compliance also get complex (Kaplan & Jones, 2013), so does falsifying information by aspiring applicants seeking to qualify (Samson, 2009).

An evaluation of the effectiveness of the means-test mechanism to identify eligible beneficiaries for the South Africa Child Support Grant (CSG) showed that it was relatively accurate. The mechanism was able to reach out to vulnerable children through increased fee payments and purchase of school provisions. Enrolment and attendance were also shown to have increased. However, there were also errors of inclusion and exclusion as some recipients with income higher as compared to the grant threshold were included while some eligible beneficiaries were not receiving the grant (Delany, Ismail, Lauren & Ramkissoo, 2008). Some of the reasons for exclusion included lack of awareness of the grant and lack of the required documentation. A variation of means-testing, proxy-means testing, is often used when easily observable household characteristics to determine estimates of household income and expenditure are readily available.

(c) Community targeting

The value of community participation in targeting decisions need not be overemphasised (Browne, 2013). Participation brings with it a sentiment of ownership and transparency since communities know the households better than any external stakeholder (Samson, 2009).

The point about targeting is that even though the objective of the programme may be clear as guided by policy, targeting can be a source of tension that might outweigh the benefits (Holmes, 2010). Two issues may have to be considered: (i) being mindful of

unintended consequences such as when school feeding results in overloading targeted schools while making non-targeted schools unviable; as well as decreasing teacher time as teachers are taken out of class to prepare and serve meals (Dryden-Peterson, 2010) and; (ii) consideration of contextual factors around each programme (objectives and resources, administrative capacity, political climate, and unique characteristics of the poor and vulnerable) can better inform the targeting process (Kaplan and Jones, 2013:26). There are times when a combination of mechanisms, or even a blend of policy guidance and community input, might work better. With this background, the study in Mwenezi sought to assess effectiveness of the targeting mechanisms used (at district, school and individual child levels) in delivering social protection services in support of the right to education. More over an examination of the targeting strategies in use in the district in relation to their effects and implications on the purpose for which they are meant was also carried out.

2.5.2.2.2 Monitoring and evaluation guidelines

In Zimbabwe, the draft Social protection framework (2015) includes a section on monitoring and evaluation that provides guidance to those tasked with implementation process. The framework makes reference to linking the process to the national Results Based Management (RBM) and the Monitoring and Evaluation System that is administered from the Office of the President and Cabinet (Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare; 2015). The National Social Protection Steering Committee (NSPSC), which oversees the development of objectively measurable indicators against which the systems and interventions can be measured, encourages the use of participatory methods in evaluating interventions. The guidelines also say that the monitoring function falls within the ambit of line Ministries under which each programme falls; while the research and evaluation function is the responsibility of evaluation sections within respective line Ministries.

The three programmes under government support (BEAM, SIG and School Feeding) provide for some sort of Government policy position that point to government interest in ensuring that the programmes are delivered in a manner that shows consistency.

BEAM provides for a comprehensive Monitoring and Evaluation framework; *“articulating specific indicators and targets that will be measured over time at every*

level of programme implementation” (Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Services, 2016:38). Roles and responsibilities are assigned as follows:

- A central level Joint Monitoring Team that brings together Government and stakeholders (donors, private sector and NGOs);
- Individual partners to carry out the monitoring function and submit the necessary reports at sub-national level;
- Mainstreaming BEAM monitoring into school inspection roles by District School Inspectors to enhance implementation and governance. The MoPSLSW and MoPSE ensure that professional staff is adequately trained on procedures and monitoring;
- Process evaluations and beneficiary assessments to be the responsibility of independent consultants for ensure transparency and accountability;
- The school to provide information as part of MIS on the following:
 - Number, grade and sex of learners for fee and levy support;
 - Number of dropouts by grade and sex during the term;
 - Pupils with sub-40% attendance (by grade and gender);
 - Number of examination fee applicants by grade and gender.



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Templates to support data collection are availed as part of guidelines.

The School Improvement Grant (SIG), on the other hand, provides guidelines that seek to support implementing partners in navigating the monitoring and evaluation function. Parts of those guidelines define roles and responsibilities in the physical verification of goods and verification of expenditure in accordance with financial management. Using the School Development Plan (SDP) as the point of departure, SDCs carry out the monitoring function at school/community level. Relevant templates are provided (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, n.d.)

The School Feeding Programme guidelines provide for school-level monitoring and evaluation. They stipulate records to be compiled and kept at the school. Among

others, these include those of food items procured and delivered and daily records of learners participating in programme. Templates for feeding readiness profile are also provided as part of the guidelines (Secretary's Circular, 2016).

Since design is a strategic imperative, it was necessary to seek an understanding of the design processes of the social protection programmes, assess them for compliance with best practice and find out how this was impacting on delivery of the programmes.

2.5.3 Management and coordination support

Social protection is the responsibility of stakeholders and interest groups, including government and non-state actors. With different players coming from different backgrounds, a key challenge is often the disjointedness and uncoordinated manner in which its delivery takes place. Even the well-intended decentralisation of social protection schemes to local governments has suffered from inefficiencies and, in some cases, disregard of national policy guidelines. Often, such disjointedness results in unnecessary wastage and delayed intervention when vulnerable children are identified, including the need for referrals.

Examples from across the globe have shown a shared concern regarding the effects of such lack of coordination. The Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development in Kenya, for example, is on record for reporting duplication and inconsistencies in the operation and implementation of interventions throughout the country (2011). China faced a similar challenge where bureaucratic fragmentation impeded effective cooperation and coordination in cases where two or more government departments were tasked with administering a single social protection programme (Zhu, 2012). A common strategy has seen the Government, as the main duty bearer, step in and make institutional arrangements for managing and coordinating delivery of social protection.

2.5.3.1 Knowledge of critical partners

In management field, coordination is about unifying, integrating and synchronising the efforts of different members “to provide unity of action in the pursuit of common goals” (Shinde, 2018: 25). With reference to the current study, observation have been made that different groups are striving to address the plight of vulnerable children by providing social protection. Coordination, essentially a part of management, tries to ensure that this common goal is achieved through synchronisation of their activities. With the objectives of a programme clearly defined, there is increased likelihood of enhanced team spirit, optimised utilisation of resources and higher efficiencies, among other advantages.

According to Pavanello & Othieno (2008) and Holmes (2010), the leadership and coordination roles must be accorded to state actors if long-term sustainability and continuity of service delivery are to be guaranteed. Accordingly, “interventions should be planned in such a way that they can be integrated into the public service delivery track” (Holmes, 2010:17). Meanwhile, non-state actors’ resource support must continue to be availed for the provision of pro-poor services. Kelly & Roche (2014) support the suggestion by Holmes (2010), though hastening to add that there should be room for alternative arrangements in the event of lack of Government coordination capacity. Meaningful coordination arrangements come in different forms. In Palestine, this worked well for agencies delivering social assistance, *“particularly through its unified database, which identifies beneficiaries through an improved targeting approach”* (World Bank, 2012).

2.5.3.2 Institutional arrangements

One way of enhancing proper coordination is through setting up of an institutional framework that clearly identifies the responsible authority, defines roles and responsibilities along the chain of command. The global community is awash with examples of countries that have developed such frameworks.

In Barbados, the institutional framework comprises of responsibilities at Government level, with other stakeholders participating in sectoral committees at different levels. Overall responsibility for delivery of social protection rests with the Ministry of Social

Care, Constituency Empowerment and Community Development. This places Government firmly in control by providing both strategic and technical direction. Within that Ministry, the responsibility rests with Bureau of Social Policy, Research and Planning, National Disability unit, National Assistance Board and the Welfare Department (Morlachetti, 2015). Such a coordinating framework serves to provide policy guidance as well as, the creation of synergistic support for those that implement programmes on the ground. However, according to the authors (ibid), that is not to say that the arrangement necessarily provides smooth flow of tasks and activities as there have been challenges of translating the structure into operational terms as well as effective communication.

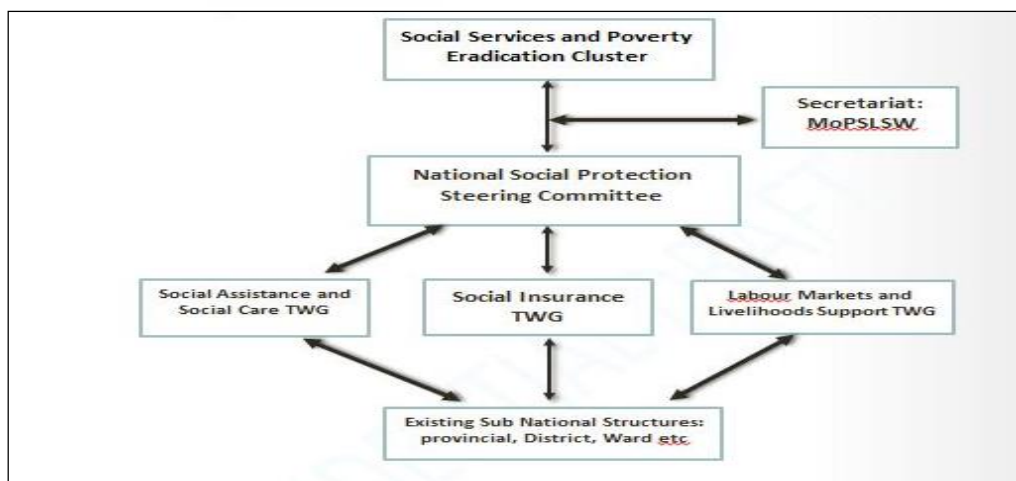
According to Holmes et al (2018), the Malawi National Social Support Programme (MNSSP) is a living example of attempts at operationalising the overarching policy framework for social protection. The programme provides a framework for the design, implementation, coordination, monitoring and evaluating of the programmes that fall under the policy. This unit falls under the Poverty Reduction and Social Protection (PRSP) Division in the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development (MoFEPD). The programme also has under its wing several other Ministries (Gender, Children, Disability and Social Welfare (MoGCDSW)) being responsible for the implementation of those social protection programmes that fall under its remit (Holmes, et.al. 2018). Although first and foremost this is a national level unit, it has structures at district and sub-national levels, right down to the village level. On paper, this does not just place social protection in the hands of government but ensures that coordination is taken care of right down to point of service delivery.

Accordingly, Holmes et. Al., (2018) suggest that even with these good coordination structures in place, delivery challenges continue to be experienced, including those related to:

- Lack of knowledge of this structure at sub-national level, the consequence of which is a perceived lack of support;
- The difficulty of operationalising linkages and coordination due to limited understanding of coordination in the context of Malawi's social protection system;

- Limited opportunity for horizontal communication across technical working groups because the structure lends itself to intra-programme coordination. It is suggested that some programmes have established separate meeting groups with donors and development partners to discuss technical and financial issues.

In the letter and spirit of sound social protection coordination and delivery, the Government of Zimbabwe has placed overall management and coordination responsibilities for social protection under the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare. Through the draft national policy framework, the Ministry has set up an institutional structure whose purpose is to manage all Social Protection Programmes in the country (Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare, 2015). Figure 2.3 shows the structure:



Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Services, 2015

FIGURE 2-3: INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR SOCIAL PROTECTION IN ZIMBABWE

At the apex of the structure is the Social Services and Poverty Eradication Cluster (SSPEC) led by the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare, the lead Ministry. Its responsibilities are management, development and implementation of the National Social Protection Policy Framework (NSPPF). The SSPEC supervises the National Social Protection Steering Committee (NSPSC) that is tasked to (i) monitor implementation of the policy; (ii) develop mechanisms for the integration of social protection programmes; and (iii) develop coordination and implementation guidelines.

The structure is grounded in Technical Working Groups (TWG) representing the different pillars of the social protection system (social assistance, social insurance and labour market interventions). Sub-national structures (at provincial, district, and community levels), whose functions, inter alia, include monitoring and managing social protection programmes in their areas of jurisdiction and ensuring harmonisation of programmes; adherence to policy guidelines as well as, maintaining a register of programmes and beneficiaries sit at the lower end of the structure (Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare, 2015). A notable feature of this structure is that, at each level, membership is broad based, bringing together the government, development partners, private sector, NGOs and civil society organisations, thus, making it ideal for coordination.

Putting together such a structure is one thing and translating it into operation is another. It was also part of this study to assess the existence of such a coordinating structure on the ground and its effectiveness with reference to promotion of the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenzezi district.



2.5.3.3 Stakeholder coordination platforms

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Within the framework of the institutional structure, a key strategy for actualising the coordination is that of holding regular meetings. These serve the purpose of encouraging dialogue and mutual learning.

From the national down to the sub-national levels, those tasked with managing and coordinating the programmes need to identify who the key stakeholders are, facilitate an inaugural meeting before scheduling and holding subsequent regular meetings to deal with the business of the programme. For each meeting, proceedings are typically recorded and the minutes shared with all participants, including decisions reached and action points to be taken (Small Business, n.d).

In order to provide guidance to district and sub-national business, national level may have to provide guidelines on regularity of such meeting as well as how the outcomes of the meeting are communicated upstream and downstream. This keeps everyone in the loop and helps to trigger appropriate support as and when required.

2.5.4 Capacity Development

Delivery of social protection programmes faces challenges of weak capacity (human, financial and material resources) within the systems that are meant to spearhead the process, manifesting significantly within government agencies mandated with social protection responsibilities. Studies around the globe have shown that programme delivery is significantly compromised due to such capacity limitations (Holmes 2010). This section looks at the issue of capacity in the context of social protection delivery.

2.5.4.1 Human Resource Capacity – provision of training support

The extant literature indicates that, weak capacity also manifests within some critical stakeholders, including non-state actors, which are meant to play significant management and implementation roles in support of Government efforts in delivering social protection programmes. For instance, the Nepalese education stipend programme experienced severe disbursement delays to School Development Committees due to human capacity challenges, resulting in increased school dropouts (Ayala, 2009). In Sierra Leone, the school fees subsidy that the Government was distributing to needy schools, through education secretaries, did not always reach the schools (Holmes & Jackson, 2007).

While no evidence exists, implementation of the Mwenezi education-targeted social protection programme was not expected to be immune to such capacity problems, hence one of the reasons for this study was to find out the extent to which similar challenges manifested in the district, their effect the delivery of the social protection programmes that are meant to support the right to education and what is being done.

Given the foregoing, a deliberate capacity building programme, whose needs depend on anticipated or experienced challenges, becomes imperative in order to adequately support implementation. According to Samson (2015), modes of support can include training (management and technical), provision of collaboration and networking opportunities, monitoring and evaluation support and financial management systems where the biggest gaps normally show up. It is also suggested that implementing stakeholders need not always wait for Government capacity building initiatives to respond to these challenges. Rather, stakeholders implementing social protection

programmes, both state and non-state actors can go a long way through the mutual support of each other. However, while different actors can sharpen each other through synergies within the broader social protection systems, it is argued that one of the primary roles of the Government system can be merely to facilitate such interactive platforms for different players. This may be exemplified through joint service meetings with stakeholders from different departments where sharing on services such as counseling, birth registration and health checks, all with a bearing on access to education, can be provided on a 'one stop shop' basis (Barrientos, et.,al, 2013; Holmes, 2010). Given the important supportive contribution that capacity building can render to delivery of social protection programmes targeted at the right to education, the study took an interest in the nature and scope of capacity building programmes availed in Mwenezi district.

2.5.4.2 Financial resources capacity – resource mobilisation

In Africa, financing of Social Protection is severely limited. Sub-Saharan Africa, with an average allocation of 3% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) towards social protection is considered the lowest in the world, thus it restricts the ability of these programmes to reach the poor (Holmes and Braunholtz-Speight, 2009). In Zimbabwe, section 30 of the Constitution states that "...the state must take all practical measures within the limits of the resources available to it, to provide social security and social care to those who are in need" (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013: 25), resource limitations prevent the government from fulfilling its funding responsibility. For example, BEAM allocations and beneficiary numbers have been on the decline. Table 2.1 shows trends for the period 2010 to 2015.

TABLE 2-1: BEAM ALLOCATIONS

Programs	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) primary	537,594	408,486	339,827	345,567	298,518	118,408
Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) secondary	198,229	119,498	106,216	92,917	112,890	78,920

Programs	2010 (US\$)	2011 (US\$)	2012 (US\$)	2013 (US\$)	2014 (US\$)	2015 (US\$)
In Kind: Fee Waivers						
Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) primary	15,000,000	10,000,000	15,000,000	15,000,000	10,000,000	2,520,000
Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) secondary	13,000,000	12,270,000	5,600,000	10,800,000	7,000,000	4,200,000

When funding mechanisms are not within the capacity of the state, Governments look to their mobilisation through such mechanisms as multi-donor trust funding, participation of other Ministries and communities (Holmes, 2010). Resultantly, much of the social protection financing falls in the hands of non-state actors (International donors and Non-Governmental Organisations). These deliver most of the social protection programmes in the form of emergency food aid and other cash transfer instruments. Once this ensues, an ownership and accountability crisis develops, often resulting in major obstacles to effectiveness (Kaplan and Jones, 2013).

A related issue to limited financing is the duration of some social protection programmes. Usually, when NGOs fund these programmes, this can only happen for a limited duration. If the government does not take over those projects, which is often the case, it creates discontinuity leading to loss of momentum (Devereux, 2013). In some cases lack of continuity is due to political priorities that change when a new administration assumes office, (Devereux, 2013). By their nature, some programmes are of short duration, which makes them fail to serve the long term needs of the beneficiaries (Harvey, Holmes, Slater & Martin, 2007). In justifying the short time frames of programmes, the point is that they should not be too long to a point of destroying the very capacity they are meant to build. When this happens, sustainability prospects suffer (Harvey, Holmes, Slater & Martin, 2007).

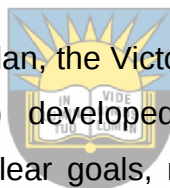
In the case of Zimbabwe, mobilisation of such resources has been in place through Memoranda of Understanding (MOUs). It is now firmly provided for in the new policy framework in order to make sure social protection funding is not only predictable but available. The framework identifies sources of such resources as development partners, private sector, civil society organisations and non-governmental organisations (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013). The study took interest in the issue of resources and how these are mobilised to support the right to education as well as the scope and scale of financing options. An important aspect to interrogate was also on the sustainability of available funding streams.

2.5.5 Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring and Evaluation are necessary components of any good programme and should not be left to chance. Rather, it should be thought through and included as an essential component of a good design (Kaplan & Jones, 2013). In the case of social protection programmes, that responsibility would normally fall in the hands of the Government or delegated to one or more of its partners. Such a system serves as a strategy to provide guidance and support to users tasked with tracking progress and gathering evidence, whose purpose is to strengthen the quality of programmes (Jones and Holmes, 2010; Ministry of Public Service, Labour & Social Welfare, 2015).

In addition to selecting performance area outcomes, a good monitoring and evaluation system incorporates baseline information, spells out data collection responsibilities, identifies data collection tools and methods and provides for a feedback loop to inform programme implementation (Cypriak & Ovadya, 2014).

In its vulnerable children action plan, the Victoria Department of Education and Early Childhood Development (2014) developed and adopted a Performance and Accountability Framework with clear goals, measurable outcomes, monitoring and public reporting at the state and local levels.



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This chapter covered the conceptual framework, theoretical framework and the bulk of the relevant literature review. The major conceptual issues discussed were vulnerabilities and right to education. Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory and the Human Rights Based Approach were covered as the framework pillars of in this chapter before concluding with the review of literature related to the study. The next chapter presents the methodology employed in the study.

CHAPTER THREE

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the methodology employed for the study. According to Kothari (2004), the solution to a research problem should follow a systematic pathway that entails steps adopted by the researcher in studying the research problem. Essentially, methodology answers the question: How did the research proceed? It covers research paradigm, research approach and research design and discusses issues of population, sample and sampling procedures, data collection and analysis procedures and techniques and ethical considerations.



3.2 Research Concept

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Mertens (2005) in Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) describes research as the systematic process used to investigate or inquire into a phenomenon of interest, often done by collecting, analysing and interpreting data. This helps the researcher to understand, describe and even make predictions about the particular phenomenon being studied (Dash, 2005). However, that understanding is influenced by one's world view, what one thinks understanding is and what one sees as the purpose of that understanding (Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) in Maree, 2016). The authors further posit that the exact nature of research is not haphazard but influenced by the researcher's theoretical framework, also referred to as research paradigm. What follows is a discussion on the nature of paradigm, underlying dimensions, a synopsis of the key paradigms and a justification of the paradigm adopted for this study.

3.3 Research paradigm

A research paradigm can be defined variously. It can be considered as a set of assumptions or beliefs about fundamental aspects of reality that give rise to a particular world view (Maree, 2007). In agreement, Willis (2007) defines paradigm as a comprehensive belief system and a framework that guides research practice in a field; while Kuhn in Antwi & Hamza (2015: 218) view a paradigm as “a research culture with a set of beliefs, values and assumptions that a community of researchers has in common regarding the nature and conduct of research”.

All three definitions are supported by Creswell (2014), who sees a paradigm in close reference to research activities; as those assumptions, comprehensive belief systems or the worldview that guide the researcher in the research endeavour. Creswell (2014) further adds the notion of a framework that guides the researcher’s perception and interpretation of reality.

The foregoing suggest that no research can or should be carried out outside some paradigm system; because it is the paradigm that helps to define the intent, motivation and expectations of the research (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). For the researcher, an important characteristic of a paradigm is that it defines the nature of enquiry, usually along the three dimensions of ontology, epistemology and methodology (Taylor and Medina, 2013; Maree, 2007). Furthermore, Guba and Lincoln (2005) in Antwi and Hamza (2015) suggest the existence of an intrinsic association between the research process and the concepts of ontology (how the researcher defines and understands reality and truth), epistemology (how the researcher comes to know reality and the truth) and methodology (how the researcher goes about conducting the investigation). Once a researcher is able to provide answers regarding the issues of ontology, epistemology and methodology, he/she has the necessary guidance for the research process, including strategies to be used, methods to be employed and analysis of data to be undertaken (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). A look at ontology, epistemology and methodology as discussed below should shed more light on the issues under discussion.

3.3.1 Ontology

There is considerable consensus that ontology is about nature of reality and what can be known about it (Cohen et al (2000) cited in Maree, 2016; Willis, 2007). Among others, the concerns of ontology are with questions of whether or not reality exists, where it exists and in what form it exists. Given these arguments, there are two contrasting views about reality – objectivism and constructivism/interpretivism. On one hand, objectivism views reality as independent while constructivism/ interpretivism holds the view that reality is the product of social processes (Neuman 2003 in Antwi & Hamza, 2015). Other views are ‘middle of the road’ in that they avoid being associated with the extremism of positivism and interpretivism. These include post-positivism, critical theory, feminism, post-modernism and pragmatism.

These contrasting positions have important implications for research. The positivist argues that because reality is given objectively, it can only be acquired objectively through scientific methods of observation and experience. An important research implication is whether reality’s existence is external to the knower or within the knower (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). In the case that it is external to the knower, reality could be said to be objective. On the other hand, if it is internal to the knower, then reality is based on an individual’s interpretation of the situation (subjective). Based on this assumption, a single incident could have many interpretations.

3.3.2 Epistemology

Epistemology is about the theory of knowledge: the type of knowledge that can be generated and the standards for generating that knowledge (Maree, 2016). Essentially, two views are shared: (a) that knowledge can be hard, real and objective or (b) that knowledge is softer and more subjective. In either case, there are implications as to how that knowledge can be obtained (that is about the practice of research). In the former case it can be through methods of natural science and, in the latter, through more subjective participatory methods (Maree, 2016).

3.3.3 Methodology

Methodology is, essentially, the manner in which knowledge can be generated, largely informed by both the ontological stance and the epistemological position taken (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Creswell, 2014; Maree, 2016). Methodological decisions centre around the key question of how the researcher goes about finding out whatever he or she believes can be known? (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). .

Table 3.1 shows a summary of the ontological, epistemological and methodological positions taken by the two contrasting positions of positivism and interpretivism:

TABLE 3-1: SUMMARY OF THE POSITIVISM AND INTERPRETIVISM RESEARCH PARADIGMS

Paradigm	Ontology	Epistemology	Methodology
Positivism	Reality is out there, is objective, independent of the knower	Observation and reason are best ways to know. Knowledge is quantifiable	Knowledge is acquired through scientific methods & experience.
Interpretivism	Reality is the product of social processes and subjective experiences – it is a human construct.	Subjective relationship between the researcher and subjects is the best way to know.	Knowledge acquisition are meaning oriented; such as interviews or participant observation.

Source: Adapted from Antwi & Hamza (2015).

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3.3.4 Pragmatic paradigm

Research literature is awash with different paradigms that a researcher can opt to use, depending on their orientation and the nature of their study. The paradigms could be considered as lying on a continuum with positivism and interpretivism (historically associated with the “paradigm” wars that headlined previous research discourse) occupying the extreme ends, while other paradigms have to find space between these two (Dash, 2005).

Given the nature of variables and research questions, the current study was located within the pragmatic paradigm. According to Mayoh and Onwuegbuzie (2015), pragmatism rejects the choice associated with the paradigm wars and locates itself in a post-positivism framework, which provides the underlying philosophical framework for mixed-methods research (Somekh & Lewin, 2005; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Pragmatic paradigm focuses instead on what works as the truth regarding the

research questions of the study (Mayoh and Onwuegbuzie, 2015). In that sense, pragmatism adopts a position within the continuum, between the two opposing viewpoints of positivism and interpretivism.

The current study sought to understand social protection with reference to its contribution to supporting right to education for vulnerable children. The pragmatic paradigm allowed the researcher to take advantage of those aspects that could show trends and patterns through quantified data while recognising the value that comes from the views and opinions of the stakeholders that were part of the implementation processes. The pragmatic paradigm was also utilised in this study because it placed the research problem at the centre and applied all approaches to understanding the problem (Creswell, 2003:11). With the research question 'central', data collection and analysis methods were chosen as those most likely to provide insights with no philosophical loyalty to any alternative paradigm. The advantage of this mixed research approach provided for: triangulation, increased validity of data, minimisation of bias, complementarity, and enhancement of the strengths and reduction of weaknesses of individual methods.



3.4 Research Approach

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A research approach is viewed as a plan whose purpose is to define the specific proposal of how the research is conducted, involving consideration of the research paradigm or philosophical orientation, research design and the specific methods to be followed. As Creswell (2003) opines, it is critical that research approach also take into account the nature of the problem that is under investigation.

In research discourse, several approaches come to the fore; with quantitative, qualitative and mixed-method approaches being the most common. Typically, the quantitative approach is embedded in the positivist paradigm and aligns itself with use of the questionnaire as the key data collection instrument. The qualitative approach, on the other hand, is anchored in the interpretive paradigm whose notion is that knowledge is socially constructed and hence goes with interviews, focus group discussions and observations for data collection from the activities and lived experiences of the research subjects (Creswell, 2014; Dash, 2005). Residing between these two traditional

positions is mixed-method approach, almost in compromise fashion, which incorporates both quantitative and qualitative elements to collect and integrate data (Creswell, 2003).

3.4.1 Mixed-method approach

A mixed-method approach, which combines qualitative and quantitative data elements within the same study, was adopted in this study (Creswell & Clark, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015). The key point is that the combination is intentional and that this can happen at various points of the research process. For instance, this can take place,

- in the philosophical positioning of the study;
- at the planning phase when research is under development;
- in developing research questions;
- in development of research instruments that seek to collect quantitative and qualitative data;
- at analysis stage when a combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques are used to get meaning out of the data;
- when presenting research findings after both quantitative and qualitative techniques are used (Caruth, 2011; Creswell, 2011).

According to the same authors, mixed method studies do not just happen out of the desire to be different. They are done in pursuit of fulfilling objectives that include:

- pursuit of the best possible approach to the research problem;
- to move towards a deeper understanding of the research problem being addressed, hoping that the quantitative and qualitative would enable that;
- to generate quantitative and qualitative data, from the same study, to allow the researcher greater certainty and confidence in making inferences and conclusions about the findings and, finally;

- to make research more robust “by using strengths from one model to offset methodological shortcomings from the other” (Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015:114).

Considered separately, quantitative and qualitative research approaches are anchored on different assumptions about what research is all about and how it shall be conducted. Borrowing from Caruth (2011), the mixed-method approach aligned with the study because it gave the researcher the opportunity to effectively bring about a third model that allowed for harmonisation of the quantitative and qualitative components. In order to fully understand the underpinnings of this third model, it was necessary to ask: what are the assumptions, the foundations and characteristics of this third model? Caruth (2011), Creswell & Clark (2011) in Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado (2015) suggest five of them:

- The nature of the problems of mixed method* – use of mixed research methods is based on the belief and understanding that, the nature of problems to be investigated has increasingly become more complex to be tackled from single and separate quantitative or qualitative approaches. More than ever before, they are characterised by both objective and subjective elements. What this means is that mixed methods have become handy in addressing problems where quantitative and qualitative elements manifest. The study in Mwenezi, for example, focusing as it did on social protection programmes and their contribution to the right to education, was complex. It was characterised by both elements – the objective elements that focused on understanding the ‘what’ in terms of status of provision of both social protection and education as well as the subjective elements that sought to understand the ‘why and how’ from the experiences of key players in the delivery of social-protection-for-education programmes.
- The research question* – according to mixed method thinking, the research question is central to the research effort and ought to guide methodological considerations. It cannot be the other way round. The quantitative and qualitative elements need to be specified when the research question is considered at the stage of study design.
- The research process – methodology*: The integration of the quantitative and qualitative methods as components of the study is the nature of the process under

mixed method. The issue is simply about where such integration can happen. Depending on the nature of the study and the subjective/objective elements that characterise it, integration can occur prior to the study or as the study unfolds. In the current study, the integration happened from the onset of the study.

- (d) *Behaviour of the researcher (philosophy)* - The action of the researcher is pragmatic and decisions taken are paramount. The insight of the researcher as to how and when to integrate is informed by study complexity. The relevance and effectiveness of the design becomes a product of decisions informed by the unfolding process.
- (e) *The study outcomes* – mixed method yields quantitative and qualitative data that provide more complete information about the problem at hand – allowing the researcher to make more informed decisions about the solution to the problem. The current study provided both quantitative and qualitative data that complemented each other in the interpretation of outcomes/findings.

Weaknesses of mixed method approach

Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004), acknowledge some weaknesses of mixed method approaches. These include, but are not limited to, the fact that they could be a more expensive option, could be time consuming and more demanding in terms of researcher capacity, to such an extent that a single researcher may not be able to manage the process without help. That said, the current study addressed these concerns through careful planning, scheduling, thorough preparations and employment of trained assistant data collectors.

Advantages of mixed method approaches

Quantitative and qualitative approaches are already strong in their own right, depending on the nature of the study. However, the mixed method approach has the advantage of drawing from the strengths of both its quantitative and qualitative elements, especially when the two approaches are used together (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The qualitative strand serves to add meaning to quantitative results while the quantitative side provides for precision and brighter generalizability prospects (Creswell et al, 2004). Besides, the freedom a researcher gets from choice from a wider range of approaches provides that capability to answer a wider range of research questions. In the current study, mixing the two approaches provided an

enhanced possibility to use the strengths of one to overcome the weaknesses of the other; thus, increasing the possibility of stronger evidence through corroboration (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

3.4.2 The approach's suitability for the nature of this study

A closer look at the study on Social Protection as a mechanism for promoting the right to education for vulnerable children shows the complexity of the issues that were intricately poised. An understanding of the existing social protection programmes on the ground was an important aspect because this yielded facts and figures (quantitative data) that were important to the study. However, the facts and figures, on their own, would not provide complete insights into what was going on; hence it became critical that a deeper analysis of 'why' and 'how' be undertaken in order to understand how they were operationalised and how that supported the right to education. In this study, such data came from perusal of policy and project documents and records at Ministry and school levels as well as from teachers through a questionnaire designed for the purpose. In addition, the 'voice' of the lived experiences of the stakeholders through targeted interviews and focus group discussions were also taken into consideration and thus provided more meaning to the phenomenon under research (Mertens, 2005). For this reason, the mixed-method approach was found to be suitable for the study. Thus, triangulation was possible from the perspective of diverse sources of data collection techniques including the respondents who participated in the study in order to cross check the veracity of different views on the issues under consideration

3.5 Research Design

With the mixed-method approach identified for the study, the next important decision was that of research design, essentially concerned with how the study was going to be conducted (Creswell, 2014). While Maree (2007) defines research design as the overall strategy that a researcher chooses to integrate different components of a study for the purpose of addressing the research problem, Denzin and Lincoln (2011) simply call it a strategy of inquiry. Creswell (2014), on the other hand, links it with a paradigm and puts more focus on the function of design as that of giving direction to the procedures.

Research design is also perceived as the research plan by which the researcher stands guided in conducting the study (Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015). Analysis of these definitions brought out the following:

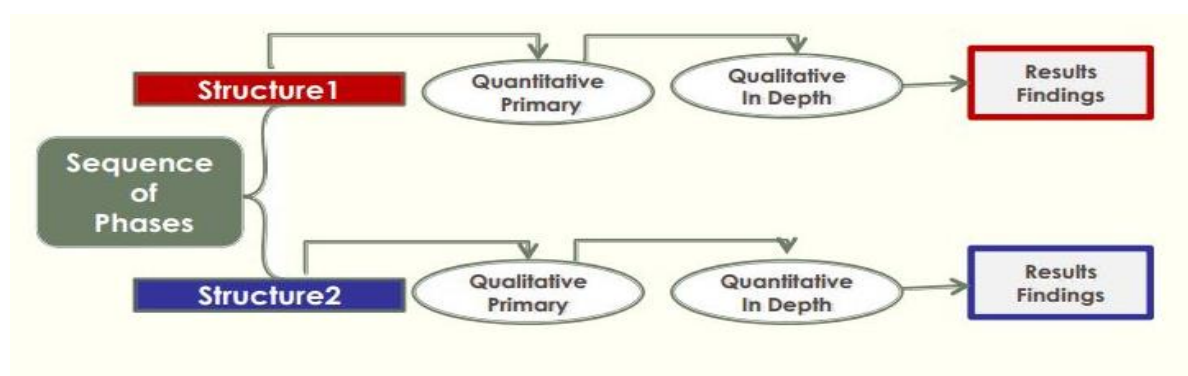
- (a) Recognition of the importance of research problem/ research questions,
- (b) Connectedness of research design with the paradigm and research approach,
- (c) The focus on the ‘how’ in executing the research proceedings.

These three points assisted the researcher to select the suitable research design for the study. Within the mixed-method approach framework, relevant designs fall into two broad categories: the **sequential** (which could be explanatory or exploratory) and the **parallel** mixed methods, also known as concurrent/convergent triangulation (Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015).

3.5.1 Sequential mixed design



Sequential mixed design involves organising research activities in a sequence in which one aspect starts, followed by the other (Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015). Depending on the researcher and purpose, it could be a quantitative followed by a qualitative or vice versa (Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015). Figure 3.1 shows the two scenarios of the sequential arrangements (structure 1 and structure 2).



Source: Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado (2015).

FIGURE 3-1: SEQUENTIAL-MIXED DESIGN SCENARIOS

3.5.1.1 Sequential quantitative-qualitative design (quan→qual)

This sequential begins with a quantitative study (structure 1), seeking to identify key problem areas and research questions. Once this is done, the problems and research questions are subjected to further investigation with the help of qualitative data and methods (Kelle, 2006). If the research was taking place in a school situation, for example, the first focus might be on determining trends and patterns such as of absenteeism or examination scores. Thereafter, by engaging subjects within the same situation, the researcher could conduct interviews that seek explanations around ‘how’ and ‘why’ in order to attach greater meaning to the first findings (Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015).

3.5.1.2 Sequential qualitative-quantitative design (qual→quan)

In this situation, the study begins with a qualitative enquiry (structure 2); such as seeking access to intimate local knowledge that helps in identifying and sharpening theoretical concepts and hypotheses (Kelle, 2006). Based on these findings, a quantitative study is then undertaken to determine whether concepts relevant within that small number of cases can “describe and explain social phenomena in a greater domain accordingly” (Kelle, 2006:307). That is, the study is ‘scaled up’ to understand the issues on a broader scale. The merits of this design include its ability to overcome the challenge of limited transferability of a small ‘n’ study while also addressing the challenge of lack of ‘local knowledge’ that characterises quantitative designs (Kelle, 2006). A mono-design would not be able to do that on its own.

3.5.1.3 Parallel qualitative-quantitative design (qual+quan)

While there are benefits in using a sequential study design, the current study adopted a concurrent triangulation or parallel design. This involved collection of quantitative and qualitative data at the same time within the same study (Harwell, 2012). Ultimately, the purpose of such data collection was to merge the quantitative and qualitative sets to enable a comprehensive analysis of the research problem (Mertens, 2010). By so doing, corroboration and validation were possible because whatever

shortfalls one data set had, the other offset such shortfalls by its strengths (Harwell, 2012). Figure 3.2 illustrates the concurrent triangulation arrangement.

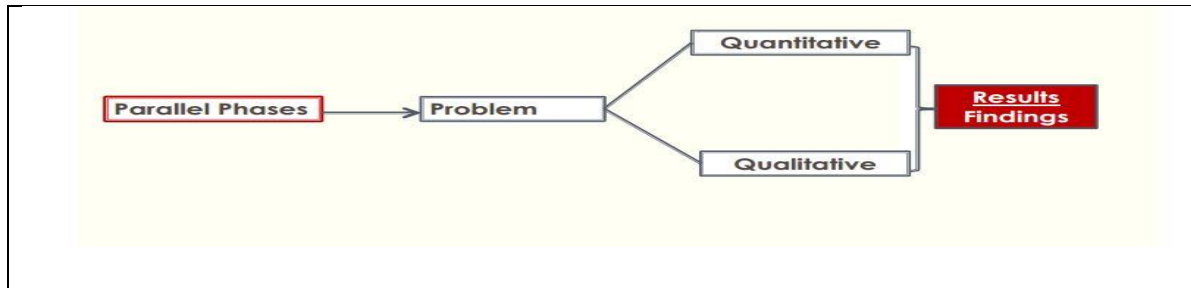


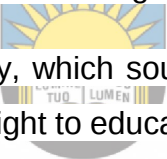
FIGURE 3-2: CONCURRENT TRIANGULATION ARRANGEMENT

Whereas, the ‘sequential’ arrangement allows the quantitative and qualitative components to thrive on each other’s findings, this parallel/concurrent arrangement does not provide for that opportunity since both data sets are collected simultaneously. This is considered one of its main criticisms (Mertens, 2010). However, it also enjoys the benefits associated with its ability “to identify measurement problems and methodological artifacts of both qualitative and quantitative data, as the same participants are interviewed with different techniques” (Kelle, 2006: 308). Besides, it is cost-effective and the researcher needs only to visit the same subjects once to complete data collection. The design was considered suitable for the study in Mwenezi district on the grounds that it allowed the collection of quantitative information about trends and perceptions in social protection activities and was able to seek an understanding of why during the same data collection engagement. A once-off data collection visit to the schools was cost-effective on the part of the research process, particularly considering the distances involved to get to school sites. It was also time-efficient because the research activities did not have to disrupt the school time-table due to revisits for data collection.

3.6 Population, sample and sampling techniques

3.6.1 Population

With reference to a research study, population is defined as the “entire group of persons or elements that have at least one thing in common” (Kombo & Tromp, 2006:135). It is also viewed as the total group that constitutes the subject of the researcher’s interest (Punch, 2005). An important characteristic of such a group is accessibility to the researcher to enable data collection to take place. However, the population is often too large for all its members to participate in the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2005). The definition point to some important features of what a research population entails - it does not always refer to persons. The interest is not just about the common feature that defines the ‘groupness’ but also its entirety in terms of research interest, even if one does not necessarily need to include all its members in the study, especially if the number is too large (Babbie & Mouton, 2005).



In the context of the current study, which sought to understand the extent to which vulnerable children enjoyed their right to education and how social protection systems promoted that right; the primary school was the critical data collection site. From that perspective, the population of interest was: all primary school children in Mwenezi district. Within the school sites, the population also embraced all heads and teachers of the primary schools in Mwenezi district. According to information provided by the District Education Office, the population consisted of 112 primary schools, 112 heads of schools, 1 050 teachers and 57 000 learners. Other interest groups included parents or guardians who experienced social protection processes. In addition, key stakeholders whose views became pertinent in light of their role in implementing the social protection mechanisms were also part of the study.

3.6.2 Sample and sampling procedure

3.6.2.1 Sample: definition and rationale

The essence of research is to understand the issue of interest with respect to a population. Due to the impracticality of including the entire group of interest; usually

due to its sheer size as well as limited resources and time to study the entire population, it becomes necessary to select a manageable part of that population, a sample, for the study (Maree, 2016; Patton, 2002). A sample is defined as part, or subset, of a population (Punch, 2005) that should not only reflect the main characteristics of the population but also be good enough to allow the researcher to relate the sample-based findings to the entire population (Creswell, 2009). Given (2008:797) simply refers to sample as “the actual data sources drawn from a bigger population of potential data sources”.

In agreement, McLeod (2014) presents a systematic argument justifying both sampling and the mechanism to be followed in its execution. His argument is based on the impracticality of studying the entire population. Often, due to its sheer size, he advises using a sub-group of that population. However, he warns that the sampling process must ensure that the characteristics of the sample must resemble those of the population well enough to allow for generalisability to the population. In view of these arguments, the study in Mwenezi district was based on a sample of each group of interest in order to obtain a holistic view of social protection processes and their interface on right to education for vulnerable children in the district.



3.6.2.2 Sampling

Given (2008) views sampling as the process by which actual data sources (sample) are chosen from a larger set of possibilities (population). In further elaboration of the concept, the author suggests the need to clearly define the two related elements of the sampling process: the population and the sample (to be selected from that population). In general, these two sampling elements (population and sample) apply, regardless of whether the study is of a quantitative or qualitative nature “because it is nearly always necessary to work with a sample of data sources rather than attempting to collect data from the entire population” (Given, 2008:799). However, the researcher must remain mindful to the fact that the characteristics of the sample resemble those of the population from which the sample is taken (McLeod, 2014).

A point to note in carrying out sampling is that it is not a haphazard process. According to Creswell (2014), the manner in which sampling is undertaken is an important

consideration in research. Patton (2002) echoes similar sentiments when he says that the researcher needs to follow systematic and justifiable principles in drawing the sample, often arising from the intentions and purposes for which the study is being undertaken. Most research sampling falls into two procedure categories - probability sampling and nonprobability sampling (Given, 2008).

Probability sampling

In probability sampling, every member of a population has a known and equal chance of being selected (Etikan & Bala, 2017). It is credited with use of lesser reliance on human judgment and, is therefore freer from bias. At its most basic level, probability sampling often uses simple random sampling techniques for drawing a sample. Probability sampling is most commonly associated with studies of a quantitative nature (James & Simister, 2017), where a good sample affords the study generalisability to the wider population (Mason, 2002). That is, quantitative studies rely on statistical power to make statements about a general population on the basis of a sample.



Nonprobability sampling

Nonprobability sampling is associated with studies of a qualitative nature. It arises in cases where the research might need in-depth inquiries on certain critical issues. In such cases, the issue is not about numbers but development of theories, thus making the concern of researchers undertaking qualitative studies analytical rather than statistical generalisability (Drew, Hardman & Hosp, 2008). Such situations widely use purposive sampling in order to identify and select information-rich cases related to the parameters of study interest in the population (Lawrence et al, 2015).

Given all the foregoing and the decision and justification to use a mixed-method design for the current study, both probability and nonprobability techniques were employed to take care of the quantitative and qualitative components respectively. Probability sampling was used for sampling schools, school heads and teacher participants while nonprobability sampling was used to select children and community groups and district-level stakeholders.

Sampling of schools, school heads and teacher participants

Stratified random sampling technique was used to select the participating school sites in order to achieve diversity and generalisability (Kothari, 2004). This is a probability sampling technique that begins with breaking down the population into non-

overlapping subgroups called strata. In its own right, each stratum is treated like a ‘small’ population from which a pre-determined sample is drawn using a simple random sampling process. The partial samples from each stratum are then put together to form the sample for the study.

In this study, a close look at various school characteristics was undertaken. Based on the finding that most primary schools belonged to one Responsible Authority, Mwenenzi Rural District Council, location characteristics, an important factor in defining children’s vulnerability, became the main differentiating factor. On that account, all primary schools in the district were partitioned into three non-overlapping location strata (growth point schools; resettlement schools and communal schools) before a random sampling process was applied within each stratum. Since schools were not evenly distributed across the three strata, their representation in the sample was proportional to the size of the stratum, relative to the population (number of primary schools in the district). By default, the heads, teachers and children of sampled schools were participants in the study, so were communities around each of the schools that fell into the sample.



Teachers were an important unit of analysis in relation to both education and social protection issues. Besides, teachers see pupils every day and are, therefore, well-placed not only to identify vulnerabilities at an early stage but also assist in vulnerability management. The delivery of social protection programmes in partnership with other agencies (Jopling & Vincent; 2016) was, by default, part of their agenda. Once schools were identified, a random sampling technique was used to identify teacher participants within each school. A 10% sample threshold was considered good enough under the random sampling conditions (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). Table 3.2 shows the study samples for schools, school heads and teachers.

TABLE 3-2: SAMPLING OF SCHOOLS, SCHOOL HEADS AND TEACHERS

Respondent Category	Total in population	Sample size drawn	Per cent of Population	Sampling mechanism
Schools	112	11	10	Stratified random
School Heads	112	11	10	Stratified random
Teachers	1050	100	10	Stratified random

Source: Mwenenzi District Education Office: 2017

Sampling of learners, community participants and stakeholders

The study also gathered data from other respondents that included district level officials, civil society organisations, members of the community and parents as well as children. For these categories, purposive sampling, a nonprobability sampling technique was used to identify participants.

According to Tongco (2007), purposive sampling involves deliberate choice of informants based on the qualities they possess. Essentially, the point of departure in its use is what the researcher is seeking to know. Based on that, the researcher sets out to find informants who, based on their knowledge of and experience with the subject, can provide the required information (Bernard, 2002). Although often criticised for its perceived bias, this is outweighed by its strength of selecting information-rich cases for in-depth analysis of the issues central to the study (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). Purposive sampling is often, and mostly, associated with key informant technique but can be used for other methods that involve exploring issues in depth (Bernard, 2002).

Purposive sampling was used to select key informants that included those that play different roles (policy formulation, monitoring, and implementation) at different levels of social protection issues. Community level stakeholders included parents and other community organs while non-community stakeholders included district-level state and non-state agencies. Essentially, these were the implementers and were, therefore, well placed to assess delivery of social protection programmes and evaluate its value-addition in the right to education efforts. The inclusion of non-state actors was in accordance with Government policy that takes them as key social protection players (Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare, 2015).

In addition, individual participants, selection was also similarly done for group participants (community groups and school children). For the learners, the concern was not about their numbers but how they 'experienced' social protection delivery in their schools and communities. Based on what needed to be known, learners were identified as one of the most knowledgeable groups since they were potentially beneficiaries and their experiences would vary from their inclusion or exclusion, their assessment of criteria used and to what extent they thought right to education was supported by such programmes. Based on advice from school heads, priority was given to learners who could meaningfully engage in discussions (based on grade level

and confidence). For communities, selection was based on who was available in response to the invitation or who was within reach. Table 3.3 shows selected groups and individuals for one on one or group interviews.

TABLE 3-3: SAMPLING OF CHILDREN, COMMUNITY AND DISTRICT-LEVEL PARTICIPANTS

Respondent Category	Total in population	Sample size drawn	Per cent of Population	Sampling mechanism
School children (groups)	11	11	N/A	Purposive
Community (groups)	11	11	N/A	Purposive
District officials	4	4	N/A	Purposive
NGOs	6	2	N/A	Purposive

3.7 Negotiating Entry

The researcher took a number of procedures to get authority to conduct the research as well as gain access to the schools for data collection. The researcher obtained an introductory letter from the University of Fort Hare (appendix B). This served to confirm that indeed the researcher intended to carry out a study on Social Protection as a Mechanism for Promoting the Right to Education for Vulnerable Children in Mwenezi district. Armed with the introductory letter, the researcher applied to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education for permission to carry out the study in primary schools in Mwenezi district. This was granted by the Permanent Secretary (Appendix D) and subsequently by the Provincial Education Director and District Schools Inspector (Appendix E).

Once authority to carry out the study was granted by all the Ministry levels, the researcher proceeded to the district office to make the necessary practical arrangements for data collection. The researcher made the appointments for carrying out interviews and focus group discussion as well as perusal of documents in each school. The school heads also agreed to mobilise local communities so that the researcher would meet them at the school. Arrangements for interviewing Government Departments and Civil Society Organisations were concluded separately with each organisation.

3.8 Data Collection Instruments

The mixed-method study collected both quantitative and qualitative data. As such, use was made of different data collection instruments, targeting different groups of respondents. This array of instruments and respondents was used in a complementary rather than competing fashion so that the shortcomings of some were addressed by the strengths of the others (O'Leary, 2004; Zohrabi, 2013). Face to face interviews (for school heads and district level stakeholders), focus group discussions (children and community representatives) and document analysis were used to take care of qualitative data elements while semi-structured questionnaires (for teachers) were used to collect quantitative data.

3.8.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a research instrument that contains questions designed to solicit information from targeted respondents about the issue under investigation. It is one of the most commonly used data collection instruments (Cohen et al, 2000; Khotari, 2004) and can be structured, semi-structured, or unstructured, each with its own merits and demerits.

The researcher used a semi-structured questionnaire to collect data from the targeted 100 teachers. The focus was on their perceptions and experiences with a focus on right to education for vulnerable children and how the administration of social protection programmes was promoted. This was considered appropriate, given that the sheer numbers of teachers would make it impossible to use tools such as face to face interviews. In addition, the important issue was to record the responses and aggregate them to get an overall sense of attitudes and opinions of the category rather than of individual respondents. The questionnaire combined both closed and open ended questions, the development of which was based on the research questions. However, the open ended questions were kept to the minimum because of respondent tendency to prefer closed than open explanations.

Besides the introductory part that consisted of a letter to the respondent explaining the purpose and focus of the study, the questionnaire had six sections (A to F), each of

which had its specific focus in relation to the research study. Section A contained demographic data (about their school, class and personal characteristics), while the rest followed the pattern of research questions as defined in section 1.6 of the study: Section B focused on child vulnerabilities in Mwenezi district (sources, prevalence and effects on right to education) while section C sought information on education-linked social protection policies and programmes in Mwenezi district. Strategies used by schools and other social protection providers to deliver right to education promoting programmes were covered under section D while section E covered those used by the Government to support schools and other social protection providers to deliver social protection programmes that support the right to education. The questionnaire concluded with section F that had an over-arching focus on challenges and how the social protection delivery framework could adapt to better support right to education for vulnerable children. Appendix H shows the teacher questionnaire.

The questionnaire, which was test-run with a group of teachers similar to those targeted to see if it worked as intended, yielded both quantitative and qualitative data for the research questions. The pilot necessitated minor modifications before adoption for use with target teachers. Although the questionnaire, as a research tool, is widely used in research, it has some advantages and disadvantages to its name.

Advantages of using questionnaires

The questionnaire is one of the most affordable methods of data collection, especially when self-administered. Questionnaires can be sent to a large number of respondents online and one does not have to hire large numbers of data collectors to administer them. However, there have been arguments that when posted or sent online, the return rate could be reduced due to the impersonal nature of the interface. In the case of the current study, the researcher delivered the questionnaires in person and came back to collect them the next day. In some instances, especially in very distant schools, the researcher administered the tool in person, making it possible not only to explain the purpose of the study but also assisted with explanations as participants completed the questionnaires.

Disadvantages of questionnaires

The questionnaire can be impersonal and open to abuse by the respondent. It can also be misunderstood if the respondent is to complete the instrument on his/her own.

These disadvantages were addressed through the researcher and remaining available for clarifications as teachers went through the completion process. As a result, questionnaire completeness was high. In terms of clarity, the pilot test substantially addressed any items with vague meaning or simply needing language simplification. Besides administration of the questionnaire by the researcher, a rapport-building entry strategy and explaining the research purpose in detail provided ample confidence of credible data.

3.8.2 Face to face interviews

Face to face interviews are a form of engagement between researcher and respondent in a process of oral exchange that allows the researcher and the informant to be co-producers of knowledge (Creswell, 2009). According to Kvale & Brinkmann, (2009), the interview endeavours to understand the world from the informants' points of view, to unfold the meaning of their experience and to 'uncover their lived experience' around the phenomenon being studied.

There are three main types of interviews that one could choose to use in conducting face to face interviews, depending on the structure and complexity of the conversation. On the extremes are the structured and unstructured types, with the semi-structured coming in between. The interview is said to be structured, also known as standardised, if the set of questions are standard, specific and consistently asked to each respondent (Kajornboon, 2005). The unstructured interview is the opposite and the researcher just asks questions as they come, without a pre-determined pattern. Meanwhile, a semi-structured interview is a combination of both the unstructured and the structured; and asks questions around set themes as well as some direct and specific questions; thus allowing a degree of flexibility such as probing in conducting the interview (MacDonald & Headlam, 2009). According to Cousin (2009: 71), semi-structured interviews "allow researchers to develop in-depth accounts of experiences and perceptions with individuals. In addition, semi-structured interviews promote interaction and reduce the formality of an interview". This is the type most commonly used in qualitative research (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree (2006) in Kallio, Pietila, Johnson and Kangasniemi, 2016).

The current study used face to face interviews with all targeted heads of schools, all community representatives all targeted district-level government officials and civil society organisations. Interview Guides for heads of schools, government officials, other implementing partners and community representatives have been attached as appendices G, I, J and K respectively. The targeting was based on the understanding that these stakeholders were best placed to interface with the issues covered by this study: government officials on the policy perspectives, communities from the beneficiary side while school heads and civil society organisations covered the implementation side. This array of respondents provided a complete picture of the delivery of social protection programmes in the context of right to education.

The researcher opted for the semi-structured in order to have that flexibility in engaging District Officials, Heads of schools and representatives of Civil Society Organisations that were implementing programmes in communities in Mwenzi District, trying to understand issues around the social protection phenomenon and its relationship with the right to education of vulnerable children. The presumption was that those respondents had information on the subject and the purpose was to guide a process of sharing that information with the researcher (Wahyuni, 2012).

It should be noted that no matter how good an interview guide might be, it is equally important to give attention to the conversational nature of the interview process by making the interviewee relaxed and at ease, besides ensuring an uninterrupted conversation. For district officials and civil society, interviews were conducted at their offices, for heads of schools and community members their schools and in the community respectively. Much patience was exercised by the researcher through listening and probing when it became necessary (Hancock, et al, 2009).

In the process of an interview engagement, disruptions must be minimised; the responses must be recorded without disrupting the flow of the discussion Nieuwenhuis (2007). An effort was made, in the current study, to seclude each interviewee to minimise interruptions until the end of the interview. Each interview was recorded using a digital recorder to minimise disruption due to the process of having to take notes manually. It also guaranteed minimal distortion of data. This made it possible to play back the recording several times during data analysis.

Advantages of face to face interviews

The main advantage of the interview technique lies in its ability to accommodate opportunities for follow-up questions, especially where interesting issues arise in the course of the conversation. It becomes possible to explore new information avenues, not previously anticipated, but suddenly come up in the course of the conversation. Tools such as self-administered questionnaires would not have such flexibility (Maree, 2007).

In the current study, the researcher had, through probing, the possibility to accommodate new avenues that the discussion opened up (Gray, 2004). Meanwhile, respondents also had the opportunity to ask for clarifications on issues they had not understood so that they were better able to respond to the questions. As noted by Creswell (2016), the researcher was also able to read non-verbal cues or change in voice inflections of the interviewee, which provided additional insights into issues under discussion. The interview processes were conducted in accordance with some of the merits identified here. For community stakeholders, interviews were collected in their vernacular language as a way of facilitating better interaction. The interview had to be translated to English after the interview process.

Disadvantages of face to face interviews

According to Yin (2009), in spite of its advantages, the face to face interview technique has some disadvantages as a data collection tool. A key one is the possibility of collecting biased information due to wrong phraseology of questions. This weakness was mitigated by a conducting a trial-run of the tool with respondents similar to those targeted by the study. Based on the feedback, this allowed modifications to be made for better clarity.

Apart from the cost and time implications that come with having to talk to individuals one-on one, a key issues could be related to simple logistical arrangements such as that of an interview place that guarantees privacy (Kothari, 2004). Both these were addressed through careful planning and scheduling before the data collection processes were undertaken.

A common weakness covered in literature is that of respondent providing incorrect information, either because they are not comfortable in giving sensitive information to

a stranger they have just met for the first time (Yin, 2009) or simply hide information or even provide that they feel will please the researcher or become excited rather than remain calm and sober in examining the issues under discussion. The researcher took time to explain the purpose of the researcher and the benefits likely to derive from it, hence the need for accurate information.

Regardless of some of these weaknesses, face to face interviews remain an effective data collection tool in research, especially where qualitative data are required. Already explained is how the researcher made efforts to counteract the identified weaknesses through meticulous planning, pilot-testing the instruments, triangulation with other data collection techniques, digital recording and striking some rapport with respondents.

3.8.3 Focus Group discussion (FGDs)

In carrying out qualitative research, a researcher can also use the focus group discussion method for data collection. Essentially, this is a structured group interview process that brings together a small group of 6-12 individuals; purposely selected to interrogate issues on the subject (MacDonald & Headlam, 2009; Creswell, 2016).

The defining characteristics of focus group discussions include, among others, treating each group as a single unit, selection of participants that need not be randomised (MacDonald & Headlam, 2009) and a trained, impartial 'moderator' capable of steering the discussion and encouraging group interaction (Mansell, Bennett, Northway, Mead & Moseley (2004); Barbour (2007)). Often, a set of open-ended questions initiates focus group discussions. The setting of a focus group discussion is intended to be interactive (Krueger, 1994). The 'moderator' has to facilitate the discussion in a non-threatening way (Silverman, 2010).

In the current study, the researcher gathered data from groups of parents and groups of children from the participating schools. This made it possible to collect additional qualitative insights on right to education and social protection issues, especially as they related to their experiences, views and opinions regarding the delivery of education targeted social protection programmes. The inclusion of children, the ones exposed to various vulnerabilities, gave them the opportunity to say whether or not this was working for them as well as suggesting what needed to be done. Parents, on

the other hand, are the custodians of the children whose plight they experience on a day to day basis. Their inclusion provided a rare opportunity to contribute with their experiences from the home front. Selection of respondents was guided at the school level who acted as gatekeepers so that the discussion involved those most likely to make meaningful contributions. A prepared facilitation guide with a focus on themes relevant to research questions (Appendix L) was used to trigger the discussions for both community and children's groups. Collection of data was done by recoding each discussion using a digital recorder although the researcher also took notes manually. Whereas the Focus Group discussion method finds favour with researchers in the Social sciences, it is characterised by a number of advantages and disadvantages.

Advantages of Focus Group discussions (FGDs)

By virtue of getting the conversation with the group, focus group discussions are considered a cost-effective mechanism for data collection than individual interviews. This is because one is able to already get views from more people within a single episode. Meanwhile, with good facilitation, participants are able to express their own opinions while at the same time responding to those of other discussants as they respond to questions posed by the facilitator. Thus focus groups can provide more depth and variety than individual face to face interviews.

Weaknesses of FGDs

By their group nature, FGDs could present challenges for the facilitator. Typically, the facilitator could have problems controlling the discussion (as compared to individual interviews), especially if there are dominant individuals who might afford very little chance to the more introverted participants (Stewart & , Shamdasani 1998). If allowed, those dominant individuals can mar the spirit and purpose of the focus group discussion. The expressed fear of dominance by some members, to a point of stifling contribution by others, can be a threat under focus group discussion conditions. To mitigate this challenge, the researcher ensured that a conducive environment was created as well as managing the process in a manner that entailed some control over the overbearing respondents, while inviting each respondent to contribute, even if they had not volunteered.

Meanwhile, due to the nature of the discussion, especially if it turns lively, there may be a challenge of listening and recording the discussion when participants are

speaking at the same time (Stewart & Shamdasani 1998). Although tape recording could mitigate the challenge, its introduction in the discussion could introduce some uneasiness. In the case of the current study, the researcher explained the use of the recorder and obtained participants' permission to record the discussion. The recorder was then placed at a strategic place to access all voices.

3.8.4 Document analysis

According to Maree (2007), document analysis is a form of qualitative research data collection technique that relates more closely to data already available and stored. In addition, *"document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents—both printed and electronic (computer-based and Internet-transmitted) material (Bowen, 2009:27).* It could simply be a reflection of historical events (Hancock et al; 2009).

From the foregoing, it is evident that document analysis is largely based on documents and records that are already available. Whereas the traditional notion was that of the printed word, new thinking brings in the modern-day computer-based technology. Documents stored could have quantities of information needed on a research subject. However, unless a proactive process of retrieval, examination and interpretation is undertaken to elicit meaning; the documents can remain just pieces of archival material. On what constitutes documents that could serve as the sources for analysis, there are comprehensive possibilities as the argument below shows:

Documents that may be used for systematic evaluation as part of a study take a variety of forms. They include advertisements; agendas, attendance registers, and minutes of meetings; manuals; background papers; books and brochures; diaries and journals; event programmes (i.e. printed outlines); letters and memoranda; maps and charts; newspapers (clippings/articles); press releases; programme proposals, application forms, and summaries; radio and television programme scripts; organisational or institutional reports; survey data; and various public records. Scrapbooks and photo albums can also furnish documentary material for research purposes. These types of documents are found in

libraries, newspaper archives, historical society offices, and organisational or institutional files (Bowen, 2009:27-28).

Documents can yield both qualitative and quantitative information and can include various types of written communication that serve to shed more light on the phenomenon of research interest. In order to gain full understanding of social protection and the right to education issues and how the former might have a bearing on the latter, the study perused various Government and Ministry policies, guidelines, memos, circulars as well as, administration records on both social protection and education.

An important set of documents consulted were those at the school level because of their likelihood to reflect the lived experiences of the school community particularly for those learners who were beneficiaries of the social protection programmes and if their right to education was being realised. These included correspondence, beneficiary data on types of benefits, minutes of internal meetings as well as internal and external reports.



Advantages of document analysis

The advantage of documents was that they presented a more tangible record and evidence of the happenings and they could be read over and over again, even long after data collection phase and to make meaning even during the data presentation, interpretation and discussion stages of the research.

One of the key advantages of document analysis is that it is an efficient data collection mechanism that only requires data selection instead of data collection. It is less time-consuming and, therefore, more efficient than other research methods. Added to this efficiency is the issue of data availability. According to scholars, most documents are obtainable on the Internet without the author's permission, and it only requires one's imagination and industriousness.

While other research methods suffer the disadvantage of obtrusiveness, document analysis remains unaffected by the research process. It successfully counters reflexivity that characterises other methods - the tendency of awareness of researcher presence and contribution to interpretation of meanings in such a way that it might

influence the research as happens in observations. Besides, documents are not affected by researcher presence

Disadvantages of documents analysis

In spite of its extensive use, document analysis comes along with its share of challenges, especially relating to accessing those sources that are considered to contain sensitive information. Internet-based documents are often blocked, requiring special permission to access them. Even for those that are accessible, they may have been produced for purposes other than the targeted research areas. As a result, they may not provide sufficient detail to answer research questions.

Ownership of some documents may be specific to certain organisations. Such documents are likely to be aligned to organisational interests and inclinations and agenda of their principals. Such documents are more likely to present a limited view of the issues and thus become limited in their view of reality.

In spite of these shortcomings, documentation analysis served its triangulation purpose well. Not only was care taken in their selection but also researcher's explanation of their intended use made them readily accessible.



3.9 Validity and Reliability/Credibility/Trustworthiness

Judging the soundness of research is an area of interest to researchers. Although validity (internal and external), reliability and objectivity have been touted as the key traditional criteria for judging soundness in quantitative research (Trochim, 2006), other researchers have proposed alternative criteria for judging quality in qualitative research. Lincoln and Guba (2000), for example, proposed four criteria for judging the soundness of qualitative research; including credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability

The mixed-method design used for this study necessitated the use of instruments that collected both quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (interviews, focus group discussions) data. An important question was how this design ensured that collected data were not only valid and reliable but also trustworthy and credible, given that

validity and reliability work with the quantitative research components while credibility and trustworthiness are their parallels in qualitative research.

3.9.1 Validity and reliability

Validity has to do with whether or not the instrument used measures what it is intended to measure (Silverman, 2010); that is to say it answers to the degree to which the instrument is capable of ascertaining the accuracy and meaning of the study (De Vos et al., 2013). Often, part of the process of ensuring the validity of the instrument is done by working to link research questions and the questions the instrument is asking, together with the analysis that demonstrates that link (Kumar, 2005; Zohrabi, 2013).

In the current study, each questionnaire item was matched with the research question from which it was generated. Thus, conversely, each item contributed a partial solution to the research question. The process was an effort to provide alignment between “respondent focused core interview questions to the primary research questions posed by the researcher” (Gibbs, 2007: 93).

Further efforts to ascertain the validity of the instruments were made by handing them over to education and research specialists, including the researcher’s supervisor, to subject it to scrutiny with reference to content analysis, clarity, adequacy to addressing research questions and format. Comments provided enhanced validity of the instruments. Validity was further enhanced through careful sampling, appropriateness of instruments and level of data analysis (Mertens, 2010).

Reliability refers to the extent to which the measuring instruments produces consistent results each time they are used with similar samples (Babbie, 2010; Creswell, 2014; De Vos et al., 2013). A test-retest process through pilot testing was done with a group of similar respondents outside the research area. This gave the subjects the chance to detect errors so that measures were taken to reduce them to the bare minimum before data collection on the research sample.

3.9.2 Trustworthiness and credibility

Parallel to the elements of validity and reliability that characterise quantitative studies, the qualitative component of the data speaks to issues of credibility and trustworthiness, which were also of great concern to this study (Lincoln, Lynham and Gubba, 2011). In simple terms, consideration of credibility and trustworthiness are about the question: can we be confident in the truth value of the study and its findings (Baloyi & Naidoo, 2016)? Trustworthiness is made up of four criteria that include credibility (extent to which truthfulness of findings can be established), transferability (extent of application to contexts other than the study situation), dependability (extent of replication in other contexts with similar subjects and conditions) and confirmability (extent to which results can be confirmed or verified by others) (Gubba & Lincoln, 2005). How these were achieved was equally an issue of much concern in this study on Social Protection as a Mechanism for Promoting the Right to Education for Vulnerable Children in Mwenezi District. A discussion of how the research addressed each criterion of trustworthiness is presented hereunder.



3.9.2.1 Credibility

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According to Rossouw (2003), credibility in qualitative research is the equivalent of internal validity in quantitative studies. The credibility criterion involves establishing whether or not the results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the research participant. This arises from the purpose of qualitative research that seeks to describe or understand the phenomena of interest from the perspective of the participant, making it only logical that the participant becomes the one best placed to judge the credibility of the results. Among other considerations, factual accuracy of the research account is key in establishing trustworthiness (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

From the onset, credibility was already factored in through peer review of data collection instruments as well as digital recording of verbatim accounts of respondents. Credibility was further enhanced by a number of strategies, one of which was the use of member checks, a key strategy for authenticating research findings with respondents (Maree, 2007). The process entailed availing data transcriptions and

analysed texts to a sample of respondents for confirmation as to whether or not the contents were a true reflection of what transpired during the face to face interviews and focus group discussions (Creswell, 2014; Maree, 2007). Contents of the transcriptions were confirmed. The researcher did not have to make any adjustments before proceeding with data analysis because of sufficient confidence on the truthfulness and accuracy of the data.

Credibility was also achieved through data triangulation because a single method can never adequately shed light on a phenomenon under study (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Data triangulation was achieved realised through use of questionnaire, face to face interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis. The usual argument that such a process could trigger challenges when members want to change their responses did not arise and recorded data did not have to be used to prove anything (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). The study process also paid conscious attention to the subtle trustworthiness criteria issues of transferability, dependability and confirmability through research activities designed to address these areas.



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3.9.2.2 Transferability

Both external validity (in quantitative research) and transferability (linked to qualitative studies) have to do with the applicability of the research; external validity dealing with the generalisation of findings from the target sample to the population (Rossouw, 2003) and transferability referring to the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be transferred to settings other than those in which the study was carried out (Trochim, 2006; Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). Trochim (2006:3) further contends:

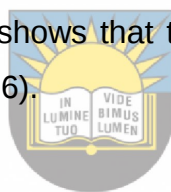
From a qualitative perspective transferability is primarily the responsibility of the one doing the generalising. The qualitative researcher can enhance transferability by doing a thorough job of describing the research context and the assumptions that were central to the research. The person who wishes to "transfer" the results to a different context is then responsible for making the judgment of how sensible the transfer is.

In the current research, transferability was taken care of through full description of the research context as well as careful selection of the research sample, adherence to laid

down research procedures and regular consultation with supervisor through all stages of the research process as well as data storage for ease of retrieval in case of queries and challenges from other researchers.

3.9.2.3 Dependability

Like reliability in quantitative research, dependability has to do with consistency of research findings (Rossouw, 2003). The emphasis is on the researcher accounting for the context in which the research takes place. Responsibility for describing those changes as well as how they affect the way the research approached the study rests with the researcher. According to Finlay (2006), this can provide the evidence needed should outsiders want to scrutinise at a later time. To achieve dependability, the researcher followed all standard laid down procedures for carrying out a study, including providing a thick description of the research methods as well as an audit of data consistency. Dependability shows that the findings are consistent and can be repeated (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006).



3.9.2.4 Confirmability

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Much of qualitative research is anchored on the belief that each researcher brings some uniqueness to the research. However, issues of confirmability, the extent to which the value, richness of research experience and findings of the research can be corroborated by others (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006), often arise. Viewed from another angle, confirmability concerns itself with the question: to what extent are study findings shaped by the respondents and not researcher bias, motivation, or interest? Two strategies were employed to enhance confirmability. The researcher documented all the procedures, coupled with checking and rechecking the data throughout the study and also facilitated critical appraisal of methodologies and findings by peers and received critical feedback that was then used to reshape the entire process, including the research report.

3.10 Data Collection Procedures

Data collection entailed visiting each school site. At most the researcher spent two days at each school. All school and community participants congregated at the site for ease of reach. Scheduled processes were undertaken first with the school head before distributing questionnaires to teachers for completion on the first day. Group discussion sessions were done with each of the groups (community and school children) on the second day.

3.11 Data Analysis

By the end of data collection processes, the researcher was armed with huge amounts of data sets from both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study; including interview transcripts, field notes, audio recordings and completed questionnaires. The researcher subjected all these data sets to analysis; the process of systematically searching and arranging in order to discern meaning (Bodgan & Bilken, 2007; Remler & Ryzin, 2011). Data analysis was undertaken in two categories: the quantitative and qualitative.



3.11.1 Analysis of qualitative data

The analysis of qualitative data has to do with its organisation. According to Bogdan and Bilken (2007), it involves working with the data, breaking them into manageable units, possibly coding and synthesising in search for patterns the purpose of which is to get meaning that makes it possible to communicate the results. Three main steps are followed when carrying out qualitative data analysis (Creswell, 2009):

- Preparing and organising the data
- Reducing and summarising the data, possibly through a process of coding
- Presenting the data, in narrative form, figures, and/or tables.

Considering that the main sources of qualitative data were face to face interviews and focus group interviews, the researcher prepared transcripts, a procedure which Hancock et al. (2009), explains as producing a written version of an interview or conversation from audio-taped recordings, then organised according to specific themes and subsequently analysed in response to specific research questions. The transcriptions were done soon after the interviews while the researcher could still relate to some of the issues that were raised in the discussions. Data aggregation was done first by instrument and then collectively across all instruments.

3.11.2 Analysis of quantitative data

Data from questionnaires were analysed quantitatively using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) in accord with research questions. This produced descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages, means and standard deviations. Largely, these were presented by tabular or graphical means.



3.12 Ethical Considerations

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Gomm (2008) defines research ethics as rules of morally good conduct for researchers in accordance with which the researcher follows certain laid down procedures in going about the research study. At the planning level, this includes obtaining the necessary permissions and satisfying defined protocols. The researcher complied with the University of Fort Hare code of ethics research requirements that makes it mandatory to obtain the necessary permissions from the relevant authorities. The ethical clearance certificate is attached as appendix A. Permission was sought from, and granted by, the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education at national (Appendix D) and Provincial and District Levels (Appendix E).

Once these permissions had been granted, contacts were made with each school and other stakeholder participants to secure appointments. However, given the possibility that interaction with participants through interviews, focus group discussions and any other data collection mechanism may, harm them in some way, this research was undertaken in compliance with various ethical considerations (Polonski, 2004).

Participant consent, protection from harm and assurance of privacy (Drew et al., 2008) are some of the ethical measures researchers would normally take. This study took into account ethical considerations of anonymity and confidentiality, informed consent, avoiding harm to participants and voluntary participation and discussed them fully with participants prior to data collection.

3.12.1 Informed consent

Informed consent is a mechanism by which participants are given all the information about the research in such a way that is clear to them. Based on such information, individuals are able to make decisions about whether or not to participate in the study (Drew et al., 2008; Johnson & Christensen, 2011). Gray (2004), explains the concept of informed rather well when he argues that:

Participants, gatekeepers and sponsors need to be informed about: the aims of the research, who will be undertaking it, who else is being asked to participate, what kind of information is being sought, how much of participant's time is required, that participation is voluntary throughout, that responding to all questions is voluntary, who will have access to the data once it is collected and how anonymity will be preserved (Gray, 2004:59).

At the commencement of each data collection process, interview or focus group discussion, the researcher provided participants with sufficient detail about the nature of the study and the procedures involved. Each data collection instrument contained an introductory portion that reminded the researcher to go through the preliminary process without fail. The purpose and methods to be used in the study were explained, a summary of the potential risks and benefits involved was provided and the demands placed upon them as participants were articulated (Creswell, 2009; Best & Kahn, 2006). A particularly pertinent issue put across to them was that they had the right to participate voluntarily (and would not be coerced to do so) and to withdraw from the study at any time they felt like not continuing (Drew et al., 2008; Creswell, 2009). The researcher was also guided by advice from Bond (2004) who suggested that researcher should use process consent rather than having informed consent only at the beginning of study. Consent was reaffirmed at intervals as the researcher

continued to prompt on their willingness to continue. Adults participants were issued with consent form that they signed to indicate their willingness to participate. However, for children, consent was provided on their behalf by adults such as a parent, school head or teacher who acted in loco parentis.

3.12.2 Anonymity and confidentiality

Research depends on participants volunteering information. However, the likelihood of accurate information being provided depends whether or not the respondent is identifiable. Respondent anonymity (ensuring the source remains unknown) – such as by removing the contributor's name) and confidentiality (the protection of the data collected) were guaranteed. A key attribute of *confidentiality is only the researcher is aware of the participants' identities*. Anderson (2009) defines confidentiality as the control of access to information and the guarantee that collected data will not be shared with unauthorised people (Krathwohl, 2004).

The researcher assured the participants that their identity would remain anonymous throughout the research and that participant responses would not be divulged to anyone but used for research purposes only. For example, the removal of participants' names from documents and 'locking up' data collected were guaranteed as key safety nets. Instead of respondent names, codes were used to disguise the identity of the participants.

3.12.3 Voluntary participation

The underlying principle behind voluntary participation is prohibition of coercion. Before the commencement of the interviews, the researcher availed consent forms that assured participants that while their participation in the study was appreciated, that participation was voluntary and that they were free to (a) decline to respond to questions that they did not like and (b) pull out anytime should they feel like doing so.

3.12.4 The do no harm rule

This rule applied to this study, to the extent that the study activities did the utmost best to avoid harm (physical, psychological, social) to the lives of individuals and communities in which it they were undertaken, in the short and long term.

3.13 Summary

This chapter discussed the methodology employed for the research, starting with the Pragmatic research paradigm that underpinned this study. The mixed-method approach was identified and its justification explained in terms of its features and strengths with concurrent triangulation design being preferred due to its advantages over the sequential design. The chapter also discussed the population, sample and sampling procedures followed by the study, culminating in the use and justification of a combination of stratified random and purposive sampling being used. Consistent with mixed-method approach used in the study, the questionnaire, semi-structured interview, focus group discussion as well as document analysis were identified and justified as the data collection techniques for this study. The chapter closed with data analysis and a discussion of credibility and trustworthiness, together with ethical considerations. The next chapter focuses on data presentation and analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

4 DATA PRESENTATION

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present and analyse the quantitative and qualitative data obtained from the study with the aim of responding to the research questions articulated in Chapter 1. Table 4.1 provides a summary of the data sources, the targeted sample and achieved samples, the type of data obtained from each source and the data collection tools used.

TABLE 4-1: SUMMARY OF DATA SOURCES BY TYPE AND DATA COLLECTION METHOD

Data Sources	Participant Numbers		Data type	Data collection method
	Target	Reach		
School teachers	100	98	Quantitative	Questionnaire
School Heads	11	11	Qualitative	Informant interview
Ministry: Primary and Secondary Education	2	2	Qualitative	Informant interview
Ministry: Labour and Social Services	2	2	Qualitative	Informant interview
NGO respondents	2	2	Qualitative	Informant interview
SDC Members	11	11	Qualitative	Informant interview
Parents/Community groups	11	10	Qualitative	FGD Guide
School children groups	11	11	Qualitative	FGD Guide

As shown in table 4.1, the researcher reached 98 per cent of primary school teacher respondents (98 out of 100) with questionnaires. This provided quantitative data that were subjected to statistical methods using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS); generating frequency tables, percentages and charts that were used in the presentation of data from the respondents.

Qualitative data were obtained from different respondent groups using a combination of open ended questions and semi-structured interviews as well as focus group discussions. Separate semi-structured interview guides were used for 11 heads of schools, 2 Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education officials, 2 Ministry of Labour and Social Services Officers, 11 members of School Development Committees

(SDCs) and 2 Civil Society Organisation representatives. Additional information was obtained through separate focus group discussions (FGDs) with 10 community groups (32 men and 53 women, including parents) and 11 children's groups (62 boys and 60 girls). In both cases, data were collected by means of audio tapes and in note form by the researcher and two assistants. Thus, collected data were validated through triangulation and verification from multiple sources. All qualitative data were transcribed and analysed using thematic content analysis, which involved the organisation of data by themes and noting common threads in the discussion. In analysis of qualitative data, schools were identified by codes (from S1 to S11). Respondent categories were identified by codes that linked them to their schools: SH1-SH11 for school heads, SSDC1-SSDC11 for School Development Committee representatives, SComG1-SComG11 for community groups and SChG1-SChG11 for children's groups). Other respondents were simply identified by a descriptive that links them to their school; such ST1 for a teacher from school 1. Table 4.2 shows the codes for the key categories.

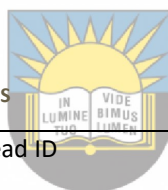


TABLE 4-2: RESPONDENT IDENTIFICATION CODES

Schools	School code	Head ID	SSDC	Community Group code	Children's Group Code
School 1	S1	SH1	SSDC1	SComG1	SChG1
School 2	S2	SH2	SSDC2	SComG2	SChG2
School 3	S3	SH3	SSDC3	SComG3	SChG3
School 4	S4	SH4	SSDC4	SComG4	SChG4
School 5	S5	SH5	SSDC5	SComG5	SChG5
School 6	S6	SH6	SSDC6	SComG6	SChG6
School 7	S7	SH7	SSDC7	SComG7	SChG7
School 8	S8	SH8	SSDC8	SComG8	SChG8
School 9	S9	SH9	SSDC9	SComG9	SChG9
School 10	S10	SH10	SSDC10	SComG10	SChG10
School 11	S11	SH11	SSDC11	SComG11	SChG11

4.2 Demographic and Physiographic Characteristics

4.2.1 Location variables

Some child vulnerabilities may be a function of the environment in which the schools are located. It was considered important to examine how the 11 school heads and 98 teachers who participated in the research were distributed by geographical school location. The distribution pattern is shown in Figure 4.1.

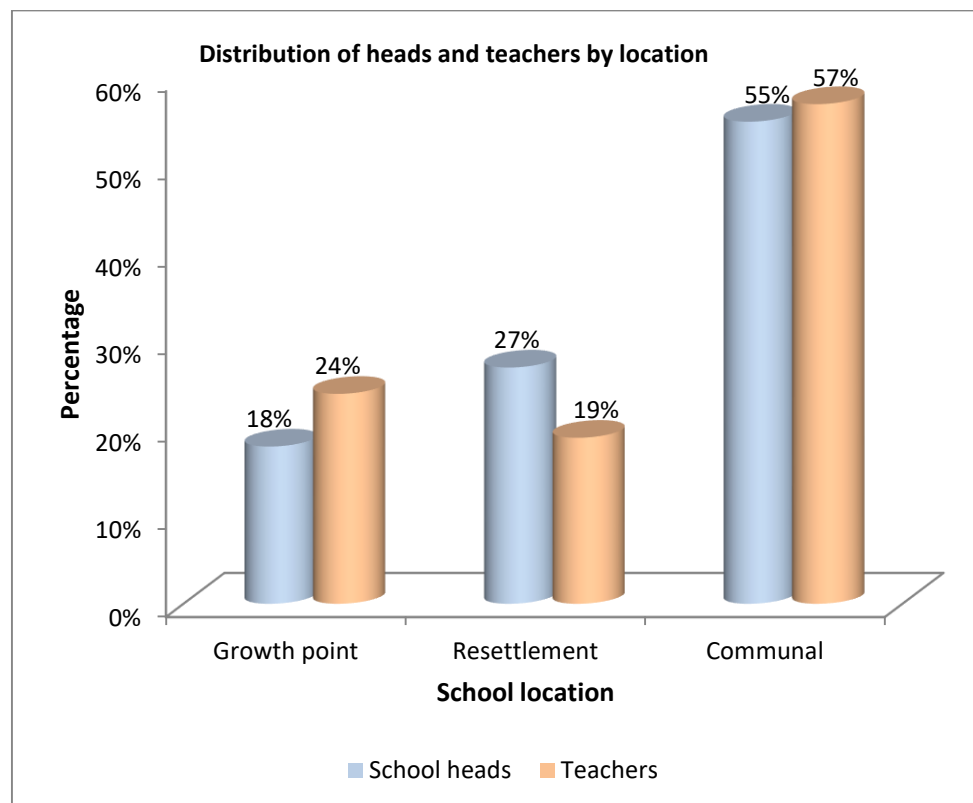


FIGURE 4-1: DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL HEADS AND TEACHERS BY LOCATION

The participating schools were in three distinct location categories of growth point, resettlement and communal areas. The majority of the schools heads (55%) in the sample for the study were in communal areas, the least in growth points (18%) and the remaining 27% in resettlement areas. This was a reflection of the distribution pattern of primary schools in the district. Given that there was one school head for each school, distribution of school heads by location reflects the distribution of schools participating in the study.

The majority (57%) of teachers interviewed were teaching in schools located in communal areas, while 19% were in schools located in resettlement areas and the remaining 24% in growth-point schools. The dominance of communal schools and teachers reflects that the biggest numbers of schools in Mwenezi are in communal areas. Meanwhile, the higher proportion of teachers as compared to the smaller number of growth point schools reflects the large school sizes in those locations.

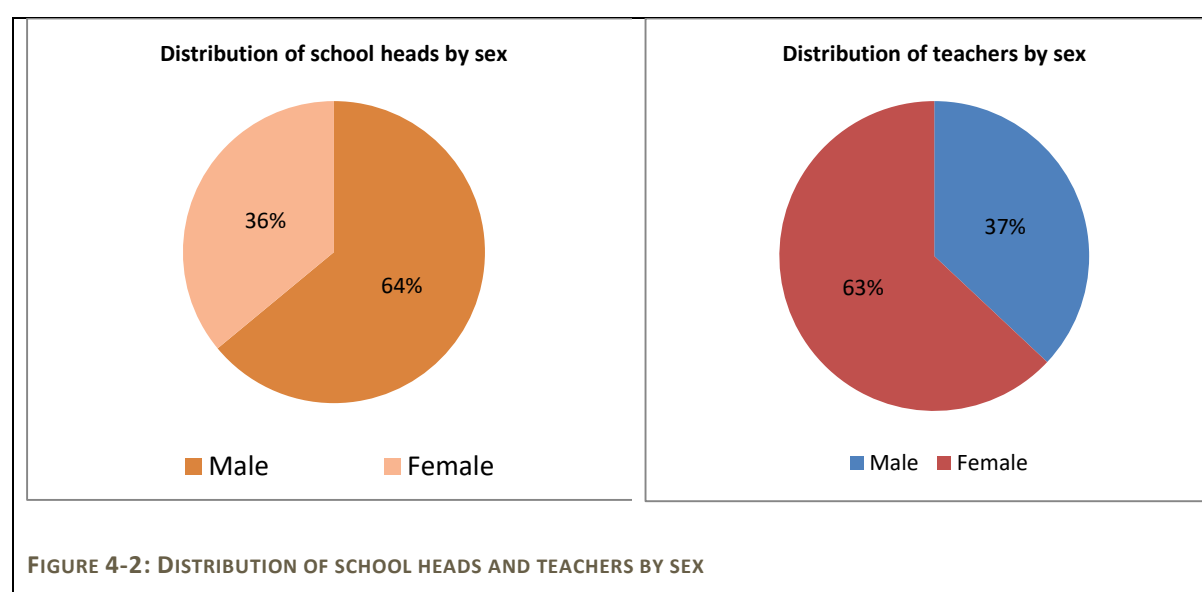
4.2.2 Participant Demographic Information

The level and depth of appreciation of the social issues under consideration may be a function of respondent characteristics; hence it was necessary to do an analysis of these demographics as a precursor for further presentation and analysis. The presentation highlights characteristic related to gender, age and, in the case of school heads and teachers, qualification and work experience.



4.2.2.1 School head and teacher distribution by sex

Sex of school teams (heads and teachers) was considered an important variable in the management and delivery of social protection programmes within the school system. It was necessary to have some understanding how both heads of schools and teachers were distributed by sex. Figure 4.2 shows the distribution.



Of the 11 heads of schools who participated in the study, 7 (64%) were male and 4 (36%) were female. Meanwhile, there were 36 (37%) male teacher and 62 (63%) female teacher participants. This shows that while headship of schools was still a male-dominated area, classroom teaching was female-dominated. It was of interest to take a close look at whether these distribution patterns had any bearing on the attention that vulnerable children received from their school leaders and teachers.

4.2.2.2 School heads and teacher distribution by age

Table 4.3 shows the distribution of heads and teachers by age.

TABLE 4-3: DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL HEADS AND TEACHERS BY AGE

Age range (Years)	School heads Frequency	Teachers frequency
20 – 29	0	12
30 – 39	1	35
40 – 49	4	35
50 – 59	5	15
60 and above	1	1
Total	11	98

Nine of the 11 school heads were in the 40–59 years age group while, 70 of the 98 teachers were in the 30–49 age group. This pattern is affirmed by mean ages of these two categories that worked out at 49 and 40 years respectively. This was not surprising given that for one to be promoted as head, they must have considerable teaching experience. On account of long experience in the school system, school personnel (heads and teachers) were expected to possess what it takes to understand child psychology, the consequences surrounding vulnerability of children and how this affects opportunities for learning. The experience was also expected to provide ample social protection delivery experience to competently assess its delivery and impact.

4.2.2.3 School heads and teacher's distribution by qualification

Education is a key determinant of teaching and management competences in schools. This should have a bearing on how these school officials handle cases of vulnerable children in their schools. Table 4.4 shows the distribution of heads and teachers by their highest educational qualification.

TABLE 4-4: TEACHER AND SCHOOL HEADS HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

Highest Qualification	Heads		Teachers	
	frequency	%	Frequency	%
Teaching certificate	2	18	5	5
Diploma in Education	4	36	67	68
First degree	4	37	18	19
Second degree	1	9	2	2
Other qualifications	0	0	6	6
Total	11	100	98	100

The minimum officially recognised qualification to teach at (or head) a Primary School Level in Zimbabwe is a Certificate or Diploma in Education. Having a first degree or second degree is a bonus. A close analysis of Table 4.4 shows that 94% of the teachers and all heads that participated in the study met the expected teacher qualification requirements. Thus, the primary schools in the district were manned by qualified personnel from both administrative and teaching standpoints. Given this capacity, it was assumed that both teachers and school heads would be well placed to assess the provision of social protection services to vulnerable children and manage those within their jurisdiction.

4.2.2.4 Head and teacher experience in their current roles

Teachers and school heads that participated in the study were asked to indicate their experience (years) in their current roles. This information was expected to provide an indication of their degree of exposure to several social protection situations that they come across in the school systems. In addition, the researcher envisaged that this

would bring to light the implications and consequences for the right to education vis-à-vis social protection programmes in place. Table 4.5 shows distribution of heads and teachers by years of experience in their current roles.

TABLE 4-5: HEADS AND TEACHERS: DISTRIBUTION BY EXPERIENCE.

Experience in in their current roles	School heads (as heads)		Teachers (as teachers)	
	frequency	Percentag	Frequenc	Percentage
00 – 05	5	46	15	15
06 – 10	4	36	26	27
11 – 15	0	0	20	20
16 – 20	1	9	22	23
21 – 25	0	0	8	8
26 – 30	1	9	6	6
31 – 35	0	0	1	1
Total	11	100	98	100

The majority of school heads (82%) were in their first 10 years as school heads. Additionally, their mean experience as school heads was determined to be 8.2 years. These results were indication of adequate experience, given that school heads are usually promoted to the position of head after several years as classroom teachers. For teachers, experience for the majority fell between 6 and 20 years (mean 13 years). Therefore, the results of the study suggest that both groups should be conversant with issues of social protection that they come across in their schools in relation to vulnerable learners and their right to education.

4.2.2.5 Learner participant demographics

The school children who participated in the study were the beneficiaries of Social Protection programmes. It was important to capture the voices of these learners as well as have an assessment of how these programmes were working, their role in their delivery and, based on their own experience, how these programmes were impacting on children's right to education. The study also sought to find out from the learner beneficiaries areas needing improvement. Student characteristics comprised of sex, age and grade. At each school, the researcher engaged with a group of school children

between grade 4 and 7 and between the ages of 10 and 15 years thus ensuring adequate representation of most junior grades at each school.

The decision to involve these grades was based on the experience from the pilot phase and advice of heads and teachers who deemed children in these grade best placed to engage in meaningful discussions about social protection delivery. The age-range was from 10 to 15 years was the typical primary school children age group in Zimbabwe except for few over-aged. Figure 4.3 shows the distribution.

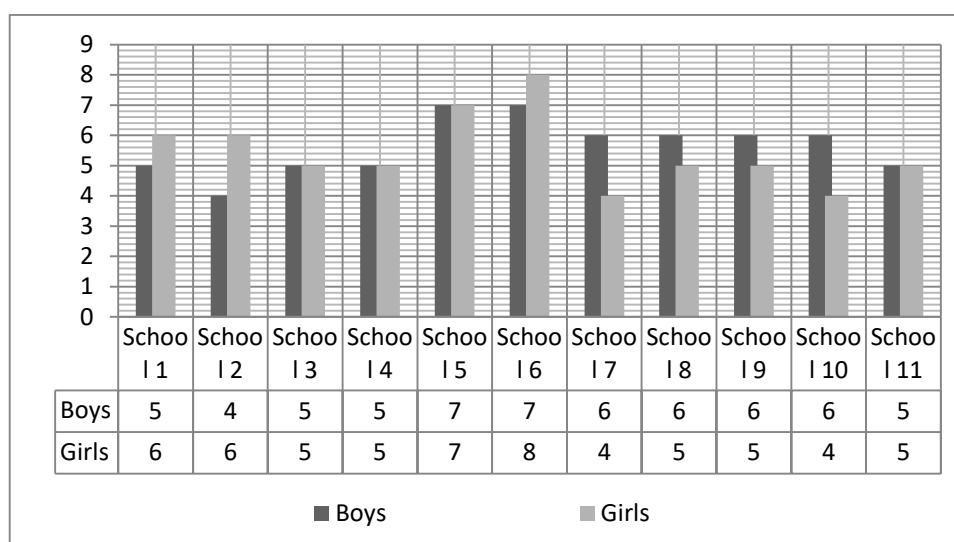


FIGURE 4-3: NUMBER OF LEARNERS BY SCHOOL AND SEX

There were 122 students, comprising of 62 boys and 60 girls, an even boy/girl ratio because of the need to balance girls' and boys' views on the subject as well promoting gender equity and equality. Except for schools 5 and 6, the total number of participants at each school was between 10 and 11.

4.2.2.6 Community participants' demographics

An equally important source of information was that of members of the community. A total of 85 community members (32 male and 53 female) participated in this study. Their distribution by school and sex is shown in Figure 4.4.

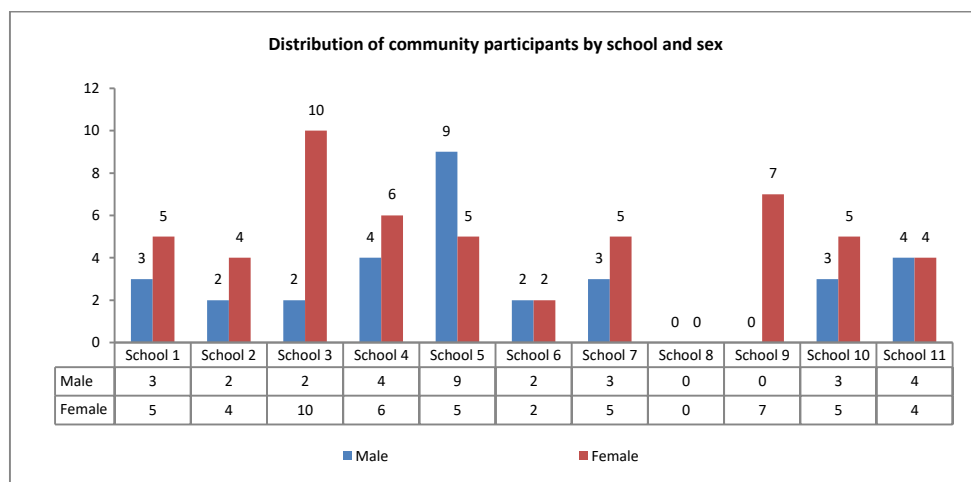


FIGURE 4-4: DISTRIBUTION OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPANTS BY SCHOOL AND SEX

In some school communities, the community/parent groups were the most difficult to gather for the focus group discussions. At school number 8, for example, it proved impossible in spite of the two attempts made. It was indicated that the community, in spite of agreeing to come to the meeting, were conservative and suspicious of any strangers. Meanwhile, in schools number 5 and 3 there was much enthusiasm. However, apart from school number 5, the participation of women was consistently higher than that of men. These results may also imply that most households were female-headed hence high number of learners under social protection programmes. This may also be attributed to absence of male figures in the family setup that, in the African context, are expected to provide for their children's education.

4.3 Child vulnerability in Mwenezi district

Child vulnerability lies at the heart of this research. Given its bearing on the right to education, it becomes a target for social protection interventions. An understanding of child vulnerability was considered a key enabler of meaningful engagement with underlying issues of why and how children's right to education was, and should be, mediated through social protection. This section takes a close look at how vulnerability was understood in the context of respondents' experiences with children in Mwenezi district. The section also concerns itself with the related issues of sources/causes of

vulnerability and its consequences on children's right to education. Reflections on these issues by different respondent groups were guided through use of relevant tools.

4.3.1 Understanding child vulnerability

The basic question to all respondent categories was: When is a child said to be vulnerable? Responses were obtained from heads of schools, teachers, parents/ community and school children.

4.3.1.1 Teacher perceptions of a vulnerable child

Four response categories were generated out of what teachers said about child vulnerability. Figure 4.5 shows four responses categories, together with the proportion of teachers aligning to each definition.

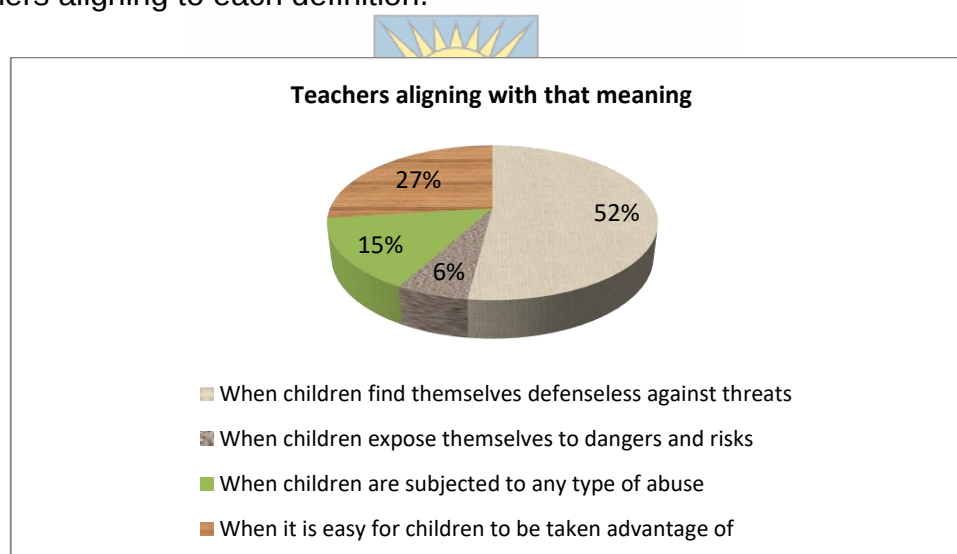


FIGURE 4-5: DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY DEFINITION OF VULNERABILITY

Most teachers (52%) said child vulnerability was that situation when children were in a state of defenselessness against external threats, while 27% said it was when children were taken advantage of. Of the remaining 21%, 15 % made specific reference to being subjected to abuse while, 6% of the teachers appeared to put the blame on children themselves - when they expose themselves to dangers and risks. In addition, teachers indicated that of children in their class, 41% on average were

vulnerable (46% in resettlement and communal schools and 26% growth point schools). Girls and double orphans were singled out as the most vulnerable categories due to exposure to abuse and lack of parental guidance.

4.3.1.2 School head perceptions of a vulnerable child

According to heads of schools, a vulnerable child was one in an overall '**weakened state**'; **a situation** that made it easier for various external forces to affect the child in a negative way and in the process affected their education. This view was buttressed by specific sentiments that came from a sample of school heads;

SH8 provided an extension of the widely held school head perception. He said;

Vulnerable children exist everywhere: in the homes and communities, at the school and all the way to and from school. In fact, most of these children you see around are vulnerable in one way or the other.

SH1 chose to broaden the perception by putting accent on sources of vulnerability. He expressed the sentiment that:

Children are rendered hopeless by circumstances around them that make them vulnerable. These can be from various sources that include mostly the home and community but also the school.

In agreement, SH9 echoed;

The situation of children is much weaker today than ever before. Although we can blame them for these happenings, it is the external forces that play a prominent part.

The variations in the aspects of emphasis could be a reflection of variations in the issues considered most pertinent in the different school communities. However, the two emerging issues were: that vulnerability had many dimensions and that whatever, dimension or angle it came from, the child was the one impacted. The situation should call for equally broad response perspectives.

4.3.1.3 Community perceptions of a vulnerable child

Community discussions, which often spilled into finding the culprit, revolved around a child having been rendered 'helpless to withstand pressures'. In one community discussion (SComG1), a parent illustrated the situation as follows:

The child is like a reed in a current. Without the shielding effect of the parent, community or school, they will bend in the direction of the current. When the current or wind get stronger, they eventually break.

SComG5 opined in relative agreement;

We are all guilty. The result is that children do not go to school or dropout after registration by the circumstances we contribute to creating. The child of today is at the mercy of the world of adults. Their situation is dire.

SSDC4, in his sentiments appeared tired of just adding a voice to make the outcry louder, suggesting the move towards taking up responsibility for a solution;

Indeed the child is exposed to much more than we, their parents, went through when we were growing up. Something needs to be done to control all this and that duty rests on all of us and the children themselves too.

A summary of the community perspective needs no over-emphasis. The reality of child vulnerability was evident and impacting on educational opportunities, among other social needs. That a solution was needed was generally agreed.

4.3.1.4 The school child perception of a vulnerable child

Due to their different circumstances, children came from varying angles to define a vulnerable child. A common perception of a vulnerable child was one of being in a situation out of which one can do little to help themselves. The situation could arise out of environmental circumstances or even inherited from one's parents. In either case, children may be completely innocent yet surrounding circumstances put them in

that unenviable situation. They further argued that, due to that situation, it became easy to be taken advantage of and become a victim of circumstances. Given that understanding, and considering situations around their schools and communities, they felt that nearly all children were vulnerable.

Besides the perception of 'diminished' capacity to defend oneself, children went further to illustrate their 'lived' experiences of vulnerable children by pointing to the categories that, in their view, fitted this concept the most – children with disabilities and those left on their own by parents who went job searching in South Africa. SchG11, passionately, almost equated vulnerability to disability. This is what the child had to say:

It is hard to find them because they are never put in the public and they don't even go to school all because of their disability status. Some cannot walk, others can neither hear nor see. It is not their fault but there appears to be little care.

SchG9 made an emotional reference to vulnerability due to abandonment;

Nenyaya yokushaikwa kwemabasa mu Zimbabwe, vamwe vabereki vanongosiya vana pamusha, ivo voenda ku South Africa kana Botswana. Pavanodzoka vanowana musha zvese nevana zvaparara (Due to difficult economic situation in Zimbabwe, some parents go to look for a job in South Africa, leaving children on their own. They do not care what happens to their children. When, and if, they come back, they find the situation of their children beyond redemption).

In concluding this section, considerable convergence on the notion of a vulnerable child is noted. Use of terms such as 'defenseless', 'hopelessness', 'weakened' as well as example of those categories that fitted this concept serve to illustrate this point. Moreover, that weakened state becomes the issue because it triggers susceptibility to external threats or risks. However, there were also subtle variations that could make a difference in terms of what then needs to be done in responding to these different vulnerability situations.

4.3.2 Sources/causes of child vulnerability

There is a case for knowing the origins of child vulnerability because, ideally, interventions must target those root causes in a holistic manner. There was consensus among respondent groups that most of the child vulnerabilities emanated from the community, home or school or were self-inflicted. Reality has it that children were never in one place all the time; at one time they are at home, the next moment in the broader community as they find their way to school, where they spend a good part of their time with teachers and other children. All these environments are developmental and experiential arenas which pose as vulnerability minefields with respect to children's safety and protection. This study undertook an analysis of the different situations that trigger vulnerability.

4.3.2.1 Community/home level factors

From a list of known community/home-related factors, teachers were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed that each was indeed a factor in Mwenezi. They were also at liberty to add other factors if they felt any had been missed. Figures in parentheses show the percentage of teachers that agreed that the identified factor was a source of child vulnerability. Table 4.6 shows the responses by teachers

TABLE 4-6: TEACHER AFFIRMATION OF VULNERABILITY FACTORS

Factor	Teachers answering 'Yes' (%)
Poverty/ unemployment	96
Single or no parent	95
Single or double orphans	94
Long walking distance to school	93
Home chores interference	92
Traditional/cultural norms	82
Natural disasters	81

Violence in the home	68
Violence in the community	54
Drug abuse	39

The table shows the predominant factors as poverty and unemployment (96%), home with single or no parent (95%), single or double orphans (94%), long walking distances to school (93%) and home chores that interfered with schooling (92%). Traditional or cultural norms (82%) are next, followed by proneness to natural disasters and chronic illness of caregiver (81%). Lower down the scale were issues of violence in the home or community (68% and 54% respectively) and drug abuse (39%). The nature of their effect is the subject of a different section of this report. However, suffice to say that these embraced economic (characterised by inability to raise the required user fees for school attendance) and socio-cultural (cultural rituals that take place during the winter months) factors, that caused absenteeism and susceptibility to risk of abuse).

Heads of schools largely concurred with what their teachers said; that the home and community were major sources of vulnerability: With reference to this, SH7 retorted:

No matter how well you do at the school level, unless the problem is dealt with at the home front, vulnerability is unlikely to go away.

School heads noted that some children in Mwenezi were abandoned or orphaned. They are unable to cope on their own because when risks and other external factors befell them, they were found in a weakened state as no one was there to shield them from harm. Whereas the number of orphaned children was already high in Mwenezi, there was an upsurge of cases of 'abandoned' ones, for one reason or another. Most of the latter were of those whose parents went job-searching in South Africa, leaving children to fend for themselves. District level education officials, stakeholders and community participants had similar responses and could not agree more:

Engagement in risky behaviour such as sex work or drug abuse was a common consequence. Eventually such children drop out of school, said a Ministry of Education District level official.

A district level Social Welfare Officer also expressed this in strong words saying:

Such cases are a thorn in our flesh. Home situations are the biggest causes. Day in, day out we have to deal with cases of destitution due to abandonment and neglect. These issues cannot be wished away. We try to do our best but get overstretched in the process.

The last voice on child vulnerability emanating from the community or home came from school children. While admitting that there were cases of willful acts by individual children, school children largely concurred with the views expressed by their teachers and heads. For instance, they identified orphans and abandoned children as the most affected by circumstances beyond their control. Part of their story was witnessed by the researcher on arrival at school 6 (S6) where there was unusual activity involving the School Development Committee (SDA) chairperson who was moving from class to class calling out names of those that had not paid their fees and sending them home. According to estimates by teacher on duty, nearly half of the pupils had been sent away because they had not paid the ten dollar fee. This was in contravention of the Government laid down regulations that schools should engage guardians rather than send away children because every child has the right to education. It also proved hurtful to the remaining pupils as participant SChG6 lamented:

Some of those children will never come back. We know their situation. No one is there to give them the ten dollars because their parents went to South Africa and never came back.

According to the children, poor or unemployed parents were common in the district and so were children heading households. Children were not only unable to raise the required user fees but the lack of guidance had a telling effect on their vulnerability status such as child prostitution, sexual abuse, child labour.

The issue of travelling long distances to school and household chores came under much scrutiny and was subjected to passionate arguments, presumably because these affected children the most. Children, who walk very long distances to school and being forced to cross rivers along the way, especially during the rainy season, were at a disadvantage. The loudest voices came from children in communal and resettlement areas. These children had to travel 20 kilometres to and from school each day.

Household chores undertaken before, or in lieu of, going to school and herding cattle (for boys) as well as tending small children, performing laundry or cooking duties (for girls) were the most cited. The learners further bemoaned learning time lost as well as, punitive measures by schools on account of late arrival or absenteeism.

There was consensus on school and community as a source of child vulnerability that had adverse implications for right to education. However, there were variations in the nature of causation, depending on how different groups look at the issue.

4.3.2.2 School and classroom level factors

The school environment and classrooms conditions were subjected to assessment as areas of contribution, or otherwise, to child vulnerability. Although the most vocal were the teachers, school heads and the learners, all respondent groups participated in providing their thoughts. The first task was to group the issues into four distinct categories of: overall school institution, school facilities and the physical environment, learning conditions and arrangements and the affective/emotional factors. Upon being challenged with statements suggesting each area contributed to child vulnerability, teachers provided ratings on the degree to which they agreed or otherwise. The ratings were done on a five-point Likert scale of: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree. Further conversations on how each contributed were undertaken. The responses were collapsed into three categories of agree, neutral and disagree, and are shown in figure 4.6.

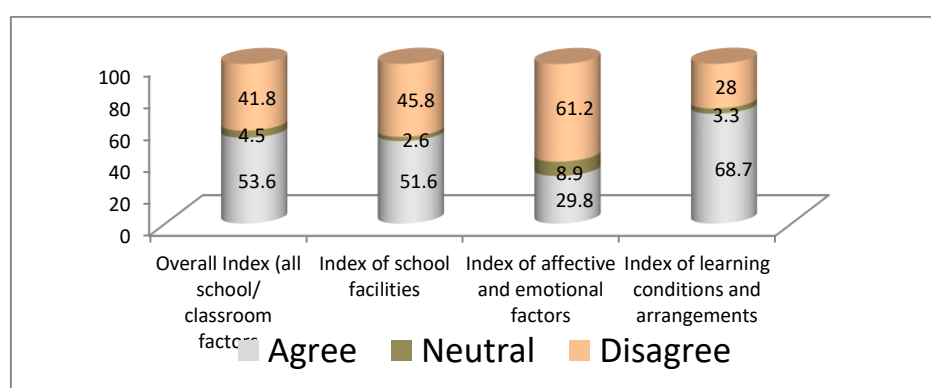
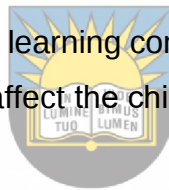


FIGURE 4-6: TEACHERS IDENTIFYING SCHOOL/CLASSROOM CHILD VULNERABILITY FACTORS

Consistently, the neutrals were negligible, thus much focus was on agree and disagree categories. As figure 4.6 shows, 53.6% of the teachers rated the overall school institution as contributing to child vulnerability and 41.8% saying it did not. With respect to school facilities (infrastructure and the physical environment), 51.6% considered such factors as causing child vulnerability and 45.8% said they were not a source of vulnerability. Meanwhile, a mere 29.8% felt that emotional and affective factors (bullying, abuse, corporal punishment) contributed to child vulnerability with 61.2% saying these factors were not a source of child vulnerability. Finally, the assessment turned focus on learning conditions and arrangements (including class size, availability of materials, seating arrangements) which 68.7% of responding teachers believed, were the source of vulnerability that made the right of education to these learners questionable.

The foregoing provided an overview of the school and classroom related factors and their perceived relative contribution to child vulnerability. With a key part of right to education focusing on school and learning conditions, the key question was: what is it about these factors that actually affect the children's learning?



School facilities and infrastructure

The school facilities (infrastructure and physical environment) factors were subjected to further breakdown. According to the participating teachers, the biggest concerns were related to condition of classrooms that they described as needing major repairs, school grounds they regarded as neither conducive nor safe, toilets that were viewed as inadequate and a health hazard, hand washing facilities that were unavailable and water sources considered unreliable and unsafe.

From the point of view of children, the issue of classrooms was a sore point. While the need for major repair was an issue, some children felt their situation was depressing, describing their classrooms as 'dangerous', 'not habitable', 'with roofs leaking'. These emerged as the major contributory factors for absenteeism particularly during the rainy season or simply to keep away in the interest of their safety. Classroom inadequacy was also a big issue. In most schools, this led to 'hot seating'; a situation where one group comes to school in the morning and the other used the same facilities in the afternoon, effectively reducing learners' school day by half. School heads acknowledged this as a big worry as it compromised the quality of learning, especially

in the context of a new curriculum that was demanding from the perspective of time. Inadequate toilets and water could expose the children to diseases that impacts on learning activities.

Speaking on her concern over security in her school, one girl said:

I do not know when they will erect a fence so that people and animals do not just enter the school grounds at will. We are afraid some of these who pass by making noise and drunk will harm the children.

Community groups acknowledged the potential hazards and their consequences. However, they had no concrete plans as lack of resources stood in the way of efforts to improve these facilities.

Learning conditions and arrangements

Analysis of conditions and arrangements for learning started with identification of seven areas that often have a bearing on whether learning will be effective or otherwise. By and large, teachers who are at the forefront of the teaching and learning process described them as creating unenviable learning conditions across their schools. Table 4.7 shows how teachers responded to different conditions:

TABLE 4-7: TEACHER AFFIRMATION OF UNFAVOURABLE LEARNING CONDITION

Learning conditions and arrangements	Teachers identifying the learning condition (%)
Inadequate textbooks	88
Crowded classrooms	84
Inadequate educational equipment	81
Inadequate sitting and writing spaces	74
inadequate stationery	65
Shortage of teaching and learning materials	54
Language of instruction	36

The major hindrances to effective learning were identified, in order of severity as : inadequate textbooks (88%); crowded classrooms (84%); inadequate educational equipment (81%); inadequate sitting and writing spaces (74%); inadequate stationery (65%); shortage of teaching and learning materials (54%); and, to a lesser extent, language of instruction (36%). Invariably, these inadequacies create a hindrance to

effective learning and appear to be a logical area of intervention with support programmes. The case of school (code 8), was illustrative of the dire situation with furniture only available for grade seven classes. Children have to bring their own chairs or stools. However, only 25% of the learners reported being able to do so. Heads of schools concurred with their teachers while and community groups confirmed the situation,

Class size was a particularly sore point for teachers as it was found that 24% of participating teachers were teaching classes whose sizes ranged between 50 and 97 learners. *“It is inconceivable how effective teaching can be possible with very limited to no attention to children who need that attention”*, said a teacher at SCh 11.

School Head (SH4) said:

It all comes back to classroom shortages and the fact that double-sessioning processes have been rendered unworkable by the long distances children have to travel back home. I am left with no option but to cram all of them into the available little spaces during the morning so that they have time to travel and arrive home safely after school.

Meanwhile, learners had some very strong words about the situation:

SChG9

Teachers expect us to present neat written work in our exercise books, shaping letters and numbers well. How can this happen when we have to lie on our stomachs to do so? This needs urgent attention.

SChG6

There are only four textbooks in our class; one for the teacher, leaving three for 55 of us. To manage the situation, one has to read aloud for the rest as we cannot take these books to read at home. The situation is not improving.

This section was concluded with a discussion with the responsible authority for most primary schools in Mwenezi district, Mwenezi Rural District Council. The authority acknowledged the dire situation in some schools, especially in schools located in rural

and resettlement areas. However, their hands were tied on account of limited resources, said the authority.

Affective/emotional factors

Analysis of this section begins with the reminder that only 30% teachers said this category was a source of child vulnerability (61% did not feel these issues made children vulnerable and 9% were neutral). A similar pattern emerges when analysis is taken further down to identified sub-categories of school/class gender based violence, bullying, physical/corporal punishment and inflexible schooling conditions with 71%, 57%, 76% and 42% of teachers disagreeing respectively.

It can be deduced from the emerging results that, teachers appeared to underplay these factors. As seen earlier, their major pre-occupation was with supplies for teaching and learning (textbooks, stationery, equipment) as well as conditions of learning organisation (furniture, crowdedness, classroom disrepair) rather than externalities to learning such as bullying, gender based violence and physical punishment. Yet, these are some of the critical factors that inhibit effective teaching and learning and expose further vulnerability to learners.

Parents, on the other hand, acknowledged that at times there were some disciplinary problems. However, they did not think this had got out of hand. They were not aware of any incidents of emotional abuse of children or bullying that had been referenced by other groups. In apparent reference to physical punishment, they appeared to downplay it and justified it as a corrective measure to indiscipline.

Parent (School 4)

As long as it was not excessive, it was in order to enforce correct discipline. Those who criticise it were responsible for bringing indiscipline in schools.

Parent (School 6)

The problem arises when one uses excessive force that can result in the child's injury; otherwise it was appropriate to use physical punishment when necessary.

Meanwhile, children expressed their views in contrasting fashion; highlighting acceptability of physical punishment as well as its damaging effects on children:

In apparent reference to a specific case of physical punishment, one child said:

Patience has to live with scars all over her body now; because the step-mother beats her too often. As a result, Patience has permanent fear written all over her face when anyone talks with a loud voice.

Another child spoke saying:

At times as children we tend to behave badly, fully knowing teachers are not allowed to beat us. I think teachers must continue to use the stick where necessary. However, they must not be excessive.

The issue of affective/emotional factors does not reflect consensus. Whereas it was agreed that it could be damaging to children, it was downplayed, especially at higher levels of the hierarchy. Sensitisation at higher levels appears appropriate.

Pupil level vulnerability factors

This is about the child's circumstances that can range from their personality traits or the situation in which they find themselves. The issue was whether (and how often) such vulnerability factors come to bear on the education of the child. From a list of common circumstances, teachers expressed their views on the degree to which they felt that the factors had a bearing children's right to education.

Nearly all teachers (97%) felt that living with an unemployed bread winner put children in an unenviable situation. This is because the child will lack support in terms of participation in school activities. Nonpayment of fees was a logical direct impact as it led to children dropping out. Equally at risk were orphans (both single (88%) and double (78%), living in extreme poverty (82%), living in foster care (80%) and living with a chronically ill bread winner (70%). Comparatively lower on the scale were issues to do with being a girl-child (66%), living in child headed households (65%), never attended school (47%) and living with a disability (44%).

4.3.3 Effects of vulnerability on right to education

4.3.3.1 The effect of home/community factors on right to education

Given the concerns about how this might impact on education opportunity, it became necessary to explore the perceived effect of these factors on the right to education of vulnerable children. Each group had a free response from their experience.

According to teachers, there were essentially three consequences of child vulnerability on the right to education: absenteeism (26%), interruption of learning (39%) and, ultimately, dropping out of school (19.6%). Other lower scale factors included students struggling in school, early marriages, child abuse and lateness to school. Analysis of each reason by school location shows that a vulnerable child in communal schools was more likely to be absent (71%), to experience interrupted learning (47%) and to drop out of school (83%) than their counterpart at growth point schools. Learning interruption was also common in growth point schools. Be that as it may, teachers were quick to point out that no single factor works on its own; ultimate behavior depended on a multiple factors.



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4.3.3.2 Effect of school/classroom level factors on right to education

The effect of school and/or classroom vulnerability factors on education was an area of interest. Teachers, heads and learners were well placed to assess, basing on their daily routines and experiences. Figure 4.7 illustrates responses from teachers.

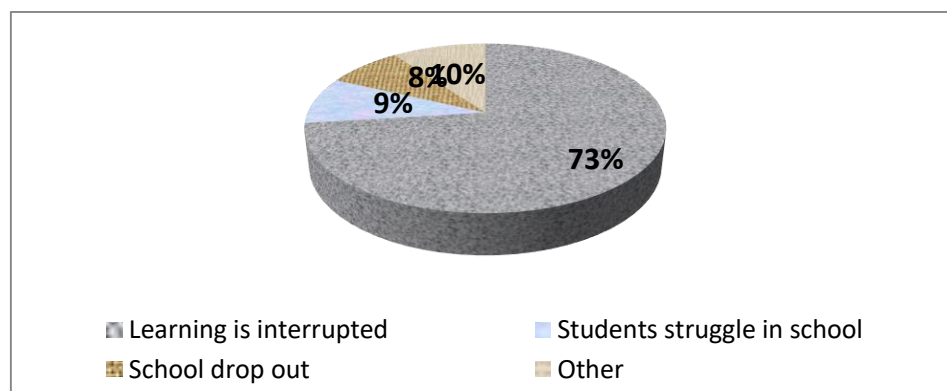


FIGURE 4-7: TEACHER VIEWS ON CONSEQUENCES OF SCHOOL/CLASSROOM FACTORS

As shown in Figure 4.7, an overwhelming consequence of classroom related vulnerability factors was interruption of learning (73%). This statement should not be surprising given that the major factors have been identified as more classrooms-oriented with a focus on the teaching and learning processes. This implies that pressure may be felt more by the teacher who has to reconcile management of larger than normal classes against limited resources. Other consequences identified were students dropping out of school, student struggling in school, absenteeism, teacher focus on fast learners and student indiscipline, albeit with low ratings.

4.4 Social Protection programmes delivered in support of the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district

An important part of this study was to identify current social protection programmes designed to support the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district. This was to enable an assessment of their potency to address those child vulnerabilities that had a negative bearing on children's right to education. Data gathered from the different respondent groups centred on each identified programme's thrust and substance, the provider of the programme and its prevalence in the school system. Discussions also pursued issues around the vulnerabilities being targeted and the programme's relationship with right to education dimensions. After all interviews and group discussions, data gathered were summarised into Table 4.8; followed by a discussion of the emerging issues.

TABLE 4-8: PROGRAMMES SUPPORTING RIGHT TO EDUCATION FOR VULNERABLE CHILDREN IN MWENEZI DISTRICT

Programme	Programme Focus	Provider(s)	Programme 'active' prevalence in schools (n=11)
BEAM	Tuition, exam fees and levies	Government	11(100%)
SIG	School most basic needs	Government	4 (36%)
School feeding	Hunger, nutrition, retention	Government	10 (91%)
PLAP and ERI	Basic Reading Skills (Grades 1-3)	Government	2 (18%)
Guidance & Counseling	Life Skills	Government	4 (36%)
Non-state actors			
Food Aid	Prevention of Child Hunger	Care; Christian Care	7 (64%)
Learning supplies	Textbooks and Stationery	UNICEF	2 (18%)
School Levies and fees	Levy payments	Moyo/Plan/CAMFED	6 (55%)
Toilets	Construction/rehabilitation	Plan International	2 (18%)
Children with Disabilities	Assistive devices provision	Jairos Jiri	1 (9%)
Counseling	Psych social support	Plan International	3 (27%)
Rights Awareness	Child Rights Awareness	Plan International	3 (27%)
Uniforms	Providing uniforms	Living Proof	2 (18%)
Chronic illness	Attention for those affected	Plan International	1 (9%)
Foster parents	Facilitation of foster care	Plan International	1 (9%)
Community Level Interventions			
School Blocks	Construction/Rehabilitation	Community	1 (9%)
Donations	Various donations to schools	Well wishers	2 (18%)
Child Protection	Child Protection	Community	5 (45%)
Health Education	Health Education	Community (VHW)	2 (18%)
School Level Interventions			
Counseling	Life Skills and PSS for children	Teachers	3 (27%)
Student accommodation	Shelter	Teachers	1 (9%)

4.4.1 Overview of the programmes

As listed in Table 4.8, a total of 21 programmes were collectively identified by the different participant categories as education-related in the sampled primary schools. The programmes are characterised by diversity in terms of both provider and purpose. They range from those that bring in more tangible benefits (tuition fees and levy payments, infrastructure, textbooks, uniforms and feeding) to the softer issues of rights awareness, protection and counselling. A point of discussion would be: what motivates each of these programmes, given that, except for Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) and School Feeding Programme (SFP), they are not necessarily found in all schools). For ease of reference, the social protection programmes have been grouped into four provider categories: government, non-state actors, community and school. Also included in the table is a column on programme prevalence in the school system. This is reflected as the number/percentage of sampled schools in which each programme was active.



4.4.2 Synopsis of selected programmes: features, motivation and relevance

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4.4.2.1 Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM)

Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) was introduced in 2001 against the backdrop of increasing poverty levels. It was part of Zimbabwe's Enhanced Social Protection Programme (ESPP). From an education perspective, poverty had triggered declining enrolment rates that had resulted in negative coping mechanisms such as withdrawing children from school, early marriages, child labour and children living and working on the streets (BEAM Manual, 2016). As a demand-side response to the cost barriers, its expressed purpose was that of *"providing school fees, levies and examination fees to orphans and other vulnerable children"* (BEAM Manual, 2016: 1). In terms of effect, BEAM provides fee waivers for tuition, examination fees and some levies for eligible children without taking away the obligations and responsibilities on families to provide for their children's education. BEAM is unequivocal in terms of its thrust and purpose – to reduce the burden of responsibility by covering some, but not all costs. BEAM funding has been coming from both state and non-state sources.

Following a process evaluation of the BEAM evaluation, the programme was re-designed in order to address some of the teething problems that had characterised it since its launch. BEAM is complemented in its thrust and purpose by non-state provided programmes that focus on levy payments for identified vulnerable children.

4.4.2.2 School Improvement Grant (SIG)

According to the SIG Operational Manual (n.d), the School Improvement Grant (SIG) is an initiative that was designed to support Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education in the provision of resources to financially constrained schools in order to address their most basic needs. The main aim of the initiative is to improve the quality of learning and teaching at the school level. The programme guidelines identify eligibility expenditure areas as including teaching and learning materials, textbooks, stationery and special needs provisions. Construction work is only covered for satellite schools. Operationally, the grant is paid directly to schools against their school development plans. Functionally, SIG structures are constituted at every level of the education system. However, the school level is the main hub of activities; with the school head at the helm, assisted by the SDC in terms of developing School Development Plans (SDPs). The SDPs, alongside school income, are the selection bases for beneficiary schools. Ultimately, learners at selected schools are the beneficiaries of items covered by the grant, seeking to improve conditions of learning.

4.4.2.3 School Feeding Programme

The Secretary's Circular of 1 March 2016 spells out the school feeding programme as an intervention strategy designed "to achieve optimal enrolments, attendance and completion rates with positive learning outcomes" (2016:1). It came out of the realisation that day school learners hardly have a meal all day, a situation that adversely affects their attendance and participation in learning activities. Therefore "school feeding contributes towards the nutrition and health status requirements for individual learners to perform at their best during their school careers (2016:2).

4.4.2.4 Infrastructure construction and rehabilitation

At the time when this study was undertaken, there was little construction/ rehabilitation work going on in schools, except a few being undertaken by SDCs where classroom block were in a state of disrepair. Toilet construction was also on-going, mainly by non-state actors. This designed to ensure the learning environment and sanitation created an atmosphere conducive to learning.

4.4.2.5 Guidance and Counselling services

As it emerged that school academic work was not the sole purpose of education, in addition to problems of a psychosocial nature, the Ministry deemed it necessary to include Guidance and Counselling as part of the school curriculum. This was designed to offer a variety of life skills, alongside provision of counselling services. This has now increased in scope to embrace counselling services provided by some non-state actors and teachers. These are important to provide psychosocial 'healing' that is necessary for optimum concentration and learning.



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4.4.3 The scope and coverage of the programmes

4.4.3.1 Provider-related scope

The Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare Official, the lead Ministry in delivering social protection programme in Zimbabwe, was clear that the Government's policy position was that social protection was as much about government participation as it was about participation by all other stakeholders. This view and understanding was shared by Ministry of Primary and Secondary district-level officials, Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) operating in Mwenezi district as well as school level players (heads and teachers). However, it was also clarified that in the interest of harmony and coordination, non-state agencies would participate either on the invitation or approval of the Government of Zimbabwe.

A significant feature of the community and child level views was that the programmes emanated from 'outside' the school and community systems. Indeed, most of the big

programmes (BEAM, SFP, Food Aid, non-state fees and levies support) came from sources outside the community and school. Among non-state partners, respondents identified UNICEF, World Food Programme (WFP), Plan International and Care International as the major players in social protection provision in the education sector. Previously, communities and children had experienced being 'receivers' of social assistance from donors. This analysis was important as it had a bearing on identification of social protection programmes as required by this study.

In spite of the foregoing, some observers admitted to seeing a gradual shift. For example it emerged that communities were progressively getting enlightened to appreciate the emergence of social benefactors from within communities, albeit on a smaller scale, coming to support children in the school system. According to the District Social Welfare Officer:

This is not a new phenomenon. Such benefactors were always there. The external "donor syndrome" had become so pervasive in the minds of community members that they cannot see their own good efforts. Such thinking is being corrected.



In support of the community contribution argument, a discussant from SComG5 said; *The community comes up with initiatives such as 'Mushandirapamwe' (cooperatives) where they carry out gardening projects so that they can help these vulnerable children to build a better life.*

Another community group discussant from SComG6 added;

Local people such as local businessmen, our headman have also helped with donations of furniture and payment of fees for some children. This was very helpful.

A School Development Committee (SDC) member from School 10 highlighted that;

SDC plays a pivotal role in the construction and rehabilitation of school classrooms so that children learn in a better environment without fear.

A more revealing example of community contribution came from an interview with the local headman in the School 8 community. In a rather unique and unprecedented case, the interview revealed the extent to which that community had gone to protect their

children's right to education. Teaching staff at School 8 had just left the school en masse following a night robbery attack at their quarters. Through the headman's mobilisation efforts, the community went on to hire locals who had completed high school but did not have teaching qualifications 'to take care' of the children. Since the community could not afford monetary payments, the payment mode was agreed as three buckets of maize-meal and a bar of soap per month per teacher. Meanwhile, fearing possible attacks spilling over to children, community members took turns to accompany children and ensure their safety to and from school.

The community understood the value of their children continuation with classes. They took initiatives to develop solutions – not only creating employment for their school leavers but innovating in terms of how to motivate them to work. Given the opportunity, communities can innovate and protect their children's right to education.

Children also added their voices on the community as a source of social protection.

SChG6 said;

Local authorities are also helpful – Headman Nyamhute helped with chairs, cement, balls, uniforms, fees for some children, and sports kits. These help in improving the school environment and sporting activities.

SChG2 added;

Those women you see under that tree do a great job for us. They come to school every day to prepare our meals, clean all the pots before they go back to their home. Mr helps them by bringing firewood. They do this for free. Their continued service means a good supply of meals every day. This does not only ensure that we do not go hungry but students are always present because of the meals.

A key CSO organisation added

Whereas everyone has a role to play, we know that some agencies have not been able to be part of the delivery process due to stringent and unnecessary hurdles by the authorities. The system must make operations easier by relaxing the approval conditions and ensuring effective coordination.

Communities are getting increasingly involved in the provision of social protection in order to keep their children in school and learning. In the participating schools in Mwenezi district there was a diversity of providers comprising of 5 government programmes, 10 from non-state actors, 4 from the community and 2 from within the school system.

4.4.3.2 Content and purpose related scope

Table 4.6 shows diverse scope and coverage of the identified programmes. Members of the community found programmes that bring tangible benefits such as fees payment, school feeding and food aid, infrastructure and provision of textbooks and uniforms easier to relate to. This arises from the perception that they address the more basic human needs that, for Mwenezi, are deeply rooted in poverty.

Commenting on the tangible programmes, one parent said;



These are the biggest needs for children in our schools. They determine whether or not children are going to get into school in the first place. They also take care of the school environment which determines whether learning will take place without interruption.

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Another parent added;

If you talk about education provision in Mwenezi, the biggest issue is that of fees and levies. For that reason, BEAM is the biggest programme. Of course, SFP programme had to come in because hunger was beginning to affect attendance. Anything else is just an addition to further facilitate children's education dream.

Insights from school heads and teachers showed that while acknowledging the importance of the tangible benefits, there was more to education than satisfying basic hygiene needs. Teachers and school heads identified reading assistance programmes, counselling, and learner discipline and health education as important areas that come to bear on meaningful learning.

“Education is not just about access and accessibility; it is also about learning processes and outcomes once the access has been attained. These so-called softer side programmes serve to support the learning process”, said SH9.

With reference to schools that do not prioritise these programmes, one teacher said;

That these are not widely embraced in all schools is regrettable because every learner needs such support. The MoPSE already acknowledges through provision of Guidance and Counselling. However, the lack of enforcement mechanisms means that such programmes are almost always sidelined.

With reference to the scope and focus of programmes, BEAM was almost on every child’s lips, even though they pointed out that it had lost much of its gloss due to delays in settling tuition fees, levies and examination fees. They also acknowledged the critical role that school feeding programme was playing in attracting children to school, even those that had dropped out, and retaining them within the school system. The provision of textbooks and stationery was a massive contribution; making the conditions of schooling for learners more productive. However, for them, safety and protection issues were a major pre-occupation.

One school child put the issue across strongly;

If a school child continues not to attend, attend irregularly or even drop out altogether after all the provisions have been taken care of, it means some important aspect has been ignored.

Another school child added;

The absence of a fence around our school is worrying. People from the village, including some who are drunk just pass the classrooms. We get so scared. Cattle and goats also roam around classrooms, making concentration difficult.

According to learners, programmes that target safety and protection are as important as those that assist with tangible benefits. Both contribute to enrolment, attendance and participation in school activities.

From the foregoing, respondents were not necessarily in disagreement. Rather, they saw scope and purpose of programmes from different angles. Diversity should characterise social protection provision. Collectively, they should take care of the accessibility, participation and outcome dimensions of the right to education.

4.4.4 Programme prevalence in schools

Consistent with their perceived importance, BEAM and SFP feature in all and nearly all schools respectively. The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education official, echoing the sentiments of District Social Welfare was upbeat about the all-school coverage of BEAM and SFP:

Said MoPSE Official:

We are happy that all our schools are covered to take care of the lack of fees in all schools (BEAM) and to address non-attendance due to hunger (SFP). This has seen the majority of those who would otherwise have dropped out remaining in school. This is great for protecting and upholding children's fundamental right to education;

While they have wide coverage, communities did not have kind words due to the numerous challenges that were being experienced in their delivery. The following represent some of the sentiments expressed at different data collection sites;

BEAM intervenes on the payment of fees. However, on the ground they are not doing anything as there are backlogs as from 2013. They have been promising to pay and up to now they are still promising to pay but nothing has come yet (Parent – School 4).

There are programmes (social welfare) which provide food in schools. There was also BEAM but now is not paying which backlogs on parents' side as they are asked to pay

Programmes are very good but however BEAM does not pay and at the end the school will want us to pay and it will be high values which we cannot manage to pay (Parent – School 5).

The beam programme is an important social protection programme that we know about in this community and it works well, but at times they fail to pay school fees for the registered children which then affect their education (Parent – School 7).

Social welfare and other ministries do the monitoring of BEAM selection though it is not very effective as some children who might not deserve to be in these programmes find their way to the beneficiary lists.

With regards the School Feeding Programme, there were concerns regarding its delivery modalities. While guidelines are very clear about roles and responsibilities as well as procedures for selection of food handlers, the situation on the ground is entirely different as some school heads expressed:



SH 9 said;

The School Feeding Programme has, by far, the highest beneficiary coverage due to its non-selective nature. It is doing well in terms of encouraging enrolment and attendance. The relish issue, for which parents are responsible while government provides the maize meal, has become a major challenge. At times children have to take the meal without relish because parents are failing to provide. When this happens, there is the risk of loss of interest in the programme. This may take us backwards in terms of encouraging attendance.

SH 11 commented;

A good programme like school feeding is being let down by communities. Those who must do the cooking are expected to offer the service on a voluntary rotational basis; only a few have been coming regularly. Even the agreed contributions to incentivise them have failed to take off as

parents are not coming forward with contributions. There are days when children go without the school meal, unless teachers take up the cooking

A further comment came from SH 2 who said;

On account of their coverage, these are the flagship social protection programmes within the district. By far, they take care of high numbers of needy vulnerable children in every school by ensuring that their education dreams remain on course.

Teacher (School 11) argued;

These sentiments, though acknowledged, were otherwise shown to be an incomplete solution. For children such as D..., a BEAM beneficiary, (name provided), the lack of uniform had kept him away until one community member provided the uniform. M..., also a BEAM beneficiary, almost always arrives late at school. We understand she has to do all household chores since the loss of both parents. Her performance in class has since gone down considerably.

The above scenario points to the need for complementarity of interventions for a holistic solution. It also shows that programme prevalence on the ground may be the sought after answer. However, uniqueness of situations in certain schools cannot be ignored since it tells more about the nature of vulnerabilities to be addressed.

Teacher (School 11) said;

Programmes are sometimes based on the mistaken assumption that the problems are already known, based on district indicators. However, that some children continue to miss school after fees are paid shows existence of underlying issues. A one-size fit all is not always the answer.

Teacher (School 3) added;

At times adults think they have the answers but get surprised when children do not necessarily see their answers as the solution. Children understand their needs better. If adults can only take time to talk to and listen to the children.

4.4.5 Vulnerability targeting

The whole purpose for which these programmes are implemented is to address child vulnerabilities. In the context of this study, it was necessary to find out whether, and if, the programmes had been designed with specific vulnerabilities in mind. This would aid analysis of whether they were relevant to the needs of the beneficiaries:

Parent (School 3) observed:

There are children who are double orphans, those who live with single parents, some live with their ill parents, grandparents, child headed as their parents went to South Africa and didn't come back and also some live with both parents who cannot provide for them due to poverty. Most of these kids do not have anyone to pay their school fees, clothes to wear (uniforms), food to eat and enough materials to use at school. These challenges affect children's education as they can't go to school on an empty stomach and without learning materials. Such situations often lead to negative coping mechanisms such as prostitution, early marriages and dropping out and go to work at a tender age.

A glance at all the identified programmes shows an acknowledgement that programmes are multi-faceted, albeit with varying degrees of prevalence and intensity. However, the question remained, what relationship is there between these programmes and vulnerabilities they identified earlier? This was considered an important relationship to understand from participants.

Ministry officials provided insights into how some of the programmes come about. It could be deduced from their responses that, the primary drivers of programme decisions were district indicators as reflected in national documents. These include poverty, orphanhood, hunger and HIV prevalence. Based on these broad indicators, the Government often comes up with packages that target some or all districts. Examples of the latter include BEAM that targets all districts and SFP that covers all schools. The former, is exemplified by food aid that only targets drought stricken districts. However, where the problem is considered national, all districts are targeted with variations being informed by severity. Findings also show aid as including payment of fees or distribution of food that has the potential to address these

vulnerabilities. The specifics that pertain to the district and local communities then become details that are unpacked during the course of implementation.

A CSO representative sang from a different hymn book: that their own programmes were preceded by a needs assessment specific to the communities or schools reportedly in distress. *“That way, we are sure it will not be a hit or miss game as specific responses are tailor-made to the needs of the beneficiaries,* he said.

4.4.6 Social Protection Programmes versus right to education

TABLE 4-9: SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES AND RIGHT TO EDUCATION INTERFACE

Programmes	Right to education dimension perceived to be hosting the programme			
	Availability (Supply side issues) (Schools, facilities, materials, equipment)	Accessibility [Demand side issues]– (User fees, distance, cultural, discrimination)	Acceptability [Quality, relevance], safety /health standards, and non-violence	Adaptability [Meeting needs of clients, serving as vehicle for access to other rights]
BEAM		X		
SFP		X	X	X
STG	X	X	X	X
PLAP and ERT			X	X
Guidance and Counselling		X	X	X
Food Aid			X	X
Learning supplies			X	X
Fees and levies		X	X	X
Toilets provision	X			X
Disabilities				X
Counselling			X	X
Rights awareness		X		X
Uniform provision		X		X
Chronic illness		X	X	X
Foster parents		X	X	X
School blocks	X			
Donations	X			
Child protection	X	X	X	X
Health Education			X	X
Accommodation	X		X	

4.5 Strategies Used by Schools and Other Social Protection Providers to Deliver Programmes that Promote Right to Education

Following identification of some of the social protection programmes that seek to protect the right to education for vulnerable children; this section presents findings on the strategies that schools and other social protection providers used in implementing those programmes. The presentation, which focuses on *awareness creation, beneficiary targeting and selection, networking and collaboration, training and support* and *monitoring*, considers whether and why the strategies are necessary, the extent to which they have or are being used in delivering current programmes and what improvements respondents considered necessary.

4.5.1 Awareness creation

In the context of this study, awareness creation entails sharing information about the programme, preferably before it gets underway, the purpose of which is to enlighten stakeholders on what the programme was all about, including its key features and eligibility criteria. This is based on the notion that it is only when stakeholders have information that they are able to engage with it. All participating groups responded to key questions around awareness creation: the necessity of awareness creation, the extent to which programmes created awareness, challenges encountered and strategies used to counter them and recommendations for improvement.

4.5.1.1 Importance of creating awareness

Commenting on the value of awareness of programmes, an official of the Department of Social Welfare, the custodian of social protection programmes in Zimbabwe, had this to say;



Social protection programmes are public programmes. They thrive on the pillar of awareness creation, a standard procedure designed to ensure that everyone is on the same page. I cannot imagine how a programme can be said to serve the needs of communities when the same communities are denied information about those programmes.

The District Administrator (DA), the highest authority in district administration, added:

Unless awareness activities are done, many beneficiaries become disenfranchised and may not be covered by programmes when in fact they are deserving. All efforts must be made to sensitise the public, including potential beneficiaries of programmes that comes to their area.

School level awareness interventions also came under the spotlight. All heads of schools (100%) and 90% of participating teachers affirmed the necessity and value of awareness creation for any programme whatsoever. This, they said, makes it possible for beneficiaries to take advantage of what it offers. The following are excerpts from what they said:

SH2 said:

How else can they take advantage of the benefits that come with the programme? It goes without saying that beneficiaries who are unaware of their rights cannot claim them. Awareness creation should precede any programme activity efforts.

SH5 opined:

Other people may know later but beneficiaries and their parents must have information before a programme is introduced. This gives them an opportunity to inquire about their eligibility. To deny them information is to deny them their right.

In addition to the above, community and children's groups that participated in focus group discussions described awareness creation as necessary, a good idea and useful practice when introducing any programme. They bemoaned the fact that they were at times sidelined in such information dissemination efforts.

Considering the foregoing, the consensus statement' on the necessity of awareness creation was unequivocal. All participant categories could not envisage the delivery of programmes before awareness creation activities were undertaken. The consequences of missing out on the information would be too ghastly for the right to education cause.

4.5.1.2 Strategies used in creating awareness

An assessment of awareness-creation strategies yielded considerable interest among stakeholders. They were asked to share their experiences of strategies used to bring about awareness of the social protection programmes that were being implemented in Mwenezi and the extent to which they thought these worked in promoting the right to education for vulnerable children in the district. The issue of stakeholder roles in these awareness creation activities was also discussed.

The DSWO and District Administrator were categorical; that once they received information from national or provincial level about impending programmes, they disseminated the information through the set structures that included Ministry

deparments, NGOs, community leaders and school heads. Thereafter, the structures were expected to cascade further down to lower levels, including the community. This was especially the case, they said, with district-wide programmes such as BEAM and the School Feeding. Besides tasking school heads and other district and community leadership structures, they also indicated that they used strategies such as organised and ad hoc community level meetings to make announcements about impending programmes and the steps they needed to take to benefit from them. Some of the platforms used included schools, community gatherings and outreach activities. The district leadership also displayed the information on public notice boards at district offices, schools and clinics for the benefit of the public.

According to the two offices, their awareness creation initiative depended on the type of the programme. For example, whereas they were instrumental in handling awareness creation efforts for BEAM and School Feeding Programme, they had not taken an active part in School Improvement Grant (SIG) initiative because it came through a specific Ministry (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education). In the case of smaller programmes such as those implemented by non-state actors or individuals, they also provided dissemination assistance as long as the implementers approached them and the programme was considered worthwhile for communities.

The question of to what extent and which strategies were utilised for awareness creation was posed to school heads and teachers. Ninety one per cent (91%) of school heads indicated that they were informed before each programme was introduced. This was not surprising given that school heads were the frontline cadres in terms of information dissemination to communities and beneficiaries at school level. A further question to the heads of schools was: once they received the information, what actions did they take and how did they manage information dissemination? Substantial variations began to manifest, as the following excerpts from heads of schools reveal:

SH7 had this to say:

Regarding BEAM and School Feeding Programmes, I shared the information with the School Development Committee who, in turn, called a meeting of parents to share the information. Regrettably, not all parents attend these meetings at all times. It is not surprising, therefore, that some miss out on the information. The School Improvement Grant (SIG)

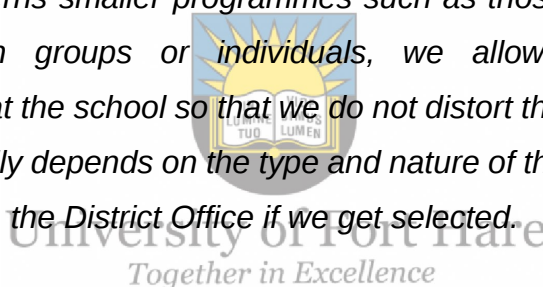
is much more of an internal matter so I just informed the concerned members in my administration as well as the SDC.

SH10 expressed;

Once information was received, I shared it at school assembly so that learners could take the message to their parents. The question of whether they actually did and how accurately the information was transmitted is another matter. I also shared the information with the SDC committee and assigned them to share in the community. This was done with the school feeding programme. For BEAM, there were uncertainties regarding its future. That made it difficult to share information. SIG information was shared with relevant staff.

SH4 added;

Where it concerns smaller programmes such as those implemented by NGOs, church groups or individuals, we allow them to make presentations at the school so that we do not distort the information. The audience usually depends on the type and nature of the programme. We then share with the District Office if we get selected.



From the sample of responses given by school heads, it appears they are privileged to be among the first to know whenever arrival of a new programme was imminent. However, there were variations in the manner they managed information dissemination. The subsequent strategies could enhance or inhibit awareness by those meant to have the information. Emerging from the findings was that 'shooting out' the information was common strategy that had been used but via different channels. The possibility of information not reaching some intended beneficiaries was always there. Depending on the nature and focus of the programme, school heads also appeared to have some discretion on who receives the information. Such was the case with the School Improvement Grant.

Teachers were also asked to make an assessment on the extent to which awareness had been created, what was the targeted audience and using which strategies. Nearly two out of every three teachers (64%) indicated that, as far as they could remember, both schools and communities had been made aware of each programme that had

come to the district. They also pointed out that the target audience depended on the extent of coverage of the programme. Whereas BEAM and SFP had spread more widely, other smaller interventions were only shared with relevant communities. The strategy of 'shooting out information' was confirmed by teachers. However, they acknowledged that such strategies did not guarantee that information reached all intended receivers, neither could they guarantee that it was always correctly interpreted. According to teacher respondents, social media platforms such as whatsapp and facebook had also become an important information dissemination mechanism. However, this was not ideal for community members most of who had either no phone or possessed the type of phones that were compatible with these programmes. Teachers were unable to say whether the SIG was known, even among teachers themselves.

On the same issues, communities expressed mixed views. Some were upfront and forthright but others were conservative in their responses. Overall, 54% of community groups agreed that awareness had been created. The rest felt that such efforts were generally absent from programme delivery framework. Some excerpts, obtained during focus group discussions with community groups illustrate mixed views:

SComG5 expressed the following;

We are privileged. We received information about BEAM, School feeding programme and SIG as soon as the programmes came. We also always receive information about programmes that come courtesy of some NGOs. If we miss out for some reason, or if we want to get any clarification, we always check with the school or district office, which is just a stone's throw away from where we are.

SComG7 echoed the same sentiments saying:

The school head informed us as soon as he received information about both BEAM and the School Feeding Programme. We are fully aware of their requirements. We have little information about the SIG you are talking about. Our challenge is just how to ensure everyone gets it since some parents do not participate in school meetings.

SComG11 summed up as follows:

There are obscurities around those programmes, especially the BEAM. Our community does not know what is happening and as a result, very few, if any, of our children are benefitting.

SComG4 added:

Usually, schools announce to children to inform parents. If the child is absent or simply misses the message, the parent is not likely to know. The parent will often get the message when it is already too late.

A closer look at the schools showed each information sharing mechanism as fraught with some weaknesses. Whereas the nearer the school was to the growth point or district office, the better placed it was to receive the information, the more distant and inaccessible schools were more disadvantaged in terms of information flow. Besides, information can never be received universally throughout the district because of parental indifference that makes them shun school meetings. The absence of clear communication protocols was largely responsible for such deficits. One community leader also lamented; “Community awareness also rides on the back of community gatherings, including political gatherings. Once this happens, polarisation has its adverse consequences”, he said.

Children’s responses were equally mixed. In some schools, their comments pointed to the absence of formal awareness programmes. Rather, information circulated informally. In three of the schools, the practice was that once the school authorities received the information, there would be announcements at school assembly. Children were then expected to inform their parents or caregivers. Often, they did. However, in cases where children were not at school on the date of the announcement, they would miss out, unless their friends or classmates pass the information to them. There were also fears that some children were much too young to understand the message well enough to explain to parents. Once missed, there was a likelihood of total ignorance about the programmes, the consequence of which was denial of opportunity of some potential beneficiaries. It was common to find that programmes failed to take off or gain momentum without awareness being created.

Below are some of the responses emanating from the children

We heard about BEAM when the school head announced at assembly. The only people whom we can say never get to know about these programmes are those absent on the day of the announcement. Unless friends or other people in the community tell them, they will never know (Learner from SCh G2).

As learners, we get to know about the availability of these programmes through our teachers. There are some who live with grand parents that are too old, these oldies will not understand what you are telling them and some will fail to attend school meeting because they have difficulties in walking. The announcements are done at school. Those children who were out of school were left out of the process, yet they may be deserving to be included (Learner from SCh G6).

While it is confirmed that much has occurred in regard to creating awareness on currently running programmes, it equally emerged that there were gaps in the information sharing mechanism, especially as it trickled down to the community level, where some professed ignorance about the programmes or occasionally stumbling on the information through informal channels. The absence of a clear communication strategy exacerbated the problem. Resultantly, some deserving cases have not benefitted from the programmes on account of lack of information.

What then needs to be done to tighten the awareness campaign and its strategies? Respondents came up with a variety of suggestions on how the awareness processes could be improved. A series of fit-for-purpose information-sharing meetings were recommended. Such meetings should bring together all stakeholders in the community as well as relevant ones from outside the communities. Though still useful, it may be suggested based on the foregoing responses that, the cascade model of sharing information has proved inefficient and needed to be supported by other more innovative methods.

4.5.2 Beneficiary targeting and selection

Beneficiary selection has already been shown to be important as part of effort to prevent unnecessary 'leakages' of resources and landing them in the wrong hands.

The questions that formed the basis of the targeting and selection assessment included its rationale, the value of clear guidelines and selection criteria and implementation/application of beneficiary selection in current programmes.

It was noted that the process of targeting and selection varied according to type of programme. Participants said that selection was applicable for programmes such as BEAM and some private donations (by individuals or civil society organisations). Private donations included financial support and provision of uniforms to selected needy children. Meanwhile, it was stated that, school feeding targeted every learner while SIG supported school projects that benefited every learner.

4.5.2.1 Rationale of beneficiary targeting and selection

In the view of the participating teachers, the necessity and rationale of targeting and selection (86%) and having clear criteria for the purpose (86%) were not in dispute. All school heads (100%) were in agreement. Such efforts were meant to bring about transparency. Whereas, all communities that participated in discussions were equally in agreement on the necessity of targeting and selection, each group appeared eager to add a “BUT”, which they eventually afforded the opportunity to do in later parts of the discussion. Children, being the ones most affected by the processes, could not agree more. Below are verbatim responses from sampled community members and children’s groups who stressed the point about the necessity of selection within a framework of scarcity while bringing the “but” connotations:

Parent from SComG2 said:

It is obvious, is it not?: that where resources are scarce, selection must be undertaken. However, the process itself must be fair.

Another parent from SComG7 added:

Obviously, some will get but others will not because the needs outstrip the resources by far. Clear criteria are required to make this work.

A learner from SchG10 remarked:

We understand we cannot all get assistance. I wish they could learn how to do this better. BEAM has caused so much heartache.

Another learner from SchG6 pleaded:

I think those who deserve must be allowed to get the little that is available.

I know it is not possible for all of us to benefit. The most disadvantaged should get first priority. This is not always the case.

The expressed sentiments underscore the fact that targeting and selection are not optional. It is more about **how**, rather than whether, that process should be undertaken. However, it is imperative that whichever mechanism is adopted it needs to demonstrate a reasonable degree of fairness and transparency for accountability.

4.5.2.2 Implementing the beneficiary selection process

The respondents were also asked if the beneficiary selection for existing programmes had been good, transparent and based on clear criteria. From the onset, there were mixed views and feelings about this. School heads expressed more favourable views with 73% (n=11) vouching for the process as fair. Meanwhile, 47% of teachers indicated that selection, though done, was not always above board. Given its source and scope, BEAM received the most attention. Other programmes were non-selective as they targeted all children (School Feeding, Guidance and Counseling, UNICEF donated books and stationery, child protection, health education and rights awareness programmes). Based on the assumption and understanding that schools themselves are vulnerable (by implication all or most children in those school are vulnerable), there was a category of social protection programmes that targeted schools rather than individual children. These include construction/rehabilitation of infrastructure and individual donations to schools, such as sports equipment. Another category that focussed on already identified targets; including provision of assistive devices for children with disabilities, chronic sickness and foster care for identified children.

Much of the discussion on selection was with reference to BEAM, where participating groups expressed mixed sentiments. The views are provided under different aspects of the processes that include use of selection guidelines, community participation in the selection processes and challenges faced in the selection of beneficiaries.

4.5.2.2.1 Use of selection guidelines and criteria

The Government developed and provided guidelines for overall delivery of social protection programmes as well as specific ones on each main programme, including BEAM, SIG and SFPs. The discussion of general guidelines is reserved for a different section of this report. This section concentrates on those on targeting and selection.

Whereas both SIG and SFPs are already categorized as non-selective, BEAM specifies its targeting criteria as follows:

Eligibility for BEAM assistance is based on the poverty status of a household. After identifying the pool of OVC in poor households, the CSC will screen applications using the following criteria:

- Children who have never been to or have dropped out of school due to poverty;
- School record of child's previous failure to pay fees and levies due to poverty;
- The source of income and health status of the head of household or breadwinner;
- Orphanhood status of potential beneficiaries; and
- Household asset ownership of the guardians/parents of potential beneficiaries.

Both Social Welfare and MoPSE officials confirmed availability of selection guidelines within the bigger BEAM operational manual. They believed these served their purpose well. They also indicated that other smaller programmes were taking a leaf from BEAM and either applied its selection parameters or an adapted version. In the process, they noted that the principle of local level consultation was applied.

Overall though there was acknowledgment of the guidance provided by selection guidelines, a Civil Society representative that works with vulnerable children, had a different view and criticised the rigidity of the guidelines, commented:

Selection is done through the project guidelines that usually accompany each and every project that comes with the intention of addressing issues of vulnerability among children. Some target single parented orphans; some both so eventually the selection teams have no option rather than to follow the guidelines of each programme. For example, BEAM targets orphans but if you are to look closely at it you would find that not all

orphans are living in poverty, some children with both parents might be in greater need compared to those orphaned.

School heads already provided an overall positive impression of the selection process. With reference to use and functionality of selection guidelines, it was also interesting to note that some appeared to backtrack and expressed reservations:

SH7 said:

The lists that we compile based on the criteria are generally found to be acceptable. However, there can never be a case of pleasing everyone. Sometimes some needy children emerge long after the selection has been completed. When this happens, there is little to do except to hope that there will have better luck next time.

Another school head (SH1) expressed the following:

At times the situation is beyond the control of the head and SDC. After compiling lists, in accordance with guidelines, one finds some names have disappeared and others have 'taken' their place. It becomes difficult that guidelines are overridden by other forces.



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Meanwhile SH11 provided a statement of some basic challenges; lamenting that:

Whereas we are keen to make close reference to guidelines, these are not available in all schools. I am aware that this has also been a difficult challenge to interpret and understand them fully. I am sure that there are many of us having such experiences.

While acknowledging the positives that come with clear selection guidelines that, among other things, specify selection criteria and use of a selection committee tasked with the selection process, community and children's groups expressed fears. For instance, it was revealed that the committee could be contaminated with corrupt elements, leading to possible inclusion and exclusion errors, thereby compromising right to education opportunities for some deversing children.

A community member from SComG10 expressed the following view:

The secrecy of selection for BEAM is worrying. Even after names are identified as per guidelines and defined criteria, the surprising feature is that a different list comes back as benefitting, including children of individuals who are well to do, at the expense of those truly deserving.

One child provided a chilling account of perceived unfairness of the application of guidelines and its consequences on the education of would be eligible beneficiaries:

Shingi's (not real name) parents both died last year and left her with her little sister who is now in Grade 3. Both Shingi (Grade 6) and her sister were earlier selected as BEAM beneficiaries. However, when the final list came, their names were not on the list. Although the younger sister was still coming to school, she has just been sent away by the SDC Chairman (the one you can see moving from one class to another), for non-payment of levies. Shingi herself has not been coming regularly because she has to sell 'nyiyi' (local dried fruit) to get money for their food. We hope someone can help them (Grade 6 pupil at School 6).

From the above responses, the provision of guidelines alone is not enough. Not only should those tasked with the selection process be adequately trained on how the selection criteria should be carried out but, the criteria should be made available for close reference at the selection sites. It also goes without saying that the officials who speak eloquently about a working system should go down to the community level, conduct audits in order to have a better understanding of the situation. Otherwise children who are meant to benefit from the social protection programmes are sidelined in a subtle manner and in the process their right to education is denied.

4.5.2.2.2 Community participation and selection committees

Once the issue of selection guidelines has been taken on board, the question of who participates in the selection process equally warranted some investigation. According to the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare Guidelines (2016):

Each primary school community shall select a Community Selection Committee (CSC) every two years in months of October and November,

and

The Councillor (democratically elected civic leader) for the area in which the school is found shall convene meetings of communities (people living in the catchment area of a primary school) in their respective wards and preside over the selection of the CSC. (Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare, 2016:14).

Further to this overarching statement, the manual provides for a defined composition of that committee as including: 6 elected community representatives (3 male and 3 female), 2 children (1 boy and 1 girl) from the child-led Child Protection Committee (CPC) and 4 ex-officio members made up 2 SDC members, primary school head and Guidance and Counselling teacher (BEAM Manual, 2016).

Suggested in the statement is considerable community participation with a gender balance and inclusive of children. Given this scenario, the study also sought to investigate if in practice these committees existed and how well they were working.

Commenting on the selection process and selection committees, the DSWO said:

That it makes OVCs its point of departure makes it potentially a fair process because of the assumption that orphaned children have no one to look after them; so they need support financially in the payment of fees and other things for them to do well in school. Beneficiary selection is done using committees that are at school representing each programme, for example the BEAM committee working together with the SDC is the body involved in the selection of beneficiaries.

A representative of SComG9 had this to say:

Selection is done by the SDC and the school teachers who are better placed to understand which people deserve help from a community and school perspective. It can be a fair process or not fair depending on the definition they use on vulnerable children because some children of those who are selecting you would find that they are the ones in the programmes and not the orphans.

Findings on the ground showed that, generally, committees were in place but their functionality was characterised by irregular meetings and erratic attendance, coupled with marginalisation of children, yet it is clearly stipulated in the guidelines that school children should form part of the committee. A notable observation was the emphasis on SDC and school-level participants, presumably because this is where the meetings are held. It could also be indicative that other members of the community were sidelined when it came to actual selection. Minutes of meetings perused showed that those that met tried to stick to their task even in the absence of others. It was clear that functionality of the CSCs could do with improvement.

4.5.2.3 Summary and way forward

The provision of guidelines, coupled with a defined selection system present much potential in the conduct of targeting and selection, seeking to protect vulnerable children's right to education. One child expressed this hope in the following words:



With a committee and clear targeting criteria, it should be a fair process. However, some will start by writing names of their own children and leave out those who deserve to benefit from the project. For example, we all know that ... (name supplied) should probably have been the first on the list of beneficiaries but is not. M... (name supplied) who has both parents working is on the list of beneficiaries. I do not know how.

However, it easily all goes wrong either on account of failure to manage the systems well or deliberately flouting laid down systems. There are also operational issues to contend with at the community level, including community apathy thus, it may be concluded that whereas there may be good programmes on the ground, their usefulness in supporting the right to education may be compromised.

When the right processes are not followed with regard to the implementation of social protection programmes in schools, it means some children's rights are denied, including the right to education. In the case of the current study, this means that some non-deserving children benefitted due to the tainted application of selection criteria and process at the expense of the deserving children, whose right to education has been denied. An invitation to contribute to how the selection could be improved attracted

diverse suggestions. On one hand was the suggestion that this must target the most vulnerable. In addition suggestions were made that part of the selection team should include other key participants such as teachers and the wider community. On the other hand, greater involvement of parents and even the community leadership was recommended. Such recommendations were based on the reality that these were the ones who live in the communities where these children (beneficiaries) are coming from hence; they stood a better chance of identifying those most in need. On the same issue, a civil society interviewee said: “At times there is need to go into the communities to find out exactly what is causing children not to come to school because some children might want to come to school but however there exist challenges beyond their control at home”.

4.5.3 Networking and collaboration

Networking and collaboration are key strategies of implementing social protection programmes that support the right to education for vulnerable children. Whereas networking entails connecting with others; collaboration refers to working together with others in pursuit of common goals. The benefits of networking and collaborating include, among others, ensuring efficiency and avoiding duplication; prevention of double-dipping by beneficiaries and minimising gaps and duplications in delivering programmes. Presentation of findings is undertaken in the following sections:

4.5.3.1 Implementing networking and collaboration strategy.

Part of the study sought an appreciation of respondent insights into the rationale of networking and to what degree the strategies were in use by implementers in delivering the current social protection programmes. The discussions got off to a resounding response confirming the necessity of networking and collaboration, including the benefits of using them. The following extracts show these arguments:

District Administrator argued:

We ensure efficiency and avoid duplication when we know who is doing what where and we find ways of sharing information and working together. Networking and collaboration are sound strategies.

District Social Welfare Officer added:

In the nature of these programmes where beneficiaries want to maximise, they will get one thing from one agency and the other from another agency when others, who are equally or even more needy, have got nothing. Networking and collaborating prevent double-dipping.

District Education Officer reinforced:

If we scatter in all directions, there are bound to be duplications in some areas and also gaps in others. These things can be avoided with sufficient networking and collaboration. Transparency, efficient deployment of resources and leveraging on each other's strengths are our greatest benefits from such strategies.

SDC member (from school Number 5) argued:

This is great. This prevents too many meetings from different organisation on same issues, which result in community burnout.

Civil Society Organisation opined:

We try to do that all the time. Sometimes we share transport, other times we have joint training. This has proved to be efficient in our use of resources. Practical challenges sometimes make such efforts difficult.

The question of whether implementers were using networking and collaboration as strategies then came under the spotlight. By virtue of their position and placement in the intervention sites, schools were best placed to respond to the question. Nearly all school heads (82%) said they had embraced the collaboration ethos, albeit to varying degrees depending on the programme in question. The researcher recorded direct statements by school heads as follows:

SH1 said:

We are already networked as school heads and that is important in sharing ideas on some of the experiences we are going through. We are connected via Whatsapp social media platform.

SH2 added

Our networks go beyond the school system. We are in constant touch with the District Social Welfare and Education Offices. Whenever we face challenges of a social protection nature, we consult for guidance.

SH4 echoed the same sentiments but added:

Some of the NGOs working on similar issues collaborate closely with us. They come to school from time to time to assist on PSS issues.

SH7 confirmed what others said but went on to explain:

We also have regular dialogue with community groups like VHWs, CCWs, CPCs and even traditional and church leadership. They assist in issues of a non-financial nature.

SH9 agreed, but provided insights on some of the challenges experienced:

Whenever they come for collaborative meetings, some groups have expectation of getting some incentives that we cannot provide as schools. This sometimes affects participation.

SH11 had some unpleasant reflections to share:

Some community leaders like Councillors and Member of Parliament want to turn these into political platforms. It becomes an uneasy situation with different community members. Some groups will support what best serves their individual interests.

From the school heads responses, there appears to be ample testimony that use of networking and collaboration strategy was being implemented with multi-stakeholder groups individually or collectively working together. Some challenges, such as incompatibility of values and competition over operational space, were highlighted but the school heads indicated they were tackling them as they came.

Teacher responses, on the other hand, showed subdued enthusiasm with 64% of them confirming use of networking and collaboration as a delivery strategy for social

protection programmes. The other 36% sounded disengaged. When probed for explanations, this is what they shared:

ST3 (Teacher in school number 3):

The Head and her SDC Committee want to personalise things. As teachers we have much to contribute but we are never given the chance.

ST6 (Teacher at school 8):

We are temporary teachers and know very little about such programmes. Even though these have left the school due to the last incident with criminals, we have not been briefed on what is happening on various programmes. We only know about the School Feeding Programme. Perhaps they think we are too 'temporary' to know.

Other groups testified to the use of collaborative efforts as the new modus operandi, even though some challenges were highlighted. NGOs and CBOs working in the area were identified as the main collaborating partners. When asked for opinions, the community based agencies confirmed relentless efforts being made to work closely with government systems as a requirement with which they had to comply.

One NGO Officer commented:

As per terms of our registration, we have to work closely with government structures, otherwise we risk losing registration if we do otherwise. Besides, there are more benefits of working within existing structures as are guaranteed support.

They, however, expressed dismay at occasional implementation delays occasioned by Government insistence on presence at all activity sites; and yet the “Ministries have little capacity to live up to their requirement”, one of them said. In addition, they also collaborated and networked with each other and this was done within the limits, conditions and expectations of their donors. Allegiance to individual organisational interests was cited as a drawback to smooth and functional collaboration.

One local CBO Officer also had this to say:

It is only logical to work together and achieve more than when we work as individual organisations. There is a lot more to gain from each other's' experiences and expertise. Regrettably, there can be tensions arising from competition for funding.

NGOs and CBOs also worked closely with communities in going about their activities; otherwise it would be difficult to penetrate the communities without their (communities) support. According to them, networking and collaboration was, overall, a healthy programming strategy which, if allowed to flourish, had the potential to promote smooth and efficient operations.

Finally, it was time to speak to some community representatives. In apparent contradiction to the position presented by NGOs, they maintained they did not 'feel' the collaboration. Here are extracts from two members the researcher spoke to:

Often, we are not part of the delivery machinery but stand out there as observers. As a result, we do not quite know whether this strategy worked or not (community member).



Indeed there were a few consultations, especially with NGOs. Schools usually make their decisions and we get informed of outcomes. I am not sure if this is collaboration (another community member).

Children, as ultimate beneficiaries, also made their point concerning networking and consultative processes in delivering social protection programmes to support the right to education for vulnerable children. They indicated that they had observed different stakeholders discussing but were unsure what it was all about; neither did they think it was their business.

One child remarked;

I do not think it is our role to be part of that process. However, we occasionally see officials from Ministries and NGOs operating in the area talking to each other. I guess this is part of those processes.

Another child spoke in a resigned manner:

I do not think it is our business whether they collaborate or not, as long as they make decisions that are right for us. At times those decisions are wrong because we see children from rich families being selected at the expense of those deserving support.

4.5.3.2 Stakeholder participation in networking and collaboration

The old adage that 'it takes two to tango' is pertinent in the networking and collaboration discourse. No single person or organisation can meaningfully network on his/her own. It takes effort to reach out to others, initially to participate in each other's activities in a mutually beneficial manner. Ultimately, such sharing, including exchange of information, develops into a meaningful partnership.

Some organisation will often take a coordinating role where various agencies are involved. In the case of the current study, the common denominator would be vulnerable children and the response actions that should help them out of their dire situation. Needless to say, a concerned agency would nominate someone with flair and interest in education issues since the bottom line is children's right to education.

A number of participants shared their thoughts regarding the anticipated roles:

Civil society officer

It should take effort from management to officers on the ground to make this work. As long there is some semblance of compatibility in mandate and interest, this should work.

School head (SH7):

If this is to cut across sectors, then still the Government, through one of its Ministries will obviously take the lead. Unless this position is appreciated, there cannot be genuine collaboration because the Government must be in control

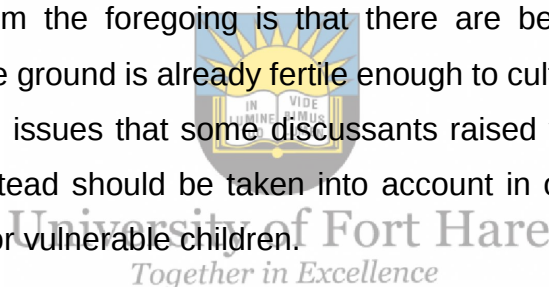
Community Based Organisation Officer:

Organisations need to swallow their pride and individual interests. There should be no such thing as the 'big boys' club' as sometimes happens in the NGO sector. Regrettably, Ministries seem to see some as more important than others. Genuine collaboration is difficult under such circumstances.

District Social Welfare Officer:

Actually, there is already a lot of networking and collaboration. We only need to lift it to greater heights. We have task forces and assignments where certain organisations are tasked to jointly execute projects in response to the plight of vulnerable children. The referral system is another platform that can help strengthen use of the strategy.

What is evident from the foregoing is that there are benefits of networking and collaboration and the ground is already fertile enough to cultivate such collaborations. However, the subtle issues that some discussants raised were relevant and should not be sidelined instead should be taken into account in order to ensure seamless collaborative work for vulnerable children.



4.5.3.3 Challenges associated with networking and collaboration

Whereas the strategy of networking and collaborating brings about immense benefits to both implementers and beneficiaries, the strategy is not without its own challenges: These are succinctly captured in the responses from some participants:

An SDC member from school Number 5 said:

I am not sure whether networking and collaboration is achievable. Some implementing organisations (especially NGOs) are bent on competition rather than cooperation

Echoing similar sentiments, a Civil Society Organisation Officer added:

Whereas networking and collaboration are obviously good strategies to anyone who cares, the expectations of our higher offices and donors may constrain such efforts. I know for sure that we compete for funding from the same pots and giving out all your strategies empowers the other agency, at times to your own downfall.

In summary, the idea of collaboration and networking was very much appreciated. These processes were also recognised as alive within current programming, especially at implementer level. However, these were hardly felt at beneficiary levels (communities and children). Some beneficiaries did not consider it their responsibility to be part of such processes.

4.5.3.4 Effectiveness of networking and collaboration strategy

It was argued earlier that networking was expected to bring about improved benefits for the vulnerable children that the programmes were meant to serve. This seemed to be the case from what respondents testified. District-level Ministry officials were upbeat about the benefits of networking and collaboration:

District Social Welfare Officer retorted:

Through this awareness of who is doing what and where, we have been able to rationalise activities through appropriate allocation of areas of operation. That way, duplications and gaps have been erased. Those vulnerable who would have missed out are now taken care of.

District Education Officer remarked:

There is much cross-learning taking place. We have seen improved delivery in many schools, especially on SIG and SFP that are directly controlled at the school and community levels.

An NGO Programme Officer commented

We now realise savings due to collaborative efforts. We think we are now reaching more children as savings have made a few more resources

available. Besides, innovative ways of delivery are easier to adopt and adapt in an environment of collaboration.

An SDC Chairperson felt otherwise:

This has seen some children losing benefits. Whereas the rationalisation process was meant to prevent duplication, some have lost uniform support, just because they are on BEAM. As far as we are concerned these are different needs and should not be classified as double-dipping.

Networking and collaboration have been widely accepted as necessary strategies for effective delivery of social protection programmes. The results of the study further illuminate that the strategies used in implementing current programmes are gradually gaining momentum but, more needs to be done. Much depends on the type of programme and stakeholders involved. While it emerged that positive results had been achieved, a couple of factors still stood in the way of smooth implementation, including incompatibility of mandate and values, especially within civil society organisation and commitment by government departments. Areas for improvement include greater visibility by all stakeholders, coupled with improved communication efforts.



4.5.4 Training of project participants

Delivery of the different social protection programmes requires technical and managerial competences. For that reason, training is necessary at various levels to equip all those involved with the requisite knowledge, skills and attitudes. The current study sought to find out the degree to which training of project participants had been availed, its perceived value addition and impact on delivery.

4.5.4.1 Rationale of training project participants

The necessity and value of training was considered an important project delivery strategy. All (100%) school heads and most teachers (82%) attested to the value of training as a strategy for injecting empowerment and meaning into implementation. This means that, for any social protection programme to succeed, both implementers

and beneficiaries need to be trained. Given this importance, how did schools and other implementers go about empowering their project participants to effectively deliver social protection programmes targeting vulnerable children? The responses are presented in the section on implementation. They also interrogate the efficacy of content covered and approaches used.

4.5.4.2 Implementing training for current programmes

Participants were asked whether training had been availed to the implementers and beneficiaries before and during implementation of the programmes. School heads and teachers responses are shown in Figure 4.8.

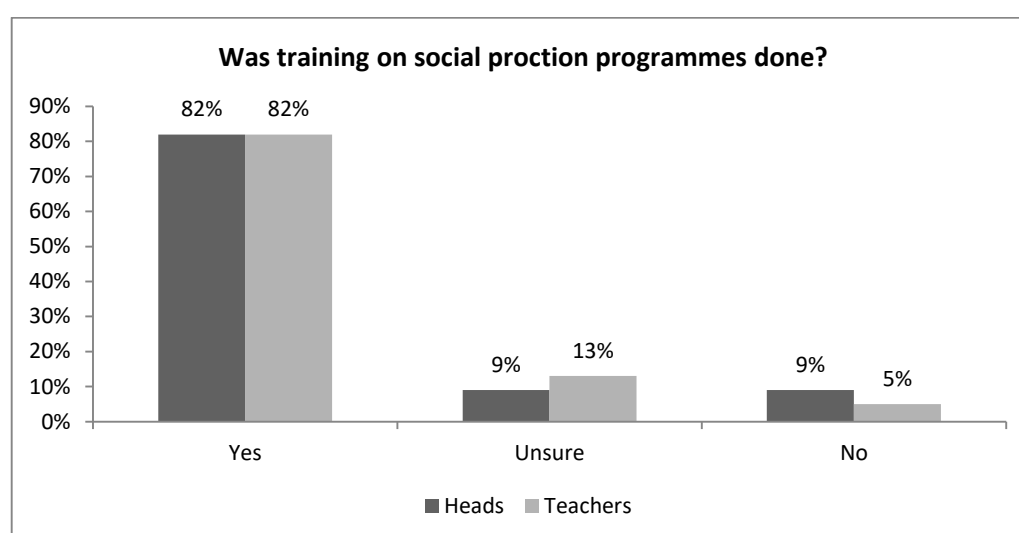


FIGURE 4-8: HEADS AND TEACHER RESPONSES ON TRAINING PROVISION

The responses show an overwhelming 82% of teachers confirming that the school and other key stakeholders had participated in locally availed trainings to do with delivery of social assistance programmes. This was amplified by the responses of school heads where 82% also confirmed training to have been availed to the relevant groups to equip them for successful delivery of social protection programmes that support the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district. Further probing, however, showed that this was predominantly for the BEAM programme, while the rest could not attract similar confirmation. This was understandable given the scale and scope of the programme.

School teacher (School 5) had this to say on the issue:

Yes, I can confirm the training for selection committees for BEAM. As for other programmes, I know of small consultative workshops with smaller groups at district, school or even community level. School Feeding also conducted some trainings.

School teacher (School 8), made this addition:

BEAM trained those who were going to be responsible for implementation processes. I am not aware of training for any other programme. I think most of them just did with awareness creation.

School Head (SH 3) expressed his view as follows:

Training for BEAM was done for the implementing committees and SFP for school heads and food handlers. The latter had low visibility since it only focussed on a few individuals. School children were never trained but just informed about the procedures.

School Head (SH2) observed:

When the training was done, it focussed on a few individuals who were then tasked to cascade it to lower levels. School heads were always involved but other participants participated from time to time.

School Head (SH 10) expressed a different view of training:

The issue may depend on what people call training and where this is carried out. In the case of my school, every meeting with parents or SDC is a training opportunity to bring them up to speed with various issues. Given this understanding, every programme has had ample training around it.

Provision of training was also confirmed by non-government implementing partners, emphasising those provided by the government as well as at individual partner level.

Besides the government large-scale training, there were smaller trainings for smaller projects such as ours that focus on only small sections of the

community. These are done by implementers directly as government would not have the capacity to deploy trainers for all these.

Communities confirmed training on BEAM but not smaller programmes:

As a member of the SDC committee, I can confirm participating in BEAM training but not on all other programmes. In most cases anyway, once they started rolling out, programmes would just get into implementation with “on the task” training.

Another SDC committee member said;

The training was targeted. If you were neither in the selection committee nor in the SDC, the chances were that you would not be invited for training. You would be covered by awareness processes.

It would appear that training indeed took place but much depended on a number of issues of interest: scope of programme (the bigger the programme, the more visible the training), varied perceptions of what could be classified as training and that targeting of training was for the key people handling critical functions. It was not all programmes that enjoyed training coverage of its participants or their representatives. It also appears that whereas community representatives were involved, beneficiary children were generally excluded.

4.5.4.3 Adequacy and effectiveness of training

Training needs to be relevant and meaningful. For that reason, its content must be perceived to be useful and fit for purpose while approaches need to be user-friendly. Participants were asked to express their opinions on the two aspects of training. Their responses vary according to category of respondent. This issue was best suited for those that had participated in the training. Teachers were given an opportunity to share their insights. Figure 4.9 shows teacher and school head assessment of adequacy and effectiveness of training.

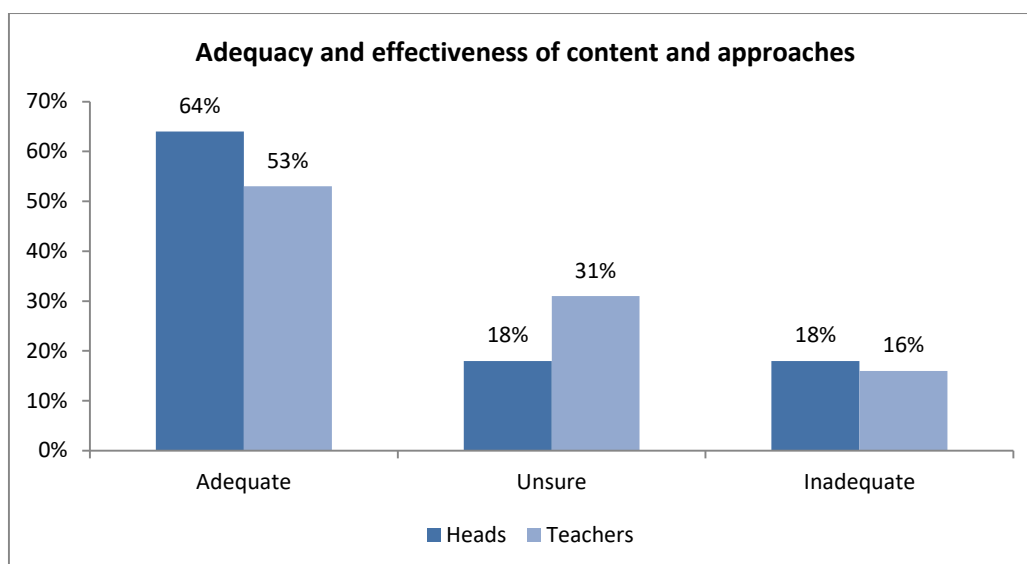


FIGURE 4-9: HEADS AND TEACHER VIEWS ON ADEQUACY AND EFFECTIVENESS OF TRAINING

The results show that 64% of heads rated the content and approaches as adequate and effective in the context of its objectives and approaches. Coverage reportedly included a discussion of vulnerability in the context of social protection, basic guidelines for delivery of each programme, observance of ethical conduct and different roles and responsibilities. Initial trainings at provincial and district levels catered for people who already had a fair understanding of the issues but once taken to the grassroots, one had to scale down to their level, including use of their local language. From the perspective of school teachers, adequacy of training content and approaches was questionable with just over half the respondents (53%) saying it had been adequate and effective.

Whereas trained SDC members affirmed the usefulness of the trainings they had received, most community members professed ignorance about any training having been conducted. This emanated from the fact that only a few were part of the trainings. There was at least a member from each group who indicated that they were part of the training and that they had found the training about BEAM useful. A few other members also claimed usefulness of the trainings. On further probing it was clear that they could not draw a line between training and awareness. At most school sites, a small group of women (usually two or three) made reference to training on School Feeding Programme (SFPs) which they said had been provided by Village Health Workers (VHW) and Community Care Workers (CCW).

One Village Health Worker said:

Yes, we trained a few food handlers, mostly women, at some sites. It was not always easy to find them. Most of those trained are no longer part of the active team. We have to keep on training as and when we get the opportunity but resources to travel around the schools are limiting. The men did not come and they continue to stay away from these meetings. Issues we covered are hardly followed due to apathy and burnout. For example, the annual health checks for food handlers are not taking place.

4.5.4.4 Future training needs

As a way to check on effectiveness and adequacy, they had to respond to the question of whether they considered additional training necessary in the short term. Figure 4.10 shows the responses by teachers and school heads.

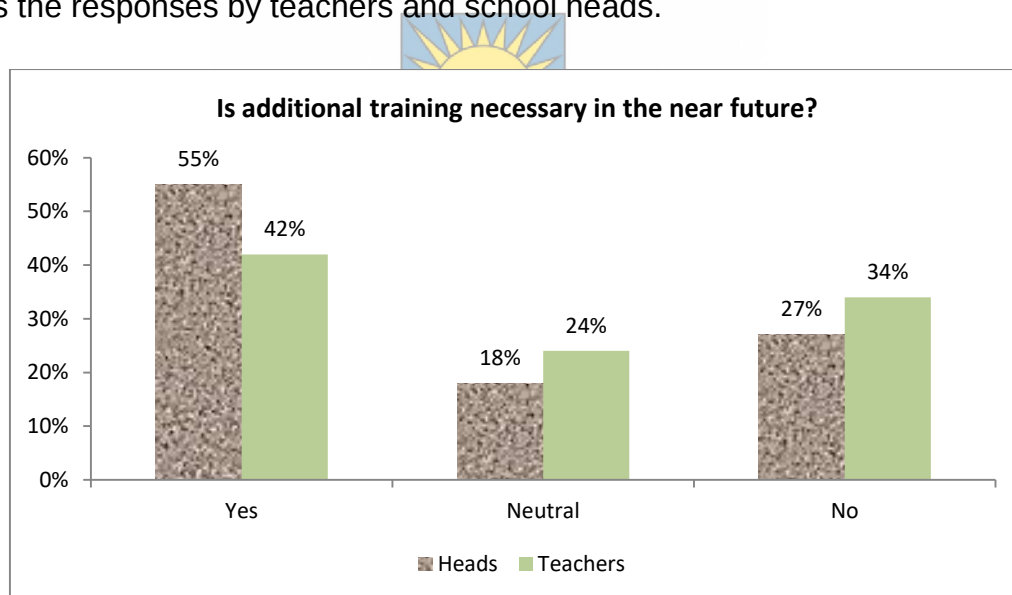


FIGURE 4-10: HEADS AND TEACHER RESPONSES ON NECESSITY OF ADDITIONAL TRAINING

From figure 4.10, it can be seen that 55% of school heads and 42% of teachers would rather have additional training be carried out. It would not just be about new issues but sometimes refreshers were needed and, to the extent possible, ought to cover as many stakeholders as possible.

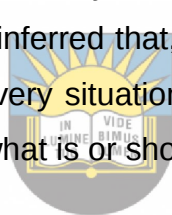
Commenting on their perceptions, teachers had the following as justification:

There is so much attrition of those trained, hence training can never come to an end. Besides, the practice we see on the ground is at variance with the prescribed policies. Re-orientation is needed to induce some change of mind-set on those already trained.

This teacher's comments point to the fact that some policy positions get flouted in practice on the ground. This feeling was expressed by a member of the community:

Training may be provided every now and then but when those trained get to work on the ground, sometimes they get influenced to do the wrong thing. I am not sure whether training can remove those habits.

Training is important and should be availed at every opportunity. It appears that this has been covered to varying degrees by stakeholders, reaching different participant categories. Therefore, it may be inferred that, because training does not provide all the answers for everyone and every situation, it should be a perpetual activity that keeps everyone on the pulse of what is or should be happening.



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4.5.5 Monitoring

Monitoring serves as the surveillance strategy that provides ongoing feedback in order to improve the programme. The study sought to establish the extent to which monitoring was practised in different programmes, and to what effect. Participants provided varied responses on implementation of monitoring, its benefits and what they felt could be areas for improvement.

4.5.5.1 Role of monitoring in implementing social protection programmes

Once monitoring was understood, an understanding of its function was sought. Overwhelming responses from teachers (94%) highlighted that it served the purpose of ensuring compliance and detection of problems. This was underscored by all school heads that participated in the study. The usefulness of monitoring was not only

understood by the respondents, they also confirmed that it ensured effective implementation of social protection programmes.

4.5.5.2 Implementation of the monitoring function

This entailed an understanding of who should, and who does carry out the monitoring function across various programmes meant to support the right to education for vulnerable children as well as an assessment of how it was functioning. It also brought into focus some of the challenges experienced in carrying out the monitoring function.

Heads of schools were at the centre of the process since programmes take place in the school system. Their responses in discussions painted the picture of a system that was functioning well, with local level monitoring activities taking place, mainly from themselves, designated teachers and members of the SDC Committees. They also took the opportunity to clarify that monitoring was not a daily routine since some programmes did not require that regularity. However, they also cited some issues that constrained the monitoring processes:

SH5 rated monitoring delivery quite positively by making the following comment:

We try our level best with the support of the parents through the SDC committee to keep our hands on the pulse of every programme. We allocate teachers to be responsible for each social protection activity and they keep track of its activities and report back. SDC committees are an integral part of the process. We experience challenges that teachers have teaching duties and tend to be overwhelmed, especially now with the demands of the new curriculum.

SH2 acknowledged the role of parents and children but also raises challenges:

Parents are also a useful component that keeps feedback flowing in, while children have their say through the suggestion box mechanism. Everyone gets to play their part, somehow. Of course some parents find it difficult to be there as and when needed.

Although 62% of the teachers felt that day to day monitoring was satisfactory across programmes, they equally raised a variety of issues that they saw as spanners in the works, especially regarding roles and programmes. Here are some of their responses:

Teacher in school 9 (ST9) provided the following candid assessment:

Monitoring is there somehow; almost solely being undertaken by school head and his SDC members. Often, these are overwhelmed because the SDC is not always available. It needs to be broadened to increase transparency. As teachers, we are called in to handle some crises from time to time but essentially not part of the system.

Teacher in school 4 (ST4), brought up a new dimension as follows:

Monitoring activities are clearer for BEAM and the School Feeding Programme. They are less clear for SIG and other smaller programmes because only a small circle of individuals is involved. I do not think the community is sufficiently in the frame as far as monitoring is concerned.

Having been mentioned as part of the process by both heads and teachers, SDC chairpersons were afforded the opportunity to have their say. Essentially, they acknowledged the existence of the monitoring mechanism which they said was to keep track of what was happening, detect irregular activities and report back. They, too, expressed concerns over the extent to which they could realistically be involved;

SDC Chairperson (School 7) noted:

We are all there for the sake of our children. Except for those issues that might require immediate response by the school head, we are kept in the loop. Infact our teams are available every now and then, especially on programmes such as school feeding that take place on a daily basis.

.Another SDC Chairperson (for School 1) commented:

We bring it to the attention of parents to keep track of social protection activities. However, we experience the usual reluctance and, sometimes, lack of cooperation from some of our members. Children, too have their say as they sit on our committees. In reality, these two groups have very little addition to make.

In a rather surprising comment, SDC Chairperson (School 5), made a remark that contradicted the positive comment from his school head (SH5, above). He said:

We would as the SDC wish to be involved. However, this is the head's territory, together with some of his teachers. They do all the monitoring and we only hear about some issues that are never disclosed to us as a committee. We can do better.

These contradicting comments appear to be a reflection of tension between the head and his SDC Committee. This also implies lack of collaboration, transparency and accountability issues in this school.

Community groups, on their part, confirmed the challenges associated with day to day monitoring, it being an entirely voluntary process and not having been included from the beginning. The following sentiments illustrate the general community position on monitoring:

Community member (School 3).



We know that SFP is taking place according to our duty roster. We do not have to get to the school every time because that is what the head, his teachers and the SDC team have to do. As for BEAM, once their selection is concluded, what is there to monitor any more? The head takes responsibility because he has all the details of what is required

Community member (School 10).

This is a purely voluntary process and we have lives to live outside these projects. If the system needs and embraces us, we always do the best we can but, often, it is closed to outsiders.

Children appeared to have found a platform to finally raise their concerns. They raised two issues that the school system would do well to enable their contribution:

One child (school 7) said:

We have been told that we have two members on the committees that have many adults. Meetings are held at times we cannot attend, either because school day has ended or because we are still in class. In the

one or two meetings we have attended, it is difficult to say anything because you get ignored.

Another child (school 9) opined:

We have a suggestion box in the school but it is placed too close to the staffroom. It would be better to move it away from the staffroom. We fear to put our suggestions in there because teachers can see us and when they open they know who has made the suggestion.

The the practice of monitoring has a presence in schools. However, it is characterised by variations that include stakeholder participation, mechanisms and platforms for participation and how the findings get shared. It also varied by programme.

It was important to understand, from respondents, whether or not they thought the system was effective. Whereas the programmes were already seen as benefitting those who had been selected; with retention and attendance for school fees beneficiaries and with increased enrolments and regular attendance for those supported by the school feeding programme, different groups felt that it could be optimised to add more value through detection of challenges, provision of feedback and corrective efforts for improvements. The need to increase monitoring levels and intensity through inclusion of all stakeholders were the key suggestions that came from the respondents. Community groups even suggested that designated teams should from time to time conduct home visits to get better insight into what vulnerable children were going through. This came after reports of one BEAM beneficiary was attending irregularly while the other had dropped out altogether.

4.6 Strategies Used By Government to Support Social Protection Providers to deliver programmes that promote Right to Education

Once social protection needs have been identified, alongside the programmes designed to respond to those needs, the Government is expected to play its part in providing appropriate support to bolster programme delivery efforts. That support comes in the form of strategies that create an enabling environment for implementation. Support measures considered in this study include **programme design, provision of policy and operational guidance, capacity development**

(training, mobilisation and resourcing), **management and coordination and monitoring and evaluation**. This section examines each identified strategy from perspectives of its relevance and application, and overall perceived effect in enhancing children's right to education.

4.6.1 Programme design

The success of a programme is, in part, a function of its design. It was necessary to examine how the prevailing social protection programmes had been designed; taking into account basic principle of stakeholder participation. Respondents included district level officials (DA, DSWO, DSI), heads of schools, teachers, community stakeholders and beneficiaries.

4.6.1.1 Stakeholder participation in programme design

The three top District level stakeholders (DA's Office, DSWO and District Education Office) expressed confidence that all three Government programmes had involved relevant stakeholders. However, they cautioned against thinking that everyone could participate at every stage and in the same way because design was a process. The following is what they said about stakeholder participation:

The District Administrator said;

I am sure that the processes would not involve everybody all the time. Some were there at national consultative and objective defining stages. Communities and schools were rarely represented at that stage. They came in at implementation and monitoring stages. Since design is a process, these stages are equally important.

The District Social Welfare Officer, echoed;

We saw involvement of school heads at district level and at the school and community levels where some community representatives also featured. Of course you cannot have everyone all the time. There will be

confusion. Rarely do we have beneficiary participation, especially when they are children.

District School Inspector reiterated;

A lot depends on the type of programme. The bigger it is, the more the stakeholders. We tried as best as we could to keep information about progress. In addition to Civil Society, heads and selected community members became more and more visible at district level.

The message coming through is that whereas the three officials had been involved in some of the conceptualisation and objectives setting that took place at national level, they felt that it was not always feasible to involve lower-level stakeholders at that level. The main role of lower-level stakeholders was that of implementation, by which time their ideas and insights are already late to influence the direction of the programme. Whereas this may have been motivated by expediency, it remains to be seen what effect this brought to overall delivery and intended benefits.

Since the focus of the programmes under scrutiny was the school, the study elicited the views of school authorities on the extent to which they felt there had been stakeholder participation in the design of current programmes. Figure 4.11 shows percentage of school heads and teachers confirming stakeholder participation in the design of BEAM, School Feeding and School Improvement programmes.

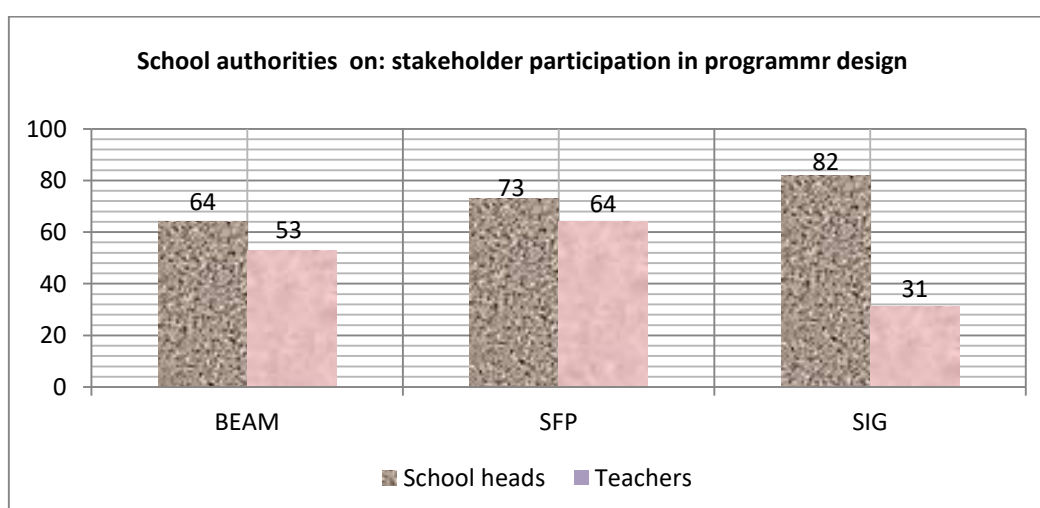


FIGURE 4-11: HEADS AND TEACHERS CONFIRMING STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION

According to school heads and teachers, the type of programme was a factor in determining stakeholder participation. At a glance, school heads expressed stronger belief that stakeholders participated in the design of current programmes with ratings of 82%, 73% and 64% for SIG, SFP and BEAM respectively. Teacher ratings put SFP at 64%, BEAM at 53% and SIG at 31%. Probed to explain the meaning of their ratings, this is what some of them had to say:

SH3 remarked;

Every stakeholder has their time and place to participate. The determination of what programme, for whom and where is reserved for national level officials. Our role is when the programme comes to the district, to explain the programme and motivate participation in implementation. Apart from SDCs, communities hardly know until it comes to their door step.

A school teacher (ST9) opined:

The dominance of heads and SDC is there for everyone to see. Other stakeholders, including teachers and the community are hardly consulted. As for children, they have no say. Theirs is to pray to be selected, if they are lucky.



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Another teacher (ST5) added her voice;

As far as we are aware, SIG is virtually not known because it is implemented from the head's office with little stakeholder participation. It has some element of power dynamics. As for other programmes, we see a sprinkling of community members in the implementation. Children are nowhere to be seen.

The researcher also elicited responses on the issues of stakeholder participation from focus group discussions with communities. The findings show that they were singing from their own hymn book.

One group had this to say;

These programmes, especially BEAM, came as a finished product. All we were expected to do was to take it up and implement. The School

Feeding Programme was slightly different, once we had been made aware this had come, we participated in various meetings that served to enlighten us on its conditions. Now we are in it through food preparation activities for our children. As for SIG, we have no information about it.

Another community group shared the following comments on the same issue:

There is a way that these programmes should be implemented. It all comes complete as a package. Those who say we participate may be correct to the extent that we get on board when programmes are already running. We have no platform to contribute

When children were given the opportunity to make their contribution to the debate, their position was clear. They stated that they were only involved when it came to receiving information about the programmes, especially about qualification criteria. They did not see that as their role, even though some commented that they would be happy to participate if opportunities came their way. One child said:

We do not think it is our business to take part in the background processes. Our concern is that some of our friends benefit. Of course, it would be great if it were part of that process like what happens with some NGOs that ask us what we think of the programme before it takes off, during implementation and at the end. There is an avenue to make a contribution.

There is a sense that when banded together, stakeholders had a role in programme design. However, there is equally an acknowledgement that higher level participation, which involved conceptualisation and setting programme parameters was the preserve of those at higher levels. Often, this entailed officials at the national level with a sprinkling of district-level representatives, depending on the nature of the programme. Largely, the place of communities was considered to be grassroots implementation while children could only stand and stare. Some NGOs, however, made effort to involve children at all stages.

4.6.1.2 Effects of stakeholder participation

A key question of the study process was: How does stakeholder participation or lack thereof, come to bear on the effectiveness of programme delivery? Responses came from district level, school and community levels and these are summarised below:

Said District Social Welfare Officer

Programme relevance and acceptability become critical issues. The more they get involved, the better for the programme. However, the costs involved in terms of time and other resources can outweigh the benefits. We can see though that the challenges that come with BEAM emanate from ignorance and lack of involvement. The SFP appears easier to implement due to opportunities created for more participation.

A school head opined (SH4)

The degree to which different categories have participated reflect in the success of the programme. In our situation, SFP is the most successful because there were multiple engagement efforts. BEAM is full of controversies and the concern is that it largely just came as a package for us to implement.



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A member of one community group was full of emotions, commented

This business of bringing completed plans without our involvement does not work well. Communities refuse to participate because it is “their” and not “our” programme, reflecting the level and quality of participation. The SIG faces resistance because we do not know about it, where it came from and what it seeks to achieve. We only come in because we must provide the labour and local materials.

A child representative summarised the effects from a non-participation stance.

We know we are not part of this. We would have made our point earlier about defective selection if they had given us a chance to make our point. We see some programmes as a failure because sometimes the wrong children benefit.

In the foregoing discussion, there is an acknowledgement that stakeholder involvement is of the essence. However, providers do not seem to learn from this reality. Some programmes are considered a failure because they are unable to attract the expected buy-in, while those considered successful have elements of stakeholder participation. In light of the foregoing, the issue of design was taken further to consider what improvements, could be incorporated. The voice was collective from all stakeholders, that there should be greater involvement of the community while programme management teams must pay special attention to monitoring the design process. A small number of respondents were already keen to see special provisions being made for children with special needs.

4.6.1.3 Relationship between new and existing programmes

The argument goes that implementation of new programmes becomes painful as long as this is viewed as 'an additional load to an already loaded schedule'. The argument for alignment with existing programmes is to make the new introduction as seamless as possible. This helps to ease the perception of it as a 'burden'. The question of the extent to which the current social protection programmes were aligned to any existing programmes was put across to all respondent groups.

The District Administrator, the District Social Welfare Officer and the District Schools Inspector echoed similar sentiments regarding the fit of current social protection programmes with existing statutory provisions. They all noted how these were anchored on the Constitution that, they argued, was as providing social protection as a human right. The DSI, in particular, then noted how the Constitution guarantees the right to education through the provision of basic education, the absence of which could seriously impair children's capacity to earn a decent living.

In the context of the constitutional provisions and other Acts and legislations, they expressed the conviction that the current social protection programmes were 'not lost and scattered' but were in accordance with guiding values as laid out in the broader frameworks. While eloquent on these areas themselves, they could not present convincing arguments on the extent to which communities and beneficiaries had the same appreciation and either the coherence with the constitution could be felt in the

delivery of programmes. There was an acknowledgement of challenges that included resources that prevented fulfilling the expectations as laid out in the legislation.

There was also an identification of programmes that Zimbabwe was running as a country, not only to operationalise constitutional provisions but also into which the current programmes fed. These were identified as including the National Action Plan for Orphans and Vulnerable Children and the National Case Management System. The two define parameters and categories of children that could, should and were being assisted and that all the identified programmes that were responding to vulnerability cases were aligned to these programmes.

There was also a conviction of the programmes' complementarity with each other. The District Social Welfare Officer had this to say;

The programmes currently on the ground complement and mutually reinforce each other. Vulnerabilities are much too complex to have a single programme address the entire needs. This is why BEAM needs the Feeding Programme because a hungry child may not attend school, even if all fees and levies are fully paid.

The District Schools Inspector chimed in

We have cases of children with multiple vulnerabilities, none of which will single-handedly address the gaps. We have the example of a child supported by BEAM, benefitting from school feeding as well as uniforms supplied by one CSO. So all programmes, including those supported by individuals, one way or the other, work together to deliver the much-needed support to vulnerable children

School heads noted that whereas complementarities were clear on paper, these did not always reflect the situation on the ground. They felt that implementers were largely responsible for variations. Reflecting on the situation in his school, SH9 said:

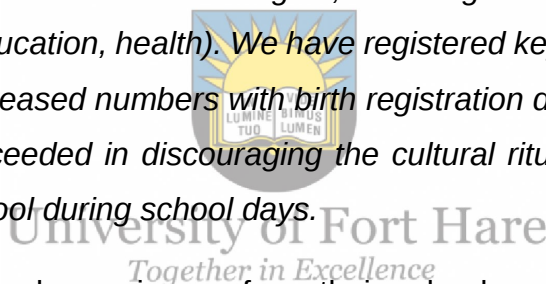
The sensible official position is clear. Implementers are the one who normally complicate issues, especially when they decree that one programme per child and no more. The result is dropout from school because whereas some needs may be covered, others will remain.

Echoing the sentiments of the school head, a community member in one school said:

In our school, it was announced that apart from programmes that benefit everyone, each child must get support from one programme in order to give others a chance. As a result, some children remain in difficult situation because of their multiple needs.

A representative of a prominent international non-governmental organisation operating within the district and assisting with school infrastructure presented a heartwarming scenario on how they have ensured that programmes piggyback on each other. He said;

Our programme is on infrastructure development (classroom repairs, toilet construction). At the inaugural meeting we insist on the presence of parents and service providers. Taking advantage of the ready audience, we conduct sessions on child rights, covering different rights (birth registration, education, health). We have registered key achievements in the form of increased numbers with birth registration documents and we have also succeeded in discouraging the cultural rituals that take girls away from school during school days.



School children shared experiences from their schools; reflecting variations on the management of complementarity of programmes:

One school child (from school 6) said;

In our school, the headmaster and teachers help children based on their needs. Patience (not real name) lost both parents and is on the BEAM programme. They have also seen that she does not and will never be able to get a uniform and put her on the uniform assistance programme. Besides, Patience goes for counseling sessions with the Guidance and Counseling teacher, apart from benefitting from School Feeding Programme. This is great because she is affected in so many ways.

Schools are awash with examples. A learner in a resettlement school said;

Our school is in a disadvantaged area with people having settled from different places. No one seems to know we are here. So many children

require support. When BEAM came and also some support with stationery came we were told that those who were on BEAM cannot get anything else because everyone must get a share. Now, my friend was placed on BEAM but does not have the exercise books, not even to talk about uniform. His learning is affected.

The issue of new programmes aligning with other programmes revealed mixed practices. The concept is accepted but the needs are so many that in an effort to distribute evenly, some children are negatively affected due to their multiple needs. Their right to education is adversely affected impacted. It is also noted that there are some good practices that some NGOs practice. Implementers of different programmes would do well to learn from these. In such cases, protection of the right to education for the very vulnerable will be guaranteed.

4.6.2 Policy and operational guidelines

Zimbabwe is signatory to a number of global and regional conventions, covenants and declarations, all of which espouse social protection. However, its response at national level consists of pieces of legislation that are largely fragmented and, therefore, difficult to access in one place. The need for a point of reference and guiding framework has, therefore, been largely felt. Whereas schools and communities are the implementers of the programmes; government support comes in the form of strategies that entail general policy and operational guidelines, providing correct interpretation of those guidelines and follow-up support. . The research took this framework into data collection processes for the study of social protection as a mechanism for promoting the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district.

4.6.2.1 Provision of policy framework for social protection delivery

The constitution of Zimbabwe states that that "... the state must take all practical measures, within the limits of the resources available to it, to provide social security and social care to those who are in need" (Constitution of Zimbabwe, 2013:Section 30 (23)). The same Constitution also includes an inclusive Bill of Rights that underscores the provision of social protection (Sections 80 to 84) and further puts emphasis on

equality of opportunities and non-discrimination, empowerment and employment creation with special focus on children (including orphans and vulnerable children), the elderly, people with disabilities, women and the youth.

The fragmented legislative pieces did not adequately address issues of coordination, monitoring and evaluation, among other key components. The important question was for respondents to indicate the extent to which they believed that Government had provided a clear framework to guide social protection delivery in the country.

The District Social Welfare Officer (DSWO), under whose Ministry Social Protection activities fall, acknowledged the shortcomings of previous social protection policy framework, resulting in the fragmented policy delivery framework. He provided an in-depth explanation of efforts underway to develop such a guiding policy. He said:

Besides anchoring social protection in the 2013 constitution, a policy framework with clearer goals, guiding principles and measures has now been developed. It should harmonise social protection provision.

Further probing revealed that the referenced framework was developed in 2015, and still sits as a draft, resource constraints having frustrated efforts to take the process further. Resultantly, social protection providers continue to make reference to the fragmented framework without a coherent frame of reference.

District Education Official said,

We know that some policies exist and we in education continue to refer to the Education Amendment Act No. 2 as our main guiding document. However, we know that there are other policies that can be found on nutrition and access to other rights. Regrettably, there are not readily available as and when one wants to refer to them.

Adding its voice on the concerns, a prominent CSO revealed;

It all depends on what programme you want to take to schools. Different support activities might be supported by different policies sitting in different Ministries. We do our best to find the relevant policy and at times we have to engage different Ministries to get clearer directions. Of course

a more coherent policy framework would save on unnecessary loss of energy.

School heads indicated how they have to rely on what Ministries tell them:

SH1 explained;

When in need of guidance, you are told, sometimes verbally, how to get around the situation. It appears the Ministries also just rely on institutional memory rather than documented evidence of what is current. They could do a better job.

The expressed views stress on the need for a coherent framework that was not officially in place. Potentially, such a situation could lead to different operational standards, which does not augur well for consistent social protection provision, a situation that could compromise the delivery of programmes and undermine the rights of vulnerable children to education. Implementers feel that they could be better supported through finalisation and distribution of the new framework.



4.6.2.2 Provision of operational guidelines

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Besides, the generic social protection framework on how to conduct social protection business, it is equally strategic for Government to provide specific operational guidelines for each programme implemented. Findings of this study showed that such guidelines were available for BEAM (courtesy of Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare), SFP and SIG (courtesy of Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education). Although other privately implemented programmes did not have tangible documented guidelines, these are often provided through the leading Ministry. Copies availed by Ministries showed the following synopsis of contents:

(a) School Feeding Programme (SFP)

The guidelines stipulate the rationale and benefits of SFP, operational issues such as school feeding committee, compliance with public health regulatory requirements (medical fitness) and security concerns (police clearance), duty roster and definition

of roles and responsibilities, planning school meals, use of local nutritious indigenous foods, monitoring and evaluation and record keeping (Secretary's Circular of 2016).

The implication is that once communities are aware of these guidelines, they should generally comply with requirements in the interests of protecting children and standardising practices.

(b) School Improvement Guidelines (SIG)

The guidelines define purpose, structure and roles and responsibilities at Headquarters, Provincial, District and School levels. They also outline criteria for eligibility of expenditure and monitoring and evaluation procedures. Selection criteria are defined for schools and not learners.

These guidelines are useful to the extent of their availability at the school sites and their clarity to the users. However, they tend to induce a certain degree of compliance to minimise misuse and unnecessary variations in their application.

(c) Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM)

The guidelines are, by far, the most comprehensive and provide the rationale and operational framework for BEAM, specify targeting criteria and composition of selection committee. In addition, they also clarify implementation modalities, capacity development, institutional arrangements and monitoring and evaluation.

Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare (2016) BEAM guidelines should, to the extent of their availability and clarity, provide ample support to implementers. However, they are also known to be the most contentious when it comes to their use on the ground, especially on account of the sensitivities surrounding the targeting and selection criteria. That said, the Government has done well to provide such points of reference but requires enforcement mechanisms.

Responses from heads and teachers

By virtue of their location at the school sites, heads of schools and their teachers were well placed to respond to various questions around the issue of operational guidelines. The first question was simply on availability to which 91% of school heads and 80% of

teachers responded in the affirmative. However, of the 11 participating schools, only one could avail all three sets while one had SFP Guidelines only and two had the SIG guidelines only. That is to say that the guidelines were generally unavailable where they ought to be – at school sites. All heads indicated that much of the trainings were based on presentations by trainers. This is what some school heads said about availability of guidelines:

SH 3 said:

We are aware that there are guidelines on these programmes but as far as I can remember, these were never shared at training or any other time. We rely on notes taken during training.

SH 11 remarked;

We were promised that these would be available but they never came. We just have to rely on what we heard at training or consult others who, though also without the documents, are more knowledgeable due to exposure.

SH 9 retorted

I have all three because of my own initiative. I had to make relentless visits to offices and made copies for my school. I can now speak authoritatively about the contents of each set because I do read around them all the time and I use them in training the SDC.

At least the positive aspect about the guidelines was that trainings appeared to have been conducted on their use. All heads indicated that most of the trainings were based on presentations by trainers but copies were not availed. It was necessary to also pursue the issue further with teachers. Although 80% acknowledged availability, it turned out that this based on what they were hearing rather than what they had seen. Only 18 of the 98 teachers confirmed having participated in some trainings, either on behalf of or alongside their heads.

The generality of community members were unable to express any awareness of the existence of the guidelines. A few SDC members, some of whom had received training together with school heads, confirmed the existence of guidelines somewhere but were unsure of how these could be accessed.

A discussion with school children established their ignorance about guidelines and that it was not an issue with them. One child summarised this well when he said:

We are aware of a list of beneficiaries who were selected but we do not know how this had been conducted. Maybe it is not that important as long as the selection includes those that were most in need.

Whereas the relevant Ministries had done well to develop guidelines that would help to standardise activities across the district, it was revealed that these were not available where they should be. This is area that calls for improvement.

4.6.2.3 Provision of operational support

The provision of guidelines was a necessary but not sufficient condition for smooth delivery of social protection programmes. The ease with which guidelines could be followed and understood for application was important. This issue attracted little discussion, given that participants did not have possession of the guidelines. School heads (82%) indicated that, in spite of the absence of copies of guidelines in schools, they were able to utilise these with ease, thanks to the training received and regular meetings conducted. Meanwhile, 62% of their teachers confirmed the ease of interpretation, even though most of them had not participated in the trainings. Both heads and teachers confirmed interpretation and sharing efforts being made through such platforms as public meetings and targeted training for direct users.

Regarding preparatory activities for use of guidelines, some community stakeholders reasoned that this did not matter because they were not in any way involved in the process. Others felt that knowledge of the guidelines would help them to detect if and when these were violated by selection committees. This must also be viewed on the backdrop of concerns and suspicions that selection processes could already be 'contaminated', thus lacking transparency.

4.6.2.4 Provision of follow-up support

District level Ministry Departments indicated that there was ample follow-up provided by their offices to render support to delivery of social protection activities. However,

follow-up support to provision of guidelines was subdued as compared to provision of guidelines. Both heads (64%) and teachers (64%) indicated that this was happening at satisfactory level. While school authorities and other providers on the ground could be said to be too high in their expectations of such support, it remains a reality that their perceptions can either boost or deflate their confidence.

In the view of school heads and their teachers, what is coming out is that guidelines have been availed, at least for BEAM and that, overall, they were not difficult to follow. However, this does not seem to connect well with the rest of the communities, leading to allegations of selection malpractices. This is not helped by an irregular follow up mechanism that should be able to detect such 'lacks' in the flow of information. The responsibility clearly lies not just in the Ministerial follow up committees but also with the school level that has been trained and should be well placed to cascade information to stakeholders at all levels. There is every reason to believe that much improvement is possible in the area of provision of selection support and some investments of effort and time into this important area are clearly needed if deserving vulnerable beneficiaries are not going to be denied their right to social protection services.

By way of seeking improvement, it was felt important to understand, from respondents how they saw the entire selection process and support system improving. Across all groups, including the higher Ministry echelons, the message was unequivocal – involve all stakeholders in the selection process and conduct regular reviews for important feedback. Only when these processes are in place can we guarantee that as many of the deserving children will benefit from the resources, no matter how meagre they may be.

4.6.3 Management and Coordination

The point is already made that social protection delivery, especially where various stakeholders are involved, thrives on sound management and coordination efforts. Invariably, a sound knowledge of who the stakeholders are is paramount, besides bringing them together to appreciate issues from a holistic rather than solo perspective. One mechanism by which such coordination can be done is holding of

regular, functional and purposeful meetings of the different stakeholders. The issues of coordination and management effectiveness in guaranteeing improved access to benefits for vulnerable children also came under the spotlight. It is in light of these sentiments that the study sought to understand management and coordination efforts being undertaken in delivering social protection programmes, seeking to protect the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district.

The Ministry of Public Service Labour and Social Welfare has the overall coordinating responsibility for all social protection programmes in Zimbabwe. The DSWO, the Ministry representative on the ground was able to clarify further that this entailed convening regular meetings whose purpose was to share experiences, table challenges in the hope that the outcomes would ultimately benefit those targeted by the programmes. In the case of education-targeted programmes, the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) assists in the coordination efforts.

4.6.3.1 Knowledge of critical partners



The starting position of good coordination was knowledge of the key social protection partners in the general sense and in relation to supporting delivery of right to education programmes for vulnerable children in particular. District-level government officials (DSW and MoPSE) testified that the government had a thorough grasp of who its partners were. They went on to list civil society agencies as the core partners in terms of providing critical resources as well as technical expertise in delivering the programmes. They also identified school-level personnel and communities, without which the Ministries would be handicapped.

The DSWO commented;

These are key partners and we need them. Often they provide part of the services targeting vulnerable children. They also provide technical expertise such as counseling in training workshops as well as implementation of some activities. We know them. We know who is doing what and who to go to when the need arises.

MoPSE District Official, explained:

Communities have their structures that we cannot penetrate from our district-level standpoint. The community and traditional leadership, the SDCs, the CPCs, VHWS and CCWs all come in handy in the performance of their specific and assigned tasks.

A civil society programme officer reiterated

Indeed we work closely with Government and community systems. They appear to know their stakeholders well. We also know each other well as civil society. It is a system whose components we cannot do without. The children, even if less visible most times, are an important stakeholder because, if given the opportunity, they provide very useful feedback.

An interesting observation was the lack of mention of children by District-level officials. Might this explain why they are times sidelined in participating in activities?

At school level, the question was put across to both heads and teachers and responses showed considerable variation. While 82% (N=11) of school heads said government was clear on its partners, only 59% (N=98) of the teachers were able to say the same. Both groups went on to name some of the key partners as UNICEF, a number of international and local Non-Governmental Organisations, private sector companies, church organisations and members of the community. This, they said, was based on those that they see participating in district meetings. Community groups and children's groups were non-committal, preferring to provide those they knew themselves. While acknowledging the diversity of stakeholder groups, it came out during community group discussions that they felt communities were the unsung heroes who contributed with their labour and availed local materials each time they were required to do so for the purpose of repairs and construction projects. However, their contribution was rarely acknowledged.

4.6.3.2 Facilitation of stakeholder coordination platforms

In respect of government efforts to bring together relevant stakeholders in pursuance of social protection for right to education issues, district-level government

representatives, unsurprisingly, confirmed on-going efforts to bring stakeholders together on issues of right to education for a district that itself was already vulnerable. Some stakeholders, they said, came from outside the education sector. These included Civil Protection Unit and Humanitarian Agencies in times of emergencies. Academic institutions, from within and outside the province, were mentioned by MoPSE for the first time; with their research agenda role clearly identified. Besides physical face to face meetings, it was possible to reach out via a number of social media platforms such as Whatsapp. Coordination efforts were confirmed by 91% (N=11) of heads and 69% (N=98) of the teachers.

4.6.3.3 Institutional arrangements

Whereas there is this significant perception of coordination capacity as manifested through recognition and reaching out to relevant stakeholders, the question of regular coordination meetings reflected subdued acknowledgement. Respondents confirmed that government facilitated coordination meetings were few and far between. Only 45% of heads (N=11) and 41% of teachers (N=98) said government facilitated coordination meetings were taking place regularly; meaning more than half of each group chose to be neutral or to say these were not regular. Both school heads and teachers expressed dismay at failure by district level officials, especially from the coordinating Ministries, to hold regular coordination meetings. Here are their views:

SH1 opined:

Issues emanating from social protection activities are increasing by the day. However, coordinating meetings are getting fewer and fewer. This leaves us in difficult situations where we cannot handle sensitive issues. The meetings are essential for experience sharing and problem-shooting.

SH7 remarked;

We understand that these offices are short-staffed. They should delegate some agencies to take the lead when they are unable to make it. Having meetings only as and when they are free themselves renders all coordination efforts futile.

Teacher at school 5;

We have seen school heads and SDCs organising such meetings at a community level. This defeats the whole essence of proper coordination as some providers have no allegiance to localised meetings.

Teacher at school 11

These meetings are essential. They give communities confidence that the processes are above board. Regrettably, they are not taking place in our communities. School heads and SDCs have to face up to the difficult questions, some of which they are unable to answer.

In an effort to provide an explanation, district level Ministry officials indicated that though few as these may appear, much was happening in terms of sharing. First, they argued that they did not have to go all the way themselves but the lower level structures had the responsibility to go down to more localised levels. Secondly, meetings did not have to take place physically, given the escalating costs of transport. The DSWO and District Education Offices indicated that they had have formed chat groups on Whatsapp where regular sharing was now taking place. Only critical meetings were being done face to face. However, both admitted that media platforms did not facilitate as much discussion as face to face meetings would do.

Commenting on irregular district-level meetings, community groups interviewed felt that SDC initiated meetings were the ones taking place more regularly.

One community member commented;

This irregularity (of meetings), is depriving stakeholders an opportunity to have firm appreciation of issues on the ground. These are platforms where policy guidance could be shared from time to time.

There appears to be an admission that management and coordination efforts were undermined by absence of regular meetings. These would have facilitated cross-learning. Although local meetings did take place more often, they could never replace the importance and value of district-level coordination meetings. This a clear area in which senior Ministry officials could do better.

4.6.3.4 Benefits of coordination efforts

The study sought to determine, from perspectives of different respondent categories, the extent to which they felt government coordination efforts were translating into benefits for the targeted vulnerable children. It will be recalled that coordination efforts embrace a sound knowledge of who the social protection partners are, their strengths and competences and their ability to engage via platforms created by the coordinating stakeholders. This study took a holistic view of coordination efforts.

It goes without saying that knowledge of niche areas of stakeholders enables coordinators to tap into such expertise and deploy it appropriately; either through training others or trouble shooting problems at local levels without having to wait for the coordinators themselves. This was confirmed by school heads, teachers and community representatives as a benefit that would eventually trickle down to beneficiaries as they receive better service that keeps them in school and experience maximum learning. However, it was generally agreed that current social protection programmes lacked zeal to tap into such expert opportunities.

With reference to bringing stakeholders together, especially through formal meetings, 64% of heads and 46% of the responding teachers were able to say with confidence that coordination of meetings, though irregularly happening, had resulted in benefits for targeted groups. This is only an acknowledgement as the proportions are rather low to be used as evidence for effectiveness of benefits. As and when these meetings do take place, sharing information, experiences and challenges being experienced takes place with the benefit of sharpening each organisation for more effective delivery of programmes. Regrettably, the engagements are not as regular as desired. Among suggestions of what is needed if coordination is to result in greater benefits are more community involvement and better government support.

4.6.4 Capacity Development

Capacity development is a key strategy for enhancing more efficient delivery of services. It has many facets. This study looked at how the government system supported capacity development for enhancement of delivery of programmes in

support of right to education for vulnerable children in the district in terms of (a) human capability improvement and (b) mobilisation and distribution of resources.

4.6.4.1 Provision of training support

Though largely conducted at or as close as possible to the point of service delivery, Government retains the responsibility for ensuring training quality. For that reason, Government provides various forms of support to training efforts. This study analysed provision of training support around key themes that included: provision of training guidelines, support with training logistical arrangements and post-training follow-up support. Effectiveness of training on service delivery was also discussed.

Provision of training guidelines

Part of the study sought to assess the extent to which the government system provided guidelines to support stakeholder training activities at the district and community levels. The questions centred primarily on three of the Government biggest programmes: BEAM, SFP and SIG. Heads of schools, teachers, SDC members and civil society stakeholders were targeted with the questions for the assessment. Results of heads and teacher responses are shown in Figure 4.12:

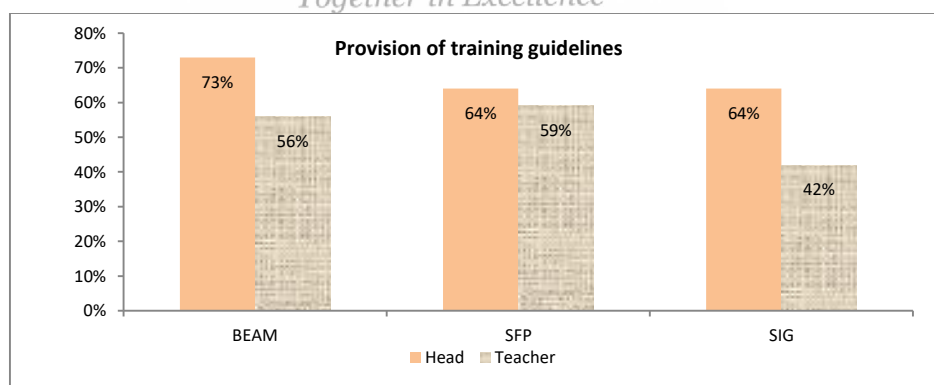


FIGURE 4-12: HEADS AND TEACHERS CONFIRMING PROVISION OF TRAINING GUIDELINES

As shown in the Figure 4.12, 73% of school heads and 56% of teachers indicated that the government system had developed and provided training guidelines for BEAM. Meanwhile, availability of guidelines for SFP was confirmed by 64% of heads and 59% of teachers, while 64% of school heads and 42% of teachers confirmed provision of

guidelines for SIG. A notable observation was that ratings by school heads were consistently higher than those of their teachers, suggesting they were more in the picture about training guidelines provision. Guidelines were said to come in the form of manuals, circulars or hand-outs produced by Government Ministries,

Both teachers and school heads explained that guidelines were meant to be distributed to those tasked with the training function at community level. These were identified as including SDC representatives, Village Health Workers (VHWs) (for school Feeding and Health Education) and Civil Society partners. There was also reference to Guidance and Counselling guidelines in the form of a syllabus in line with the new curriculum that were provided by MoPSE.

Discussions with other respondent groups did not add much to what heads and teachers had already provided. While expressing awareness of the existence of guidelines, SDC members and Civil Society partners indicated they had not received copies. They relied mostly on the notes they took during their own training. This shows that in spite of 'availability', the distribution did not reach all intended recipients, a concerning feature given the need for standardisation of training. Similar sentiments were heard from VHWs who understood that copies of the circular on school feeding had been received by schools but this had not been availed to them.

Provision of logistical support

Besides the manuals, it was anticipated that the government would take other measures to support training at lower levels. Transport (or allowances for transport) to and from training venues was a logical expectation since participants could not meet their own costs. Other support costs also included subsistence allowances. In some, cases, it was reported; some officials from the Ministries were also meant to come and sit-in during the training and render the necessary support on training days. These efforts were made in a bid to come up with an acceptable standard of training. Figure 4.13 shows teacher and school head ratings on provision of these support resources.

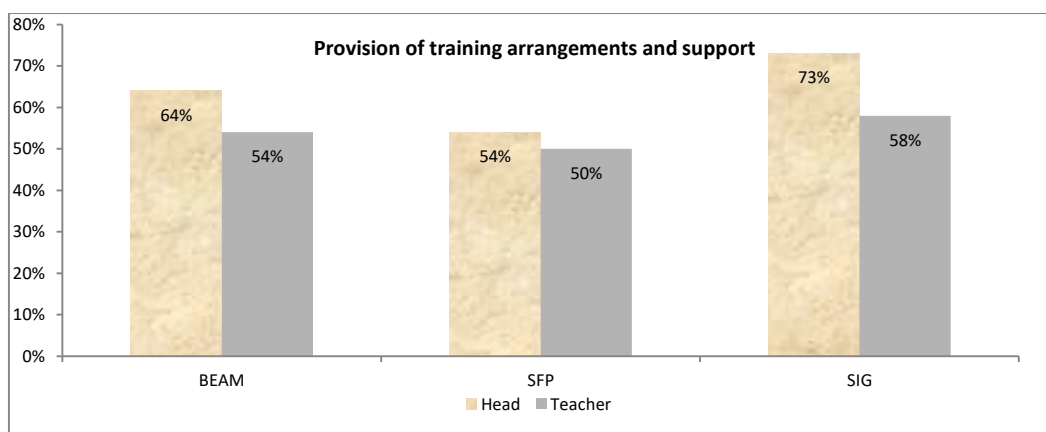


FIGURE 4-13: HEADS AND TEACHERS CONFIRMING PROVISION OF OTHER SUPPORT

There was confirmation to the effect that other support arrangements had been made (all programmes above 50% threshold); much of this comprising of bus-fare reimbursements when participants travelled to venues outside their own station. Most training took place at local schools, travel and venue costs to a minimum. Heads of schools confirmed availing small budgets to support logistical arrangements since downstream trainings followed a cascade arrangement.

Provision of post-training support

Over and above sharing guidelines, follow-up support is considered an important training support activity. This allows responsible government teams to provide on-the-spot support in respect of challenges being encountered. The question put across to all respondent groups was: Did the Government provide such support? The ratings for heads and teachers are shown in Figure 4.14.

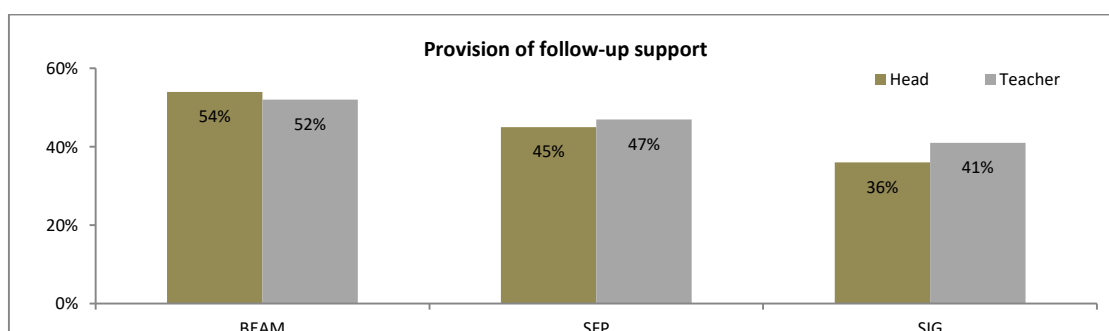


FIGURE 4-14: HEADS AND TEACHERS CONFIRMING PROVISION OF FOLLOW-UP SUPPORT

As revealed in Figure 4.14, post-training follow-up was characterised by low ratings by both heads and teachers. With just satisfactory levels for BEAM (54% for heads and 52% for teachers), and even lower for both SFP (45% and 47%) and SIG (36% and 41%) respectively, the general perception was that follow-up measures were the weakest link. Some teachers engaged in the discussions confirmed that they had hardly noticed any follow up processes.

School teacher (ST8) noted:

We have not seen much evidence of follow-up after training. Maybe they have been to other places and not ours or maybe they are still going to come. I think schools like ours, far as they are from the offices, have to take their own initiatives.

School teacher (ST4) added:

If they consider this an important process, follow-up should take place as a matter of course. Maybe it is an issue of resources that prevents the officials from coming to check on how we are doing after the training processes have been concluded.

School head (SH6) responded:

They are overstretched. We have actually been advised to follow-up at local level and conduct refreshers if deemed necessary. Waiting for the training officials to visit will only yield disappointment.

School head (SH1) lamented:

This is easier said than done. They have too much on their hands. We have learnt to maximise on the trainer level training as and when it is provided, knowing very well that this is the end of their support.

While follow-up support has been a promised package of quality enhancement efforts, this is rarely taking place. Lack of resources was cited as the main constraint. While this is an honest assessment of the reality, it is noted that the absence of this support system deprives the provision of the services of the expected quality. The findings of the study suggest the need for consideration of a review of how this can be made possible or provision of alternative strategies.

The question of whether there were any areas requiring improvement in government training support received overwhelming “yes” responses from both teachers and school heads across all assessed programme areas (Figure 4.15 Part (d)).

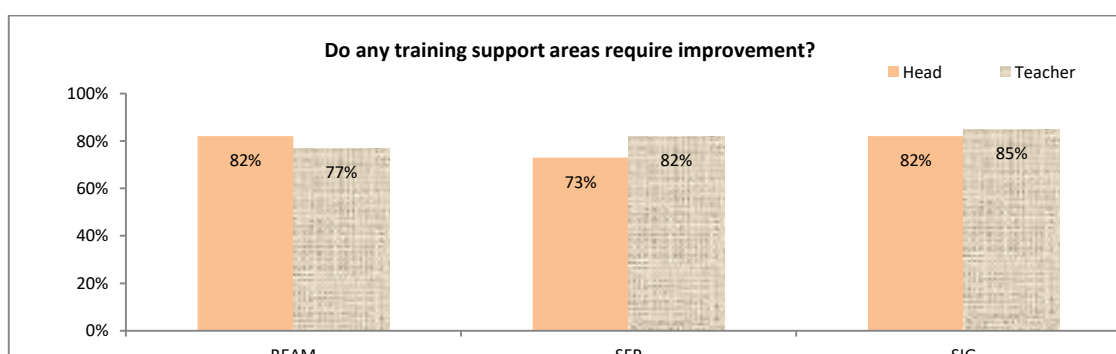


FIGURE 4-15: REQUIRED TRAINING SUPPORT AREAS THAT NEED IMPROVEMENT

Besides improving follow up to training, especially around programmes such as SIG, communities identified the overall need for involvement of community structures in all training support interventions.



4.6.4.2 Resource mobilisation and provision

A major form of capacitation is the mobilisation and provision of resources for programmes. In accordance with rights based programming, the government as the main duty bearer, must take the lead in these efforts. In the case of inability to meet obligations from its own resources, the government could to appeal to its social partners for assistance. Teachers were asked to make assessments on these Government responsibilities around key themes: taking the lead in mobilising own resources and encouragement of partner assistance. Results show in Figure 4.16.

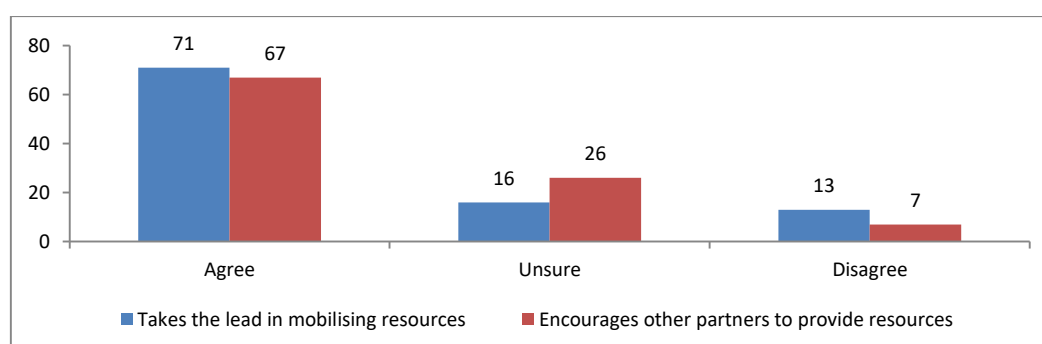


FIGURE 4-16: RESOURCE MOBILISATION AND PROVISION

Of the 98 teachers who participated, a credible 71% confirmed that the government took the lead in resource mobilisation, mostly from its own resources, while 16% were undecided and 13% disagreed. Realising its capacity challenges, government decided, as confirmed by 67% of teachers, to encourage other partners to get involved in the provision of resources for social protection in support of education.

A basic facet of management and coordination is the knowledge of other players in resource mobilisation efforts. Over half (59%) of the responding teachers believed government was knowledgeable about who else was providing support and the nature of the support provided. However, that 41% either did not know or remained neutral says a lot about the reality of participation by the other players.

In this study there was no doubt that some level of financial, material or training support was availed as all three were identified by respondents. However, the next level was one focused on, to what degree that form of support was availed (a proxy of its adequacy). Only 39% agreed that the Government was providing enough financial resources in support of implementation. The remaining 61% were either unsure (25%) or believed there was no such support (36%). Meanwhile 38% considered the level of material support adequate, the rest being unsure (30%) or disagreeing (33%). From all angles, levels of support were far from adequate.

4.6.5 Monitoring and evaluation

Government monitoring and evaluation support was considered around themes of provision of guidelines, training on use of guidelines, development and distribution of other systems and provision of follow-up by the government system.

4.6.5.1 Provision of monitoring and evaluation guidance

Monitoring and evaluation guidelines serve to ensure consistency in the way programmes are monitored and evaluated. Meanwhile, training of users on monitoring and evaluation guidelines, once provided, serves to ensure that they are put to the right use by a knowledgeable team. Teachers responded to whether or not guidelines were provided. The results have been shown in Figure 4.17.

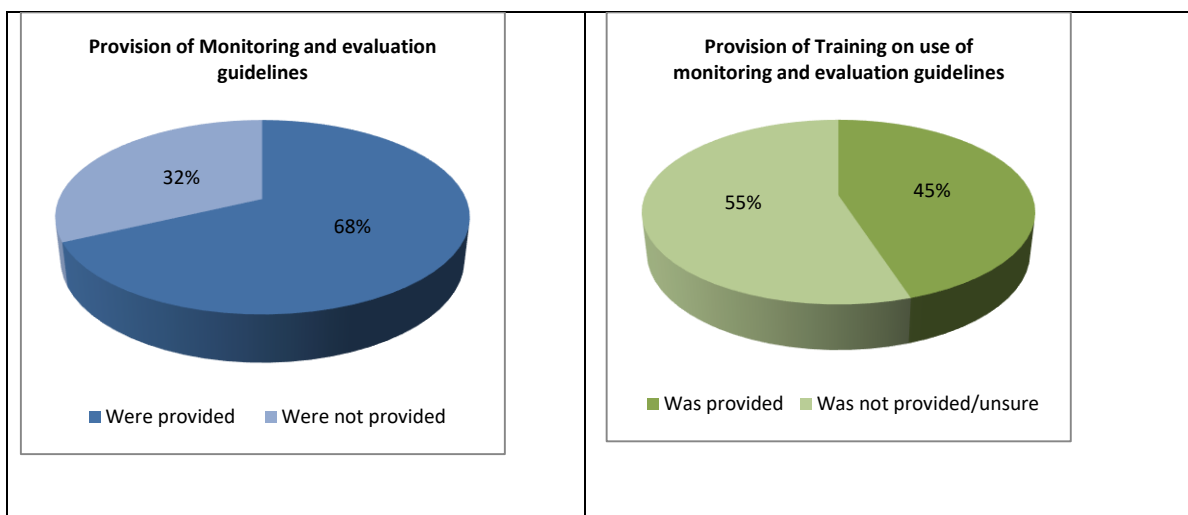


FIGURE 4-17: PROVISION OF MONITORING AND EVALUATION GUIDANCE

Whereas Ministry officials confirmed that guidelines were provided and a sample of implementer representatives were trained on how to use them, they acknowledged that operationalisation on the ground could be characterised by challenges. Overall, 68% of teachers indicated that these were provided but as far as they knew, only for BEAM. They indicated that they had not come across monitoring and evaluation guidelines for any other programme. Their assumption was that these were probably provided as 'unwritten instructions' during training. Provision of that support was below par with only 45% of the teachers interviewed saying that training on interpretation and use of the guidelines for selected teams had been conducted. Teacher responses on whether or not monitoring support systems were provided and the level of follow up support are shown in Figure 4.18.

4.6.5.2 Provision of monitoring systems

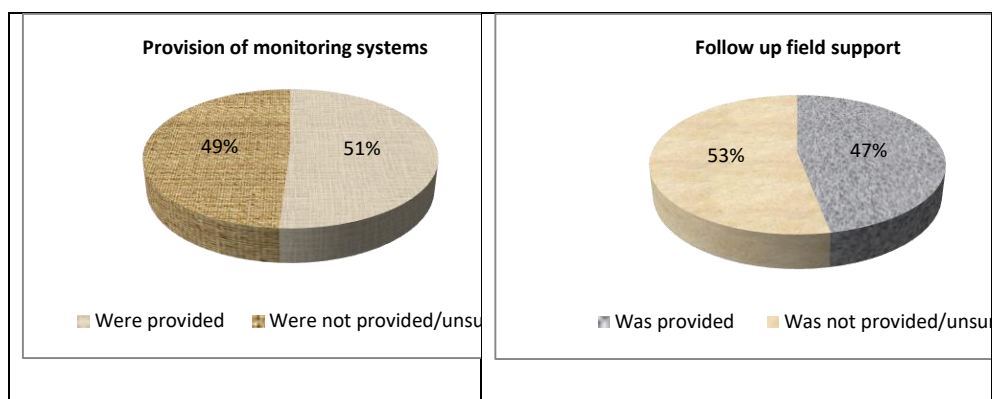


FIGURE 4-18: PROVISION OF MONITORING SYSTEMS

Monitoring system serves to check specific performance indicators and the levels to which they are being attained. This prompts action on the part of implementers depending on the direction in which they point. Whether guidelines have been provided or not, the follow-up efforts have always proved invaluable for Government lead agencies. This instils confidence in those implementing the programmes as well as helps to gauge if the stated goals and objectives of implementing social protection programmes were being achieved.

In the view of the teachers, provision of other monitoring systems were at their barest minimum (51%), while follow up support for technical and administrative backstopping, by Government officials, was subdued with 47% confirming that such support had been provided. By their own admission, Government officials confirmed that the follow up mechanism was limited by resource constraints.

Confirming teacher responses, school heads indicated that guidelines were provided and training undertaken for BEAM. However, they bemoaned the 'low' provision of monitoring support. Although they confirmed that they themselves had been part of the teams that were trained, alongside other committee members, they felt that follow up support was inconsistent.

4.6.5.3 Provision of follow-up field support

Given the realities on the ground, the message from across the divide of respondent groups was clear. While it may sound like just another wish-list, school heads, teachers, community groups and stakeholders alike agreed on the need to increase the level of follow up support from Government. This, they said, should be done on a more regular basis for the purpose of identifying challenges and bottlenecks and providing the necessary support. Additionally, they also proposed the infusion of more resources in order to achieve a more robust monitoring support framework.

4.7 Summary

The current chapter presented data on Social Protection as a Mechanism for Supporting the Right to Education for Vulnerable Children in Mwenezi district. The presentation started with demographic information of participants. This would provide a context for the subsequent sections. Next was data on respondent perceptions of vulnerable children, coupled with the sources of vulnerability and the impact of

vulnerability on the right to education. The identification of diverse social protection programmes in the education sector was an important area for all groups.

A presentation on strategies ensued, starting with those used by schools and other providers of social protection services. These covered awareness raising, targeting and selection, networking and collaboration, monitoring and training. The presentation also covered those strategies used by the government system to support those who were on the ground, implementing. This covered programme design, management and coordination, capacity building, provision of policy and operational guidelines and monitoring and evaluation. The next chapter discusses the findings from the study in accordance with themes derived from the research questions.



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CHAPTER FIVE

5 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This previous chapter presented and analysed the findings from this study. The current chapter discusses the findings around themes emanating from research questions. Essentially, these include child vulnerability concept as it relates to right to education, the social protection programmes and the extent to which their essence and delivery strategies and management supports vulnerable children's right to education. The discussion is undertaken in the context of knowledge that already exists about social protection programmes in relation to the right to education.



5.2 The concept of child vulnerability

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An important starting point of this study was to seek the respondents understanding of the concept of vulnerability, the key pillar of this study, as it relates to children. The purpose of seeking this understanding was to ensure a reflection on the various standpoints and draw implications as they related to the issues interrogated by the study. Findings from the study revealed a shared understanding of the concept child vulnerability, albeit use of different terminology by the respondents; such as defenselessness (teachers), helplessness and weakened (school heads), does not have any shielding effects (community) and unable to do much to help themselves (children). This scenario coincides with findings by Motsa and Morojele (2016) who, in the exploration of life experiences of vulnerable grade 6 children in Swaziland, concluded that, although characterised variations in terminologies, vulnerability was viewed in the same manner by both school and community stakeholders. This significant overlap in what constitutes vulnerability is a positive point of departure for the issues considered under this study. Reason being, it serves as a basis for

targeting and selection decisions for social protection programmes that support the right to education.

The study further established consensus that the identified vulnerability scenarios in the preceding paragraph rendered children susceptible to harm, mainly arising from some external forces. In addition, it was agreed that, given the various scenarios, vulnerability was rampant in the communities of Mwenezi. The findings are also coherent with Phillip and Rayhan (2004)'s notion of child vulnerability as the state of being weak, defenseless and having very limited means to cope, largely arising from forces or events external to the child. Since definitions and classifications are often important sources of tension when it comes to who should be included and who shall be excluded as a beneficiary, this convergence of thinking augurs well for identification of sources of vulnerability for appropriate and targeting interventions.

Another key finding was that of two forces being at work in the vulnerability mix: one inherent in the child and the other external to the child. In his writings, Weithorn (2018) buttresses this finding; stating that vulnerability situations include susceptibility to physical or psychological harm from exposure to certain stimuli or situations (external) or influence, pressure or coercion by others (external). In addition, he argued that vulnerability situations also often arise from immature decisions and self-protective capacities (internal); legal, social incidents of minority status and subordination to the authority and control of others (internal/external) as well as reliance on others to meet one's basic needs (internal). Added to this is UNICEF's (2004) argument from a rights perspective; that whenever vulnerability is detected, every child is entitled to interventions to address those vulnerabilities.

This external/internal characterisation of the source of vulnerability is an equally important area of agreement that allows for broader stakeholder orientation in locating the sources of vulnerability for targeted response efforts. Suffice to say that in the context of this study, knowledge of the source, which respondents appeared to have in abundance, throws light on understanding of issues that could prevent children benefiting from social protection programmes as well as their right to education. Both Southern African Development Community (SADC (2010) and

Vincent and Jopling (2016) further add that while the external and internal factors could be sources of vulnerability, they are equally important sources of the response. Once that source is determined, there is increased possibility of addressing the root cause of the vulnerability.

The subtle differences arose from analysis of examples provided by respondent groups. Teachers saw the most vulnerable groups of children as girls and double orphans. Children, on the other hand, highlighted those with disabilities and those 'abandoned' by parents who left for other countries in search of employment. Thus, in respect of the concept of child vulnerability, the findings of this study suggest that whereas there are commonalities among the different groups, the subtle differences provide equally important insights, especially when it comes to selection criteria for beneficiaries. The need to be more consultative and embrace diversity augurs well in identifying beneficiaries of different social protection programmes, a position well-supported by Azevedo and Roble's (2010) multi-dimensional targeting. This is likely to yield better results for the purpose of championing the right to education for vulnerable children.



The study also took interest in sources of child vulnerability and the impact on right to education. In this regard, the study found consensus that child vulnerabilities emanated from diverse sources that include the community, the home, the school and the children themselves. If there were to be meaningful solutions, these sources must be viewed in a holistic manner as they combine to impact negatively on the children. The findings support views from reviewed literature that the main sources of child vulnerability were indeed the community, the home, the school and the child himself/herself (Southern African Development Community, 2010; Jopling & Vincent, 2016). This is an important finding if efforts to address the root causes are to bear fruit; with the notion that a broader view is likely to provide better outcomes than taking a narrow view. Research studies also show that, if the response consists of home or community factors only, for instance, then the solution is only half-baked as we may very likely see children dropping out because the equally important school and personal factors have been ignored (Weithorn, 2018).

The results further highlighted that, though there was general consensus that some of the vulnerabilities came from the home, there was a diverse array of specific factors that trigger vulnerability in these environments. Issues of poverty and unemployment, single or no parentage, single or double orphans, walking long distances to school, home chores that interfere with schooling and traditional or cultural norms and practices were identified. These factors are congruent with those found in some of the literature reviewed - that risk factors can come from the child, their parents or those that care for them and from the general socio-economic context (Jopling & Vincent, 2016). Other scholars have thus concluded that some children face multiple factors that tend to increase their risk to vulnerability, making the threat to the right to education more pronounced (Sabates & Dex, 2012; Jopling & Vincent, 2016).

Although several inter-related socio-economic factors are responsible for subjecting learners to different forms of vulnerability, two that were singled out were walking long distances to school and home chores that interfere with school work. These appeared to be of particular concern to the learners, compared to other respondent groups. This confirms earlier studies that found that the likelihood of school attendance decreased as distance between home and school increases, especially for girls (Shahidul & Zehadul Karim, 2015). Respondents to this study also blamed household chores for disturbing school activities, confirming findings of the study by Huisman & Smits (2014), which concluded that girls, especially those from rural areas, had more load on their hands. They did more household chores than boys, a situation that reduces their time for homework and other school-related tasks. Girl absenteeism has also been associated with girls' menstrual hygiene issues (Grant, Lloyd & Mensch, 2013).

Consideration of child vulnerability (the concept, the sources and the intricate risk factors) as an important aspect worthy investigating provided a much needed context in the assessment of violations and infringements on the right to education. Potentially and practically, this provides ample guidance for those tasked with coming up with and implementing social protection responses; the important message being to make important decisions such as those of targeting and selection after a thorough analysis of the entire range of needs surrounding children who are categorised as vulnerable. It is equally important to take into account the subtle perceptual variations from different stakeholders in order to avoid missing out on some important advice. The next section looks at the programmes meant to address the identified vulnerabilities.

5.3 Social Protection programmes delivered in support of the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district

The discussion of the nature and categories of vulnerabilities undertaken in the previous section provides a framework for analysing the relevance of the implemented programmes. Identification, by different respondent groups, of social protection programmes that support the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district was, in its own right, an important part of this study. Underlying questions include those to do with the nature and scope of the programmes and their potency towards redressing child vulnerabilities that had a negative bearing on their right to education. The section discusses the findings on the identified programmes.

5.3.1 Overview of the social protection programmes

A total of 21 programmes were identified as responding to vulnerabilities that affect children's right to education. While this may not constitute an exhaustive list of possible programmes, it nevertheless presents respondent awareness of the key ones to which they could relate. At a broader level, some programmes identified in this study were found in all schools while others were only available in some schools and covered a small portion of beneficiaries. The results provide evidence of a diversity of programme providers and purposes Mwenezi district.

5.3.2 Provider-related scope of programmes

The findings on providers of social protection programmes related to the right to education for vulnerable children showed the Government as the primary player, implementing the biggest programmes in terms of geographical scope and beneficiary coverage. This finding is not surprising and is consistent with the Human Rights Approach to Social Protection, in which the Government stands out as the chief 'duty bearer' for provision of social protection (Sepúlveda & Nyst, 2012), even though non-state actors have increasingly become a force to reckon with in terms of social protection provision (Cammatt & Maclean, 2014)). There was also ample stakeholder participation, including a wide range of non-state actors (NGOs, CBOs, and the private

sector), in providing social protection services in Mwenezi. United Nations Agencies, the community (groups or individuals) and the school were also named among the sources from which the programmes originated. It is also common cause that the Government can exercise its prerogative to bring on board non-state partners, either out of realising its capacity deficiencies or simply out of desire for an inclusive development framework. The inclusion of non-state actors was an equally expected finding of the current study; a finding that aligns with a study conducted by Barrientos (2004). Whereas the contribution of NGOs and other non-state actors may have been considered typically small in investment and coverage, their impact was large at aggregate level (Government of Zimbabwe & World Bank, 2016). Even though the community and children still held the belief that programmes implemented in schools emanated from 'outside' the school and community systems, they were gradually acknowledging the emerging phenomenon of local level benefactors (community, individuals and the school). The range of programmes, therefore, presents a healthy diversity of sources of social protection programmes, a situation that augurs well for options and alternatives for adequate provision of social protection programmes for all vulnerable children.



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5.3.3 Scope of content and purpose of social protection programmes

In terms of content and purpose, the findings show that programmes share common purpose in addressing the education needs of vulnerable children. Mostly, these centre on availability of schools and facilities, access into those schools, retention of children in school and meaningful engagement with what goes on in those schools and classrooms (learning). In line with the above findings is Tomaševski's (2001) characterisation of essential education as involving availability, accessibility, acceptability and adaptability dimensions. A broad spectrum of programmes included those providing tangible, material forms of support (infrastructural rehabilitation, fees, food) to the more software issues of psychosocial support, counselling, health and welfare of the vulnerable learners. This finding is further supported by some social practitioners that promote the view that a balanced social protection package must comprise of some core interventions and a mix of social protection programmes (Government of Zimbabwe and World Bank, 2016). The view is further cemented by

the Department of Economic Affairs (2018), which advocates for a comprehensive package in order to tackle the multiple needs of children in a multi-faceted way for greater impact. Even within this overall scope of agreement, variations were noted with community member inclinations for the more tangible benefits such as payment of fees, school feeding, infrastructure and provision of textbooks and uniforms. While in agreement on the importance of those tangible benefits, heads of schools and teachers, argued that there was more to education than satisfying tangible needs, a hardly surprising revelation in view of the emphasis in teacher professional training. They prioritised reading assistance programmes, counselling, and learner discipline and health education as important areas that come to bear on meaningful learning.

The clear message coming from the findings is that whenever considering responding to child education-related vulnerabilities, it is worthwhile listening to the broad spectrum of stakeholders in order to accommodate their responses in a holistic and comprehensive way.



5.3.4 Social protection programme prevalence in schools

Consistent with their perceived importance, BEAM and SFP featured in all schools. By far, they take care of high numbers of needy vulnerable children in every school by addressing some of the barriers that stand in the way of children's education pursuits (lack of fees and hunger and poor nutrition). This aligns with views expressed by Rueckert (2019); that programmes that seek to remove access barriers such as fees are widely recognised while those that address issues of hunger are equally necessary because they complement each other in responding to the complex vulnerabilities to which children are exposed. The popularity and high preference for the fee waiver scheme (BEAM) and nutrition/hunger intervention through SFPs is not unique to Mwenezi as cases in most developing countries demonstrate such arrangements as necessary and relevant in affording children a chance to access education in most developing countries. Examples of similar studies in Zambia are that of the flagship Social Cash Transfer Programmes and home-grown schools meals programmes underwent massive scale-up in complementary fashion (Ministry of Community development and Social Services, 2018). In addition, South Africa has a very comprehensive National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP) catering for close to

77% of its needy learners (Statistics South Africa, 2016). Thus, it may be deduced from the above examples that these countries have similar and clear trends to redress issues of vulnerabilities among learners. Furthermore, it must be noted that each programme, no matter how small, makes its own contribution in addressing vulnerabilities that may not have been popularised. Care must therefore be taken in Mwenzezi to have a broader view to social protection that promotes the right to education and also tapping on pockets of good practices from other districts on how best to cater for such learners through social protection programmes.

The findings of the study also revealed major criticisms of large-scale programmes, especially those that involve huge financial outlays, a result congruent with that of the Study of Quality Education and Support for All in Western Cape, South Africa. In that case, it was found that the vision of specific consideration to the most vulnerable was progressively getting out of reach due sheer reality of resource constraints and management inefficiencies (Dreyer, 2017).

The above scenario not only points to complementarity of interventions for a holistic solution but also goes to show that while programme prevalence on the ground may be the bigger part of the answer, uniqueness of situations in certain school environments should not be ignored since it tells more about the nature of specific vulnerabilities to be addressed.

5.3.5 Social protection programmes vulnerability targeting

In any given programme it is critical that there be identification of what type of vulnerability is being targeted. Is it by design that specific vulnerabilities are the focus when decisions are made as to which programme to take on board? These are basic questions that enable assessment of consciousness in decision making on the programmes and which the current study also sought to answer

The findings show that some of the programmes had generic targeting, which was driven by national or district indicators such as poverty, orphanhood, hunger, HIV prevalence or disability. Generic targeting is already considered a good practice as supported by Jopling and Vincent (2016). However, it fails to address unique needs of

children in some communities such as those in parts of Mwenezi where the school is too far from where they live or of children with disabilities who require assistive devices to get to or around their school or support their learning. Emerging from the study was that programmes that targeted such specific issues were on a smaller scale. In either case, the big or the small interventions could be missing on targeting important needs. Detailed needs assessment was proposed as a strategy that could make the programmes more relevant than is currently the case.

5.4 Strategies used by schools and other providers in delivering social protection programmes in support of the right to education

5.4.1 Awareness creation

5.4.1.1 Importance of awareness creation

As a prelude to the assessment of the strategy of awareness creation for delivering social protection programmes, the study enquired whether and to what extent, respondents thought this was an important process to undertake. The findings show unanimity of response in support of awareness creation for any programme that targeted communities. Participants justified the strategy as not only a good practice but also a process of sharing information and a mechanism for levelling the ground for all to participate. The result finds support in views expressed in literature reviewed: that a good programme intervention is one that starts off with community awareness in order to share information and stimulate demand for the services (Cheetham, 2002).

There were also arguments that awareness creation was undertaken because it brought important benefits for the programme; well supported by Ministry of State for Environmental Affairs Public Awareness and Communication (n.d), which argues that a key benefit of public awareness is the enhancement of buy-in from the communities. Examples drawn from research also showed render support to the essence of the finding. In the United States of America, awareness creation not only popularised the Head-Start programme, but also heightened interest and enabled that programme to grow in stature. Meanwhile, the Ishraq programme in Egypt enjoyed massive

acceptance due to parental and community orientation at its beginning (Galal, 2014). Similarly, in Malawi, an Orphan care programme showed that investment in awareness creation stimulated increased participation and galvanised communities (Unger, Woolfolk, Harper & Cuevas, 2008). The findings of this study and the extant literature, therefore suggest that whenever a new programme comes on board, it must start with awareness creation.

5.4.1.2 Strategies for creating awareness

One of the important aspects of awareness as a strategy of delivering social protection programmes was how the process was undertaken. There was a strong acknowledgement at the level of district officials and heads of schools that pre-programme awareness creation was the norm across programmes. To that end, one of its execution strategies was to start by identifying target audiences before considering mechanisms and platforms for dissemination of information. In support, some of the literature reviewed indicated that good awareness creation entails identification of the audience and tools in the communication kit (Ministry of State for Environmental Affairs Public Awareness and Communication, n.d). However, it was found that procedures for information dissemination were not standard across programmes. Rather, they depended on the type and size of the programme and these varied from community to community.

While this diversity should be celebrated for sensitivity to different situations, it could give rise to some information gaps, the risk of which was denial of participation particularly for the children, including some potential beneficiary communities. Thus, relentless awareness was needed to level the ground, a finding consistent with that of Sudina, Unsuya and Lakra (2015) who concluded that regular education regarding the programme and its benefits were likely to encourage beneficiaries to utilise programme benefits.

An additional finding of the study was the perception of communities and children that awareness creation efforts were not adequate. In a study on awareness on people with disabilities, Deconinck (2017) equally found this to be the case – that awareness remained grossly inadequate. Further to this argument was that awareness creation

usually remains weak because it targeted communities rather than taking a holistic view by including the policy and institutional levels.

In the case of the current study, targeting awareness via the school assembly on its own, therefore, remains flawed and futile especially with little or no follow-up action. It assumes every learner is at school on the day of announcement and, if not, it becomes their fault. Others felt it favoured schools nearer the district service points that were more accessible at the expense of the more remote ones. This also varied by type of programme and from community to community. This affirms observations and concerns made earlier to the effect that such patterns of information flow characterised awareness creation in developing communities, a warning that whenever awareness programmes are undertaken, there is need for sensitivity to community variables. Recommendations included use of specific fit-for-purpose outreach meetings that include stakeholders with interest in education.

5.4.2 Beneficiary targeting and selection



Beneficiary targeting and selection are key processes by which deserving beneficiaries are identified and prioritised for assistance. If the implementers are to execute their responsibilities well, certain processes need to be followed in accordance with prescribed and agreed standards and parameters. On the other hand, beneficiaries need to have an appreciation of why and how it is being done. A number of findings have been presented as emanating from this study. A discussion of the findings is undertaken under headings that follow.

5.4.2.1 Rationale of beneficiary selection

The study findings showed a widely shared understanding that whenever there is a mismatch between available resources and demand for them, there was need to separate those that will benefit from those that will not. Given general scarcity of resources, selection could not be avoided. The finding is well supported by Kuhn, Brosig and Zhang (2016) who argue on the inevitability of that process as a mechanism for allocating scarce resources. The process will remain functional as long as resource demand exceeded supply and where assistance needed to get to the right

beneficiaries (Grosh, 2014). As further support to the finding is given by ILO (2016), which underscores the argument with reference to Southern Africa, where most countries have increased commitment to provision of social protection services within a context of tight fiscal resources, making selection a critical issue to contend with. The issue therefore, is not about whether selection should be done but how this should be done. With reference to delivery of social protection programmes that support educational activities for vulnerable children, findings point to the need for relentless justification whenever selection is undertaken in order to earn the confidence of the target beneficiaries and their communities.

With such unanimity on the necessity of beneficiary selection as well as near-total agreement on the purpose which it seeks to serve, the conditions appear ideal for navigating the selection process itself. The next section discusses findings on the implementation of the selection process.

5.4.2.2 The process of beneficiary selection



As a sequel to the rationale of beneficiary targeting and selection, the study sought an understanding of how the selection process was working in practice. The first question was generic: How is selection working in practice? The findings revealed that a mix of geographical and community targeting techniques were employed. According to authoritative sources, this was appropriate as the weaknesses of one method can easily be offset by the strengths of the other (ILO, 2016 & Stoeffler, Mills & del Nino, 2016). There were mixed opinions regarding how the actual selection was happening. Those in management positions (district officials and school heads) provided more positive comments than lower-level categories (teachers, communities, children). However, the assumption was that, if the system was working well, the variation in opinion should be minimal. The process of beneficiary selection was subjected to further scrutiny around two parameters: availability and use of guidelines and community participation.

Availability and use of selection guidelines

In terms of steps and activities, the findings show an acknowledgement of some guidelines for use by implementers. To that end, Ministries of Primary and Secondary

Education and Ministry of Labour and Social Services had developed BEAM selection guidelines on which decisions on inclusion and exclusion were to be based. Selection for SIG was for schools rather than individual beneficiary learners while the SFP did not have to go through selection since it was designed to cater for every learner. Similar smaller programmes were expected to 'feed' from the guidelines and principles defined and provided for BEAM.

Literature reviewed shows that development and use of guidelines to guide selection process was neither new nor unique to Mwenezi. A good example comes from the Global Protection Cluster which came up with guidelines for use during humanitarian response where, in the case of Pakistan, guidelines served to ensure that humanitarian response was guaranteed an independent needs-based and principled approach and that targeting of beneficiaries would ensure equitable access, especially for the most vulnerable (Global Protection Cluster, 2011).

Related support of use of guidelines came from Grosh (2014) who argues on the need for the government to develop operational mechanisms that should make it easier to decide which household or individual benefits from the programme. In support of the foregoing, results of the ex-ante evaluation of the Oportunidades programme in Mexico indicated that use of multidimensional selection guidelines increased the welfare impact of transfers (Azevedo & Robbles, 2010).

The development of guidelines was a commendable effort to standardise selection and ensure that the right beneficiaries were identified to increase their chances of right to education. However, findings from the study revealed that, in some cases, their use was characterised by several challenges. On one hand was their non availability at school sites and, on the other, challenges with interpretation or sheer disregard of the guidelines by implementing officials. From some communities, there were expressions of disquiet over perceived violations of the laid down guidelines. Concerns of this nature are not new to delivery of social protection programmes. Polastro et al (2011) identified some of the violations as use of lists that were not independently verified. The finding also aligns with the view that even well-intended guidelines often do an imperfect job by introducing targeting errors (Grosh, 2014).

From the foregoing, it can be concluded that developing guidelines alone, no matter how clear, does not guarantee a transparent and foolproof mechanism in reality. It

requires additional efforts to make them operational; including ensuring that they are available and that they are understood and appropriately applied. Only when all this is done is there an assurance that the deserving beneficiaries are identified and their right to education is protected.

Community participation in beneficiary selection

On the issue of participation and the selection role, the findings confirmed the participation of the community in the targeting and selection process, a practice that adds value by capitalising on existing structures and social and cultural knowledge (Samson, 2009; Robertson, et al, 2012). A designated selection committee, made up of members from within and around the school, was in place to undertake the selection process. For some very small programmes, the study found that the selection did not have to go to a formally constituted selection committee. A simple mechanism was mutually agreed between the implementer, the school and local community. Even beneficiaries were 'agreed' between the implementers and communities, paving way for a hassle-free process.

The finding is coherent with practices where community participation was regarded as a best practice that calls development workers to *“engage communities and families as agents, planners, implementers and evaluators of transformational development, where the vision comes from these people and the ownership is theirs”* (World Vision International, n.d:1). Specific reference was made to BEAM guidelines that included the composition and functions of the committee. The mechanisms adopted for participation in beneficiary selection appeared to leave some communities happier with how the selection process; with the perception that selection was community owned and, hence transparent (Schuring, Boonstoppel & Michelo, 2007; Miller, Tsoka & Reitchet, 2008). Smaller programmes could borrow elements of this stipulated guidance.

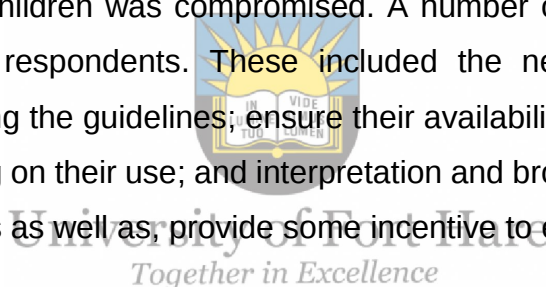
Though credited with benefits of ownership and transparency (Schuring, Boonstoppel & Michelo, 2007), the findings also revealed that there was dissatisfaction with the operations of the committee in some communities where accusations of impartiality were rife, especially where non-selected beneficiaries felt they had been purposely excluded from participation (Miller, Tsoka & Reitchet, 2008). . In such communities, the functionality of the selection committees was said to have characterised by

irregular meetings, erratic attendance and general marginalisation of children. Thus, the issue of selection committees has both perceived advantages and disadvantages, making it necessary to exercise caution in how it is used.

5.4.2.3 Effects of beneficiary targeting and selection

Selection for the purpose of securing benefits in the context of widespread need is always going to be a highly sensitive and controversial issue. On the backdrop of all these complaints about functionality and transparency of selection processes, it only made sense to find out the respondents' thoughts about the impact of the beneficiary selection processes and what improvements it needed.

The available mechanisms had succeeded in identifying beneficiaries and upheld their right to education. However, there were pockets of exclusion, suggesting the education of such children was compromised. A number of recommendations were highlighted by the respondents. These included the need to review the entire mechanism, including the guidelines; ensure their availability where they ought to be, coupled with training on their use; and interpretation and broadening the catchment of committee members as well as, provide some incentive to enhance participation.



5.4.3 Networking and collaboration

Networking and collaboration are critical strategies in delivering social protection programmes. This arises from the fact that solo efforts within an overall context of competition does not augur well for smooth delivery. When employed, the likelihood of benefitting from efficiencies is high. The findings on the utilisation of this strategy are discussed in subsequent sections; under the themes; implementation, stakeholder participation, challenges of networking and collaboration and effectiveness of networking and coordination strategies.

5.4.3.1 Networking and collaboration in practice

The findings from the study pointed to satisfactory utilisation of networking and collaboration strategies, even though some challenges continued to be faced. This came from diverse respondents that include schools, NGOs working in the area, government departments as well as communities. In the view of the research, this is an ideal set-up for multi-sectoral collaboration which Axner (2017) sees as best practice for solving systemic problems that beset their communities.

A further finding from the study was that, besides negative competition for resources and occasional mutual suspicion of each other, NGOs were more comfortable collaborating among themselves. Regarding collaboration with the government system, respondents from NGO partners expressed that at times they had to do it as a matter of compliance with statutory requirements and conditions of their operating licences. Although Government wanted to monitor every activity, it had no capacity to do so, often leading to delays or cancellations in order to accommodate their schedules. The downside of this was that at times NGOs failed to meet targets that may have been agreed with their funders. After all is said and done, multi-sectoral collaboration presents complex and challenging situations but the rewards can also be greater (Gratton & Erickson, 2007).

Meanwhile, communities and children, by their own admission, felt excluded from collaboration efforts, especially with government programmes. In the end, beneficiary communities were also of the view that it was not part of their role to collaborate. In such a scenario, the tendency to stand aloof and refusal to own the programme cannot be ruled out. This behavior has serious implications for effective implementation of social protection programmes including timely intervention for children who need assistance to further their education through such programmes.

5.4.3.2 Effects of networking and collaboration strategy

It was also important to find out what were the benefits networking and collaboration. The findings from this research question ranged from mild to massive acceptance that this was beneficial to delivery of the programmes. Benefits identified by Government officials included rationalisation of operations, preventing duplication of activities and

reducing incidence of double-dipping. On the other hand, other implementing partners agreed that the benefits had been immense, besides it being a good platform for learning and sharing.

However, in spite of the expressed benefits, there was an equally agreed view that not enough was being done to network and collaborate with others. Thus, overall improvement was necessary in the utilisation of that strategy; with greater community visibility in activities of the programmes and deliberate communication efforts among stakeholders being proposed as areas for improvement.

5.4.4 Training of project participants

Training is one of the chief mechanisms by which project players, implementers and beneficiaries alike, receive the empowerment to inject meaning into implementation. The benefits have been identified as including addressing gaps and deficiencies, enhancing programme delivery by a more knowledgeable and skilled staff.

With reference to this study, there was unanimity across all respondent groups in the acknowledgement that training was a necessity and value-adding delivery strategy, an argument fully supported by the statement attributed to Benjamin Franklin who said “An investment in knowledge always pays the best interest” (retrieved from <https://www.shiftelearning.com/blog/statistics-value-of-employee-training-and-development> on 15 August 2019).

This means that for any social protection programmes to succeed, both implementers and beneficiaries need to be trained. Given this conviction, the researcher sought to determine how schools and other implementers went about empowering their project participants to effectively deliver social protection programmes targeting vulnerable children. The responses are presented under implementation, efficacy of content covered and approaches used.

5.4.4.1 Implementation of training in current social protection programmes

According to both Ministry officials and non-state partners, trainings for project participants for implementation of social protection programmes for vulnerable children were provided for as a matter of policy. In all cases, they expressed their understanding of the purpose as to equip recipients with skills and competences for successful delivery of social protection programmes. These findings confirm what has been found in previous studies: that one of the success factors of the Kenyan OVC programme was the investment in capacity building to develop the knowledge and skills of existing staff within existing government structures. This was seen as a realistic and feasible step rather than parachuting in new staff or establishing a separate implementation organisation (Jackson et al., 2011). However, findings also showed that trainings had been more visible in some programmes and for some participant groups than in others. This was to be expected as different programmes have different complexities to contend with. However, it is equally noted that partial coverage might impair smooth delivery of programmes on the ground.

There was a widely held view from some beneficiary groups that they had been marginalised and not afforded training opportunities. If indeed this was the situation, it might deprive the programmes of critical feedback during implementation. Such manifestations of failure are not new. Research evidence shows that:

Inadequate investments in planning and training during the Child Money Programme inception period led to a situation whereby the targeting methodology and a lack of capacity to implement and monitor the targeting process led to inclusion and exclusion errors and strong anecdotal evidence of significant corruption and manipulation of the process by local implementers (Jackson et al., 2011: 27).

On the evidence of such research findings, training is a key success factor for the success of social protection programmes and how these may be intergrated with the promotion of the right to education for its beneficiaries. That sections of the stakeholders were deprived of training might trigger prospects for failure, unless corrective action is taken. From another angle, this lack of congruence between officials and implementers on the one hand and beneficiaries on the other might just

be an indicator of different perceptions of what can be classified as training. Sensitisation and effective communication across the board could be the answer.

5.4.4.2 Adequacy and effectiveness of training

The findings on adequacy and effectiveness of training, revealed variations in the way this was seen and felt by different stakeholders. Whereas adequacy was concerned with the extent of perceived coverage in line with objectives and content of the training, effectiveness was linked with approaches used during the trainings.

In the majority of cases, training coverage included basic guidelines on each programme, observance of ethical conduct and different roles and responsibilities. Meanwhile, training at all lower levels was said to adjusted to their level of understanding and included use of their local language. Although use of local languages in training is characterised by negative community perceptions and scarcity of instructional materials in local languages, it is argued that it yields better results as it makes trainees feel more at home (UNESCO 2016).

The ratings on effectiveness were satisfactory at the level of officials but subdued at beneficiary level, reflecting the assessment already made that showed variations in the exposure to training. Such findings must provide some lessons on the value of training and what it should entail and who should be targeted.

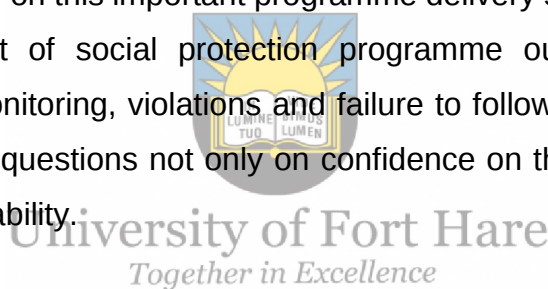
5.4.5 Monitoring

It is well accepted that monitoring serves as the strategy that provides continuous feedback in order to improve the programme. The study sought to establish the extent to which monitoring was practised in different programmes, and to what effect. Participants provided varied responses on implementation of monitoring and its benefits and what they felt could be areas for improvement.

Findings show that, besides school heads and teachers, monitoring delivery was fragmented and characterised by long lapses between one monitoring episode and another, meaning that there was always going to be insufficient data on which to base decisions. The finding is supported by the views of Reynolds and Sutherland (2013),

who argue that as long as programmes were characterised by weak monitoring systems, there was always the risk of weak evidence for decision-making and resources allocation. However, teachers could only concentrate on the more internal programmes consistent with their duties, including the SFPs. District officials were accused of lack of visibility amid expectations to provide leadership and guidance. Communities were generally sidelined on account of perceived lack of know-how. The finding on sidelined communities was coherent with those of Sarway (2008) where communities were found to be disengaged and excluded from monitoring the National Solidarity Programme until some deliberate actions that sought to involve communities in monitoring taken. However, the finding is contradicted by Ofosu & Ntiamoah (2016) who found positive correlations between development and monitoring and evaluation, even though they went further to recommend that the process could be bolstered through training.

The need to improve on this important programme delivery strategy was expressed to enable achievement of social protection programme outcomes because in the absence of such monitoring, violations and failure to follow set guidelines were also problematic, raising questions not only on confidence on the entire delivery process but also on accountability.



Also emerging from the study was that there was need to get back to the drawing board and sensitise all stakeholders on what needs to be done, who needs to do it and what tools shall be used. Furthermore, findings of the study show that children be given responsibility to track activities within their reach and provide periodic feedback. Resource mobilisation, the main excuse for this status of monitoring, needs to be prioritised to enable mobility.

5.5 Government strategies to support social protection providers to deliver programmes in support of the right to education for vulnerable children

The main interest of this section was to discuss the findings on the strategies that the Government was utilising to support implementers of social protection programmes that seek to protect the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district.

Strategies discussed include programme design, provision of guidelines, management and coordination, capacity development and monitoring and evaluation.

5.5.1 Programme design

A critical strategy for supporting implementers has been identified as ingrained in the design of the programmes. This emanates from the perception that the manner in which the programme unfolds is attributed to its design, especially if that design entails going beyond the ‘what’ (content of programme) but also considers the ‘how and why’ (approaches used in the design) (Ray, 2018; United States Agency for International Development (USAID), 2011). Of particular interest in the strategic consideration is the role of stakeholders and the relationship between the proposed programme and those programmes that already exist.

5.5.1.1 Stakeholder participation in programme design



Research findings on the role of stakeholders in programme design pointed to a shared view that their (stakeholder) participation was important. In theory, this shared position should pave way for collaborative management of the processes of any programme that comes in to deliver social protection benefits. Issues of ownership and buy-in came to the fore during the various discussions with stakeholder groups. Simply put, stakeholders are more comfortable with a programme whose conception and construction they have been part of. By implication, the introduction of a new programme should not be left to chance. This finding aligns with some of the views in the literature reviewed that speak to the importance of stakeholder participation as the hallmark of successful programming (UNDP, 2009; Ray, 2018). The necessity and value of stakeholder participation is also in agreement with findings from a study on the Compassion International assisted projects in Kenya, where it was found that commitment to implementation was highest (correlation coefficient 0.8) when stakeholders were represented in the project’s governance structure, while stakeholder involvement in project initiation and planning was equally strong (correlation coefficient 0.798) and when stakeholders were involved in the execution of the project (correlation coefficient 0.6) (Nyabera, 2015). It is concluded that

stakeholder participation in project design should be encouraged as it brings about benefits that include ownership and buy-in while minimising resistance.

A natural follow-up question on the identity of who the stakeholders were illuminated that these included national and district level government officials, school leadership and teachers, communities, civil society and private sector. The finding was equally coherent with the view expressed by Holmes (2010) that project design should be a joint venture between the state and all its interest groups at all levels. Of particular significance was that each group included themselves but did not mention children. Even the children themselves identified a whole range of groups and individuals and 'forgot' to mention themselves. This arises from a position that although it is their right to fully participate in matters that concern them; children are marginalised when it comes to involvement at various levels (Hart, 2008). This is seen as a missed opportunity to embrace the views and opinions of the beneficiaries because they know best what is good for them.



5.5.1.2 Implementing stakeholder participation

With stakeholder participation so highly regarded, the findings show that the Government system had not taken full advantage of this strategy in the implementation of current social protection programmes. While district-level officials and heads of schools appeared happy with the level of stakeholder participation in programme design, community-level stakeholders felt otherwise. They (communities) expressed the strong feeling that, in most programmes, they were called in to endorse and implement 'an already finished product'. Whereas these conflicting findings reflect diversity of opinion consistent with reality (Smillie & Helmich, 1999), other opinions found in literature believe community-level stakeholders were merely expressing the wrongs in the practice because such programmes cannot thrive on partial or non-stakeholder engagement (Holmes, 2010).

While likely to cause some discomfort in terms of programme ownership and commitment, such variations were hardly surprising. This could simply be pointers to the deep-seated differences in the perception of what 'participation in design' entails and of the degree to which stakeholders feel participation is happening in accordance

with the perceptions they hold. The higher stakeholder levels could be thinking issues of design as their preserve in the interest of prudence and time-efficiency; with everyone else only coming in at appropriate stages of the process. Lower-level stakeholders, meanwhile, may view involvement as their legitimate right to influence the direction of the programme; thus viewing any attempts to sideline them as denial of that right. This appears to get down to the issues of power-relations between the policy maker and policy implementer

Such variations have the potential to bring about tension and frustrate smooth delivery of programmes, thereby undermining opportunities to education that these programmes are seeking to promote. These are issues that would do well to form the agenda of stakeholder consultative meeting at which issues of design are unpacked and roles and responsibilities defined, discussed and clarified for the development of a common understanding.

Findings also show that implementer involvement depended on the nature of the programme being implemented. Some programmes, such as SIG, that were placed in the hands of a few, are by their nature bound to experience a 'closed design'. This is in contrast to those programmes such as BEAM that are characterised by selection sensitivities that bring to the fore realities of inclusion and exclusion. This finding runs in sync with those of similar studies that show the varied nature of participation as a function of the type and nature of the programme. Caution needs to be exercised in navigating issues of participation as this can make or break the success of the programme.

5.5.1.3 Relationship between new and existing programmes

The relationship that each new programme enjoys with already existing programmes is a strategy that is often used to promote smooth and seamless delivery and enhance sustainability. It was important to assess the extent to which the Government had utilised this strategy? In addition, it was also important to know the effect that the current arrangements were having on the delivery of social protection programmes that seek to promote vulnerable children's right to education.

The findings revealed how all the current programmes had a strong alignment with the country's constitution that was anchored on human rights values as well as on various Acts, policies and programmes on the ground. Although all respondent levels 'felt' these linkages, it was left to higher level officials to provide convincing arguments and illustrations of these linkages, while those at lower levels (communities and beneficiaries) could only illustrate with specific examples. In terms of relevance, therefore, the current social protection programmes in Mwenezi were not implemented in isolation but, consciously or unconsciously, fed into the overall country's broader strategic direction.

This study result finds support from the writings of Kolev et al (2019) who posit that sound and well-conceived social protection initiatives do not, and should not, operate in silos but integrate into the broader framework in order to permit efficient systemisation and achieve long term sustainability.

Findings from this study also confirm complementarities between one programme and the other in a mutually reinforcing manner, even those that were implemented by non-state actors. The Programme of support for orphans and vulnerable children as well as the National Case Management System were cited as typical examples that were currently on the ground nationally and in which the different programmes in Mwenezi find a home. These synergies emanate from the perception of vulnerability as a complex phenomenon whose answer will not be found in siloed but integrated programming to bring about the desired impact.

As part of the process of ground truthing the complementariness of programmes, the study observed and probed on practices across different programmes and found that situations varied from site to site, much of it depending on the leadership. The finding is well supported by Chititoor (2012), who says that role of leadership is to make critical decisions in the interest of the organisation. Notably, decisions to silo programmes and invoke 'one child, one benefit' decrees that characterised some school sites showed lack of sensitivity to the complex needs of some children. Although this was meant to distribute assistance evenly, this did not take into consideration the case of those children with multiple needs. Eventually, circumstances forced some of the children to attend school irregularly and eventually dropped out, thus denying them a full right to education. This finding, together with its consequences, is congruent with

those by National Research Council and National Academy of Education (2011). In his study of reasons why American students leave school before graduation, he found lack of credits and falling behind to be the most dominant. However, he cited “a combination of factors” as an area of concern. This confirms the reality that the propensity to dropout may not be driven by a single factor. The case of Mwenezi, where it has already been found that children are affected by bundles of factors, it may be foolhardy to adopt the ‘one child, one benefit’ policy.

5.5.2 Provision of policy and operational guidelines

Findings on provision of policy and operational guidelines are discussed under social protection policy framework, operational guidelines, provision of operational and follow-up support.

5.5.2.1 Social protection policy framework

From the findings of the current study, it was established that Zimbabwe has developed a policy framework whose purpose was to guide provision of social protection services. The framework, housed in the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Services, provides guidelines on management, coordination, monitoring and evaluation of social protection programmes. This was considered a progressive step for which the country deserves applause, laying as it does the foundations for a harmonised and well-coordinated delivery effort (ILO, 2014). The situation on the ground showed that the draft framework was unknown outside District level circles. Even at that level, the framework was still ‘unavailable’ because dissemination had not been officially done. As a result, social protection providers continued to grope for the original fragmented guidelines that sit in different documents.

The harmonizing effect of a consolidated framework need not be over-emphasised. Their absence for public use was regretted. Amadel (2016) underscores the importance of having the comprehensive policy framework because *“such policies and procedures are a hallmark of organisational maturity. They provide something like a strategic vision, identifying what a risk and control environment should look like. This helps to shape direction, so an organisation can move from a “check-the-box,*

compliance-first mindset to one that recognises risk management as a critical business discipline”.

In the absence of these guiding documents, the fragmented approach is likely to persist. Invariably, service delivery is compromised as different standards are likely to be in use. In the context of the current study, the dreaded negative impact is diminished capacity for smooth delivery of those services intended to promote and protect the right to education for vulnerable children.

5.5.2.2 Operational guidelines

Outside the broader social protection guiding framework, the next level of support is expected to come from programme-specific guidelines that seek to provide more operational guidance on the ‘what and how’ of providing social protection services under each programme. The study took interest on whether, and to what extent, such operational guidelines had been provided and how these were working. Findings of this study showed that such guidelines were available for BEAM (courtesy of Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare), SFP and SIG (courtesy of Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education). Copies availed by Ministries showed the following synopsis of contents:

School Feeding Programme

The guidelines stipulate the rationale and benefits of SFP, operational issues such as constituting a school feeding committee, compliance with public health regulatory requirements (medical fitness) for food handlers and security concerns (police clearance), duty roster and definition of roles and responsibilities, planning of school meals, use of local nutritious indigenous foods, monitoring and evaluation and record keeping (Secretary’s Circular of 2016). Although these were not readily available at school sites, there was ample appreciation of the contents in schools and communities. However, basic operational areas such as health compliance checks and police clearance requirements were not always practiced, putting children at risk in terms of health and security.

School Improvement Guidelines

School improvement guidelines stipulate the purpose, structures and roles and responsibilities at all levels of the education system (Headquarters, Provincial, and District and School levels). The guidelines also provide guidance on eligible and non-eligible expenditure, to ensure the funds are used for the purpose for which they are meant. Monitoring and evaluation guidelines are also provided for while selection criteria are provided for schools rather than individual learners. Much as this is useful guidance on how to utilise the funds in promoting the education rights of all children in the schools, these were not availed at the school sites visited, except one. However, the school heads and some SDCs committee members appeared knowledgeable regarding its contents. The exact purpose for which the funds are used varied from school to school. In some cases decisions made addressed gaps in such areas as textbook provision and stationery. However, it was always going to be difficult for the funding to cover every need at every school.

Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM)

The BEAM guidelines were by far the most comprehensive. They provide for an eloquent rationale and operational framework for BEAM with a clear outline of the targeting criteria and composition of selection committee. In addition, they also clarify implementation modalities, capacity development, institutional arrangements and monitoring and evaluation requirements. Whereas the framework was clear enough, notable gaps include non-availability in schools, thus leading to deviation from what is laid out in terms of targeting and selection. For that reason, this has become a hotly contested area.

5.5.2.3 Provision of operational and follow-up support

The provision of guidelines was a necessity but not sufficient condition for smooth beneficiary of social protection programmes. The ease with which implementers could interpret and apply the guidelines was equally important. School heads and teachers indicated that, in spite of the absence of copies of guidelines in their schools, they were able to apply the principles, much of which were covered during training and participation in some fit-for-purpose meetings that they had attended.

The study also established that, with the exception of a few SDC members, the generality of communities had little access to, and knowledge of, the operational guidelines, neither were they privileged to participate in the occasional meetings to reflect on those guidelines. However, they expressed the view that knowledge of the guidelines would help them, at the very minimum, to detect if and when these were violated by selection committees, especially against the backdrop of concerns and suspicions that contamination was creeping into selection processes. Inevitably, 'a tainted' selection process adversely affects accountability in regard to implementation of social protection programmes.

Once guidelines are provided, the expectation is that follow-up support is provided in order to assess how these were being utilised in order to render appropriate support. Although district-level government officials felt they were doing their best in carrying out this function in spite of limited resources, the study findings pointed to limited post-guidelines support. Results of a similar study by Solomon (2014) concluded that limited support to be a factor undermining effective delivery of programmes and implementer frustrations got heightened when support expectations were not met.



5.5.3 Management and coordination

Social protection programmes are designed and implemented via a complex web of programmes and providers. Coordination is of the essence in order to manage harmonisation of that complexity. Effective coordination results in cohesive and streamlined systems, programmes and interventions. The findings of this study on management and coordination are discussed in this section.

5.5.3.1 Knowledge of the critical stakeholders

Coordination cannot be meaningful without sound knowledge of the key stakeholders and partners (Megdal, Eden & Shamir, 2017). Does the managing organisation know these critical partners and to what extent are stakeholders knowledgeable about their buddies in the provision of social protection services? These questions guided this part of the discussion.

The study found that the Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Services, the managing Ministry of Social Protection provision, was knowledgeable about who the various partners were. The DSWO was able to identify them as sister Government Ministries, Civil Society, school personnel and communities. These stakeholders were also able to identify a number of other actors in the social protection delivery process. Knowledge of critical partners is an important start for successful collaboration. Studies have shown that successful coordinated programming depends on such partnerships (Megdal, Eden & Shamir, 2017.).

Whereas knowledge of critical partners is necessary, it is not a sufficient condition for successful work with them. Much depends on how the Ministry is able to manage them. One mechanism of such coordination is regular, functional and purposeful meetings of the different stakeholders. The issues of management and coordination systems and strategies as they related to facilitating improved access to benefits for vulnerable children came under the spotlight in this study.



5.5.3.2 Institutional arrangements

A simple analysis of institutional arrangements for social protection delivery revealed a very complex web. The Ministry of Labour and Social Services was in charge of Social Protection coordination, in collaboration with sister Ministries. However, programmes such as SIG appeared to sideline that institutional structure and was solely handled by the Education Ministry. Meanwhile, the responsible authorities for most schools was Mwenezi Rural District Council, with Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) owning a small number of schools (Government Schools). The District Administrator was in charge of overall district administration at the political level.

According to respondents, the arrangement was complex because each Ministry had a stake in the running of these schools and programmes. The professional delivery of learning fell under MoPSE, while the main responsible authority was the Rural District Council with the District Administrator overall head of district whose authorisation for entry into the district was always a requirement.

It goes without saying that both horizontal and vertical coordination between Ministries, if well managed, are enabling factors for delivery of social protection. However, the silo mentality often sets in, compromising the good coordination intentions (United Nations Development Programme, 2013). Resultantly, fragmentation gets sustained, depending on the channel through which assistance is coming. The need for lengthy consultations introduces bureaucracy that makes education support effort less efficient. Much sensitisation and clear role definitions are needed to ensure harmony and focused delivery by each stakeholder/partner.

The findings of this study are supported by United Nations Development Programme (2013) which posits that when these silo tendencies exist, the likelihood of turf wars gets higher, a situation that tends to taint the effective implementation process of programmes and timely assistance of beneficiaries.

5.5.3.3 Facilitation of stakeholder coordination platforms

In respect of government efforts to create platforms for stakeholder coordination, communication is the sine qua non for success and can be effected in various ways. The study found convergence on physical meetings as the commonest mechanism to facilitate such communication and coordination. This finding aligned with some views in the literature that believe in investing in the value of face to face meetings (Keith, 2016). However, these were considered few and far between, a situation that made meaningful coordination difficult. Programmes would go for long periods without an injection of new ideas and yet, according to Keith (2016), if lapses between meetings are allowed to set in, *work is likely to suffer as the team scatters in different directions*. There was an admission and confirmation that management and coordination efforts were undermined by the absence of regular meetings to facilitate cross-learning and table policy guidelines. Resource constraints were cited as the main contributory factor to this slump in activities. This is not unique to the situation in Mwenezi as, elsewhere, literature already alludes to resource constraints hamstringing the scale and scope of such activities (Chronicle, August 20, 2011). Although local meetings do take place more often, they can never replace the value of district-level coordination meetings.

The study also found that, besides physical meetings, social media platforms were commonplace as innovative mechanisms that defied geographical space between individuals or groups. WhatsApp groups had reportedly been formed for school heads, Civil Society Organisations and other community groups. Information was shared on these platforms. However, this mechanism denied the groups the intense discussions that characterise physical meetings. The value of meetings, physical or virtual, cannot be over-emphasised. In the case of the current study, some stakeholders wanted to be kept in the loop and understand the referral opportunities for vulnerable children they came across. Due to the minimal meeting opportunities among stakeholders, optimal enhancement of the right to education, which such meetings were expected to champion, was constrained.

5.5.3.4 Benefits of coordination efforts

The study sought to determine, from perspectives of different respondent categories, the extent to which they felt government coordination efforts were translating into benefits for the targeted vulnerable children. It will be recalled that coordination efforts embrace a sound knowledge of who the social protection partners were, their strengths and competences and their ability to engage via platforms created by the coordinating stakeholders. This study took a holistic view of coordination.

The study found that knowledge of stakeholders' niche areas, though limited, enabled coordinators to tap into such expertise and deploy it appropriately; either through training others or shooting problems at localised levels. This was confirmed by most heads, teachers and community representatives as a benefit that they expected to trickle down to beneficiaries in the form of better service in order to keep them in school and experience maximum learning.

Though limited, the study also found strong conviction among heads and teachers that bringing stakeholders together, through the few coordination meetings held, had resulted in improved benefits for targeted groups. As and when these meetings did take place, sharing information, experiences and challenges being experienced took centre stage resulting in sharpening each organisation for more effective delivery of programmes. In support is the argument by World Health Organisation (n.d) - that

coordination was an enabler of opportunities to share their views, needs and knowledge as well as promotion of cooperation while minimising conflicts. As already pointed out, the engagements were regrettably not as regular as desired with respondents suggesting that community involvement and better government support were needed to reap better benefits. Holmes et al (2018) stress on the benefits of community involvement as part of the coordination system and decried lack of the same as undermining the smooth flow of coordination processes.

5.5.4 Capacity Development

This section discusses the findings of the study on Capacity development as a key strategy for enhancing better efficiency in delivering social protection services. The discussion focusses on the areas of training support and resource mobilisation.

5.5.4.1 Provision of training support



Human Resources Development is one sure way to guarantee sustainable capacity in organisations that deliver services. The training function, seeking to guarantee acquisition of knowledge and skills of acceptable quality, is central to that effort. The study sought to assess provision of such support and areas considered were provision of training guidelines and provision of logistical and other support.

The study found that training guidelines had been developed for all main programmes (BEAM, SFP and SIG). Besides these, both teachers and school heads also identified Guidance and Counselling guidelines provided by MoPSE in the form of a syllabus in line with the new curriculum. These came in the form of manuals and circulars or hand-outs produced by Government Ministries. According to (UNICEF, 2013), this is an important point of departure that should help to standardise training efforts at the district, school and community levels for improved service delivery.

Whereas training guidelines were reportedly developed, the intended users such as SDC representatives, Village Health Officials (for school Feeding and Health Education) and Civil Society partners reported that they had not received these training guidelines. Logistical hiccups were blamed for this situation, meaning that

trainers had to rely on the notes they took during their own training. The consequences are those of variations in the manner of training deliveries, a situation that could have negative implications for training delivery in communities (<http://muskie.usm.maine.edu/helpkids/rcpdfs/trainstandards.pdf>). These findings further imply that when social protection programmes are being implemented to promote the right to education, there may be variances from expected practices.

Besides provision of training manuals, the study found that district level support efforts had been provided; including; (a) provision of transport and subsistence allowances for trainers and participants to and from training venues, (b) assigned officials to sit-in and render the necessary support during trainings and (c) availing schools as training venues to reduce training costs. These were considered some of the incentives to maximise attendance and participation while reducing costs. Buttressing this finding is a study by Diwan et al (2015) , that showed that attendance and participation improved when incentives (such as reducing travel distance and time to venue and diversion from competing priorities) were provided. Subsequent to such participation is the likely increase morale and zeal to implement what has been taught.

While district-level training support was availed, albeit as one-off episodes or only restricted to a few areas, subsequent (community level) training did not receive similar support. Respondents blamed such lack of support as being responsible for apathy and lack of seriousness while the training itself was low quality. Again, lack of resources was cited as the major reason. The combination of lack of resources and insufficient commitment to training is a worrying one in delivering social protection programmes. On the one hand, understanding the programmes may be diminished (out of inadequate training) and on the other lack of resources provides for insufficient support for the activities of the programme.

Post-training follow-up, where it is provided, seeks to allow for on-the spot support in respect of challenges being encountered in terms of application of acquired knowledge and skills. The study found that such support was, at best, subdued or otherwise lacking, lack of resources being cited as the main reason for inability to provide the support. The absence of this support system deprives the provision of the services of the expected quality. Respondents felt this was an area for improvement since this was meant not only to support those trained but also new recruits to the training efforts.

The entire training support effort for implementers and beneficiaries is fraught with inadequate resources to enable effective training to take place. Such lacklustre efforts can only result in ineffective delivery at the district level, the consequence of which is poor delivery of social protection programmes. Undoubtedly, the rights of vulnerable children are undermined in the process.

5.5.4.2 Resource mobilisation and distribution

A major form of capacitation is the mobilisation and provision of resources for social protection programmes, so that those tasked with implementation find their task easier. In accordance with rights based programming, the government as the main duty bearer, is expected to take the lead in these efforts. There was consensus that the levels of support were far from adequate for a sector as important as education. This study finding is congruent with the general tone that resource levels in most African countries are consistently inadequate (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013). Invariably, this is bound to affect level of resources that can be directed to those programmes that seek to support the right to education for vulnerable children.

It was also found that in order to bolster its resource capacity to support such programmes, the government had exercised its prerogative and roped in other partners from the NGO sector, private sector and the community (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013; Holmes, 2010). This is because development partners' financial commitments will be vital for the predictable implementation of social protection programmes..." (Ministry of Planning and Economic Affairs, 2013:73).

5.5.5 Monitoring and evaluation support

Monitoring and evaluation are the cornerstones of any programme that purports to be effective. The presumption is that those delivering social protection programmes already have the requisite monitoring and evaluation skills. However, this is not always the case, hence the need for Government to provide implementers with support to enable them to execute the monitoring and evaluation effectively. Findings on the nature, scope and quality of support are discussed in this section.

5.5.5.1 Monitoring and evaluation guidance

A rather mixed picture emerges on provision of monitoring and evaluation guidelines. Ministry officials indicated that monitoring and evaluation guidelines were provided and that training on interpretation and use of the guidelines for selected teams had been conducted. In partial agreement, school heads and teachers indicated that, as far as they knew, guidelines had been provided for only one programme, BEAM. Although there is mention of guidelines that include mention of monitoring and evaluation, the school heads and teachers do not appear to 'feel it' on the ground.

There is consensus that the system was fraught with challenges on the ground, including those related to availability of data, mechanisms of tracking progress and utilisation of findings. These gaps point to a weak monitoring and evaluation system for programmes of such high national importance, a finding consistent with the general perception that the developing countries, the desire for performance measurement is characterised by weak systems (Sharma, 2017). However, evidence elsewhere shows that some countries are making good strides. Findings of the evaluation Cash Transfer Programme in Kenya revealed implementation of strong internal monitoring system, alongside an external evaluation component that provided the responsible Ministries with data to make important modifications (Bryant, 2009). Meanwhile, the Bolsa Familia programme in Brazil shows that rigorous data collection is undertaken as a matter of course with the remit extending to other research activities over and above targeted programmes (Hellman, 2015).

A related level of support was development of a monitoring system to track progress on specified indicators and check specific performance indicators and the levels to which they are being attained. It was understood that some effort had gone into documentation and developing data collection tools for progress monitoring, mainly at the school rather than community level. However, it demonstrates an awareness of the data needs in running programmes. The finding coincides with the practices in Brazilian social programmes where sets of tools were developed for data collection to monitor progress (Hellman, 2015).

The findings show that the delivery of social protection programmes has much to benefit from the experience of similar programmes across the globe where monitoring and evaluation processes are taken a lot more seriously.

5.5.5.2 Provision of follow-up field support

The provision of follow up field support was confirmed by teachers and school heads who indicated that guidelines were provided and training undertaken for BEAM. However, they bemoaned the 'low' provision of monitoring support. Although they confirmed that they themselves had been part of the teams that were trained, alongside other committee members, they felt that follow up field support was inconsistent. Whether guidelines have been provided or not, the follow-up efforts have always proved invaluable for Government lead agencies. This brings confidence to those implementing programmes. While follow up support for technical and administrative backstopping, by Government officials were said to be subdued. By their own admission, Government officials confirmed that the follow up mechanism was limited by resource constraints.

Given the realities on the ground, the message from across the divide of respondent groups was clear. While it may sound like just another wish-list, school heads, teachers, community groups and stakeholders alike agree on the need to increase the level of follow up support mechanisms from Government. It was further added that this should be done on a more defined and regular basis for the purpose of identifying challenges and bottlenecks and providing the necessary support through the infusion of more resources in order to achieve a more robust monitoring support framework.

5.6 Summary

This chapter discussed the findings of the study, which were undertaken according to the themes guided by research questions and in the context of what was already known or what has already been found in research on the issues of child vulnerability and social protection programmes and the extent to which the programmes support the right to education.

The major findings that emerged from the study revealed considerable overlap in understanding of the concept of child vulnerability, including its sources and impact on right to education. A diverse range of programmes meant to respond to the vulnerabilities was also brought under discussion. The discussion also examined several strategies used by schools and other service providers in implementing social protection programme as well as those that the government system utilises to support programme implementers.

The succeeding chapter provides a summary of the study, its main conclusions and proffers recommendations in light of the findings of the study. The chapter critiques the current social protection delivery model and proposes a model that can be adopted for the effective implementation of social protection programmes to better support the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi District.



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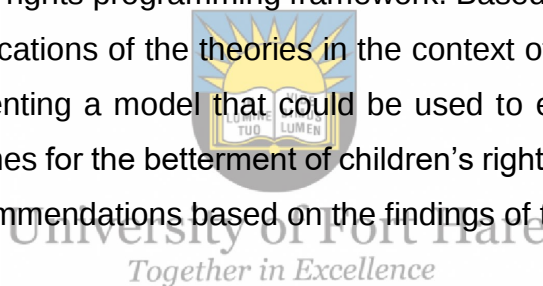
CHAPTER SIX

6 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The current chapter provides a summary of the study findings in accordance with the research questions set at the commencement of the study. It seeks to address how the research questions on social protection as a mechanism for promoting the rights of vulnerable children in Mwenezi district of Zimbabwe have been answered.

At the outset the study was anchored by the Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems theory as well as the rights programming framework. Based on the findings, this study sought to draw implications of the theories in the context of the findings of the study, with a view to presenting a model that could be used to enhance delivery of social protection programmes for the betterment of children's right to education. The chapter concludes with recommendations based on the findings of the study.



6.2 Summary of research findings

The study took off from a position that, due to their vulnerability, too many children were losing out on their right to education; Mwenezi being singled out as the district of focus. The purpose of the study was to take a closer look at the overall mechanisms and interrogate their functionality, usefulness and efficacy in promoting the right to education in conjunction with the existing social protection programmes. It was hoped that the findings would inform review of practices for better support to the education needs for vulnerable children in the district while stimulating further thought and reflection on the same.

6.2.1 Understanding child vulnerability

Child vulnerability was the anchor pin for this study. An analysis of participant's understanding of the concept would go a long way in creating a common focus and facilitate more effective selection of beneficiaries under different programmes. The findings from this study revealed considerable converge of what characterises a vulnerable child. Expressions of defenselessness, exposure, abuse and susceptibility reverberated from all angles. Children's perception was the most intriguing as they spoke of 'diminished capacity' to fend or defend themselves increasing their chances of vulnerability. The plight of children left by parents who went job hunting in South Africa was the commonest example from children.

The study confirmed the well-known sources and causes of vulnerability, the home being cited as the most prevalent due to parental absence. Other external sources such as the community were also cited, though the school and classroom as well as children's own personality and disposition were also given as examples.

It also emerged from this study that there were subtle perceptual variations regarding what constitutes the most vulnerable, a situation that influences the nature of responses that could confront the vulnerability of learners. There was consensus in the understanding that whenever, the child was rendered vulnerable, the chances of accessing and participation in educational pursuits ranged from diminished to nil.

6.2.2 Prevailing social protection programmes

The discussion began with what sounded like 'someone has to do something about the education of vulnerable children'. It ended with each group reminding itself that the programmes were already on the ground, pursuing various options that included getting children to school, keep them in school and facilitate meaningful learning.

The study found that there were already implemented programmes. These were exemplified by mention of BEAM, SIG, SFP and Guidance and Counseling (by Government) as well as smaller ones that took a focus on only a few schools or modes of support (such as uniforms). Diverse programmes that were currently running were

identified, including by government, civil society, communities, private sector and individuals. They varied in scope and size and the ability to access them also varied by location and thrust. A common point was that the response was far from enough for the massive demand for support.

The findings showed that the level of knowledge about programmes varied according to one's standing in society. Communities and children were, as expected, the least knowledgeable. A further finding was one related to the perception that social protection were about tangible support such as infrastructure and budgets. These findings were an indicator that communities were not aware that some of the support they provide constituted social protection interventions.

6.2.3 Strategies used by schools and other social protection providers in implementing social protection programmes to support the right to education for vulnerable children

A number of groups are at the helm of implementation in the schools and communities. Since social protection is about people and their interactions, some of the strategies include building social networks, collaborations and interactions with communities and beneficiaries. What follows are some of the strategies that implementers use to make them contribute more meaningfully to the plight of vulnerable children.

6.2.3.1 Awareness creation

The value of awareness creation was acknowledged across all respondent categories. If people have to benefit from the programmes, they have to know about them. By implication, awareness creation of all identified social protection programmes targeting right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi was a pre-requisite for their delivery.

The study established that there was no laid down procedure to bring that awareness to the people, even though efforts were made at various levels. They depended on the nature of the programme and this also varied from one place to another. Whereas this brings about an element of diversity that would take care of local circumstances, the

risk of gaps arising from communication challenges remained real. Communities generally expressed disquiet over being sidelined in awareness creation efforts.

6.2.3.2 Beneficiary targeting and selection

It was found from this study that the necessity of targeting and selection was not in dispute; so was the use of clear selection criteria developed for the purpose. However, it was established that the operationalisation of guidelines was presenting gaps that made the selection process lose its purpose. On the one hand, when guidelines are not available in the places where they are meant to or are unclear to those who are supposed to use them, implementers get denied the guidance that guidelines are supposed to bring.

Meanwhile, when the functioning of the elected committees that are tasked with implementing selection processes are consistently queried and seen as lacking transparency particularly during the selection process and training to implement the programmes, this presents a serious drawback to the process. The allegations made regarding perceived malpractices might need to be investigated fully to restore community and beneficiary confidence. By taking such action, the prospects of support to children's right to education becomes brighter.

6.2.3.3 Networking and collaboration

The findings on the issue of networking and collaboration showed that the strategy had been largely used. However, the question was who the networks were. The challenge of what are considered functional networks arose, including sentiments that collaboration and networking should be prioritised. One of the key challenges associated with networking with the Government officers was that of delays, especially when they insist on being included in the implementation process or training programmes yet, they may not have capacity to attend all activities.

6.2.3.4 Training

Training, as an important mechanism for bringing enlightenment to implementers, communities and beneficiaries was subjected to assessment in relation to current social protection programmes. The findings pointed to an agreed position on the importance and necessity of training.

Trainings sought to equip project participants with the know-how on delivering social protection programmes. The findings confirmed some time and effort having been invested into training and those that participated confirming that these trainings had been useful in terms of content and relevant in terms of approach. However, emerging from the study was that such training most featured in some programmes such as BEAM as compared to other programmes on the ground. This implies that participants got better equipped to manage some programmes than others.

6.2.3.5 Monitoring



Monitoring purpose and usefulness was confirmed by all groups which participated in the study. The practice was common in all schools that were running social protection programmes and the discussions painted the picture of a system that was functioning well. Local level monitoring was the strategy for enforcing compliance and detection of problems for immediate solution. Designated teachers and members of the SDC committees were responsible for school-based monitoring. However, the workload on the part of teachers and the voluntary nature of SDC participation was revealed as some of conflicts to an otherwise good process. Meanwhile, children and community groups, on their part, confirmed the challenges associated with day to day monitoring. They were of the view that this was an entirely voluntary process and not having been included from the beginning.

6.2.4 Strategies used by the Government system to support schools and other providers to deliver social protection programmes to promote the right to education for vulnerable children

6.2.4.1 Programme design

6.2.4.1.1 Stakeholder participation in programme design

The study established that stakeholder participation in programme design processes was widely accepted as an important strategy for enhancing programme implementation. The value of the participation is realised in smoothness of delivery and outcomes. The study also identified various stakeholder categories as key participants for the enhancement of a balanced view. However, children were omitted from the list of participants, even by the children themselves. The study also revealed mixed views on the degree to which stakeholders had actually participated; with higher-level stakeholders rating it highly while those at the lower end (community-level) felt that they had been systematically marginalised.

The study also found that the nature and level of participation in design activities was highly linked with the nature of the programme itself. The more the programme touched people's lives, especially those that entail selection sensitivities or whose activities touch the lives of the children, the more it was likely to attract interest and a claim in design stakes.

6.2.4.1.2 Relationship between new and existing programmes

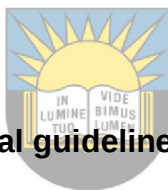
There was ample alignment between current programmes with policies and ongoing government programmes. There were also good opportunities for complementarity between and among different social protection programmes. However, while opportunities were evident, operationalisation on the ground tended to ignore the clear policy opportunities.

6.2.4.2 Policy and operational guidelines

Support from the perspective of providing policy guidelines was assessed at three levels: overall policy framework and provision of operational guidelines and provision of operational support.

6.2.4.2.1 Overall social protection policy framework

The findings show that the much-awaited guiding policy framework has been developed but not officially distributed because it was yet to be finalised despite being in draft form since 2015. Whereas the document shows much promise in providing guidance on matters of management and coordination, targeting and selection and monitoring and evaluation, among other key parameters, it was largely not available in the as the finalisation process was still in the pipeline. As a result, social protection providers continue to make reference to the original guidelines that sit in different documents.



6.2.4.2.2 Provision of operational guidelines

The findings of this study on operational guidelines concluded that these had been developed for BEAM, School Feeding Programme (SFP), School Improvement Grant (SIG) and Guidance and Counselling Programme. There were no written guidelines for privately owned social protection programmes. These were said to rely on guidelines for similar Government programmes. A close look at availed sets of guidelines showed the thrust of their support as centering on rationale, scope and purpose, objectives of the programmes, roles and responsibilities and more specific procedures for each programme. Whereas these guidelines were expected to provide a useful point of departure, they had not been widely distributed to schools, let alone to communities. In schools where they had been received, they had not been widely shared among staff, restricting source of knowledge to the training they had received to other staff members.

6.2.4.2.3 Provision of operational support

Although guidelines were generally not available in schools, the participants had been trained and the notes taken during training sessions were used as referral points in

understanding the expected outcomes in relation to the implementation of the social protection programmes and how such programmes enhance the right to education to children.

6.2.4.3 Management and coordination

According to Social Protection policy documents, responsibility for social protection lies with the Ministry of Labour and social Services, while other Ministries play a support role. In this study, the critical partners were known and identifiable by name. In spite of perceived benefits of consultative meetings, these were recorded as few and far between. Meanwhile, the institutional framework for delivery of social protection services remains defective.

6.2.4.3.1 Knowledge of critical partners

The study found that the Ministry was largely aware of the various implementing partners delivering key social protection programmes, except for the smaller ones operating in localised communities. Partners who operate in similar communities were aware of the roles and responsibilities of the all the stakeholders but beyond that, knowledge was limited. However, while all other stakeholders involved were mentioned, children were not, yet they are the reason for implementation of social protection programmes for promotion of their right to education

6.2.4.3.2 Institutional arrangements

The finding of the study revealed that while the Ministry of Labour and Social Services had the statutory obligation of coordinating social protection programmes, there were often delivery issues when other Ministries took charge of coordination of programmes over which they felt they had a technical mandate. The divisions of mandates among different Ministries also tended to blur clarity of roles for social protection delivery purposes. Fragmentation gets sustained, depending on the channel through which assistance is coming come. Consultations between Ministries tended to promote bureaucracy.

The two underpinning theories have implication for this scenario. Firstly, considering the ecological systems theory, the child remains at the centre while the Ministries lie between the systems. It is common cause that the apparent turbulence among the Ministries could be a meaning to respond to vulnerabilities may in the process introduce other vulnerabilities. It is equally true that the search for a solution in reaching the child with goods and services might face some interruptions brought about by the friction. Resultantly, the implication of the finding may be that of at best reducing efficiency in flow of benefits and in the worst case scenario deny the child the services, thereby undermining the education rights prospects of the beneficiary; the child.

The rights based perspective, on the other hand, sees the child as a rights holder, in this case the right to education. The Ministries are the duty bearers. Whereas, the rights holder expects to receive services and benefits from duty bearer, the friction, as per the finding of this study might interfere with the possibility to enjoy the right.



6.2.4.3.3 Stakeholder coordination platforms

In respect of government efforts to create platforms that bring together relevant stakeholders, the study found convergence on physical meetings as the commonest known and preferred mechanism. However, such meetings were few and far between to facilitate meaningful coordination. The study also found social media platforms to be gaining ground as a coordination mechanism, at least for conveyance of information.

6.2.4.3.4 Benefits of coordination efforts

The study found that one of the main benefits of coordination efforts was the ability to identify and tap into the expertise provided by other implementing partners. This laid the ground for networking that facilitated the referral mechanism.

The study also found strong conviction that the opportunities created through meetings, though limited, was an enabling factor in sharing information, experiences and challenges. This sharpened them for improved delivery of social protection to serve the education needs of vulnerable children in the district.

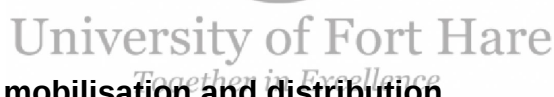
6.2.4.4 Capacity development

The findings of capacity development as a key strategy for improving efficiency in delivery of social protection services are summarised in the following section.

6.2.4.4.1 Provision of training support

The study found that in respect of training support, the Government system had developed training guidelines for the programmes that it supported. It was understood that this gesture was appreciated as an effort to standardise training practice. However, a further discussion with groups revealed these were yet to be received from those responsible for the training function.

It was understood those tasked to carry out the training had to make do with notes they had taken during their own training. The study also established that support had been availed via transport allowances and venues at no additional cost to the trainers or their institutions. Respondents bemoaned the lack of continuity in the training support processes. Further support that was expected in the form of post-training follow-up visits was lacking (As discussed in sections 2.5.4.1 and 5.5.4.1),



6.2.4.4.2 Resource mobilisation and distribution

Across the board, the study found that resources for social protection programmes were inadequate and could not satisfy demand. Much of the responsibility fell squarely with the government. Efforts to mobilise additional resources were underway but only few trickled in. The findings of the study are in line with the research studies which show that most developing countries are economically strained and this makes it difficult to offer adequate financial and human resource to their needy citizens (Browne, 2013; ILO, 2016).

6.2.4.5 Monitoring and monitoring support

6.2.4.5.1 Monitoring and evaluation guidance support

At the school level, this was reportedly taking place through school heads, their teachers and selected representatives from the community. This was based on

guidelines provided by Ministries of Social Welfare and MoPSE, some of which were documented but others were not. However, participation of the rest of the communities and child beneficiaries was not embraced.

6.2.4.5.2 Provision of follow up field support

The lack of regular follow up by Ministry officials tasked with the management of social protection programmes was seen as a missed opportunity to get good feedback from diverse sources as well as provide the much needed technical backstopping.

6.3 Conclusions

The study was set up to investigate the extent to which the social protection mechanism was supporting the right to education for vulnerable children in the district of Mwenezi in Zimbabwe. Overall, it was found that the programmes on the ground addressed some of the challenges faced by vulnerable children in accessing and participating in education activities. To a large extent, these programmes were positively contributing to this cause in terms of making education available, accessible and of acceptable quality. Besides availability of programmes, an analysis was also undertaken of the strategies that implementers used to deliver the programmes as well as those that the Government utilised to render support to implementers of programmes.

It was found that the delivery of programmes faced numerous challenges that stood in the way of their effectiveness. Among the key ones, was the issue of resources that fell short of meeting expectations of a large pool of children with complex needs and facing multiple vulnerabilities? The management systems for the resources that are currently available could do with much improvement in order to ensure that those currently covered are assisted in a timely manner. A number of areas were identified as needing improvement towards better management of these programmes.

A sore point for communities was how they felt systematically marginalised when it came to critical decisions about the design and implementation modalities, especially beneficiary selection processes. Besides, the management of the programmes, which

fell in the hands of a particular Ministry (Labour and social Services), attracted all sorts of criticisms ranging from capacity in coordinating programmes in which it does not have technical capacity nor was it visible on the ground when support was required. As a consequence, parallel structures have begun to manifest with technical Ministries implementing some programmes without reference to the coordinating Ministries. The donor community, ranging from the global to the ones at community level, were also side-stepping the coordinating Ministry resulting in them (donors) supporting programmes or even beneficiaries directly.

6.4 Social protection delivery – towards an alternative model

Based on the findings from this study, the study carries out a comparative analysis of what is and proposes what should be, beginning with what the researcher understands to be the current situation, based on the findings.



6.4.1 Current social protection delivery model

The current social protection delivery model is found to follow a hierarchical delivery model with the Ministry of Labour and Social Services sitting at the pinnacle. Figure 6.1 depicts the structure.

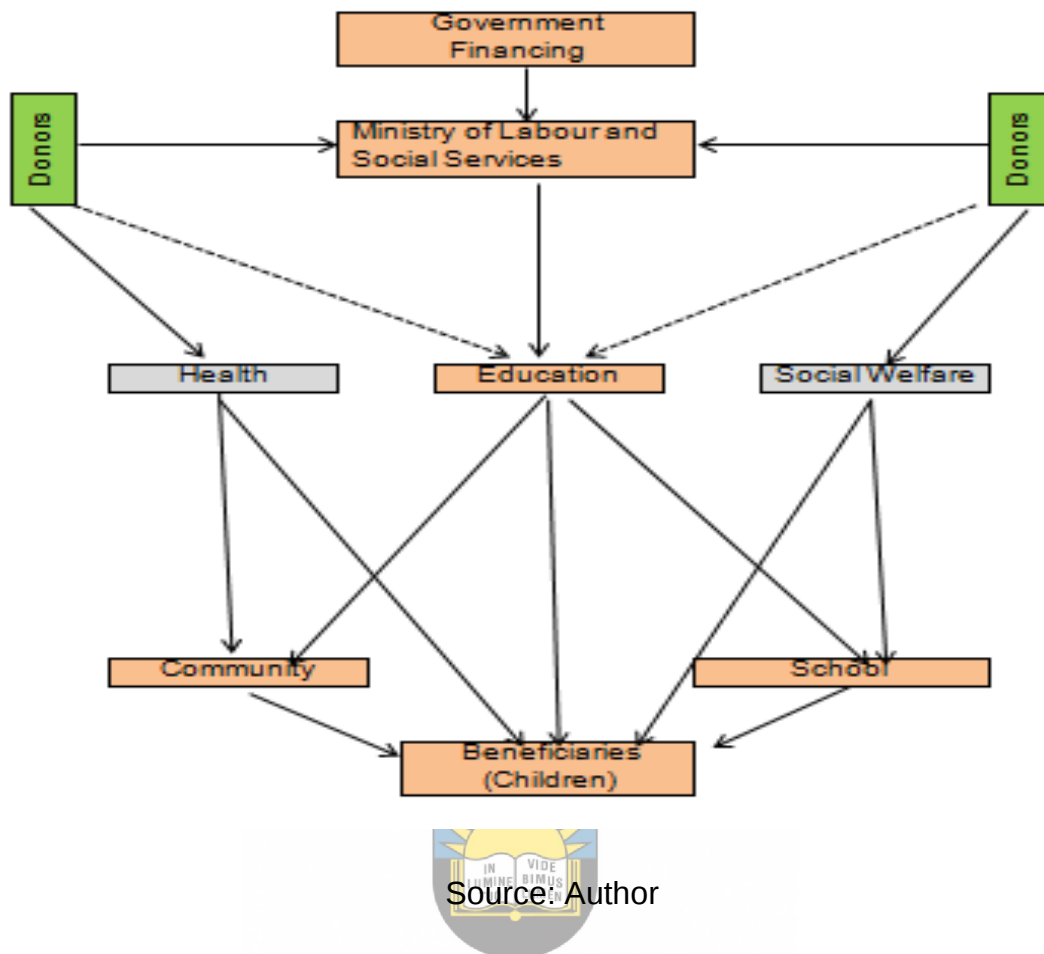


FIGURE 6-1: RELATIONSHIPS IN CURRENT SOCIAL PROTECTION DELIVERY MODEL

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The current model depicts a hierarchical structure with Ministry of Labour and Social Services seated at the helm, with different sister Ministries below it. The functioning of the structure sees a donor community that has been and continues to channel funding through that Ministry, even for programmes targeting different Ministries. Funding for education related matters, as already seen in this study, trickles down to the Education Ministry through the school system to the beneficiary child. However, there are a number of examples in which donors, local or global channel funds directly to the school and beneficiary. It is where the beneficiary child is sitting in the hierarchy that attracts much criticism.

The characterisation puts the vulnerable child at the bottom of the structure. Needless to say, this sends the wrong messages. According to observers, this explains why children are not considered important when it comes to decision-making. The findings showed consistent marginalisation from being considered as stakeholders to

‘absence’ from design structures. Besides, there has not been consistent provision of opportunity for feedback, especially from the children who had been or were beneficiaries of such programmes because they are going to be able to assist other stakeholder on the identification of exiting gaps and these could be redressed. Under these circumstances, the child is viewed as an object of charity rather than an active participant.

6.4.2 An alternative model for social protection delivery

Figure 6.2 shows the alternative and, according to the researcher, a better model. The discussion follows below the figure.

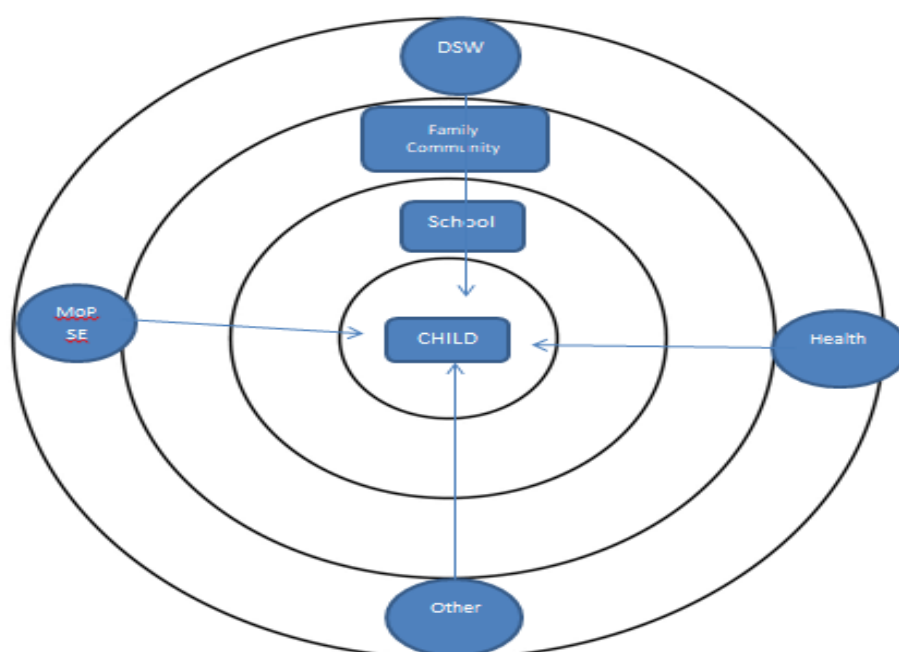


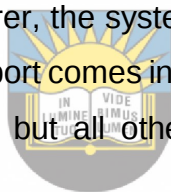
FIGURE 6-2: RELATIONSHIPS IN THE PROPOSED SOCIAL PROTECTION DELIVERY MODEL

The proposed model puts the child at the centre (‘the child is central’), with everyone else around him/her. The message this sends is already providing room for a positive perception. With the school, family and community closely around the child, it shows the centrality of these significant others to the life of the child. Even before any assistance comes from external sources, the child is already cushioned within a support system.

The different Ministry organs dotted around the child show how important they all are in their contribution to the welfare of the child. Donors sitting outside all these circles channel their funding through a Ministry of their choice for cutting bureaucracy and ensure the relevance of response.

It is noteworthy that this proposed model resembles in many ways Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems model which underpinned this study. The study findings support this theory in that the concentric circles are a reflection of various systems of support that the centre can influence but can also be influenced by the circles. Whole system is depicted by the various concentric circles. Social protection is a system of interrelationships. The learner interacts with teachers, parents, school heads and others in the community even before the more external intervention come into play.

The model is also consistent with the principles of rights based programming in that the child at the centre is the right holder – in this case the right to education. Although the state is the ultimate duty bearer, the systems of support that is already in motion depicts how social protection support comes in various way. It is not just about financial support from the external donor but all other means that include counseling and psychosocial support.



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6.5 Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on findings from this study:

6.5.1 Understanding child vulnerability

Although there is a general agreement of what it takes to be a vulnerable child, a more consultative approach in identifying beneficiaries is needed in order to arrive at consensus on the most deserving children for targeting and selection processes. That way, the right to education for vulnerable children is supported and protected.

6.5.2 Social protection programmes

Vulnerability is rife but the children have little information about availability of services. Relevant authorities need to carry out community sensitization of all programmes in order to open up options for referral and opportunities for service uptake in order to widen opportunities for educational support.

6.5.3 Strategies used by schools and other social protection providers in implementing social protection programmes in support of the right to education for vulnerable children

6.5.3.1 Awareness creation

At the higher levels, authorities that bring together programmes need to organise a minimum package of awareness-creation procedures to minimise gaps and possibilities of omission. The involvement of stakeholders, including communities, is necessary to ensure seamless efforts and guarantee ownership. The processes should be characterised by well-planned and effective follow-up processes to check on information flow. At a more local level, schools should work closely with community leadership structures in mobilising communities for awareness creation.

6.5.3.2 Beneficiary targeting and selection

In the widespread acceptance of necessity of targeting and selection, programme implementers have a good starting point to build the needed confidence in the systems. On one hand is the need to share information by opening up communication channels and on the other to be as consultative as possible in going about the sensitivities of the selection process.

Concerned Ministry Officials must ensure availability of guidelines in all school sites, conduct trainings for selection committees on interpretation of guidelines. With the education needs of the vulnerable child in mind, training on ethics and ethical conduct and community awareness on selection procedures should be done so that they (communities) become the watchdog of the process.

6.5.3.3 Training

Given the usefulness of training, organisers must ensure that it is provided across all programmes and for all relevant staff and not just a selected few. A centralised or cascade model in which the facilitator is a trained implementer, who is much more likely to understand and defend children's right to education, could be used.

6.5.4 Strategies used by the Government system to support schools and other providers to deliver social protection programmes to promote the right to education for vulnerable children

6.5.4.1 Programme design

6.5.4.1.1 Stakeholder participation

The government system must take advantage of the shared understanding of the importance of stakeholder participation to build cohesion and consensus among different stakeholder groups. This could be achieved through an all-stakeholder platform that will allow for interrogating the concept, the roles and responsibilities. This may assist to minimise friction and tension for the smooth flow of programmes.

The omission of children from the list of stakeholders was questionable though not surprising. Their views are needed if programmes are going to remain relevant. Accordingly, they must be brought into the fold with every stakeholder sensitisation of the value of their participation. Heads of schools and teachers should champion the cause of child participation in social protection processes.

6.5.4.1.2 Relationship with existing programmes

The Government must exploit alignment opportunities for synergies with existing programmes to enhance implementation of new programmes.

Through compliance monitoring and community sensitisation, the Government of Zimbabwe should take measures to ensure that synergies are not just seen on paper but that this translates to practice on the ground. This will ensure that there is practical

and mutual reinforcement that works towards more holistic service provision for the programmes that support the right to education.

6.5.4.2 Policy and operational guidelines

6.5.4.2.1 Overall policy framework

The Ministry of Labour and Social Services must move quickly to facilitate finalisation of the social protection policy framework documents and subsequently ensure its dissemination in order to ensure a reference point for social delivery framework.

6.5.4.2.2 Operational guidelines

The Ministry of Labour and Social Services, in consultation with Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, must avail operational guidelines for all current programmes to all schools in order to provide adequate reference support to social protection implementers. The Ministry should also ensure that appropriate training on their interpretation is availed for key stakeholders, including communities.

6.5.4.3 Management and coordination

6.5.4.3.1 Knowledge of critical partners

The coordinating Ministry could facilitate better awareness of all social protection delivery partners through such efforts as developing a provider database that should be easily accessible and shared widely in the district. This will help create awareness among providers as well as beneficiaries of what services are available and where are they located.

The marginalisation of children as stakeholders deprives the social protection mechanism of a source of ideas and feedback. Line Ministries and NGO partners could profile the contributions that children can make as an advocacy initiative to influence their participation.

6.5.4.3.2 Institutional arrangements

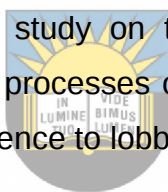
Some form of rationalisation in the manner programmes were managed is necessary. This might mean re-defining roles and responsibilities of key Government Ministries to remove the blur that characterises delivery of certain programmes.

6.5.4.3.3 Stakeholder coordination platforms

The healthy sharing of experiences can never be replaced by anything else. To the extent possible, the physical meeting must be facilitated, even if it means at longer but clear intervals. It could also mean formalisation of these at local structures with clear oversight roles of the relevant Ministries. Meanwhile, the social media route should be formalised to help sharing of information on an on-going basis.

6.5.4.3.4 Benefits of coordination efforts

A more concrete and focussed study on the benefits of coordination could be undertaken as part of evaluation processes of some social protection programmes. This will help to provide hard evidence to lobby for improved coordination efforts.



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6.5.4.4 Monitoring and evaluation

6.5.4.4.1 Monitoring and evaluation guidance support

Guidelines on conducting monitoring and evaluation are reportedly developed. However, the system was found wanting in terms of their dissemination and use. If implementers are truly going to implement an appropriate monitoring and evaluation system for the improved cause of the right to education, then guidelines should not just be developed but disseminated and users trained on their use.

6.5.4.4.2 Provision of follow up field support

The Ministry of Labour and Social Services, together with sister Ministries tasked to implement various social protection programmes should not take monitoring and evaluation support for granted. It must put in place structures at every level to ensure a functional follow up system that should serve to track progress and provide

backstopping support at the field level. The promotion of programmes in accordance with expectations and those vulnerable children truly benefit from the assistance in pursuit of their education rights.

6.5.4.5 Further research

Whereas the current has provided useful insights on the operational issues of delivery of social protection programmes and their relationship with right to education, further research should be undertaken in similar geographical areas and around sensitive issues such as beneficiary selection. This will help to better inform programming and other policy decisions.



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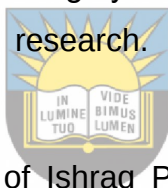
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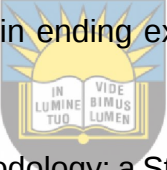
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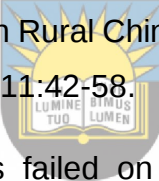
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The logo of the University of Fort Hare is a circular emblem. It features a central sun with rays, and the Latin motto 'LUMINE BTMUS LUMEN TUO' is inscribed within the circle. Below the emblem, the university's name 'University of Fort Hare' is written in a serif font, followed by the tagline 'Together in Excellence' in a smaller, italicized font.

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: REM301SSHU01

Project title: **Social protection as a Mechanism for Promoting the Right to Education for Vulnerable Children in Mwenezi District; Zimbabwe.**

Nature of Project: PhD in Education

Principal Researcher: Sibangani Shumba

Supervisor: Prof S Rembe

Co-supervisor: N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document;
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research.

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

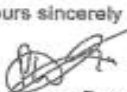
Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected;
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented;
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require;
 - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to.
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office.

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

 25/07/2018
Professor Pumla Dineo Gqola
Dean of Research

25 July 2018

APPENDIX B: INTRODUCTORY LETTER FROM UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

Faculty of Education
School of Further and Continuing
Education
Stewart Hall, Alice

Phone: Alice: 040602412
| Email: nmayiya@ufh.ac.za |



The Provincial Education Director
Masvingo Provincial Office
P. O. Box 89
Masvingo, Zimbabwe

Dear Sir,

Re: Permission to Collect Data: Mr S. Shumba (Student Number 201703815)

This is to confirm that Mr Shumba is pursuing PhD degree at the University of Fort Hare. His research title is "Social protection as a Mechanism for Promoting the Right to Education for Vulnerable Children in Zimbabwe: A case of Mwenezi District". He is supposed to collect data from the provincial and district offices and schools. Kindly grant him permission. I would also be grateful if you could kindly provide him with documents that may assist with information regarding the area of his study.

I would like to assure you that any information that will be collected will remain confidential and no name of a person will be disclosed. The student will ensure that he does not disrupt on going activities during the period he will be collecting data.

Sincerely



Prof. S. Rembe

Supervisor

Faculty of Education, Alice Campus
University of Fort Hare, South Africa

APPENDIX C: LETTER REQUESTING FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA

3516 Mainway Meadows

Waterfalls

Harare

ZIMBABWE

13 December 2017

The Permanent Secretary

Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education

P O Box CY 121

Causeway

Harare

Re: Application for Permission to Collect Data in Schools: Sibangani Shumba (Student: 201703815)

I am studying for a Doctor of Philosophy student in the Faculty of Education, Alice Campus, at the University of Fort Hare in South Africa. My studies require me to complete and submit a thesis. The title of my research is "Social Protection as a mechanism for Promoting the Right to Education for Vulnerable Children in Zimbabwe: A Case of Mwenezi District". In order to accomplish this, I am supposed to collect data in schools from the Provincial and District Offices as well as schools. I write to seek your permission to do the data collection in the said offices and schools.

I would like to assure you that any information collected will be treated in strict confidence and no names of persons involved will be disclosed. I also assure you that the data collection activities will not disrupt on going activities.

The names of the proposed schools for data collection are attached to this letter. I also attach the support letter from my Supervisor as well as copies of my National Registration and student Identity documents.

I thank you in advance for your support

Yours Sincerely


Sibangani Shumba

[Cell 0772 124 134]

APPENDIX D: PERMISSION LETTER TO CARRY OUT THE STUDY

*All communications should be addressed to
"The Secretary for Primary and Secondary
Education"
Telephone: 799914 and 705153
Telegraphic address: "EDUCATION"
Fax: 791923*


ZIMBABWE

Reference: C/426/3
Ministry of Primary and
Secondary Education
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
Harare
ZIMBABWE

20 December 2017

Sibangani Shumba
3516 Mainway Meadows
Waterfalls
Harare

**RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE:
MWENEZI DISTRICT**

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research in the above mentioned district schools in Masvingo Province on the research title:

**"SOCIAL PROTECTION AS A MECHANISM FOR PROMOTING THE RIGHT TO
EDUCATION FOR VULNERABLE CHILDREN IN ZIMBABWE: A CASE OF
MWENEZI"**

Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director Masvingo, who is responsible for the district which you want to involve in your research. You are required to seek consent of the parents/ guardians of all learners who will be involved in the research.

You are required to provide a copy of your final report to the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education.



Dr. S. J. Utete-Masango
SECRETARY FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION



APPENDIX E: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MWENEZI DISTRICT

ALL communications should be addressed to
"The Provincial Education Director for Primary and Secondary Education"
Telephone: 263585/264331
Fax: 039-263261



Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
P. O Box 89
Masvingo

29 January 2018

Sibangani Shumba
3516 Mainway Meadows
Waterfalls
Harare

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MWENEZI DISTRICT: MASVINGO PROVINCE

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research at the attached list of schools in Mwenezi District on the research title:

"SOCIAL PROTECTION AS A MECHANISM FOR PROMOTING THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION FOR VULNERABLE CHILDREN IN ZIMBABWE: A CASE OF MWENEZI"

Please be advised that the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education has granted permission to carry out your research.

You are also advised to liaise with the District Schools Inspector who is responsible for the schools which are part of the sample for your research.

prsmhike
Z. M. Chitiga
Provincial Education Director
MASVINGO PROVINCE



APPENDIX F: EDITOR'S CERTIFICATE

BBC Language and Editing Services

I, **BELLITA BANDA-CHITSAMATANGA** hereby confirm that I have proof read and edited the following **DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION** Thesis for

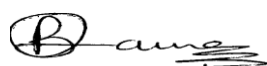
SIBANGANI SHUMBA (201703815)

TITLED

**SOCIAL PROTECTION AS A MECHANISM FOR PROMOTING
THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION FOR VULNERABLE CHILDREN IN
MWENEZI DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE**

The Windows 'Tracking' System was used to reflect my comments and suggested corrections for the author to action.

During the process of the proof reading and editing, the following changes were recommended: to expunge repetitions, correct tenses, punctuation, grammatical and sentence construction to enhance coherence. In addition suggestions were given concerning consistency in use of abbreviation, referencing style and capitalisation, use of current literature. Overall, recommendations were given by the editor for the author to effect all the suggested changes. Although greatest care was taken in the editing of this document, the final responsibility for the product rests with the author.



15/06/2019

Editor's signature

Date

Dr. B. B. Chitsamatanga

Language and Writing and Editing Consultant

Intermediate Certificate in Business English & Communication (Pitman Qualification, UK)

Email : chitsamatangabellitabanda@yahoo.com

CELL: 073 105 4838

APPENDIX G: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SCHOOL HEADS

Dear Respondent

I am a PhD student studying with the University of Fort Hare in South Africa. As part of the requirements of the degree programme, I am carrying out a study on: **Social Protection as a Mechanism for Promoting the Right to Education for Vulnerable Children in Mwenezi District, Zimbabwe**. The research is being undertaken in primary schools in Mwenezi district. The data gathered may help to improve delivery of social protection programmes, with consequent benefits for vulnerable children.

Your school has been selected to participate in this study. As head of school, you are being asked to respond to the questions in connection with the issues in the research topic. There are no wrong or right answers but your honest opinions on the issues will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you in advance

Sibangani Shumba

A. ABOUT SCHOOL:

Name of school		
Location of school		1= Growth point 2= Farm school 3= Resettlement 4= Communal 5=Other (specify)
Number of teachers	Male Female	
Teacher qualifications	Trained Untrained	
School enrolment	Boys Girls	
Number of classes		
Number of classrooms		
Number of toilets	For Boys For Girls	

B. ABOUT YOURSELF

B1. Your gender	1=Male 2=Female	
B2. Your age (in years, to nearest)		
B3. Highest educational qualifications	1= Teaching Certificate 2= Diploma in Education 3= BA/BSc/Bed 4= Masters 5= Other (specify)	
B4. How long have you been school head, overall?		
B5. How long have you been head at this school?		

C. ABOUT VULNERABILITY STATUS, FACILITIES AND CHILDREN IN SCHOOL

Part of this study has to do with identifying the various factors or conditions that trigger child vulnerability (exposure to risk or disadvantage, **including educational disadvantage**, and difficulty in coping with such negative situations). Sources of these vulnerabilities could be home or community from which they come, or the school or classroom that they attend or the condition of children themselves. Kindly provide your honest responses to each of the following questions on these issues:

C.1	What vulnerabilities affect children in your school? What are the triggers of these vulnerabilities (probe home/community triggers, school related and individual level triggers)?
C.2	How do these vulnerabilities affect children's opportunity to enrol, to remain in school, to participate in school activities and learn?
C.3	What special Social Protection programmes are in place to support or address these vulnerabilities (At school, teacher and child level) in your school and what specific issues or areas do these programmes target?
C.4	Who are the providers of these programmes (Government? Stakeholders? Communities?) And what different roles do they play in the delivery of the social protection programmes?
C.5	What are your thoughts and comments on adequacy and appropriateness of these intervention efforts? Are these promoting education provisions? ELABORATE with examples. What gaps, in your opinion, still remain?

D. STRATEGIES USED BY SCHOOLS AND OTHER SOCIAL PROTECTION PROVIDERS TO DELIVER PROGRAMMES THAT PROMOTE RIGHT TO EDUCATION

In this section we focus on the delivery of social assistance programmes that are currently running in the school system, purportedly in support of education activities. Our interest is to make an assessment of the effectiveness of the strategies that different providers use in the delivery

Awareness raising	
D1.	How important do you consider community awareness of the programmes for that support the education needs of vulnerable children?
D2.	How much effort has been invested in sharing information about the current programmes in your school, their objectives and how beneficiaries are able to access benefits?
D3.	Based on your experience with the current programmes, what improvements do you propose on the issue of awareness creation?
Targeting and selection	
D.4	What is the process followed in selecting beneficiaries? Who participates in the process and what criteria is followed (how well is this understood?)
D.5	How transparent has been the selection process? How much guidance is provided by the responsible Ministries? Are the guidelines understood by those meant to apply them?
D.6	Could anything be done to improve the selection and targeting process? What exactly needs to be in your view? [What measures need to be taken to improve targeting and selection?]

Community participation	
D.7	To what degree does community participate in delivery of programmes?
D.8	How meaningful has been the participation (including scope and quality)?
D.9	How else could community participation be enhanced (or should it)?
Networking and collaboration	
D.10	Has there been networking and collaboration with other social protection providers and participants? How exactly has this worked, if at all? How have you managed to network and collaborate with others in the area?
D.11	What benefits have networking and collaboration yielded in your work? Or missed opportunities by lack thereof?
D.12	What support has the government provided to enhance collaboration opportunities?
D.13	How might the networking and collaboration efforts be better managed in order to enhance better and more efficient delivery efforts?
Training	
D.14	What training has been provided to prepare for programme delivery, for how long and who were the participants?
D.15	To the extent that you are aware, how effective do you consider the training to have been?
D.16	What improvements do you recommend for more effective training support?
Monitoring	
D.17	How is the day to day monitoring of programmes organised?
D.18	How does this process help to ensure compliance and detection of problems?
D.19	When problems are detected, how is such information used for improvement? How adequate has monitoring support from the relevant authorities been?
D.20	How might the monitoring function be handled to ensure more effectiveness?

E. STRATEGIES USED BY THE GOVERNMENT SYSTEM TO SUPPORT SCHOOLS AND OTHER PROVIDERS TO BETTER DELIVER RIGHT-TO-EDUCATION SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES?

Design of programme	
E.1	What are the key components of the design of the programme? Who spearheaded the design and who were the major participants?
E.2	What improvements are necessary in the way the design was planned and executed? How to make sure programme design enables reach to children?
Provision of policy and operational guidance	
E.3	What mechanism has Government developed to provide guidance?
E.4	How effective are the mechanisms? What challenges are faced in enforcing the mechanisms?
E.5	What suggestions could processes benefit from?
Resource mobilisation & provision	
E.6	Financing options available?
E.7	How can investments made be sustained?
Management and coordination	
E.8	How has the government system been able to bring key stakeholders together at national, local and community levels?
E.9	What have been the observable benefits from these efforts (fragmented vs unified programming, leveraging, and efficiency gains)?
E.10	What have been the challenges faced and what improvements are possible?
Capacity Building	

E.11	How have you been equipped to effectively implement education SP programmes?
E.12	How do you empower programme implementers to effectively deliver programmes?
E.13	How effectively does your training support better delivery of programmes?
E.14	What improvements do you recommend in the training support provided?
Monitoring and support	
E.15	What systems are in place to ensure programme compliance and feedback (systems, frameworks, tools)?
E.16	How do these systems render support to those implementing programmes?
E.17	How well do you consider these systems in serving their purpose?
E.18	What improvements do you reckon these systems require for better support?
E.20	How are the SP programmes designed and managed? Who is involved? How stakeholders are perceived? What support provided? Monitoring, feedback/ complaints?

HOW MIGHT THE CURRENT SOCIAL PROTECTION DELIVERY FRAMEWORK (POLICIES AND PRACTICES) NEED TO ADAPT TO BETTER SUPPORT THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION?

Challenges
What challenges do schools and implementers face in implementation of Social Protection for right to education strategies?
What challenges does the government system face in supporting implementation of Social Protection for right to education programmes?
Recommendations
If you were to suggest solutions to delivery of social protection for right to education challenges, what would these be (policy, design, and implementation).?
Any other comments?
.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX H: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Dear Respondent

I am a PhD student studying with the University of Fort Hare in South Africa. As part of the requirements of the degree programme, I am carrying out a study on: **Social Protection as a Mechanism for Promoting the Right to Education for Vulnerable Children in Mwenezi District, Zimbabwe**. The research is being undertaken in primary schools in Mwenezi district. The data gathered may help to improve delivery of social protection programmes, with consequent benefits for vulnerable children.

Your school has been selected to participate in this study. You are one of the teachers selected to participate in the study. There are no wrong or right answers but your honest opinions on the issues will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you in advance

Sibangani Shumba

Please indicate your response with a tick (X), except when asked to fill in space provided.

A. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

A.1 ABOUT SCHOOL:

A.1.1 Name of school (in space provided)		
A.1.2 Location of school	1= Growth point 2= Farm school 3= Resettlement 4= Communal 5=Other (specify)	

A.2 ABOUT YOURSELF

A.2.1 Your gender	1=Male 2=Female	
A.2.2 Your age in years (in space provided)		
Highest educational qualifications	1= Teaching Certificate 2= Diploma in Education 3= BA/BSc/BEd 4= Masters 5= Other (specify)	
A.2.3 How long have you been teaching overall (after qualification)?		
A.2.4 How long have you been teaching at this school (post-qualification)?		

A.3 ABOUT YOUR CLASS

A.3.1 Grade you are teaching (in space provided)	
A.3.2 Class size	1=Girls

	2=Boys	
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B. CHILD VULNERABILITY IN MWENEZI DISTRICT (Sources, prevalence and effect on right to education)

Part of this study has to do with identifying the various factors or conditions that trigger child vulnerability (exposure to risk or disadvantage, **including educational disadvantage**, and difficulty in coping with such negative situations). Sources of these vulnerabilities could be home or community from which they come, or the school or classroom that they attend or the condition of children themselves. A number of these factors are listed in the tables that follow. Kindly provide an honest indication of how often this relates to children in your class. Feel free to add other factors that you think are not already on the list.

B1 Community or home related vulnerability	To what extent do you Agree with the following?				
	SA	A	Unsure	D	SD
Proneness to natural disasters					
Effect of negative traditional/cultural norms					
Victim of community violence situations					
Drug abuse and drug environment					
Domestic violence is common					
Chronic illness of caregiver or parent					
Poverty and unemployment					
Single or no parent					
Single or double orphanhood					
Home chores disturbs children schooling					
Living in child headed households					
Long walking distances to school					
Other					

What is the effect of these community or home factors on pupils' access to school, retention, participation and learning? Explain as fully as possible?

B2. school and classroom level factors as sources of vulnerability	To what extent do you agree with the				
	SA	A	Unsure	D	SD
Class size high, classroom overcrowded					
Classroom is needs major repairs					
School grounds not conducive and not safe					
Toilet facilities inadequate and not hygienic					
Hand washing facilities not available					
Sources of water unreliable and unsafe					
School/classroom bullying common among children					
Physical punishment (corporal punishment)					

Language of instruction discourages children					
School conditions not flexible for some children					
School/class based gender based violence common					
Sitting and writing spaces not adequate for class					
Education equipment (various) not adequate					
Textbooks not adequate and sharing ratio high					
Teaching supplies (chalk, charts) in short supply					
Stationery (exercise books, pens) inadequate					
Other					
What is the effect of these school and classroom factors on pupils' access to school, retention, participation and learning? Explain as fully as possible?					

B3. pupil level factors as sources of vulnerability	How often is this the case for children in your class?				
	Very often	Often	Unsure	Rarely	Very rarely
Are double orphans					
Are single orphans					
Are in foster care (with poor guardians)					
Are living in child headed households					
Are living in extremely poor household					
Living with unemployed breadwinner					
Live with chronically ill breadwinner					
Had never attended school					
Are living with disabilities					
Is a girl child					
Other					
What is the effect of these pupil related factors on pupils' access to school, retention, participation and learning? Explain as fully as possible?					

B4. Overall, what percentage of the children in your class do you consider vulnerable?	
--	--

B5. Which category of children in your class do you consider most vulnerable? Why?	
--	--

.....

.....

C. . EDUCATION-LINKED SOCIAL ASSISTANCE POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES IN MWENEZI DISTRICT

For each area identified and rated in B1, indicate what actions are being taken (or programmes being implemented) to address the concerns and action takers or programme implementers?

Category of issues	Actions/programmes	Program me providers
Home or community related issues		
School and/ or classroom related issues		
Individual		

D STRATEGIES USED BY SCHOOLS AND OTHER SOCIAL PROTECTION PROVIDERS TO DELIVER PROGRAMMES THAT PROMOTE RIGHT TO EDUCATION [assess strategies in relation to current assistance programmes]

This section is about various strategies that schools and other local (district) level providers use to implement programmes that seek to promote the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi. For each strategy, a number of statements have been listed. You are requested rate each statement, by placing a tick in the appropriate box, according to your level of agreement (SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; NS=Not sure; D=Disagree and SD=strongly Disagree].

Strategies	Degree of agreement				
Awareness creation	SA	A	NS	D	SD
Community awareness of programmes that support the education needs of vulnerable children is important					
Community awareness has been created and the necessary information shared on assistance programmes.					
Community awareness has been instrumental in facilitating smooth delivery of programme activities					
Comments: How could community awareness be better organised?					
Selection of beneficiaries	SA	A	NS	D	SD
Given scarcity of resources compared to needs, selection from targeted groups cannot be avoided		*			
Selection of beneficiaries should be done in accordance with clear criteria to identify those most deserving.					
Beneficiary selection guidelines have been provided and are clear and easy to follow and use.					

Beneficiary selection for existing programmes has been transparent good and based on clear criteria					
How can targeting and selection of beneficiaries be done in a better way?					
Community participation	SA	A	NS	D	SD
Involvement of participation of the community is a fundamental consideration if the programme has to get the necessary acceptability					
Meaningful community participation in the decisions and activities of the programme has been a strong feature of its delivery.					
Much needs to be done to improve community participation than the current practices					
What measures are needed to enhance community participation in programmes?					
Networking and collaboration	SA	A	NS	D	SD
Good networking and collaboration are essential features of a good programme in order to leverage on each other's strengths					
The school managed to network and collaborate with others in the area on social assistance programmes implemented in the area					
There have been immense benefits from the collaborative activities					
What improvements could there be in networking and collaboration?					
Training	SA	A	NS	D	SD
The school and other key stakeholders participated in locally availed trainings to do with delivery of social assistance programmes					
Training content and approaches have been adequate and effective.					
No additional training is considered necessary in the immediate future					
What improvements are needed in training to ensure effectiveness of programmes?					
Monitoring	SA	A	NS	D	SD
Day to day monitoring helps to ensure compliance and detection of problems					
Day to day monitoring is well organised with clear roles and responsibilities					
Monitoring support from the relevant authorities has been adequate					
What improvements does monitoring require to guarantee more effectiveness?					

E Strategies used by the Government to support schools and other providers to better deliver right-to-education social protection programmes?

This section is about strategies that the government is using to support schools and other providers to implement social protection programmes that support the right to education. The strategies include programme design, targeting and selection, resource mobilisation, management and coordination, capacity building and monitoring and follow up. For each strategy, some statements have been listed. You are required to rate each statement, by placing a tick in the appropriate box, according to your level of agreement (SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; NS=Not sure; D=Disagree and SD=strongly Disagree).

Programme design	SA	A	NS	D	SD
Government has taken measures to ensure the programme is clearly understood by communities and beneficiaries for whom it is meant					
Stakeholders have been directly involved in the design processes of the programme from the beginning and have an intimate understanding of its key features to aid implementation.					
What improvements do you see as necessary in the programme design?					
Targeting and selection	SA	A	NS	D	SD
The Government developed protocols to provide targeting and selection guidance to those who implement programmes					
Written guidelines are easy to follow, interpret and use by selection committees conducting selection of beneficiaries at local level					
Government officers have followed this up with support to address issues and challenges encountered at the local level					
Comments: Could targeting and selection of beneficiaries be better supported? How?					
Resource mobilisation and provision	SA	A	NS	D	SD
Government has taken the lead in financing Social Protection in Mwenezi					
Government has encouraged other partners to participate in financing					
Government is knowledgeable about who is participating and with what?					
Comments: Do you think Government can ensure more sustainable financing?					
Management and coordination	SA	A	NS	D	SD
Government system has been able to bring key stakeholders together at national, local and community levels to enhance coordination?					

Coordination meetings (at all levels) are held on a regular basis to discuss programming issues and share experiences					
Regular coordination meetings have resulted in substantial benefits for the benefit of beneficiaries (unified programming, leveraging & efficiency)					
Could Government provide better management and coordination support? How?					
Capacity building (<i>Government provided</i>)	SA	A	NS	D	SD
Enough financial support for implementation					
Sufficient material support for implementation					
Training support to equip implementers with implementation 'know-how'					
What could be the improvement areas in training support					
Monitoring and support	SA	A	NS	D	SD
Government has provided guidelines to ensure compliance and good feedback					
Training has been provided on how to use the guidelines					
The systems (developed, distributed and trained) serve their purpose well					
Government provides follow-up support implementers on emerging issues					
What improvements are needed in Government support of monitoring function? University of Fort Hare Together in Excellence					

F How might the current social protection delivery framework (policies and practices) need to adapt to better support the right to education?

What challenges do schools and implementers face in implementation of Social Protection for right to education strategies?

.....

What challenges does the government system face in supporting implementation of Social Protection for right to education programmes?

.....

If you were to suggest solutions to delivery of social protection for right to education challenges, what would these be (policy, design, and implementation)?

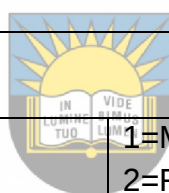
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APPENDIX I: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SUB-NATIONAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

Dear Respondent

I am a PhD student studying with the University of Fort Hare in South Africa. As part of the requirements of the degree programme, I am conducting a study: **Social Protection as a Mechanism for promoting the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district, Zimbabwe.** The data gathered may help to improve delivery of Social Protection programmes that will consequently benefit vulnerable children. You have been selected to participate in this study. To ensure that your identity remains anonymous, all data gathered will be aggregated for analysis no one will know your individual responses. Your honest responses to all questions will be greatly appreciated. There is no right or wrong answer to the questions.

Thank you in advance
S.Shumba



A. Demographics

Your sex	1=Male 2=Female	☐
Your age (in years, to nearest)		
Highest educational qualifications	1= Teaching Certificate 2= Diploma in Education 3= BA/BSc/Bed 4= Masters 5= Other (specify)	☐
Name of your department		
Your position in the department		
Your role in relation to the programme		
Duration of participation in social protection		

B. PLEASE SHARE YOUR INSIGHTS ON (A) THE STATUS OF CHILD VULNERABILITY IN THIS COMMUNITY, (B) HOW IT AFFECTS THEIR ACCESS AND PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION, (C) WHAT IS BEING DONE (PROGRAMMES) ABOUT THIS, BY WHOM?

.....

C. STRATEGIES USED BY SCHOOLS AND OTHER SOCIAL PROTECTION PROVIDERS TO DELIVER PROGRAMMES THAT PROMOTE RIGHT TO EDUCATION [let us focus on assistance programmes currently running and provide our assessment of some of these strategies]

<i>Awareness raising</i>
1. How important do you consider community awareness of the programmes for that support the education needs of vulnerable children? 2. How much effort has gone into information sharing about the existence of the programme, its objectives & how beneficiaries can benefit? 3. What suggestions do you have for awareness & information dissemination?
<i>Targeting and selection</i>
4. What is the process for selection of beneficiaries (& who participates)? 5. Do you consider it a fair process? Give reasons for your answer. 6. How much guidance is provided by the responsible Ministries? 7. Are the guidelines adequately understood by those meant to apply them? 8. What measures need to be taken to improve targeting and selection?
<i>Community participation</i>
9. To what degree does community participate in delivery of programmes? 10. How meaningful has been the participation (including scope and quality)? 11. How else could community participation be enhanced (or should it)?
<i>Networking and collaboration</i>
12. How have you managed to network and collaborate with others organisations doing similar work in the area of operation? 13. What benefits have networking and collaboration yielded in your work? 14. What support has the government provided to enhance collaboration opportunities? 15. How might collaboration efforts be better provided for greater efficiency?
<i>Training</i>
16. What training has been provided to support programme delivery? 17. Who has been trained and to what effect? 18. How effective do you consider the training to have been? 19. What improvements do you suggest for more effective training support?
<i>Monitoring</i>

20. How is the day to day monitoring of programmes organised and done?
21. How does this process help to ensure compliance & detection of problems?
22. How adequate has monitoring support from the relevant authorities been?
23. How might monitoring be handled to ensure more effectiveness?

D. STRATEGIES USED BY THE GOVERNMENT SYSTEM TO SUPPORT SCHOOLS AND OTHER PROVIDERS TO BETTER DELIVER RIGHT-TO-EDUCATION SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES?

Design of programme

24. How is the programme designed? (Who is involved? What are the different roles? What are the other good practice considerations?)
25. As chief manager of such programmes, how does the government support this process?
26. Any noticeable gaps and omissions? What steps are needed to close these gaps? By whom?

Targeting and selection

27. What are the current targeting and selection processes? Who should do what & who does?
28. What mechanism has Government developed to provide targeting and selection guidance? How effective are the mechanisms?
29. What challenges are faced in enforcement of targeting and selection mechanisms? What do you see needing to change to improve targeting and selection processes?

Resource mobilisation & provision

30. How have resources for this programme been mobilised? How are they being managed (disbursements, reporting and auditing)?
31. How can investments made be sustained?

Management and coordination

32. How has the government system been able to bring key stakeholders together at national, local and community levels?
33. What have been the observable benefits from these efforts (unified programming, leveraging, and efficiency gains)?
34. What have been the challenges faced in these efforts? How might improvements still be possible in management/coordination support?

Capacity Building

35. How have you been equipped (by whom?) to effectively implement education related social protection programmes?
36. What training has been provided (by whom)?
37. What improvements do you recommend in the training support provided?

Monitoring and support

38. What systems are in place to ensure programme compliance and feedback (systems, frameworks, tools)? Provided by whom?
39. How do these systems render support to those implementing programmes?
40. What follow up support is provided at the field level? What type? By whom?
41. How well do you consider these systems to be in serving their purpose?
42. What improvements do you suggest for better support?

E. HOW MIGHT THE CURRENT SOCIAL PROTECTION DELIVERY FRAMEWORK (POLICIES AND PRACTICES) NEED TO ADAPT TO BETTER SUPPORT THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION?

Challenges

43. What challenges do schools and implementers face in implementation of Social Protection for right to education strategies?

44. What challenges does the government system face in supporting implementation of Social Protection for right to education programmes?

Recommendations

45. If you were to suggest solutions to delivery of social protection for right to education challenges, what would these be (policy, design, and implementation)?

APPENDIX J: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR IMPLEMENTING AGENCIES

Dear Respondent

I am a PhD student studying with the University of Fort Hare in South Africa. As part of the requirements of the degree programme, I am carrying out a study on: **Social Protection as a Mechanism for Promoting the Right to Education for Vulnerable Children in Mwenezi District, Zimbabwe**. The research is being undertaken in primary school in Mwenezi district. The data gathered may help to improve delivery of social protection programmes, with consequent benefits for vulnerable children.

Your office has been selected to participate in this study. There are no wrong or right answers but your honest opinions on the issues will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you in advance

Sibangani Shumba

A Demographics

Your sex		1=Male 2=Female	☐
Your age (in years, to nearest)			
Highest educational qualifications			
Name of your Organisation/Department/Agency			
Your position in Organisation/Department			
Your role in relation to the SP programme			
How long have you been playing this role?			

B Child Vulnerability: The Challenge and The Response

Part of this study has to do with identifying the various factors or conditions that trigger child vulnerability (exposure to risk or disadvantage, **including educational disadvantage**, and difficulty in coping with such negative situations). Sources of these vulnerabilities could be home or community from which they come, or the school or classroom that they attend or the condition of children themselves.

Please share your thoughts and insights on:

- The status and sources of child vulnerability in this district/community,
- How it affects their access and participation in education,
- What is being done (programmes) about this, by whom?
- What is the specific focus of your own contribution and what informs that focus?
- What specific concerns are you addressing?

C	Strategies Used by Schools and Other Social Protection Providers to Deliver Programmes that Promote Right to Education
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Ordinarily, Social Protection providers could undertake any or all of the actions and strategies in delivering the programmes: Let us talk about how effectively these have been used in the district.

- Creating awareness in the communities and schools
- Targeting and selection
- Involving the community
- Networking and collaboration
- Training and monitoring
-

- a) How important do you consider these strategies and actions to be?
- b) How has each strategy been used in implementing social protection programmes? (For example, was this used at all? who was involved? What challenges were faced and how were these dealt with? Do you think these strategies work? How did this work? Were any other strategies used)?
- c) What lessons do you draw from the implementation processes? Should these lessons be shared with anyone else (With whom?) Why and how?
- d) If you were to make any suggestions for improvement, what would those suggestions be?

D	Government strategies to support those delivering the programmes.
----------	--

Ordinarily, the main Social Protection provider is the Government, working with its development partners. Often, its role is that of leading and coordination. Let us talk about some of these roles and strategies – how effectively this role has been played:

- Design of programme
- Targeting and selection
- Resource mobilisation & provision
- Management and coordination
- Capacity Building
- Monitoring and support
-

- a) How important do you consider these strategies to be? Which ones are more important?

- b) How was each strategy used to provide the necessary support to implementing agencies? Were they adequately supported?
- c) What challenges were faced in providing such support? How were these challenges navigated?
- d) What lessons do we draw from the experience in efforts to provide such support?
- e) If you were to make any suggestions for improvement, what would those suggestions be?

E	How might the current social protection delivery framework (policies and practices) need to adapt to better support the right to education?
----------	--

- a) Is the Social Protection Mechanism supporting the right to Education for vulnerable children in the district? Please provide concrete examples for your response?
- b) What challenges still remain in terms of making it work better (both at delivery level and at Government support and policy level)?
- c) From your Social Protection delivery experience, what recommendations do you have for improvement? How can these thoughts be used to improve social protection support for promoting right to education?

Any additional comments and thoughts that you wish to make!

University of Port Harcourt
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Thank you for your participation

APPENDIX K: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVES

Dear Respondent

I am a PhD student studying with the University of Fort Hare in South Africa. As part of the requirements of the degree programme, I am conducting a study: **Social Protection as a Mechanism for promoting the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district, Zimbabwe**. The data gathered may help to improve delivery of Social Protection programmes that will consequently benefit vulnerable children. You have been selected to participate in this study. To ensure that your identity remains anonymous, all data gathered will be aggregated for analysis no one will know your individual responses. Your honest responses to all questions will be greatly appreciated. There is no right or wrong answer to the questions.

Thank you in advance
S.Shumba

F. Demographics

Your gender	1=Male 2=Female	☐
Your age (in years, to nearest)		☐
Highest educational qualifications	1= Teaching Certificate 2= Diploma in Education 3= BA/BSc/Bed 4= Masters 5= Other (specify)	☐
Position held in relation to the programme		
Duration of social protection participation		☐

G. PLEASE SHARE YOUR INSIGHTS ON (A) THE STATUS OF CHILD VULNERABILITY IN THIS COMMUNITY, (B) HOW IT AFFECTS THEIR ACCESS AND PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION, (C) WHAT IS BEING DONE (PROGRAMMES) ABOUT THIS, BY WHOM?

H. STRATEGIES USED BY SCHOOLS AND OTHER SOCIAL PROTECTION PROVIDERS TO DELIVER PROGRAMMES THAT PROMOTE RIGHT TO EDUCATION [let us focus on assistance programmes currently running and provide our assessment of some of these strategies]

<i>Awareness raising</i>
How important do you consider community awareness of the programmes for that support the education needs of vulnerable children?
How much effort has gone into information sharing about the existence of the programme, its objectives & how beneficiaries can benefit?
What suggestions do you have for awareness & information dissemination?
<i>Targeting and selection</i>
What is the process for selection of beneficiaries (& who participates)?
Do you consider it a fair process? Give reasons for your answer.
How much guidance is provided by the responsible Ministries?
Are the guidelines adequately understood by those meant to apply them?
What measures need to be taken to improve targeting and selection?
<i>Community participation</i>
To what degree does community participate in delivery of programmes?
How meaningful has been the participation (including scope and quality)?
How else could community participation be enhanced (or should it)?
<i>Networking and collaboration</i>
How have you managed to network and collaborate with others organisations doing similar work in the area of operation?
What benefits have networking and collaboration yielded in your work?
What support has the government provided to enhance collaboration opportunities?
How might collaboration efforts be better provided for greater efficiency?
<i>Training</i>
What training has been provided to support programme delivery?
Who has been trained and to what effect?
How effective do you consider the training to have been?
What improvements do you suggest for more effective training support?
<i>Monitoring</i>
How is the day to day monitoring of programmes organised and done?
How does this process help to ensure compliance & detection of problems?
How adequate has monitoring support from the relevant authorities been?
How might monitoring be handled to ensure more effectiveness?

I. STRATEGIES USED BY THE GOVERNMENT SYSTEM TO SUPPORT SCHOOLS AND OTHER PROVIDERS TO BETTER DELIVER RIGHT-TO-EDUCATION SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES?

<i>Design of programme</i>
How is the programme designed? (Who is involved? What are the different roles? What are the other good practice considerations?)
As chief manager of programmes, how does the government support this process?
Any noticeable gaps and omissions? What steps are needed to close these gaps?
<i>Targeting and selection</i>

What are the current targeting and selection processes? Who should do what & why?
 What mechanism has Government developed to provide targeting and selection guidance? How effective are the mechanisms?
 What challenges are faced in enforcement of targeting and selection mechanisms?
 What do you see needing to change to improve targeting and selection processes?

Resource mobilization & provision

How have resources for this programme been mobilised? How are they being managed (disbursements, reporting and auditing)?
 How can investments made be sustained?

Management and coordination

How has the government system been able to bring key stakeholders together at national, local and community levels?
 What have been the observable benefits from these efforts (unified programming, leveraging, and efficiency gains)?
 What have been the challenges faced in these efforts? How might improvements still be possible in management/coordination support?

Capacity Building

How have you been equipped (by whom?) to effectively implement education related social protection programmes?
 What training has been provided (by whom)?
 What improvements do you recommend in the training support provided?

Monitoring and support

What systems are in place to ensure programme compliance and feedback (systems, frameworks, tools)? Provided by whom?
 How do these systems render support to those implementing programmes?
 What follow up support is provided at the field level? What type? By whom?
 How well do you consider these systems to be in serving their purpose?
 What improvements do you suggest for better support?

J. HOW MIGHT THE CURRENT SOCIAL PROTECTION DELIVERY FRAMEWORK (POLICIES AND PRACTICES) NEED TO ADAPT TO BETTER SUPPORT THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION?

Challenges

What challenges do schools and implementers face in implementation of Social Protection for right to education strategies?

What challenges does the government system face in supporting implementation of Social Protection for right to education programmes?

Recommendations

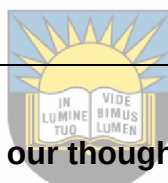
If you were to suggest solutions to delivery of social protection for right to education challenges, what would these be (policy, design, and implementation)?

APPENDIX L: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE for COMMUNITY/CHILDREN

Dear Discussants

I am a PhD student studying with the University of Fort Hare in South Africa. As part of the requirements of the degree programme, I am conducting a study: **Social Protection as a Mechanism for promoting the right to education for vulnerable children in Mwenezi district, Zimbabwe**. The data gathered may help to improve delivery of Social Protection programmes that will consequently benefit vulnerable children. You have been selected to participate in this study but your participation is voluntary. You can choose or decline participation? To ensure that your identity remains anonymous, all data gathered will be aggregated for analysis no one will know your individual responses. Your honest responses to all questions will be greatly appreciated. There is no right or wrong answer to the questions.

Name of school	
Location of school	



1. Let us just begin by sharing our thoughts about children we call vulnerable

- When we say children are vulnerable in this area, what exactly do we mean?
- Are there such children in this community?
- What vulnerabilities affect children's education? How do they do so?
- What actions/programmes have been (are being) taken to help such children access education? Are these actions enough? What else could be done?

2. Let us talk about actions you have identified (ones relevant to their area)

- How did you get to know about these assistance programmes? Can you explain how one gets to be a beneficiary on each of the programmes?
- *Beneficiaries* - How were they/you selected? Did they/you face any problems? How were these problems resolved?
- *For non-beneficiaries* – Do you think they/you should have been selected? Do you know why they/you were not selected?

3. Let us take a close look at the beneficiary selection process

- How is it done exactly? Do you consider it a fair process? Why?
- What do you think needs to be done to make it a better process?

4. One aspect of programmes is who participates. Let us talk about it.

- Do communities/children have space to participate in the programmes?
- If they do, in what areas or aspects is their participation concentrated?

- If not, does this need to change? Why? What needs to change? Why?
- How does participation/non-participation affect programme implementation?

5. Let us talk about training for programme implementation

- Should anyone be trained for implementing the assistance programmes?
- Who do you think should receive training? Why? Children and community?
- Who has actually been trained? On what have they been trained?

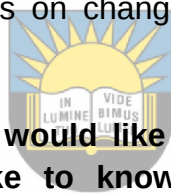
6. Let us talk day to day monitoring of the programmes

- Is this necessary? Why?
- Who should and who does it the monitoring? Community? Children?
- What improvements can be made in monitoring the programmes?

7. Let us talk about effects of the programme under discussion

- Do any children remain unable to access education on account of their vulnerable situation?
- What measures does the school or community take to reach out to such children?
- Are there any suggestions on changes that could make programme more effective in future?

8. Is there anything else you would like to add to what the discussion has covered or you would like to know about how programme is being implemented in this area?



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Thank you