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**RETHINKING SOCIAL PROTECTION IN MASVINGO PROVINCE, ZIMBABWE: TOWARDS
THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL PROTECTION FRAMEWORK**

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Declaration

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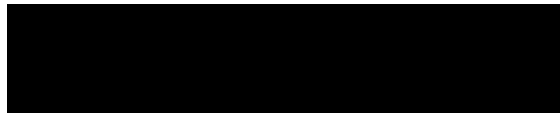
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Dear Sir/Madam

DECLARATION

I, Joseph Daitai Student Number: **217079473** hereby declaring that the thesis entitled, “rethinking social protection in Masvingo province, Zimbabwe: towards the development of a social protection framework” is a product of my own research. I have not submitted it in part or full for any degree or any other university. Wherever I used other people’s work I have duly acknowledged.



Joseph Daitai

Student Number: 217079473

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work to my loving wife Faith P Daitai and my children Shamgar Nguvayashe Daitai, Rutendo Shalom Daitai and Joseph Junior Shammah Daitai.

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My PhD took five years of hard work, commitment, and sacrifice. I appreciate the input of all those who participated in this research journey in several ways. I am forever grateful for the unwavering support and guidance I received from my supervisor, Professor Oliver Mtapuri. Without him, surely, I could not have completed this research. His patience and meticulous attention to detail saw me attaining my goal. I also appreciate the members of staff within the Built Environment School and specifically those in the department of 'Development Studies'. I would also want to extend special gratitude to my loving wife, Faith P Daitai, who morally and financially took care of our children Shamgar, Shalom and Shammah during this period of study. I would like to make mention of my mother for her love and support and advice to be achieving this landmark achievement. I also want to acknowledge the role played by my research assistants who tirelessly collected the data on my behalf over a period stretching for one and a half years. I also thank my Pastor Wilbert Mushandu for the support and encouragement he gave me during this time.

ABSTRACT

The biggest problem I have found during my research is that poverty and precariousness persist despite the presence of several social protection programmes the world over. The problem of insufficient social protection in addressing vulnerabilities in Masvingo Province and the rest of Zimbabwe follows from this. In this research focus on social protection, I believe and am adamantly convinced that the country must give priority to the provision of social protection to Zimbabwe's poorest populations. The purpose of this research is to develop a comprehensive social protection framework and identify strategies for improving Zimbabwe's social protection system. To effectively execute social protection efforts, the government and other pertinent parties must rethink their strategy and develop a transition winning plan. Based on the state welfare theory, this study found that there is a marked asymmetry in the distribution and use of resources in Zimbabwe (necessities like hospitals and food packages), which is concealed by the widespread belief that the government, through the responsible ministry, provides welfare to the underprivileged citizens. According to the study's results, social protection in Zimbabwe is so miserably inadequate that the government cannot meet the needs of all its citizens who need welfare assistance to have access to essentials like food, free healthcare, and good housing. I interviewed carefully chosen recipients of social protection schemes in a total of eighteen interviews. Each of the recipients who were interviewed was the primary provider for their households. Assessments and desktop research were conducted to ensure the study's richness, breadth, and depth. The topics covered in this thesis inductively evolved from the data after it was subjected to thematic analysis, which was then utilized to examine the data. For this qualitative research, semi-structured interviews and focus groups were used to interview the targeted participants in the selected neighbourhoods. This study discovered that ineffective recipient selection criteria, partisan service distribution, a lack of awareness of welfare program availability, and a lack of capacity building are impeding the efficient administration and distribution of welfare services to citizens even at the community level. I also suggested an extensive system of social protection that covers everyone without exception, from the local committee up to the central government. The main takeaways from this research politics should not lead development hence policymakers should not be politicians who are by nature biased towards their parities.

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List of acronyms

AFC	Agriculture Finance Corporation
AMTO	Assisted Medical Treatment Orders
AU	African Union's
BEAM	Basic Education Assistance Modules
CCT	Conditional cash transfers
CSO	Civil Society Organizations
DFID	Department for International Development
ESAP	Economic Structural Adjustment Program
ESAP	Economic Structural Adjustment Programmes
ESPP	Enhanced Social Protection Program
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FDM	Food Deficit Mitigation
GNU	Government of National Unity
HSCT	Health Assistance and the Harmonised Social Cash Transfer
ILO	International Labour Organisation
LED	Local Economic Development
MERP	Millennium Economic Recovery Program
MoPSLSW	Ministry of Public Service, Labour, and Social Welfare
NANGO	National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations

NDPPRS	National Development Plans and Poverty Reduction Strategies
NDS	National Development Strategy
NEDPP	National Economic Development Priority Program
NEDPP	National Economic Priority Development Program
NERP	National Economic Recovery program
NERP	National Economic Revival Program
NGO	Non-Governmental Organizations
NSPPF	National Social Protection Policy Framework
NSSA	National Social Security Council
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OHCHR	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
PASGR	Partnership for African Social and Governance Research's (PASGR)
PASS	Poverty Assessment Study Survey
PASS	Poverty Assessment Study Survey
PWP	Public works programmes
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SSN	Social Safety Nets
UCLES	University of Cambridge Local Exams Syndicate
UCT	Unconditional cash transfers
UNDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights

UNDP	United Nations Development Program
USP	Universal Social Protection
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republic
WHO	World Health Organization
ZEDS	Zimbabwe Economic Development Strategy
ZIMASSET	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZIMPREST	Zimbabwe Program for Economic and Social Transformation
ZIMSTATS	Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency
ZNSA	Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.0 Introduction and historical context

The importance of social protection is generally acknowledged by any nation, irrespective of their degree of industrial advancement. However, for the vast mainstream of the world's people, the basic human right to social safety and security remains unsatisfied. According to the World Bank (2019), despite significant expansions within the social protection field throughout the last century, particularly in the last period, only a marginal of the world's population is effectively covered. Only 46.9% of the world's population had access to some form of social security in 2020 (Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) indicator 1.3.1), leaving an estimated 4.1 billion people completely vulnerable. (World social protection report, 2020). Behind this global average, there are substantial discrepancies throughout and within geographical areas, with prevalence rates in Europe and Central Asia (83.9 per cent) and the Americas (64.3 per cent) above the average worldwide, while Asia and the Pacific (44.1 per cent), the Arab States (40.0 per cent) and Africa (17.4 per cent) have far more designated coverage discrepancies (World social protection report, 2020).

In addition, Ndlovu (2019) argues that almost 50% of the inhabitants in middle- and low-income countries are poor, majority of whom lacks proper protections. Some 900 million of individuals have jobs, with most working in the unofficial economy. Chitambara (2010) argues that an absence of accessibility to social protection is a major barrier to industrial and societal development. United Nations Development Program (UNDP), 2015) found a strong correlation between a relative paucity of media attention surrounding social protection and persistently elevated amounts of impoverishment and monetary destabilization, increasing, and increasing income disparity, inadequate income streams in academic financing and human skills capabilities, and a limited immediate stabilizing agent of accumulated supply.

Social protection programmes aid to promote short and long term economic and social progress by guaranteeing that people have accessibility to sufficient medical amenities and some other supportive welfare care and are empowered to seek financial

opportunities (Gukurume, 2018). Their importance cannot be overstated in terms of their ability to boost consumer spending, aid financial systems in fundamental transformation, promote decent jobs, and bring about comprehensive sustainable growth. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) would not be possible without the help of social protection measures (Chinyoka, 2017). In the absence of a strong policy underpinning for social safety nets that guarantees a basic standard of social protection to individuals in necessity and steadily increases the range and levels of social protection provision, it is difficult to achieve stable and equitable growth. National social protection platforms, which form the foundation of national social protection schemes, must constantly have these minimum necessary standards of social protection.

In previous decades, several countries have greatly increased their social welfare provision, and they have stepped up their commitment to ensure that all those in need of assistance receive the basic level of security. Welfare benefits funding does have a significant impact on community well-being and, together with financial markets, labor industry, and employee welfare, has contributed to the financial and social development of countries like Costa Rica, Cabo Verde, Argentina, Togo, Asia, Guatemala, Tanzania, Namibia, and Turkey (Sen, 1999). Zimbabwe is part of a larger trend in the undeveloped countries of reducing public spending on things like state pensions, leading to either less participation or lower compensation ratios (Atchison and Forbes, 2012). Public welfare organizations' potential achievements to financial development have been hampered by fiscal restriction policies implemented in a variety of countries, delaying the realization of the human rights to social welfare and other civil dignity (Ekben, 2014).

The global community's dedication to providing each other with safety nets at the national and international levels was formally recognized in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). According to the terms of this international treaty, social security is a fundamental human right. Consider Article 25 of the UDHR, which provides that "Everyone has a right to a standard of living adequate for his or her welfare and well-being, such as food, clothing, housing, and medical care, as well as necessary social services, as well as the right to security in the event of joblessness, sickness, disability,

widowhood, or old age, or other inability to earn a living due to conditions outside of his control" (Staab-Silke, 2020: 34).

This illustrates the potential importance of social protection programmes in ensuring expenditure and social progress for those who cannot reap the benefits of traditional sectoral approaches. In this regard, social protection systems expansion is gaining traction in Southern Africa across a wide range of stakeholders including state, funders, UN institutions, and NGOs. Several African nations and its developmental affiliates now see social protection as an essential aspect of the core set of basic social assistance that the state should provide for its citizens (Taylor, 2008).

To resolve the issues of extensive and persisting deprivation, illiteracy, and lack of job opportunities, the heads of governments from the African Union met in Ouagadougou in 2004 for a conference on unemployment and impoverishment mitigation in the Continent. Symposium participants in Ouagadougou acknowledged the need for social protection to reduce inequality and called for its effectiveness and accessibility to be expanded (Taylor, 2008). In 2006, an international symposium on social welfare was held in Livingstone, co-hosted by the African Union and the administration of the Kingdom of Zambia. The conference's participant nations, mostly African governments, committed to create fully defined plans for national cash transfer programmes within three years, with coordinated financing from national budgets and donors. Additionally, the member nations committed to fully incorporate social protection into their National Development Plans and Poverty Reduction Strategies (Tom and Chipenda, 2020).

The state's debilitated administrative and fiscal capacity has proven grossly inadequate in the face of market liberalization and competitive pressures, which have pushed for the elimination of welfare provisions and the reduction of welfare budgets, resulting in an increase in pension and health care private enterprise. Formal protections have also been weakened in emerging markets suffering from collapse or confronted with the necessity for significant transformation of state-led institutions. As a result, the necessity for alternative methods to ease transitions and safeguard people's livelihoods in the near term, while also providing long-term stability, has prompted the development of innovative ways to expanding fundamental social protections (Cook and Kabeer, 2009).

Zimbabwe has never been an exemption face of the problems. Since 2000, the nation, according to Gandure (2009), has been suffering unparalleled economic quagmire and political instability. The crisis's key indicators include persistently high levels of food insecurity, high levels of unemployment, income loss, and widespread suffering dating way back to the late 1990s. The deteriorating macroeconomic landscape and successive increase in poverty, the agricultural sector's low productivity, particularly among smallholder farmers, governance system failures, a poorly configured and enacted land reform program, and the impact of HIV-AIDS and the recent global pandemic COVID 19 are recognized as the root causes of poverty in Zimbabwe (Chinyoka, 2017).

The contemporary scenario produced a very insecure socioeconomic environment, with a disproportionate impact on the poor in terms of health care, employment and salaries, food security, and social services. the Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency (2017), reports that governmental economic laws were unable to safeguard the poor and vulnerable at a period when many people lost employment, prices for basic necessities soared, and services like health and education became very expensive. Central government health expenditures per capita decreased from US\$21.8 per person in 2013 to US\$16.6 per person in 2014, before rapidly increasing to US\$30.2 per person in 2017. (ZNSA, 2017). In 2017, the national household poverty rate of 60.6 percent was somewhat lower than the previous year's number of 62.6 percent (62.6 percent in 2011 and 2012). From 30.8% in 2010/2012 to 26.9% this year, the income difference has reduced significantly. On the other hand, the percentage of very poor households rose from 17.3 percent in 2011/2012 to 21.9 % in 2019. The rise is attributable to deteriorating living circumstances in rural areas, where the inequality rate jumped from 23.8% to 29.8% while the rate in major cities fell from 5.0% to 4.6% (Republic of Zimbabwe, 2018)

The government-run welfare program in Zimbabwe has been a catastrophic failure. Furthermore, most Zimbabweans are now compelled to eke out a living in deplorable conditions due to the extreme economic volatility of the previous generation. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNDHR) makes a global responsibility to social protection, putting this situation directly at odds with that document (UNICEF; 2008:5).

The socioeconomic patterns shown above are indicative of the public sector 's failure to provide enough social protections for its inhabitants.

1.1 A historical overview of Zimbabwe's social protection system

According to Ndlovu and Ndlovu (2019), social policy is a framework that enables the government and its partners, the corporate sector, civil society, and foreign development agencies, to execute compressive state-led actions. In addition to this, the Zimbabwean Department of Social Services (2017) acknowledged that from the inception of ESAP in 1992 to 2010, Zimbabwe saw an avalanche of negative consequences as a result of both internal and foreign causes. Many people's standard of living declined as a consequence of these impacts, nullifying the gains gained by the government's first effective social programmes after liberation. Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler (2016) state that the Disease pandemic and global apathy about the government's plight have had a negative impact on the state's social assistance programmes. Zimbabwe's (GNU) (which was in power from September 2008 to June 2012) recognized the need of welfare support as a foundation of rapid growth and stabilization in its efforts to reduce inequality in the country, and this was reflected in its policies.

Social security, social assistance, and income security are the cornerstones of Zimbabwe's social protection system. While international financial support, particularly food aid, was just a brief and unanticipated safety net, it was nonetheless welcome (Michelo, 2018). According to the Zimbabwean government (2015), "social protection" is a set of programmes and policies that seek to lessen people's exposure to economic hardship and social exclusion. The necessity of social security is recognized and affirmed in Zimbabwe's constitution. According to Article 30, "the state must take all reasonable measures, within the constraints of available resources, to provide social security and care to those in need." Additionally, specific legislation in Zimbabwe provides up the foundation for social security there. Since the country's independence in 1980 (Kaseke (2011) and the Ministry of Public Service, Labour, and Social Welfare,2016), social protection has been a part of Zimbabwe's development objectives and all national poverty reduction measures. True, Zimbabwe has a history of social safety nets extending back

to the imperial era, when the British Poor Rules influenced social welfare aid, with a concentration on the urban poor, who were the public face of suffering.

Social protection has received greater attention and importance because of a number of development initiatives, particularly those from the 1980s. The programmes that are included in these plans are the 2001 National Economic Revival Program, Towards Sustaining Economic Growth, the 2008-2009 National Economic Development Priority Program (NEDPP), the 2009-2013 Zimbabwe Economic Development Strategy (ZEDS) and the 2011-2015 Medium-Term Plan (MTP). ZIMASSET is the name of the government's socioeconomic transformation plan in Zimbabwe. It puts an emphasis on eliminating poverty through promoting economic growth. ZIMASSET has developed a growth plan that is based on four foundations: Food and nutritional stability, community programmes delivery, the elimination of poverty, infrastructural and utility provision, and economic creation and expansion. ZIMASSET sets forth its long-term social protection goals. The Enhanced Social Protection Program (ESPP) was rolled out by the Zimbabwean government in the 1990s with a focus on the formal sector. Besides these efforts, the government implemented aid programmes for the poor, including public works projects, basic education assistance modules (BEAMs), and support for individuals who have experienced a hardship (Ministry of Public Service Labour and Social Welfare, 2006).

When the country went through an economic recession, the social welfare agency in Zimbabwe instituted various payment allowances to disadvantaged people at the province and district levels. This patchwork of poorly coordinated donor-dependent, and fragmented programmes was incorporated into the Zimbabwe's social protection system. Even though the country experienced a severe economic crisis after that, many social protection programmes, such as the Basic Education Assistance Module, (BEAM) collapsed due to a lack of financial and personnel resources. The fact that the implementation of many social safety net projects incurs significant administrative costs, and these efforts overlap to the point that they are unnecessary, these initiatives do not really save any money or time (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015). New research by social scientists from a number of institutions states that people with social protection have four

main pillars: safety nets such as social insurance and labour market programmes, as well as social care services. Financial assistance, building projects, food production, and fee exemptions for critical health-care services and educational opportunities are some of the key components of social safety nets. Social insurance encompasses all three of the aforementioned programmes: the national social insurance system, the government's public service insurance plan, and the local government pension program (World Bank, 2016). The World Bank further state that these programmes encompass things like helping people learn new skills, locating new jobs, and offering matching services, as well as changing labour laws. Some social assistance programmes focus on serving those who are more vulnerable and poorer (The World Bank, 2014).

In 2016, the World Bank argued that in the current economic and social climate, Zimbabwe faces risks and vulnerabilities that a strong social protection framework may help to overcome. 72.3% of the population (9.1 million people) lived in poverty between 2011 and 2012, while 22.5% (2.8 million people) were classified as very poor. There is a greater proportion of rural poverty and extreme poverty in rural areas. Although the majority of rural residents in rural areas are low - income people, their share of total households is 81 percent. In 2011 and 2012, rural people faced higher levels of poverty, with a 44.7 % poverty gap index, comparable to a 16.2 % poverty gap index in urban centres. The percentage of the population living below the poverty line in Zimbabwe increased from 23.2% in 1995 to 19.6% in 2011/2012. When it comes to salaried employees, in 2011-2012, 83.7% of those earning \$1 to \$500 a month were women. Moreover half (51.1 percent) of working people were poor because and earned less than the poverty threshold, which is equal to total monthly consumption (TCPL). Only three and a third percent had a higher income than the national average (ZIMSTATS, 2017).

1.2 Problem statement

Zimbabwe's Constitution mandates that the government "must take all practical measures within the limits of its available resources to provide social protection and social care to those who are in need" (Section 30). Therefore, it is the duty of the government to provide resources for social security. The administration must guarantee that the financial support is sufficient, dependable, reliable, and financially viable, but it has a restricted budget so

it must seek out extra financing from other channels like modernization collaborators, the corporate industry, civil society organizations (CSOs), and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Zimbabwe, as demonstrated by Section 30, acknowledges, and maintains the necessity to provide social protection for its population. In particular, the delivery of public security on Zimbabwe is grounded in a number of Acts. The NSSA Act 17: 04 of 1989 and the Social Welfare Assistance Act (Chapter 17:06), as well as the Disabled Persons Act (17:01), the Private Voluntary Organizations Act (17:05), and the Older Persons Act (17:11) (Chapter 17:06).

Furthermore, the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation was enacted in 2013 as the country 's financial rebuilding blueprint (Zim-Asset). Social security is singled out as an essential feature in the Zim-Asset report. Actually, two of Zim-four Asset's strategic clusters are dedicated to issues related to feeding and nourishment, while the other two deal with public care and the reduction of inequality. As stated by His Excellency, the former and late President of Zimbabwe Robert Gabriel Mugabe - "This commitment at the highest level of government, is indicative of an unwavering political will to uplift the lives of Zimbabweans, despite the economic challenges which are acknowledged in the country's economic blueprint for the period 2013-2018. The unwavering willingness by the government of Zimbabwe to implement a national social protection implementation is enough evidence to the fact that the leadership recognize the role played by social protection in addressing different vulnerabilities and Poverty reduction". Therefore, it is my endeavour to bring a new perspective to the subject and in doing so expose the underlying incapacitation of the government to adequately implement a holistic social protection program capable of averting vulnerability and poverty.

This study unravels the problem statement through the lenses of Welfare State Theory (WST). According to Marshal and Bottomore (1992); Titus (1970); Beveridge (1942) and Based on the principles of equal opportunity, equitable distribution of wealth, and public responsibility for citizens unable to avail themselves of the minimal provisions for a good life, Duffy (2013) argues that the welfare state is a type of administration in which the nation safeguards and encourages the economic and social well-being of its citizens. The

welfare state is a system of government that provides financial support for social services, such as medical care, academic opportunities, and other direct benefits to its residents. In light of the foregoing, it is of significant worry that the government is unable and incapable of fulfilling its duty to provide social protection. People are more vulnerable because of the government 's failure to provide basic social programmes.

According to Duffy (2013), all communities have always been welfare societies, and no community can survive for longer lacking an extensive organizational system to support the well-being of its citizens. In addition, Titus (1970) reaffirmed that the social safety net is an effort to make welfare more equitable and to make welfare a non-negotiable component of the democratic governance system. In Zimbabwe, researchers have examined several facets of the country's social safety net. In 2009, Sithambiso Gandure published a baseline study of Zimbabwe's social security system. Gandure (2009) focused on cataloguing the many forms of social security offered by the government of Zimbabwe.

The Government of Zimbabwe's public service labour and social welfare in 2016 published the 'National Social Protection Policy Framework for Zimbabwe' and proposed a typical social protection blueprint to be adopted by the Zimbabwean government but the synchronisation of the framework and its implementation remains a myth. The biggest challenge still that is haunting the proper implementation is unfocused government priority which does not regard social protection as crucial. The economic difficulties the country is facing has seriously crippled the delivery of social protection (Ministry of Public service labour and social welfare, 2016).

The primary goals of the study were to (1) provide an overview of Zimbabwe's social protection processes, (2) establish a dataset of social protection elements and operational processes, and (3) create a perceptual framework and action plan for phase two, which would concentrate on identifying "quick win" possibilities for providing social protection to the poor during transformation and financial normalization. Gandure also conducted a literature review of studies, assessments, and publications on social welfare in Zimbabwe, and she assessed social protection mechanisms and programmes being provided in Zimbabwe right now by the state, the private industry, foreign institutions, and NGOs.

The research identified the following knowledge gaps: The establishment of a social protection system in Zimbabwe. It concluded that a social protection framework is required to provide a coordinated and comprehensive approach to current and future programmes, to integrate vision and goals, budgetary resources, and institutional problems. Humanitarian activities have long been recognized for their importance in decreasing people's susceptibility to a variety of circumstances, most notably hunger. Thus, the focus of this study is on developing a social protection framework that would serve as the foundation for implementing social protection efforts in Zimbabwe. It is a direct response to Gandure's identified knowledge gap. Gandure (2008) recognized just the formulation of a framework as a gap, and therefore this study aims to close that gap. Non-state social protection in Zimbabwe was the focus of the Coalition for African Social and Governance Research's (PASGR) other research project on social protection. The study examined its features, governance characteristics, and policy implications. Social protection has been identified by PASGR as a key strategy for reducing food insecurity, insecurity, unemployment, and high joblessness in Africa, and as such it has received significant attention from African authorities, the regional donors, aid organisations, and provincial multilateral organizations like the African Union (AU) (UNICEF, 2016; EU, 2015).

Aid agencies have provided significant assistance to several Zimbabwe's social protection programmes. However, in areas where the state has been unable or unwilling to offer sufficient social security, several non-state actors have stepped in to fill the void. Non-State Actors include local and international non-governmental organizations, religious based organizations, mutual aid societies, and traditional group structures. According to PASGR (2014), non-state social protection in Zimbabwe performs several roles, including income protection, different kinds of 'safety net' protection, such as food security and crop insurance, and includes a wide range of players. While non-state social protection actors are present and engaged on a large scale, no systematic effort has been undertaken to map or incorporate their existence. Among the non-state social protection programmes available, primarily two types of beneficiaries have been identified: contributing members with some capacity to pay subscriptions and non-contributory members who lack resources and live on the periphery of society. While the study is

primarily concerned with rethinking social protection in Masvingo province, it is also my intention to investigate the role of these non-state players in delivering social protection services to people. The research gap highlighted by this study has not been addressed by prior studies on social protection programmes in Zimbabwe.

Research on the significance of social protection for people working in the informal sector was done in 2013 by Henry Chikova. Most of the research included those who are not members of the official labour force. According to Chikova (2013) the Zimbabwe Statistical Agency conducted a Labour Force and Child Labour survey in 2011 and found out that there were 5.4 million employed people in Zimbabwe, of whom 4.6 million (84%) were adjudged to be engaged in the informal employment. Chikova (2013) suggested that via programmes such as cash transfer programmes, social security might be extended to employees in the informal sector. However, anytime these cash transfer programmes are launched, the government should consider their sustainability to benefit people in the informal sector. Allowing people to pay freely may assist in increasing funding to the informal sector, since citizens would also not be excluded from the kind of development.

As a social protection project with the goal of providing solutions to alleviate poverty in Zimbabwe, the Basic Education Assistance Module was the subject of study by Mutasa (2015). Since Mutasa believed that BEAM is incomplete as it is, the study's goal was to provide a glimpse into the project's potential by illuminating operational challenges and outlining next steps for BEAM's success. To understand BEAM's foundational aspect—beneficiary selection—the researcher conducted desk research by reading academic literature and providing a high-level summary of the idea. According to the findings, there are several issues with how BEAM is being implemented in Zimbabwe. Mufasa (2015) argued that the governments, as well as school administrators, educators, parents/guardians, and representatives of the society, all play an important part in making BEAM a success.

This research suggests that BEAM has had problems from the get-go, from insufficiency to delayed release of funding. It will need the combined efforts of many parties, with the governments performing a particularly important role in prioritizing BEAM's financing, for

the collaborative approach to poverty alleviation known as BEAM to have any real impact on lowering the school dropout's rate. This research only focused on the BEAM program, which is mainly implemented by the government, yet my research is focusing on social protection programmes that are administered by the government, private sector, and the NGOs. The challenges of inadequacy are not only affecting BEAM hence the need to holistically address the problem of funding shortage targeting food aid, inputs distribution, cash transfers, fees waivers as well as health funding for the disadvantaged citizens.

Other nations, such as Mozambique and Mauritius, have aspects of voluntary participation. When coverage cannot be extended quickly to individuals in the informal sector, optional social insurance may be established to expand coverage. Chikova (2013) argued that the central government's administration of social security programmes must not disregard all the informal sector because, most of the disadvantaged population works in the informal sector because massive deindustrialization that has seen the government of Zimbabwe promoting the informal sector through funding and training of entrepreneurs. Chikova further emphasized a variety of issues in social protection. The research gap identified by this study remains unexplored thus necessitating the need for a reconsideration of strategic approaches to impact the implementation of a comprehensive social protection framework, to improve that government welfare packages.

The research highlighted an issue with the insufficiency of social protection measures in addressing poverty and vulnerability. As a result of this issue, this study proposes the creation of a comprehensive social protection architecture as a means of addressing this deficiency. This insufficiency exists even though the government and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Zimbabwe have launched several initiatives, including (BEAM) and (VGF). Following a decade of macroeconomic catastrophe in Zimbabwe, the number of disadvantaged groups has risen substantially, while government-funded social safety services have been severely curtailed. A just economy needs substantial investment in social safety nets and welfare. In this case, government social assistance coverage on BEAM and real spending remains low, with administrative expenses accounting for most resources in the majority of other programmes. Absence of a comprehensive strategy, underfunding of programmes, politicized interventions, and also some economic issues

continue to be major challenges for social protection in general, and specific programmes like BEAM have been disproportionately impacted in that their initial coverage has been significantly reduced due to the government's inability to expand these school fee waivers (GOZ, 2018). The primary issue is that government initiatives and efforts to alleviate poverty and vulnerability have been inadequate and ineffective (American Institute for Research, 2014). Non-governmental groups have attempted, but their efforts have been deemed inadequate, preventing them from including a greater number of disadvantaged individuals in Zimbabwe (WFP 2012).

ZIMSTATS (2017) found that Zimbabwe's excessive poverty levels in rural areas are due to a lack of social security, from the government. The government has shown incapacity to help its citizens and resultantly poverty is manifesting even in the urban areas. The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (PICES) (2017) posit that rural poverty is more widespread, severe, and intense than urban poverty. Rural individual poverty prevalence was 77 % because impoverished families had a greater density of population than non-poor ones. Abject poverty was higher in rural areas, at 40.9 percent, than in urban areas, where the rate was just 4.4 percent. People living in urban areas appeared to observe a declining rate of poverty over time, but a worsening rural situation was driving an increase in severe poverty rates, and therefore a greater likelihood of poverty.

According to the Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency (2017), Mashonaland Central Province has the largest percentage of poor households (916.1%), followed by Mashonaland East Province (14.0%) and Matabeleland North Province (12.5%). The poor make up 12.2 percent and 11.9 percent of the population in Manicaland and Masvingo provinces, correspondingly. Mashonaland Central Province had the largest percentage of Zimbabwe's rural poor, followed by Mashonaland West and Manicaland Provinces, which had a rural household poverty incidence of 82.7 percent and 82.7 percent, accordingly (ZIMSTATS, 2017). When urban areas are examined, Harare Province contributed the most to urban poverty, accounting for 44.7 percent of urban poor families, followed by urban Manicaland Province at 11.7 percent. Matabeleland South Province has the highest percentage of urban poverty at 40.2 percent, followed by Mashonaland

West Province at 39.0 percent. The greatest rates of extreme urban poverty were found in Mashonaland East and Mashonaland West Provinces, but they remained relatively low at 5.7 to 5.8 percent (Pruce, and Hickey, 2017).

This study therefore has identified a knowledge gap in the social protection sector, where most of the previous studies mentioned in this study focus on Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) as a Poverty alleviation strategy. This research is not sufficient since it only picked one aspect/program of social protection. The other research conducted by Chikova (2010) on the significance of social protection for people working in the informal sector gained failed to holistically address the plight of other vulnerable groups that needs welfare for example, those workers in the informal sector, food shortages and cash shortages. This study distinguishes itself by teasing out the issues to do with adequacy because availability of welfare does not mean accessibility to all the poor and the rest of the citizens.

As I have already stated above, I am mostly intrigued by the notion that despite the reason that the government, voluntary organizations, and private sector are delivering social welfare services to the citizens, the demand for these social needs is ever increasing. The problem identified by this study is the inadequacy of social protection programmes that is administered by the Government, the Private Sector and Voluntary Organisations like NGOs. This study unravels the problem statement through the lenses of the State Welfare theory which sees the responsibility of welfare provision as resting within the confines of the state. In simpler terms, the problem of welfare inadequacy even during efforts by the government and its developmental partners is the key problem underpinning this research.

1.3 Aim of the study

1. To assess the current social protections system in Zimbabwe with a view to develop a social protection framework.

1.4 Objectives

1. To assess the current state of social protection in Zimbabwe.

2. To evaluate the contribution of national, NGOs and private sector to social protection programmes in addressing poverty in the study area.
3. To understand why the current social system in Zimbabwe is not meeting the needs of its citizens.
4. To develop a new social protection framework for the country.

1.5 Research Question

The main research questions:

1. Why is the government of Zimbabwe and its development partners fail to adequately administer resilient social protection programmes?
2. How are current social protections system in Zimbabwe performing with a view to developing a social protection framework?

1.5.1 Questions to be asked

1. What is the nature and form of social protection in Zimbabwe?
2. How have social protection programmes implemented by Non-Government Organizations, the private sector and the government managed to address poverty?
3. What social protection framework can be developed to address poverty in Zimbabwe?
4. Why is the current social system in Zimbabwe not meeting the needs of its citizens?

1.6 The study's justification

The researcher's motivation for conducting this study stems from a personal interest in the social protection phenomenon. Tom (2019) asserts that individuals often get interested in certain subjects because they have a personal connection to them. The researcher's interest in social protection was sparked by his own vulnerability as a result of his parents' death when he was just seven years old. After losing his parents, the researcher relied heavily on CARE Zimbabwe's food programmes; CADAC fee exemptions at the secondary school level; HEIFER international also provided him with some heifers; and ultimately, the Zimbabwean government's CADET program at the

university level. Without the researcher's participation in the social protection programmes, this piece of study would not exist. The researcher sought to influence the creation of a viable framework by reconsidering how social protection has been administered. The research closes a knowledge gap about these social security systems' inadequacies in tackling poverty. The study adds to the body of knowledge on social protection by recommending the establishment of a framework that would attempt to offer sufficient social protection coverage to all vulnerable Zimbabweans.

The knowledge obtained from this study will also be more useful to the government, since it will influence policymakers in Zimbabwe and other nations through the publication of this thesis in the University repository so that other interested readers can also refer to this research. The implementation of the results of this study will help non-governmental organizations, as well as students and researchers at different academic institutions and levels. This will be achieved through the publicizing facility which will help others to access the theses. This study will advance the body of knowledge in development studies, as well as the wider social sciences and humanities. The study may serve as a wake-up call for the Zimbabwean government to recognize the critical nature of providing adequate social protection to its citizens and the value of collaborating with communities and non-governmental organizations in the implementation of an all-inclusive social protection base. The study's results may also influence the policies of the Ministry of Social Welfare, the commercial sector, and church-based groups, including the selection criteria for recipients of any government-run program. After the completion of this research, finished copies will be given to the following government departments, District Administrator's office, Provincial Administrator's office and the office of the President at Provincial level. These are the offices that the researcher got permission to undertake this research.

1.7. Key concepts defined

The next section describes the thesis key words.

1.7.1 Social protection

The Department for International Development (DFID) defined social protection in two ways in a 2016 study commissioned by DFID and authored by Andrew Shepherd of the

Overseas Development Institute (ODI). The method described is one that considers the dangers that impoverished people confront and the ways in which policies, procedures, and interventions mitigate those risks. The article defines the collection of policies as those that the government employs to safeguard the poor, both economically active and less active poor. The article stresses that these measures are just a subset of a larger set of policies aimed at mitigating risk and promoting pro-poor development.

Social protection is a way of thinking about the procedures, policies, and initiatives that address the economic, social, political, and security risks and restraints faced by poor and vulnerable people, thereby reducing their insecurity and poverty, and increasing their ability to participate in economic growth (Ngom, 2019). Additionally, it focuses on risk reduction and vulnerability reduction, and encompasses all interventions from public, private, and voluntary organizations, as well as informal networks, that assist communities, households, and individuals in preventing, managing, and overcoming risks and vulnerabilities.” Pruce, as well as Hickey (2017). “As a collection of policies that governments can pursue to protect both the economically active poor, enabling them to participate more productively in economic activity, and the less active poor, with significant benefits to society as a whole” (Roelen, et al, 2017), This definition will be used throughout this study.

According to Samson (2016), social protection is a well-structured strategy that attempts to safeguard every member of the community from catastrophic risk, regardless of income level or socioeconomic position. There are two primary types of social security: non-contributory and contributory. Contributory schemes are financed via participant contributions, while non-contributory entitlements are financed through general taxation.

1.7.2 Social welfare

When it comes to people's social and economic well-being, the state plays a pivotal role in the social welfare model of governance. The principles of social welfare include that everyone should have a fair shot at success, that everyone should share in the rewards of economic success, and that the government should be held accountable for the welfare of those who are too poor to (Marshall, 2015). According to Marshall (2015), the modern welfare state is a "unique synthesis" of democracy, social welfare, and free market

capitalism. Italy, Belgium, and the Nordic countries of Greenland, Iceland, Finland, Netherlands, and France, which follow a system nicknamed the Nordic model, are all examples of contemporary welfare states. Tom and Chipenda (2020) categorize the most advanced welfare state systems as social democracy, conservative democracy, and liberal democracy. Money is sent from the government to service providers like hospitals and schools, as well as to those who receive assistance. The so-called "mixed economy" is supported by taxes that aim to re-distribute income.

1.7.3 Framework

A framework may be either a concrete physical structure or an abstract mental model that serves as a basis or guide for the creation of anything that builds upon or otherwise expands upon the framework. For computer systems, a framework is akin to a blueprint; it lays out the parameters within which new programmes may and must be built, as well as the relationships between them. Some computer system frameworks also have pre-written code, API documentation, or development tools tailored to the framework itself. To standardize communications at some level of a network, or to describe a collection of interconnected system operations, a framework may refer to the tiers of an OS, the layers of an application subsystems, or the structure of the network itself. Instead, a framework is both more detailed than a protocol and more prescriptive than a structure (Deaton and Cartwright, 2017).

1.8 Outline of the chapters

1.8.1 Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter serves as the study's introduction. It offers context for the study, the study's aim, objectives, research questions and rationale, the study's goals, and research questions, as well as an overview of the chapters.

1.8.2 Chapter two: Conceptual and theoretical framework

This chapter will explain the principles and two major theories used in this investigation. Among these methods are the Welfare state theory and the Capability theory. The study will attempt to identify these techniques in terms of social protection and its function in alleviating socioeconomic inequalities in the province of Masvingo and Zimbabwe at

large. These techniques are intended to give a platform for the study to develop an all-encompassing social protection system that will facilitate the administration of social protection services to disadvantaged persons.

1.8.3 Chapter three: Global social protection experiences

This chapter will discuss social protection from a global perspective. Since social protection is now regarded as a global program, the researcher will discuss social protection in Asia, Africa, Latin America, America as well as in Europe. The discussion will enable the researcher to also have a cooperative analysis of social protection initiatives in various continents.

1.8.4 Chapter four: Social protection in Zimbabwe

This chapter will have a general presentation of social protection in Zimbabwe considering its coverage, challenges and also how best can the government do in order to come up with the probable solutions to the given challenges.

1.8.5 Chapter 5: Main-streaming social protection programmes in Zimbabwe

This chapter focuses on discussing Zimbabwe's major or main social protection structure and also look at how social protection has been implemented in the country. This will be done by bringing up previously implemented social protection programmes and see how they were impacting the livelihoods of the people.

1.8.6 Chapter six: Methodology

The chapter discusses the methodology used in this study, the data collection techniques, the research instruments, and their rationale. The chapter covers semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions, the population studied and their geographic locations, data collecting procedures and data processing techniques, as well as their rationale.

1.8.7 Chapter seven: Data presentation and results analysis

The study's findings on rethinking social protection in Masvingo province are organized thematically. The findings are then compared to those of other academics in literature who have written on social protection in Zimbabwe. Various themes have been

discovered from the research and have been analyzed thematically and conclusions have been made.

1.8.8 Chapter Six: Discussion and Theorization

This chapter discusses and hypothesizes about the study's results. The key issues drove the theoretical findings, which are based on concepts of the welfare state, transformation, and capacity theory in relation to the conception of social protection.

1.8.9 Chapter eight: Summary-conclusions and recommendations

This chapter summarizes the whole study and draws conclusions on the research topics that guided the study. There are suggestions for the central government office, province and district government offices, and non-state providers of social protection. Additionally, possible topics for future study are highlighted, as are the difficulties encountered.

1.8.10 Chapter nine: Contribution to knowledge

This chapter recapitulates the knowledge gap that this research has identified and henceforth filled. The knowledge gap is the reason why the researcher chooses to carry out this research.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the research, including the study's history and rationale. The history of social protection in Zimbabwe, the way the government implemented its welfare programmes in different areas across the nation, and the many kinds of social protection programmes. There has been widespread public uproar both domestically and internationally about the failure and/or insufficiency of Zimbabwe's social safety programmes; this may have been triggered by a variety of factors, including social, economic, and political. The Zimbabwean government has a widespread lack of commitment to tackling poverty and associated vulnerabilities via social safety programmes. If social protection is administered effectively by all key stakeholders, it has the potential to significantly improve the quality of life for the country's most vulnerable people. Nongovernmental groups, the business sector, and the government must work together and collaboratively. The next chapter addresses pertinent literature to the current research. Numerous academics who have written about social protection are addressed

in the next chapter, as is the section on theoretical framework, which serves as the basis for the whole study.

CHAPTER TWO: CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

This section explicates the values and two main conceptual methods employed in this investigation. The Welfare state theory and the Capability theory are used. The study sought to identify these techniques in of social protection and its function in alleviating socioeconomic inequalities in the Masvingo province. The techniques are intended to give a platform for the study to develop a holistic social protection system capable of facilitating the administration of social protection services to the disadvantaged members of the community.

2.1 Conceptualizing social protection

Social protection is viewed as a combination of public and private pacts targeted at contributing funds to the disadvantaged, protecting the vulnerable from subsistence dangers, and transforming societal viewpoint and privileges towards exempted from social allocation, with the goal of reducing the socioeconomic and financial vulnerability of the disadvantaged, socially excluded, and ostracized people (Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004). Based on this and subsequent definition, the various critical theoretical ramifications of social protection are scrutinized. The most essential of these concepts is the state welfare theory, followed by the transformation theory and the capacity theory.

The Robert Schuman Centre for Advanced Studies (2010) observed that there is no one description of social protection, thus they described it as a specific assortment of interventions that seek to address the vulnerabilities of individuals 's lives through national welfare, government aid, and community cohesion initiatives. Furthermore, for the World Bank (WB), social protection incorporates both contributing and non-contributory programmes and social laws. Safety nets are a subcategory of non-contributory social protection programmes, such as conditioned and unconditionally cash payments (Monchuk, 2014). The study "Assessing Progress in Africa Towards the MDGs" (African Union Commission and others, 2011) lays a special emphasis on safety nets, particularly seek to protect people from unforeseen dangers and disruptions including natural catastrophes and health problems.

The same research further confirms that social protection is intended to confront the systemic determinants of impoverishment by enabling disadvantaged or underprivileged people to profit from and actively contribute to the processes of socioeconomic progress. It encompasses initiatives and tools that actively influence human growth, serve as safeguards and preventative measures, and advance social fairness. Social protection is a collection of programmes and regulations that are often focused on the poor, disadvantaged, and marginalized and are put in place to assist people deal with disruptions and reach minimal living standards and levels of welfare, despite classifications that may differ. Contributory and non-contributory initiatives, as well as laws and standards fostering fairness and limiting discrimination, are examples of these strategies and initiatives. It is also apparent that the cost of these crisis is rising and that their structure is evolving to include both ecological and social factors. The Centre for Global Development (2015) and the Centre for Research and the Epidemiology of Disaster (2015) posit that natural calamities affect more than 200 million people annually on average. According to estimates, South Sudan has received about US\$332 per person per year in disaster aid to date.

To assist individuals who were excluded by social security and welfare state type programmes through strategies and initiatives, the idea of social protection initially developed in the writings in the late 1990s. Welfare benefits are often regarded as mandatory welfare and social security programmes funded by payments that apply to public officials and other regular employees but exclude casual employees like farmers and the self-employed (Coheur, 2007). However, public safety is of limited significance in the African setting since it hardly comprises of around 5 and 20% of the people who were previously working (Devereux, 2010). Identifying the rights' bearer is one of the key differences among social protection and social security. Most social security laws, such as the privileges of formalized employees to contributing pensions, life and disability coverage, affordable healthcare, and maternity vacation, are founded on the employees' participation philosophy. Social protection programmes are open to everyone and are built on a human rights perspective. The latter holds that it is the attainment of economic and social rights, not their methods that must be global. Consequently, social protection programmes must specifically prioritize those whose financial and social interests are not

being addressed; in other terms, they should concentrate expenditures on ensuring that everyone has access to economic and social rights (Cecchini and Martinez, 2011).

According to the European Union Commission's (2013) conceptualization of social protection, the following mechanisms may be reorganized into groups: Social insurance is a program designed to assist individuals in addressing issues related to aging, such as retirement income loss, coping with negative shocks, orphanage, unemployment, and starvation brought on by insufficient rainfall. Most of it consists of programmes that require contributions, such pension plans, and various kinds of insurance for employees that cover their health, joblessness, injuries, disabilities, or deaths. Social assistance is a term used to describe a variety of non-contributory programmes, including cash handouts for child support, school meals, public works initiatives, cash or food exchanges, cash handouts for disaster relief, and non-contributory pensions for the elderly. The poorest and most disadvantaged members of society are the principal beneficiaries of social assistance. The term "social inclusion" refers to initiatives that primarily address legislative mechanisms governing things like employment hours, the basic wage, occupational safety, anti-discrimination legislation, and equitable action practices. There are also hybrid programmes, which combine social security and assistance-related activities.

From the aforementioned viewpoints, it is also possible to conclude that social protection is concerned with ways of transferring claims to those vulnerable groups, such as children, women, the aged people, disabled, dislocated, unemployed, and the sick. These organizations are all vulnerable or at risk in some way (Holmes and Scott, 2016). Social protection has historically been premised on short-term safety nets, safeguards against the effects of shocks like floods, droughts, joblessness, or the loss of a breadwinner, as well as insurance measures related even to formal work. Social protection has been transformed to encompass longer-term preventative and constructive viewpoints since the focus on short-term poverty alleviation has been deemed a costly, welfare-state interference and restrictive to people self-sufficiency.

These strategies emphasize the structural factors that contribute to chronic poverty and try to overcome the social, economic, and political obstacles that disadvantaged

individuals must overcome in order to escape poverty (Idris, 2017). Focusing on the concept of proactive social protection, which aims to increase the agency of the most vulnerable, the transformational nature of social protection, which acts with a rights-based approach to change the position and possibilities of underprivileged people, has also been explored. Social protection is increasingly recognized as significantly promoting economic development and stability rather than only being defined in terms of reducing poverty.

2.2 Social protection definitions

Social protection focuses on uplifting and assisting individuals who are weak, marginalized, or facing hazards. The shocks might be unique, impacting a particular group of people or whole families who are linked to various life cycle periods. They may also be extensive covariates that have an impact on societies as a result of shocks and disruptions like the weather, war, or other issues. Poor children, women, elderly people, and persons with disabilities, as well as those who are evicted, jobless, and ill, are vulnerable populations that social protection supports (White, 2016). To reduce the financial and relational vulnerability of poor, susceptible, and marginalized organizations, social protection is generally comprehended as "all public and confidential proposals that provide income or consumption transactions to the poor, safeguard the susceptible against livelihood dangers, and strengthen the social status and privileges of the marginalized" (Devereux and SabatesWheeler, 2014).

Social protection is "a combination of nationwide strategies and programmes" (UNDP, 2016: 12), often offered by the government using local funds such as subscriptions or taxation financing with assistance from foreign donors, especially for least developed and lower middle-income countries (UN DESA, 2018: 6). Fundamentally, social protection is envisioned as a component of the "state-citizen" agreement, which outlines the obligations of governments and people to one another (Harvey et al., 2007). Since there may be some overlapping with a variety of initiatives for livelihoods, social resources, and nutrition safety, there are continuous discussions regarding whether activities qualify as social protection. Additionally, although there is broad consensus that social protection is desirable in principle, there are considerable differences in terms of what this really

implies in low- and middle-income nations, as well as in terms of to whom it ought to be supplied, how, and in what form (McCord, 2013).

2.2.1 Definition of social protection

According to Deverauxs (2014), social protection is respectively a concept and a set of initiatives that support community members, families, and persons in their attempts to mitigate against risks and weaknesses. As a strategy, social protection focuses on mitigating and threats and covers all strategies from government, corporate, and cooperative institutions as well as casual systems. Persons sending resources to friends and relatives are considered informal connections. The foundation of a social protection strategy has reached a level of societal consensus on the idea that people have a right to certain standard levels of wellbeing just by virtue of being people. Notosusanto (2016) asserted that social protection actions that support and uphold agreed-upon standard guidelines can be instrumental in the attainment of other privileges. For instance, ensuring that youngsters have access to the most basic of healthcare implies that they stand to benefit more from academic achievement. Against this background, what is deemed as basic level of livelihood is naturally a debatable matter that evolves over time along with prosperity, academic affluence, interactions, and political persuasions.

2.2.2 Social protection's goals

Social protection has array of goals, narrowing the inequality gap, developing human capital, empowering women, and girls, enhancing livelihood, and addressing crisis of all kinds, both socioeconomic and otherwise. As a consequence, there is a lot of variances in the method, makeup, and execution of social protection (UNDP, 2016: 14). Helping individuals achieve their fundamental requirements, regulating spending, and reducing the temporary effects of crisis are common short-term goals. When individuals are affected by illness or a famine, programmes may assist them uphold basic level of income or keep them from sinking further into destitution.

Other social protection areas underscore longer-term growth and helping individuals to get out of poverty. (Babajanian et al., 2014). Improving chances for societal transformation, human capacity improvement, and holistic growth are some of the longer-

term objectives. Selected social protection programmes target to transform communities by advancing equality, female participation, and civil rights. More people are becoming cognizant of the power of social protection to advance social justice for disadvantaged social groups (Jones and Shahrokh, 2013: 1). Under Goals 1, 3, 5, 8, and 10 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), social protection goals are encompassed. Furthermore, social protection is "a critical instrument to simultaneously post growth in several essentially interrelated Goals and Targets" because to its capacity to address a variety of exclusionary and deprived-causing factors (UNDP, 2016).

2.2.3 The Social Protection Idea

In the previous generations, the concept of social protection has evolved as a central standard into which many policies might be created in order to guarantee basic livelihood conditions for all people and create communities that are progressive. A proportion of administrative and global legal documents, including the 1966 International Covenant on Economic, and the 1948 United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Social, and Cultural Rights acknowledge the importance of social protection policy in assisting in the full awareness of people's fundamental freedoms. These documents attest the rights to social security, the right to work, the safeguarding of suitable living conditions for persons and households, the quest of the maximum levels of physical and psychological wellbeing, and the rights to a decent education (Cecchini and Martinez, 2011).

Social protection is defined by the United Nations (2013), as a critical tool for enhancing development towards internationally recognized developmental goals like the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). It is also broadly perceived as a contemporary issue that has to be publicly included in the Sustainable Development Goals as part of the inclusive discussions on the post-2015 development agenda (SDGs). Although generally stating that all social programmes embrace elements of social protection, not all of them are principally designed to achieve that goal. Social protection is globally at the centre of social policy, which is crucial to welfare systems that consider not just official action but also the functioning of markets, households, and communal groups.

According to Fernando (2014), welfare is based on three core principles: basic social assistance requirements, Protection from life cycle-related risks, as well as mitigation or repair of social damage that results when social issues or dangers manifest. Furthermore, social protection is designed to ameliorate fiscal issues like economic hardship and disproportion that affect the entire community, such as income disparity, and age-related issues (Alderman and Yemtsov, 2014). In light of this, it fails to ameliorate all facets of social strategy, but constitutes one of the crucial foundations along with sectorial guidelines for shelter, healthcare, and education, and also policies for social advancement which including finance and information, communication, and technical backing for small and medium entrepreneurs. Whilst all sectoral policies are charged with the provision of humanitarian aid human and social development policies are key in improving community capacity to create income on their own. Moreover, social protection aims to guarantee a minimal standard of living for all representatives of community.

Social protection principally exists to ensure that there is enough welfare to maintain living conditions that are seen to be essential for an individual 's growth at the same time allowing accessibility to social assistance and encouraging good employment (Ayliffe et al, 2017). It is also pertinent to consider a comprehensive strategy for social protection, taking into consideration the dual necessities of people, households, and societies as well as the provision of programmes and initiatives. This denotes that the holistic stages that cover strategies and programmes are implemented. Various dimensions of organization must be rendered particular attention in the design, execution, and management of safety protection schemes.

2.3 Types of social protection

Social protection includes the following components:

Social assistance includes non-contributory distributions of money, gift cards, or goods to needy people or families. It also includes public works initiatives, fee exemptions for essential healthcare and educational facilities, and rebates for things such food and gasoline (White, 2016: 1).

Social insurance covers "contributory strategies supplying compensating assistance in case of uncertainties such as diseases, multiple injuries, impairment, death of a partner or guardian, maternity/paternity, joblessness, old age, and shocks impacting on farm animals," according to the National Council on Social Insurance.

Services for social care are provided to those who are at danger of social problems such harassment, misuse, manipulation, prejudice, and social isolation (White, 2016: 1).

Social assistance and social insurance make up "social security," a phrase often used alternatively with social protection by the ILO and other UN entities (Seplveda and Nyst, 2021). Various social protection elements/categories are examined in the section that follows, along with conventional or unofficial social protection. 2018: 6 (O'Brien et al.).

2.3.1 Social assistance

The comprehensive cost is covered by the provider, humanitarian assistance is classified as a non-contributory program that assists households address vulnerabilities food security issues and deprivation. These initiatives concentrate on the helpless and vulnerable. Most are focused on low-income families, while others are aimed primarily on characteristics of susceptibility. They are often funded by state taxation and offered by the government, non-profit organizations, and the commercial sector (Barrientos and Nio-Zaraza, 2016). In lower income environments, financial assistance is particularly crucial. In the majority of developing nations, this is the main social safety option. Good example includes fee exemptions, non-contributory social pensions, food and other in-kind transfers, school feeding programmes, public works initiatives, and unconditional and conditional cash transfers (Bastagli, 2015: 5).

The World Bank uses the phrase "social safety nets," often referred to as "safety nets," interchangeably with "social assistance" (Hagen-Zanker et al, 2016). However, for some actors in development, safety nets allude to a kind of social maintenance scheme that is very urgent and/or emergency-oriented, designed to assist people in ameliorating their most basic requirements during times of disaster. The term "social help" will be used throughout this work to describe the results from this specific study in order to maintain continuity. The following list of social support programmes includes:

Cash transfers: are simple, dependable, and direct transactions that are frequently made using safe digital methods including putting money straight into bank accounts, cell phone records, or intelligent cards. They aim to both alleviate acute suffering and reduce poverty while also helping poor families become more resilient by empowering them to save money, make investments, and deal with risks and shocks more effectively. Cash transfers may be made in a variety of ways, including simple transfers, payments subject to conditions, and transfers coupled with the supply of or connections to other services (Hagen-Zanker et al, 2016).

unconditional payments in cash (UPCs): contain neither restrictions on how they must be used nor constraints on when they must be delivered. Authorities execute them on a global basis, while NGOs carry them out on a limited basis (Coady, 2018).

Conditional payments Transfers (CCTs): are provided subject to the recipient fulfilling specific requirements, often those relating to the building of intellectual resources, such as making sure children attend school or attending a health clinic. By doing so, CCTs hope to lessen multigenerational inequality and susceptibility as well as short-term food instability (Grosh and Hoddinott, 2017).

Cash plus programmes: combine cash transfers with one or more additional forms of assistance, with the knowledge that "cash itself can reduce non-financial and institutional hurdles to raising living conditions and well-being" (Roelen et al., 2017). These actions are part of a very recent trend that has grown over the previous several years. They often concentrate either on enhancing human capital objectives, such as bettering nourishment, reproduction healthcare, and decreasing aggression towards women and girls, or on promoting constructive participation for long-term livelihoods. The "plus" component is offered via links to services offered by other industries or as fundamental parts of the cash transfer operation.

In-kind assistance: incorporates schools' meals, which are free, nourishing meals served at school, often for lunch, and oftentimes provisions for pupils who are most in need to take home. School feeding programmes seek to boost student efficiency and school

enrolment while reducing hunger and enhancing food sustainability (Roelen et al., 2017). Social non-contributory pensioners, which sometimes include retirement benefits, are straightforward, consistent, and dependable benefits paid to individuals above a particular age.

Public-works initiatives (PWIs): are actions that require receiving a remuneration from the government in the form of money or food in exchange for supplying labour (Rohwerder, B. (2014). The ultimate goal is to advance welfare support by increasing job opportunities and creating a material or societal resource. Their primary goal is reducing unemployment or creating jobs, they may be categorized as labour market initiatives. Public Works Programmes, Workfare, Assistance to Works, Money for Jobs, Work opportunities of Last Resort, and Career Guaranteed Programmes are some terms used to refer to programmes that provide state-sponsored work that is not market-based (McCord, 2018: 10).

Graduation programmes: In order to improve lifestyles and encourage a long-term escape from poverty, a sequencing combination of assistance services, comprising cash transactions, asset transactions, accessibility to investments and loans, and education and mentoring, should be made available. These programmes target families with labour capability and are largely productive output. Graduating programmes have grown dramatically over the last ten years and are now offered in more than 43 nations. A number of nations across Africa, Asia, Latin America, and the Caribbean have started trial programmes in response to the success of first generation "graduation model" programmes in Bangladesh. According to Arévalo et al. (2018), these nations include Bangladesh, the Philippines, Tanzania, Eritrea, Jamaica, and Puerto Rico.

Fee exemptions: They often utilize incentives to keep prices low for specific products and services while aiding the disadvantaged (World Bank, 2018b: 38). Exclusions from healthcare coverage, lower medical costs, waivers of school fees, subsidized food, subsidized accommodation and reimbursements, utility and power discounts and payments, farming commodity subsidization, and mass commuting advantages are a few examples (Alfers et al, 2017). A sample of 82 countries in the World Bank ASPIRE database reveal that knowledge on fee reductions and reimbursements are common

although they only cover the lowest quartile to an aggregate extent of around 13% (Canonge, 2015: 2).

BEAM was introduced by the government of Zimbabwe in 2000, claims the Government of Zimbabwe (2014). The system was started in responding to the nation's deteriorating social circumstances, which were causing the poor to experience increasingly severe numerous shocks, including rising prices for basic necessities, layoffs, high unemployment rates, high rates of school dropouts, and high interest and consumer price index rates. BEAM, together with other initiatives by the business industry, religions, non-governmental organisations, specific households, and neighbourhood, is, in fact, the greatest form of academic support in the nation to date (Ministry of Public Services, Labour and Social Welfare, 2014). BEAM, which is basically a program to help with school costs, was developed as one of the five elements of the Enhanced Social Protection Project (ESPP), that serves as the foundation for all social protection measures.

The Zimbabwean Cadetship Scheme, another fee exemption program run by the Zimbabwean authorities, covers undergraduate tuition for graduates who come from poor families (Masdar, 2014). The initiative was started by the administration to help marginalized undergraduates pay their tuition in exchange for working in Zimbabwe after graduation for an equivalent number of years commensurate with the duration of their study. Many university students in Zimbabwe benefited from the cadetship system, but the scheme later ran into numerous challenges associated with tracking the graduates after completion financial and erratic governmental financial support.

2.3.2 Social insurance

Social insurance programmes are contributory programmes where members contribute on a regular basis to a plan that would pay for expenses associated with life occurrences (Barrientos, 2014). Occasionally, the supplier of the insurance plan may match or subsidize expenses. They consist of maternity/paternity compensation, joblessness, illnesses, and healthcare benefits, as well as old-age, survival, and disabilities payments (Bolton (2017). Benefits may be paid officially via a pooled fund established on the communities, through a business or financial institution, or both. The National Social Security Authority, NSSA, is a statutory body in Zimbabwe responsible for collecting

social insurance payments from employees and disbursements of socioeconomic safety funds,

The National or Social Health Insurance (SHI), that is founded on people's forced enrolment, is the first healthcare of its kind to be launched (Spaan et al., 2017: 68). Independent healthcare coverage (IHCC) is widely used in Brazil, Chile, Namibia, and South Africa, and community-based health insurance (CBHI), which is commonly used in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ghana, Rwanda, and Senegal. In Zimbabwe, community funeral organizations that help its membership in the event that a member of society passes on are popular with low-income groups. In the majority of low- and middle-income nations, there are concerted efforts to extend the coverage of social insurance beyond the formal sector to cover informal employees, who constitute a bigger proportion of the working people. Furthermore, marginalized, and disadvantaged organizations are usually excluded from official interventions.

According to (Hosein and Nyst, 2018), initiatives to provide for the uninsured communities cover non-contributory comprehensive programmes that take the shape of social pensions, universal health insurance, and the unemployment schemes are funded by public taxes. The third option is similar health insurance programmes, similar to those in Tunisia, where there are particular contributing and non-contributory healthcare programmes, and Mexico, where participation is based on one's type of job (Hujo and Cook, 2017). Some nations blend donations and taxes to fund universal health care. For instance, self-employed Mongolian herders have the option of registering in the social insurance program to be candidates for antenatal cash welfare disbursements. Moreover, the Social Welfare Program gives prenatal payments to all expectant mothers and new mothers regardless of the nature of social insurance pension plans, employment status, or nationality.

2.3.3 Labour market initiatives and policies

Protocols and initiatives designed to ensure crucial standards and liberties in the labour market safeguard those who have the capacity to work but are impoverished (Barrientos, 2014). These government-led initiatives and regulations are capable of being instrumental in supporting the citizenry to improve their capabilities and liaise with the labour market

in protecting the unemployed, from economic decline and unforeseen job losses (World, 2018).

The goal of contemporary labour market policies and interventions is to assist the most vulnerable and jobless in finding employment. This frequently requires actions like linking job seekers with unfilled positions, improving, and enhancing job applicants' abilities, availing work incentives, and the creation of new jobs in the public service or through the giving of tax incentives schemes for work in the private sector (Idris, 2017). In developing countries, professional employees benefit from such measures Modern labour market strategies usually fuse anti-poverty strategies and mix activities in third world nations with labour economies with minimum rates of unemployment than in developed countries (Manley and Slavchevska, 2019: 3). For instance, public works projects and some sort of financial assistance may accompany educational programmes, and unemployment welfare benefits may be used to hire members in cash transfer programmes who are at risk of volatile labour markets including extended periods of unemployment.

Blending labour market activity with public works programmes is a strategy often used by governments. Legislation to back prenatal care as well as laws covering maternity and paternity leave accident reimbursement, premature pension bonuses, and illness entitlements for those currently employed, paid for by the employers, serve as dormant regulations of the labour market (Molina et al, 2019). The passing of Legislative reforms that include minimal wages or safe workplace environment are deemed inactive actions. The formal workforce is often the targeted by these activities. According to (Nixon and Mallett, 2017), many marginalized workers in the less organized industry, especially in poor nations, those who are severely ill may not be able to work at all render labour market measures ineffective in reaching intended targets.

2.3.4 Formal or informal social safety nets

Unofficial social welfare traditional approaches, firm links with culture and community drives (Twigg, 2015: 187). Social protection initiatives that are collectively crafted to safeguard public individuals from shocks and are on built on the values of *Ubuntu*/pass as community-based types of social protection (Mupedziswa and Ntseane, 2013). They may incorporate pooling of grains banking, rotational resources and lending

organizations, community-led medical coverage, and neighbourhood burial insurance or also known as burial societies which are mainly self-funded. Although they are prominent in the neighbourhood in delivering their mandate in serving as a center of protection, but experience limited growth and reach because of factionalism and accessibility to numerous economic institutions that manage welfare assistance (Twigg, 2015: 197).

The government and other funders may commit resources to oversubscribed community-based social welfare strategies, such as banking societies, loan societies and emanating the society health insurance programmes (Francese and Prady, 2018). (Ulrichs, 2016). The transition from "pure" types of optional participation and communal administration to forced enrolment and other exterior pressures can cause evolution of the scheme with the help of outside assistance. Although State- and donor-funded social protection programmes often make an impact in promoting try to promote or support regional initiatives The Yemen Social Fund for Development, established in 1997 by the authorities with funding from donors is a classic example of local success (Azra, 2015).

2.4 Social protection's reach

There are numerous options that a social protection scheme can take in terms of provider and recipient of social protection. A social protection strategy aims at reevaluating a number of civic policies and societal inclinations from the standpoint of risk and vulnerabilities, surpassing traditional definitions of what constitutes security nets, protection schemes, and welfare benefits. A credible social protection strategy is bound to look at societal and family needs in order to respond accordingly (Cartwright and Hardie, 2015).

2.5 Social safety nets and protection

Safety nets, according to Devereux and Ulrichs (2016), are often momentary contingency interventions that are implemented in order to prevent society from going below a certain level of livelihood. While safety nets are best understood as a well throughout response to economic disasters and adjustments. social protection schemes prevent families in lowering risks that have a negative impact on wellness, expenditure, and savings. The safety nets operated ineffectively, fail to cover targeted populations, and would therefore

be implemented quickly, led to the development of welfare support philosophy. Grosh and deemed ineffective. Hoddinott (2014) emphasizes that welfare benefits may be implemented prior to the onset of the disaster; nonetheless, if their presence is widely recognized prior to the crisis' incursion, well-designed support systems may still be an essential component of a social security strategy

2.6 Social security and protection

The distinction between social security and social protection—which is more of a subcategory of human protection was found to be highly valuable in this specific study. According to Rutstein et al. (2016), socioeconomic safety is the safeguard that general public offers to its representatives through a number of public initiatives to make up for the loss of revenue from jobs caused by a variety of unforeseen events, such as illness, prenatal care, workplace injuries, underemployment, unconstitutionality, old age, and the death of the breadwinner, in order to pay for human beings 's health care and provide economic advantages for households with young kids.

Public security programmes in this context, which also include social insurance and social assistance programmes which are based on organized work. The key topic of discussion in emerging nations has been how to extend t the benefits of official social protection to the individual entrepreneurs who operate freely in a volatile economy (Molini and Paci, 2015). Normal security measures, inclusive national programmes are limited to the formal sectors and exclude the poor in emerging nations who work in the unorganized sector. Cichon and Cichon (2016) suggested the proceeding functions for social protection as part of its initiative for decent work should address poor health, HIV/AIDS, jobs and availing schemes that cover water and sanitation, care for the invalids, education for poor prioritizing healthcare funding and education toward a medium-term solution.

According to Barca (2017), social welfare strategies must identify aggregable elements that are feasible resultantly, the regulation of informal activities becomes a vital component of a universal social protection methodology. Consequently, social protection intends to support all citizens regardless of their social status. This makes the citizenry active participants whether they bare private, public entities, they have a stake in any given social welfare programme, including those made by these groups in the informal

economy, the private industry, as well as the formal sector of employment. This becomes the pillar used to guarantee that every citizen equal protection. Credible social policies must advance a social protection strategy capable of restore NG the citizenry to previous status in the event of a shock or emergency.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

This section will give a detailed background, origin and evolution of the following theories which will inform this research: The Welfare state theory and the capability theory. The theories underpinning this study, form the fundamental basis of this research and will help to elucidate on the analysis of the findings in the later chapters of the study.

2.7.1 The welfare state idea

modern experts regard Esping Andersen (1990) as the most eminent scholar in the area of welfare government. He submits the welfare society is he government's obligation to provide a standard I level of wellbeing for its citizens. However, Andersen contends the welfare system cannot be defined merely terms of ideas of the privileges it confers. Rather, he posits that one must comprehend how governmental operations are intertwined with the functions of the state, the markets, and the household with regards to the provision of social services. In understanding the welfare system idea, the level of subdivision and deco adjustment is critical.

Hobson (1997) and Lewis (1993) contend that the welfare system is more than a collection of resources; it is also a collection of beliefs about the responsibilities of society, families, and women as public assistance administrators and recipients. Palme (1990) asserts that the idea of the welfare state must be applied abstractly to define broad types of organizations that represent the reality that the government has been tasked with ensuring that its inhabitants have a good standard of life. In a similar vein, Carroll (1999) proposes a conception of the welfare state as a network of political organizations under which financial payments are delivered to individuals or families in cases of officially recognized loss of wage revenue streams.

According to Taylor (2010), the welfare government hypothesis is the primary technique utilized by nation governments to eliminate inequalities and allocate social benefits. It is

both a result of current inequality structures and a tool for redistributing political and socioeconomic dominance. Particularly, the ideology of the welfare government has just been utilized to allocate commodities in methods that organize class, racial, and relationships between men and women. The origins of governmental social assistance programmes, the implications of such initiatives on various socioeconomic structures, and the issues faced by welfare governments as they strive to adapt to changing population, economics, and labour exchanges are central to welfare government studies.

This study would be guided by the government welfare paradigm of social security. State government assistance is predicated primarily on the presence of a re-allocable improved economy. The elevated level economic growth between 1945 and 1973, particularly in Europe and the United States, supplied the financial means; Neoliberal theory presented the justification, and the consolidation of the federal national government during nationwide post - war militarization increased governmental administrative capabilities, according to Janowitz (1976). This approach of reducing the effect of classes and government was mirrored in investigations of welfare system creation.

The concept that arose to understand welfare system evolution mirrored historical trends, such as the concept of continued progress and a fundamental belief that welfare system programmes and productivity augmentation were compatible. Heclo (1974) and Perrin (1969) argued that, as a massive social safety mechanism, the welfare scheme guards from social hazards, fragility, unemployment, and hunger across the whole lifestyle, and also offers income redistribution and life opportunities if administered in accordance with its directives. In this research, the theory will be used because it successfully solves the issues of inequality and vulnerabilities in a growing nation like Zimbabwe, which has a weak industry that fails to produce jobs for its population and a weak social safety structure.

In addition, the theory gives a remedy for reducing poverty via the management of different welfare programmes, including as the student feeding scheme, regular meals for work, government activities, food assistance, and cash remittances, which will be discussed in this study. The welfare state was established in 1948, and while it was based on pre-war activities, it was seen as a significant departure from the previous

arrangement. Tony Blair has remarked that the welfare society is linked with development, well-being, anti-poverty initiatives, and efficient services provision, and that these attitudes are overwhelmingly positive.

2.7.2 Criticism of the social safety net

The creation of contemporary welfare governments, according to Stiglitz (2015), has been fraught with tensions and ideological resistance. Following this, the scholar will carefully explore several criticisms of the welfare system. This debate aims to illustrate the negative aspects of the welfare state theory so that subsequent researchers would be cautious when embracing some of these results. The critique of the welfare system has centered on freedoms and privileges, motivations for unethical actions, and financial effectiveness.

Libertarians have argued that the welfare state and its strategy of redistribution methods violates personal freedoms and private property rights. Robert Nozick reveals that this technique has been used to marginalize the rich and successful. In less democratic countries this redistribution violates ownership rights by depriving individuals of their lawful earnings (Sunstein, 2016) equates this practice to slave labour" (Ostry et al, 2014: 117). Other liberals, such as Friedrich Hayek, have opines that the welfare system is flawed because its structure which marginalise individual freedoms and reverts to communism because of its forced unscientific approaches.

Daniel Shapiro in his book *Is the Welfare State Excusable* claims that marketplace reinsurance has the capacity to meet all benefits system aims more effectively with few infringements to personal freedom. Charles Murray, in his influential book *Losing Ground in American Social Policy 1950-1980*, takes a different take. (Mazzucato, 2015). Murray reasons that welfare programmes were detrimental to the moral and social fabric \and that in the long run eroded the very gains that it purports to advance and protect.

According to Murray, this has detrimental effects on both an individual and society level. Opponents have opposed, from an economic view, that the welfare system contributes to inefficiency and a decrease in economic productivity, which ruins economic performance and dent the welfare programmes. Moreover, he reasoned that massive that huge social

welfare grants were a danger to economic growth and limited the viability of the labour market. the Swedish welfare system and the fiscal challenges of the early 1990s convinced Jonas Angell to conclude that welfare system had outgrown the economy to appoint whereby the economy was underperforming and stalled (Chapman, 2014: 123).

However, the result of the welfare system on the economic damage has been a subject of contention. debatable. Akerlof and Shiller, (2015) posits that perfecting a welfare system at the expense of productivity was the cause of economic decline in a number of welfare systems in Europe. The criticisms of the welfare schemes led to the launching of the so-called active welfare system. Thomas Malthus (1766-1834), criticked any type of social any form of welfare schemes and was joined by an anti-birth control advocate." Malthus, a priest who claimed that the poor had to be self-disciplined and live within their means. Mainstream libertarians advanced the view social welfare is allowed to grow unchecked would weaken individual givers and dampen socio - cultural links of families, neighbours, church, and aid organizations.

Karl Marx, on the other hand, criticized middle-class revolutionaries' and castigates their provision of a good working environment as an illusion which in the long-term harm societal progress (Ryan, 2012). A contemporary historian, said in 2012 that contemporary welfare government did not seek to impoverish the poor but has the over the overriding goals of cushioning the poor of the poorest through contextual responses to societal needs.

2.7.3 Implementing Welfare Models in Developing Countries: Zimbabwe

There have been attempts to explain and contextualize issues over the applicability of European welfare concepts to the investigation of the formation and evolution of social policies in emerging nations such as Zimbabwean as well as other African nations in general. It shouldn't be unexpected, given the inadequacy of a number of these intricate systems, that social policy experts revert to the basic definition of Welfarism in underdeveloped nations, even prior the incorporation of the European welfare structure by African nations that are developing.

2.7.4 The nature of the State Welfare System in Zimbabwe

It is commendable that Zimbabwe has a somewhat effective social provision that is merely presentable and intelligent on paperwork, but hardly anything is getting accomplished to supplement the written social protection regulations. Following Zimbabwe's liberation in 1980, social protection has been a feature of all developmental plans and governmental inequality alleviation initiatives, according to the Zimbabwean division of the World Bank (2016). In fact, the country had a heritage of welfare systems even during imperial periods, when the English Poor Laws affected public safety assistance aimed mostly at the urban poor, which formed the public face of poverty (World Bank, 2016).

Section 30 of Chapter 1 of the basic principles of the Zimbabwean constitution broadly specifies the entitlement to human welfare and safety nets (The Constitution of Zimbabwe Sec 81). Sections 81, 82, and 83 of this constitution address the protection of minors, the elderly, and people with impairments, respectively. Using its payments to (public and private) retirement benefits and emergency treatment programmes, formal economy employees were able to participate contributory programmes under Zimbabwe's traditional job market and welfare system (Chakanya, 2019). Consequently, a formal (wages-and-salaries-earning) worker has more social protection provision than an unstructured (wage- and salary-earning) employee or one participating in a hazardous employment agreement or temporary labor lacking typical government welfare services (Chakanya, 2019).

In November 2020, the Government of Zimbabwe released its most recent financial plan, the National Development Strategy (NDS 1) 2021-2025. For social protection, the NDS specifies that the following initiatives, developments, and procedures will be put in place to minimize excessive impoverishment and strengthen direct exposure to basic socioeconomic facilities throughout the life process of disadvantaged individuals: - Provision of nutrition help, community financial assistance, medical aid, quality education benefit such as free school meals and allocation of hygienic wear for female students in education institutions; Requirement of concessional assistance in funeral and burial costs; Allocation of contingent aid in memorial ceremony and burial costs. Improve social

protection distribution mechanisms, including shock resiliency (Government of Zimbabwe, 2020).

The GoZ is shifting from social protection to social welfare and development to increase the self-sufficiency of disadvantaged populations by providing economic assistance outside of the country's conventional social programmes. Female's Financial institution and Youth Empower Bank deliver start-up investment for women in small and medium-sized businesses, and NGOs and the Ministry of Women Affairs, Community, Small and Medium Enterprises facilitates investments and borrowing initiatives (National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations) (NANGO, 2021).

2.7.5 Rationalizations of the welfare state in Zimbabwe

The Welfare State hypothesis may be perfect since the Zimbabwean administration has a lot of social welfare that are run by the authorities and supported by other parties like non-governmental organisations. According to (Deverauxs, 2014), social welfare assures that individuals unable to support themselves have access to some kind of societal baseline or sustenance levels. A first set of considerations that have had a significant impact on the political discussion of the welfare state and social welfare is based on Marshall's renowned 1950 lectures Nationality and Social Stratification, which introduced the concepts of social rights, social privileges, and social citizenry. Marshall makes a distinction among human liberties, such as the right to personal liberty, the free expression of speech, the right to own property, and the right to enter into contractual capacity, democratic freedoms rights, such as the privileges to take part in the practice of partisan authority, and human freedoms, which extend from the right to a certain social minimum to the right to live a civilized life in accordance with the standards predominant in the society.

According to Marshall, democratic rights and civil equality were connected to nationality in the 1900s, respectively, but constitutional liberties and patriotism were only connected in the 18th century. This expansion is largely a progression in the direction of greater inequality in that it grants equal rights to larger sectors of the people, indicating their position as full citizens. Marshall emphasizes the need of welfare programmes in ensuring equal citizenship status, but he also acknowledges that: "The expansion of social services

is not mainly a way of equating earnings. It may in certain circumstances, but it could also not. What important is an overall improvement in the tangible elements of civilized life, a universal decrease in danger and uncertainty, and an equalization of the more privileged and the less fortunate at all levels, including the young and elderly, the single and the father of a large family. Equalization currently takes place inside populations, which are seen as a single class for these purposes, rather than across classes. Status parity is more significant than money equality.

Marshall's examination of social rights and social citizenship had a significant impact on political theory as well as the conceptual foundation for the growth of welfare systems throughout the globe since the 1950s. Following on Marshall's concept of social citizenship, Backhouse et al. (2017) provided three reasons for connecting social welfare and civic participation. The first argument makes the scientific assertion that to encourage the establishment and practice of other constitutional protections, a welfare minimum must be provided. There are two ways to formulate this claim. An excessive degree of economic disparities, according to the discussion's first articulation, undermines social cohesion and building cooperation, which breeds volatility and dishonesty and renders the possibility of a well-ordered society untenable. The idea is that mankind needs a certain minimum amount of assets in need to be allowed to engage in social and political life successfully in its revised edition (Bova and Dahl, 2016).

The second justification for the significance of social welfare and social citizenship is that, in most modern welfare programmes, possessing fundamental individual liberties is fundamental to nationality in principle. People conceive of their self and make plans for their life depending on the knowledge that they have these rights because of being citizens since this is the case. Therefore, to undermine social welfare institutions linked to social rights would be to undermine people's understanding of what it means to live in democracy and their feeling of citizenship (Brown and Koettl, 2015). Furthermore, perceptions of social safety are linked to how individuals spend their lives. Such assumptions would be impacted if the welfare state were to be dismantled, which would result in a loss of communal identity.

The last explanation is founded on a Rawlsian view of participation, which holds that a person is a participant of a community if and only if the fundamental structures of that community are designed with consideration for both his or her values and those of everybody else (Farnsworth, 2013). The very same individuals must be participants of a community that offers such safeguard because they would not be ready to embrace an economic structure or a system of ownership unless there was some safeguard against poverty and starvation in the shape of a social minimal. So fundamental welfare services are a need for membership in a community. Determining the value of the Welfare System idea as a philosophical choice to encourage a strong social assistance system in Zimbabwe that can address inequalities, welfare dependency, and fragility is the purpose of this study.

Social welfare might also be supported without mentioning social benefits. Albert Weale (1983) argues in *Political Theory and Social Policy* that state intervention should eventually be preoccupied with independence. Weale asserts that "all individuals are deserved to regard as deliberating and purposeful agents competent of devising their own goals, and that as part of this respect there is a state commitment to provide or protect the circumstances where this sovereignty may be achieved." Freedom from the threat of economic hardship, knowledge, legal independence, and democratic representation are all prerequisites for autonomous. Even though a social minimum is insufficient to guarantee what Weale referred to as the circumstances of independence, it appears to be a crucial component of any endeavor.

Because it is necessary to guarantee the circumstances for independence, welfare programmes that secures a social minimum is thus justifiable (Weale, 1983: 93). The potential of the policy to stop exploitation is a different kind of social welfare justification. For instance, Robert Goodin (1990) argues in *Purposes for Welfare* that "people who rely on specific persons for the fulfilment of their fundamental requirements are made, by that reliance, open to abuse by those against which they rely. The possibility of such dependence being exploited is what necessitates the government itself providing for its inhabitants' fundamental necessities in a manner that is distinctly welfare state-like. Since only government organizations can be adequately non-discretionary and protect people

who rely on their resources from increased abuse, Goodin emphasizes the significance and usefulness of public supply (Goodin, 1990). The welfare system provides the kind of minimum autonomy needed for people to engage in the market and quasi-market segments of community in this manner.

Economists who subscribe to the collectivist school have claimed that social assistance should be provided based on fairness or need. According to Michael Walzer's pluralistic theory of fair treatment presented in *Realms of Fairness* (1983), products must be made available in accordance with the precepts of need, desert, and market economy, relying on the socioeconomic interpretations of the pertinent decent. In his own words, he contends that: "If we comprehend what it is, what it implies to those for whom it is a good, we understand how, by whom, and for what purposes it ought to be dispersed, as to welfare programmes" (Walzer, 1983: 321). Current societal norms and behaviors define what qualifies as a requirement that is pertinent to welfare state issues.

2.7.6 The welfare state is better placed to address poverty

The term poverty is generally used to describe various circumstances in which people suffer serious deficiencies in the material needs. Someone who is poor lacks well-being. Exclusion consists primarily of a lack of integration into solidaristic social networks which might occur because of social rejection or because of lack of social ties Clarke (1987). Spicker (1998), asserts that the persistence of poverty is not something that social protection alone could have ended.

There are issues that welfare systems do not address. For example, the welfare state does not prevent people from being disadvantaged in the labour market, it does also not end inequality. Welfare systems do not guarantee full employment and stable marriages. Welfare through social protection can also to a certain extend help to prevent poverty. Social protection should mean that people are not materially deprived, and it should reinforce basic security. Social protection in Britain for example has never been adequate to accomplish this. There are several benefits to it but at the same time the scheme has got several holes. The overall criticism of the welfare state is that it has failed to do enough, Becker (1997).

2.7.7 Social protection is a necessary block for the successes of welfare

According to Spicker (1998) the idea of social protection generally embraces both the principle of collective action to cover a wide range of contingencies and the delivery of services to deal with needs. the presence of those services is part of providing security. He reasoned that social protection is essential for welfare purposes because it provides for needs which impair welfare and without people become insecure. Although social protection is a requisite, for welfare it is however far from adequate. The conditions under which welfare is provided include among other things, the meeting of physical, material needs, social and economic rights, elementary security, and economic development. Social protection is therefore a required means of what is available but is never sufficient.

2.7.8 The Governments should create the preconditions for welfare

According to Wilsford (1995), all governments that aim to achieve equality of opportunities should give itself a national responsibility to make social protection a priority. He argued that if governments must create conditions necessary for the unrolling of proper welfare are preconditions that support the very needs of the community instead of imposing programmes that have little to with what should be on the ground in terms of needs. The three main elements which are: economic development, social cohesion, and social security as well as a precondition structure of rights. Securing preconditions is not necessarily the same thing to meeting conditions directly, but the conditions may be met through other present social arrangements. Government does not a responsibility to assess circumstances but to ensure that the conditions are met. The idea that governments must do this is problematic. The government has a moral obligation to create a good social and economic environment that protect the citizens. The ramifications of a state failing to provide social protection implication of accountability to lose power.

2.7.9 Governments must protect the welfare rights of its citizens

United Nations Development Program (1997) propounded that government regulates the conduct of relationships between citizens. The basic redress of the against the strong is to institute the rule of law which upholds people's rights again all forms of exploitation and abuse. The state has a moral duty to avail protection to the citizenry and property. This

controls the behaviour of some errant persons in society. Citizens of different countries are entitled to the rights to work to advance their social wellbeing.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1966 Article 25: pp 5 states that “Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control”. Article 23 posits that everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment. Everyone also without any discrimination has the right to equal pay for equal work. Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family and existence worthy of human dignity and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

2.7.10 The welfare state creates conditions social protection

Social protection has grown from a mere thought list to an advanced sophisticated endeavour by state parties promote social welfare and well-being for the people. range of sources and the processes which are developed through collective action do not address every area of concern. It is this understanding that gives people the claim from the state for the creation of social services that can sustain them and bring forward quality lives., Field (1996) submit that the state must put in place the necessary mechanisms to enable the rolling out of social services. However, the citizens must play a part to be productive to sustain themselves and the state is charged with the creation of an environment that provide work. In times of emergencies, the state protects the vulnerable in the aged, women and children

In conclusion, one can analyze that the welfare state is a shining example of what a country should do to protect the citizens from all social stressors, but the major criticism is the utopia assertion that states must provide social support from the fiscus go cover all social ills. This approach can bankrupt any government. This however not to say that the government should neglect the social protection role, but brother should strengthen structures that create work and functionality. This core of Welfarism is its focus on

ensuring equal access to social service. Humanitarian organisations and other non-state parties only come in to initiate assistance programmes where the state has failed that the citizens of a country are equally benefiting from the state in supporting the main basic needs necessary for human beings. Hence this research is building its foundation on top of this theory arguing that it is the most capable theory to influence sound implementation and adoption of social protection in Zimbabwe as well as in other developing countries.

2.8 The capability theory

The capability approach has gained popularity in recent times as a preferred theoretical framework about wellbeing. It advances the aspects of freedom to achieve wellbeing, and avers that public value has a part to play in development and social justice (Zheng et al, 2018). Despite the lack of consensus on the best description of the capability approach, certain positions have been adopted such as (1) the assessment of individual levels of achieved wellbeing and wellbeing freedom; (2) the evaluation and assessment of social arrangements or institutions; and (3) the design of policies and other forms of social change in society.

Wolff et al, (2017) linked people like Aristotle, Adam Smith, Karl Marx, and John Stuart Mill, yet it is Sen who pioneered the approach. Several other scholars have significantly developed it especially Martha Nussbaum, who has developed the capability approach into a partial theory of social justice. Nussbaum also understands her own capabilities version as a theory of human rights. The capability approach submits that freedom to achieve wellbeing is a matter of perception, and thus the kind of life aspirations they have. The capability approach is acknowledged as a multipurpose framework, rather than a specific theory (Wolff et al, 2017).

2.8.1 The theoretical idea of the capability approach

The capability approach (CA), developed by Amartya Sen and Martha Nussbaum, and is a conceptual framework which embodies a new approach in defining and assessing human progress. Progress is to be defined as the development of capabilities or freedoms, that is what can be done not by economic income measures of incomes (Wilson-Strydom et al, 2015). According to Sen, the capability approach is different in that

it focuses on real freedoms of people which he contends bring about human peace and social wellbeing (Sen 2009: 16). The capability approach is about people's real freedoms to do these things, and the attaining of a high level of wellbeing which resultantly become available to them. It is a useful multidimensional approach.

2.8.2 The core concepts of the capability approach

Functionings and capabilities inform concept of the capability approach. They are different dimensions in which interpersonal comparisons of 'merits' are made. They are the most critical outstanding structures of all capabilitarian theories. There are of course exceptions but these differences have limited impact of these notions: capabilities of people and functionings (Voget-Kleschin, 2018).

Venkatapuram, (2017) attest that capabilities exist as real freedoms seen and defined differently by people, He however advance the view that basic needs are not negotiable an able and real opportunities, which do not refer to access to resources or opportunities for certain levels of satisfaction. (Unterhalter, 2016). There has been a cacophony of views have been put forward on what constitutes capabilities are a person's real freedoms or opportunities to achieve functionings. The argument has been played down and instead the focus has been put on the outcomes. (Unterhalter, 2016). The distinction between functionings and capabilities is of no significance but the realization of the capabilities and functionality

2.8.3 Rationale of the capability approach

One of the chief strengths of Sen's framework is that it is flexible and exhibits an elastic degree of interior pluralism, which permits researchers to grow and apply it in numerous different ways (Sen, 2014). Three points are worth noting: Firstly, Sen does not impose a prescriptive and definitive list of capabilities. He rather allows researchers to ponder and apply their minds. While Sen avoids the normal trap of many scholars of limiting imagination but rather leave the evaluators to use their own pedigree to come with their own evaluation criteria.

Evaluating well-being or human development is much complicated and the simplistic approach advanced lacks the appreciation of human differences divert and context. The focus of the CA can be expanded further to include agency, which recognises that individuals possess values and pursue very different depending on a myriad of factors. More often than note these are not tendon with wellbeing informed by one's personality (Sen, 2014). The CA has also been adjusted to focus on inequality, social justice, living standards and rights and duties among other things. Sen's CA has also been commended for thickening the information base of evaluation, focusing on people in their diversity and ignoring the factors the limit capability (Sen, 2017).

2.8.4 Critics of the capability approach

The CA has faced criticism from several different angles. In many cases, key strengths are viewed weaknesses by critic's notable examples include contrasting viewpoints about the merits of incompleteness. The most high-sounding barrage of criticisms has due to the issue of 'how far Sen's framework is optional' (Robeyns, 2016). The firstly, they attack the concept of the identification of valuable capabilities. Several social commentators have attacked Sen for not supplementing his framework with a comprehensible list of significant capabilities. Others have observed that Sen goes very far in terms in insisting that certain capabilities simply are crucial than others considering lack of consensus among people about the nature of a good life'. This attack, however, is a gross misrepresentation of Sen's actual theory and it represents weighed against the available evidence on value formation.

A second line of criticism questions the usefulness of the CA in making inter-personal comparisons of well-being despite the potential incongruities about the valuation of capabilities inclusive of the relative weights to be assigned to these capabilities (Ingrid, 2017). Sen, however, remains optimistic about attaining agreement about evaluations: he suggests that the intersections of different people's rankings are 'typically quite large. He has also proposed a range of methods including 'dominance ranking and the intersection approach' for accommodating incomplete orderings (Robeyns, 2016).

Finally, the informational requirements of the CA can be extremely high (Alkire, 2002). Evaluating effectively social states t depends on obtaining data on multiple functionings.

In some cases, however, the relevant social indicators are not available to assist the researcher. Moving away from functioning to capability makes the exercise worse because further information is required on contrary to fact choices which cannot be observed as well as actual choices. Despite these operational complications, countless credible innovative attempts have been made to measure well-being in the functioning and capability space (Ingrid, 2017).

2.9 Conclusion

Social protection is of paramount importance as a tool of development that is very effective to addressing vulnerability if judiciously implemented. It calls for the creation of an enabling environment which stimulates new opportunities and mindsets in all countries. It is this chapter that provides a link amongst multiple writings about social protection in various context. The role played by the social assistance component in addressing poverty has been dealt with. Social protection comprises of three branches or components namely social insurance, social security, and social assistance and out of the three components social assistance has been singled out by many scholars as the most appropriate component to address issues of vulnerability and poverty in developing countries. Social assistance has the potential to reduce poverty and if a multisectoral approach is adopted. This research has adopted the welfare state theory mainly because of its strength in addressing the problems of poverty and vulnerability in the poor and destitute. The welfare state theory is regarded as the main mechanism used by nation states to reduce inequality and distribute societal or government resources as well as distribute economic power. The research adopted the welfare state theory because it is very instrumental in meeting the needs of individuals in society and it also tackles various social problems. Social welfare is therefore understood as governmental welfare, but it may also be administered by voluntary organizations.

CHAPTER THREE: GLOBAL SOCIAL PROTECTION EXPERIENCES

3.0. Introduction

This chapter will present the nature of social protection as it is practiced in various world continents globally. The review will help the researcher to understand how other countries are coping even during times of economic recessions. The Zimbabwean social protection must not be operating on its own but must be influenced by how other countries are prioritising social protection. All nations and stakeholders are urged to put this strategy into action by working together as a team. Sustainable Development Goal 1 (SDG1) calls for ending poverty in all its forms and dimensions, including eradicating extreme poverty by 2030. It aims to ensure that all people enjoy a basic standard of living, including through social protection systems.

3.1 Social protection: a globalised view

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which calls for the eradication of poverty, was reportedly adopted by Heads of State and Government in September 2015, according to Chipenda and Tom (2018). According to (McCord and Paul, 2019) countries are called to ensure social protection systems for all, including floors for the poor and vulnerable, increase access to basic services, and support people harmed by climate-related extreme events and other economic, social, and environmental shocks and disasters. Goal 1 seeks to implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable.

The goal of Universal Social Protection (USP) 2030 is to increase the number of nations able to offer universal social protection, assist nations in developing and implementing universal and sustainable social protection systems, and coordinate efforts among international organizations, donors, and governments to ensure that all citizens have access to social protection. To achieve the World Bank's dual goals of eradicating poverty and fostering shared prosperity by 2030, universal coverage and access to social protection are essential (McCord, 2018). The cornerstone of the ILO's mandate is universal social protection coverage, which is governed by ILO social security standards,

such as the Social Protection Floors Recommendation No. 202, which was ratified by 185 Member states in 2012. (McCord, 2018: 78). Many countries have embarked in expanding social protection coverage and are reporting significant progress. However, the poorest countries continue to have enormous coverage gaps. The ILO's "World Social Protection Report 2017-19 on Universal Social Protection to Achieve the Sustainable Development Goals" indicates that despite significant progress in the extension of social protection in many parts of the world, only 45 percent of the global population are effectively covered by at least one social protection benefit, while the remaining 55 percent as many as 4 billion people are left unprotected.

According to Gehrke and Hartwig (2018), social protection systems are an essential component of the framework for long-term social and economic development for people, families, communities, and societies. According to Ismail (2018), social protection plays the following developmental roles: Increasing consumption, saving, and investment at the household level and at the macro level contribute to economic growth. It also encourages human development and formalization, boosts productivity and employability by enhancing human capital and productive assets, and safeguards individuals and families against losses resulting from shocks, whether they be natural or man-made. It protects individuals and families against the losses due to shocks, whether they be pandemics, natural disasters, or economic downturns; it builds political stability and social peace, reducing inequalities, social tensions and violent conflict; enhancing social cohesion and participation and lastly it is a human right that everyone, as a member of society, should enjoy, including children, mothers, persons with disabilities, workers, older persons, migrants, indigenous peoples and minorities (Roelen et al, 2017).

USP 2030 partners pledged to work with countries to help advance the universal social protection agenda, recognizing: national ownership of development processes towards universal social protection; the choice of countries to aim for gradual and progressive realization or immediate universal coverage; the heterogeneity in the design and implementation of universal social protection schemes (Arévalo et al, 2018: 60). In other words, building the road to USP should recognize that every country case is unique as countries have a wide set of options to achieve universal social protection coverage.

Generally, universality is achieved by combining contributory and non-contributory schemes. Universal social protection is most started with universal old-age pensions as most country case studies in this volume indicate, but some countries have opted to make universal, separately or in parallel, benefits for children for example Universal Child Money Program in Namibia and Universal Child Allowance in Argentina, people with disabilities for example Universal Disability Grants in South Africa, and mothers for example Universal Maternity Protection in Argentina in Egypt.

Countries have used a variety of methods to pay for universal social protection, including shifting public spending from supporting general programmes to funding specific ones; raising tax revenues, including those from the taxation of natural resources; using debt reduction or debt servicing; and increasing social security coverage and contributory income, among other methods. Regardless of the methods and sources used to fund them, universal social protection programmes must be fair and long-lasting.

3.2 The state of social protection: A global perspective

Only 46.9% of the world's population had at least one social safety benefit as of 2020; the remaining 53.1%, or as many as 4.1 billion individuals, were completely unprotected (McNabb and Granger, 2022). Significant disparities exist between and within regions, with coverage rates in Europe and Central Asia (83.9%) and the Americas (64.3%) exceeding the worldwide average, while coverage gaps in Asia and the Pacific (44.1%), the Arab States (40.0%), and Africa (17.4%) are significantly more pronounced (Karippacheril, 2018: 57).

Only 30.6% of people who are working-age are legally covered by comprehensive social security systems that offer a full range of benefits, from child and family benefits to old-age pensions, according to Jones et al. (2019), with women's coverage significantly lagging men's by 8 percentage points. This suggests that most of the working-age population 69.4%, or 4 billion people is either only minimally or completely protected. During the epidemic, access to healthcare, sickness benefits, and unemployment compensation has become more important even though over two thirds of the world's population is covered by a health plan of some sort, there are still large coverage and adequacy gaps (Harvey et al., 2017). The coverage and sufficiency deficits are much

more obvious when it comes to income protection during sickness and unemployment. Less than a fifth of unemployed employees globally really receive unemployment benefits, and only around a third of working-age adults have their economic security guaranteed by law in the event of illness.

According to Molina et al. (2019), severe underinvestment in social protection is linked to deficiencies in the coverage, comprehensiveness, and appropriateness of social protection systems, particularly in Africa, the Arab States, and Asia. In terms of social protection, excluding health, countries spend an average of 12.9% of their GDP, yet there are astronomical discrepancies. Average spending in high-income countries is 16.4%, which is double what upper-middle-income countries spend at 8%, six times what lower-middle-income countries spend at 2.5%, and fifteen times what low-income countries spend at 1.1%. (Yemtsov, 2016: 16).

Nixon and Mallett, (2017) attest that due to the increased demand for healthcare services, the need for income security measures, and the declines in GDP brought on by the crisis, the financing gap for constructing social protection floors has increased globally by about 30% since the COVID-19 crisis began. Lower-middle-income countries would need to invest an additional US\$362.9 billion and upper-middle-income countries an additional US\$750.8 billion per year, or 5.1 and 3.1 percent of GDP for the two groups, respectively, to guarantee at least a basic level of social security through a nationally defined social protection floor (Kidd and Athias, 2019). An additional investment of US\$77.9 billion, or 15.9% of low-income countries' GDP, would be required.

3.3 Towards universal social protection systems

Social security is a fundamental human right, not charity. The difficulties that people and communities today face are many, and they include labor markets that are evolving increasingly more quickly in the context of ecological, technological, and demographic changes, necessitating ongoing skill development (Higgins and Lustig, 2016: 37). A human-centered future of work requires universal social protection, which serves as both a necessary safety and a lever, enabling people to live honourable lives and confidently accept change. According to Lavers and Hickey (2015), crises—whether they are linked to health, economic shocks, climate change, disasters, or conflicts—have consistently

emphasized the need to increase social protection as a crucial strategy for eradicating poverty and inequality and fostering social cohesion.

According to Seekings (2017), crises also show how quickly and efficiently societies with strong social protection systems can shield their populace from the negative effects of such catastrophes. In fact, the foundation of society's social contract and sustained development is universal social security. Based on social solidarity and collective funding, it ensures that all members of society, including children, the elderly, and those who are afflicted by illness, unemployment, or disability, are effectively safeguarded. It supports growth and prosperity by assuring access to healthcare and income stability, which also eliminates or at least lessens poverty and decreases vulnerability, social exclusion, and inequality.

Social protection promotes aggregate demand during economic downturns, acting as an economic stabilizer. It can support structural changes, such as assisting workers in changing careers and occupations, assisting the impoverished, and assisting in the payment of school expenses for the most vulnerable children. Additionally, universal social protection promotes gender equality by enabling both men and women to engage in their skills, take advantage of possibilities for employment, and develop their capacity to aspire to various lifestyles (Torm, 2020). Social protection is recognized as a human right in the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (1966), the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948, Arts 22 and 25), and other human rights documents.

States must take on their overall and primary duty for creating and sustaining social protection systems if they want to ensure that everyone can enjoy the social protection right. Realizing the right to social security also aids in the realization of other economic, social, and cultural rights, such as the right to adequate housing, food, and clothing as well as the rights to an adequate standard of living. These rights, along with those relating to health and education, are crucial for the realization of human dignity. Lastly, States can restore their frayed social contracts by making investments in inclusive and sustainable growth, social cohesion, justice, and peace as well as by being accountable to rights holders (Razavi et al. 2020).

3.4 Social Protection situations as signified by the world continents.

The research is going to discuss social protection in the five continents, Africa, Europe, Americas, Asia, and the Arab state. The reason for selecting these continents is that they are mostly interrelated in their economic, social, and even political activities especially these days when the whole world is operating as a global village. Africa being a former colony of mainly Britain, France, Belgium and Germany, its activities are shaped by these colonial Masters. The other reason is that the best social protection system is found in the Nordic countries, it would be important to use them as role models in building Zimbabwe's social protection framework.

3.4.1. The African Continent

Only 17.8% of the population in Africa receives at least one social protection cash benefit, with significant regional variation. This is despite significant progress in expanding social protection coverage. About 29.6% of African seniors now get pensions, and nations like Botswana, Cabo Verde, Lesotho, Mauritius, and Namibia have achieved or are on the verge of achieving universal pension coverage (Commission for Africa, 2013). However, there are still sizable coverage gaps for vulnerable groups like children, expectant women, unemployed employees, and pensioners with disabilities. One can infer from the description of social protection coverage in Africa provided above that expanding the continent's social safety net should be given urgent priority, (International Labor Organization, 2017).

3.4.2. The American Continent

According to Riisgaard, (2021), about 67.6 percent of the population in the Americas are effectively covered by at least one social protection cash benefit, primarily because of the extension of social protection systems over recent decades. More than two thirds of children, pregnant women, and mothers of new-borns as well as older persons are covered by social protection cash benefits yet larger gaps exist for disability and unemployment benefits. Some countries have successfully achieved universal or near universal coverage of children like Argentina, Brazil and Chile, Mothers with new borns (Canada and Uruguay), persons with disabilities (Brazil, Uruguay, United states and older persons in Argentina, Plurinational State of Bolivia, Canada, Trinidad and Tobago, United

States. However, countries in the region need to intensify efforts to close coverage gaps, reinforce social protection floors and enhance the adequacy of benefits to all need citizens.

3.4.3 Arab States

According to Kabeer et al. (2015), the lack of information in the Arab states only permits a limited evaluation of the efficacy of social protection coverage. Due to the low proportion of active contributors—roughly 32.9%—in the total labor force, the coverage for old age pensions is low and estimated at 27.4%. The establishment of a social insurance program for employees of private companies in the occupied Palestinian territory is among the region's positive developments (Alfers and Moussié, 2019). the implementation of unemployment insurance programmes in Bahrain, Kuwait, and Saudi Arabia, as well as expanded maternity benefits in Jordan and Iraq. Extending social protection floors to vulnerable groups remains central in the region especially considering large social needs and high informal employment in some Arabic countries.

3.4.4 The Asian Continent

Miller (2014) goes on to say that although great progress has been achieved in improving social protection systems and creating social protection floors, only 38.9% of the population in the Asia and Pacific area is covered by at least one social security cash benefit. There are still significant coverage gaps in the areas of maternity insurance, unemployment insurance, and disability benefits. However, it is important to note that (Coady, 2018) while some nations, like Australia and Mongolia, have achieved universal coverage for children's protection, others, like Bangladesh, India, and Mongolia, have expanded maternity protection coverage, or introduced non-contributory pension schemes to achieve universal coverage for older people, like China, Mongolia, New Zealand, and Timor-Leste, the adequacy of benefits continues to be an issue.

3.4.5 Europe

There are social protection systems that include social protection floors that are both relatively complete and developed across Europe and Central Asia. According to Levy (2015), 84.1% of the people in the area have access to at least one monetary social safety

benefit. For child and family benefits, maternity cash benefits, disability benefits, and old age pensions, regional coverage estimates surpass 80%, with few nations achieving universal coverage. However, given the changing demographics and short-term austerity fiscal pressures, there are worries about the continued coverage gaps in the areas of maternity and unemployment protection as well as about the sufficiency of pensions and other social security payments. 2019's Ellis and White.

3.5 Social Protection projections in the 2030 development Agenda

In September 2015 at the United Nations Headquarters, world leaders adopted the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The 2030 agenda for sustainable development holds a powerful promise for the world's population, it states that by 2030, the world will have made significant progress towards sustainable development and social, economic, and environmental justice (Ebskelsh, 2017). The initial global reports on progress towards reaching the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) shows however that there is still a long way to go to achieve these goals, particularly in reaching those who are at risk of being left behind.

Warwick et al., (2022) argued that achieving the set goals of the (SDGs) can never become a reality without social protection underpinning its foundation. Social protection is fundamental to achieving the SDGs, to promoting social justice and to realizing the human right to social security for all. Although its contribution to the social economic pillars of sustainable development, it is reflected directly or indirectly in at least five of the 17 SDGs. Social protection also contributes to the environmental pillar through its role in facilitating the just transition towards greener economies and societies. Social protection therefore plays a key role in accelerating progress towards the SDGs.

Social protection systems are fundamental not only in reducing poverty but also in preventing people to fall back into poverty across the life cycle (Premand and Stoeffler, 2020). This is argued to be one critical element of any policy framework aiming at leaving no one behind and it targets highlights in particular the global commitment to building social protection floors as the fundamental element of each country's social protection system to ensure at least a basic level of social protection for all and to extend social protection coverage to those who have been excluded. Such social protection floors are

essential for alleviating and preventing poverty, vulnerability, and social exclusion by guaranteeing at least a basic level of income security and effective access to health care throughout the life course in line with the ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation in 2012 (Warwick et al., 2022: 24).

According to Bolton (2017), social protection systems also contribute to achieving health outcomes by contributing to realizing universal health coverage, including financial protection in health, and ensuring access to quality essential health-care services as well as access to safe, effective, quality, and affordable essential medicines and vaccines for all. On top of the social protection programmes, there is also need for investment to achieve universal health coverage is very critical to the attainment of the Sustainable Development Goals including regarding reducing health inequalities.

Social protection systems can play a major role in redistributing care responsibilities and recognizing and valuing unpaid work, the contribution of social protection to gender equality is recognized in particular regarding recognizing and valuing unpaid care and domestic work (SDG target 5.4) (Bastagli, 2015). Social protection includes an array of care policies, starting from maternity protection, through paternity and parental leave provisions and early childhood care and education services to care for adults in later life. Social protection is also crucial to the promotion of public work and inclusive growth. As one of the four pillars of public works, social protection contributes to the promotion of employment, fosters higher labor productivity and investments in human capital and capabilities and stabilizes combined demand during major economic crisis (Murshed, 2017: 86). Due to the high rising levels of unemployment, social protection systems adapt to ensure the protection of incomes and to facilitate access to health, education as well as decent employment, including for those in perilous and unceremonious employment. Social protection can also have positive impact on productivity, local economic development, and inclusive growth (Atkinson, 1999; Lee and Torm 2015). All these activities enhance an inclusive economic growth hence social progress.

As asserted by (Guven and Karlen, 2020) social protection programmes are also an important component of policies to contain and reduce inequality including income dissimilarity (SDG target 10.4). Social protection systems are among the channels for the

redistribution of income, and they also play a significant role in addressing non-income inequality such as reducing inequality in access to health and education. Recent studies have demonstrated the important contribution of social protection to the reduction of disparities in the world over (Karippacheril, 2018: 78). In addition, social protection contributes to several other SDGs including eliminating hunger by promoting food security and access to improved nutrition according the (SDG2), facilitating access to quality education (SDG4), clean water and sanitation (SDG6) and affordable and clean energy (SDG7).

Social protection systems also contribute to making cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable by providing income security and access to social services for residents (SDG 11: targets 11.1 and 11.5), ensuring more sustainable consumption and production patterns by allowing people to plan ahead and avoid environmentally harmful behavior (SDG 12), fostering climate action by providing income support to households affected by climate related hardships leading to the phasing out of certain activities in the industries (SDG13)-target 13.3) and contributing to environmental conservation by offering offsetting income security measures to reduce exploitation of marine and land resources (SDG 14 and 15) (Guyen, 2019). Social protection systems are also a key element of policies promoting peaceful and inclusive societies, through their contribution to the development of effective, accountable, and transparent institutions that manage and govern social protection schemes (SDG 16 – target 16.6) and by providing basic income security and facilitating access to job opportunities and training for unemployed youth and workers.

3.6 Building social protection frameworks

The development of national legislative frameworks and the extension of legal coverage are a very necessary aspect of the development of social protection systems grounded in capacity building the world over (Gentilini et al., 2022). However, the extension of legal coverage does not in itself ensure either the effective coverage of the population or improvements in the quality and level of benefits. In fact, the extension of effective coverage has significantly lagged due to problems in implementation and enforcement, lack of policy coordination and a weak institutional capacity for the effective delivery of

benefits and services. Building social protection systems usually follows the logic of progressive realization regarding policy areas covered as well as population coverage. Different countries tend to build their systems sequentially depending on their national circumstances and priorities and in many instances, countries first addressed the area of employment injury then introduced old-age pensions and disability and survivors' benefits followed by sickness, health, and maternity coverage. Benefits for children and families and unemployment typically came last (Dang and Dabalen, 2017).

Different countries focus on establishing non-contributory mostly tax-financed mechanisms in the form of social assistance to cover the needs of people living in poverty. In many instances these mechanisms are targeted to individuals living in extreme poverty and the most vulnerable yet often excluding a significant share of those who are targeted by the program (Brientos, 2013). In many cases such programmes for the poor are short-term, often in the form of pilot programmes for a limited geographical areas and lack of a stable legal and financial framework which negatively affects their ability to provide predictable and transparent benefits to persons who need them most and leads to significant coverage gaps. They still play an important role in improving the situation of those benefiting from them (Gelders and Bailey-Athias, 2017). Regardless of so many irregularities associated with full operation of social protection programmes, many government states do recognize the importance of anchoring social protection programmes in a sound framework of national legislations thereby clarifying individuals' rights and obligations, enhancing the predictability and adequacy of benefits, strengthening institutional capacities, promoting transparency and accountability, providing safeguards against corruption and establishing a more stable and regular funding base (Barrientos 2016).

Schlogl and Summer (2014) claim that because social protection is typically only extended to those at the very top and bottom of the income scale, there is frequently little protection for those in the middle, which in many developing nations includes many people who work in the informal economy and, in some cases, some members of the emerging middle class. Economic and social progress is significantly hampered by the absence of protection for the missing middle, which can keep individuals in poverty and

prevent their ascent out of it. Therefore, expanding coverage to everyone through proper procedures must be a top priority if nations are to be serious about accomplishing the objectives of social protection.

The international Labor Organization in (2017) asserts that it is widely recognized that social protection policies contribute to fostering both economic and social development in the short and long term by ensuring that people enjoy income security have effective access to health care and other important social services and are very much empowered to take advantage of the economic opportunities that are opened by these various social protection programmes. More so these social protection schemes play role in boosting decent work and promoting economic and social development which was underestimated for a long time but is now fully accepted and as a result, an emerging global consensus on the important role of coherent and effective social protection systems is reflected in the strategic frameworks of major international and multilateral organizations like the (FAO, 2017; ILO, 2012; OECD, 2009; UNICEF, 2012; WHO, 2010 as well as World Bank 2012), they were aiming at building inclusive and sustainable social protection systems that are closely coordinated with other social and economic policies. Further ILO recommended that sustainable and equitable growth cannot be achieved in the absence of strong social protection policies which guarantee at least moderate basic level of welfare services to all in need through a nationally defined social protection framework or baseline and the progressive extension of the scope and level of social protection coverage. ILO recommended a two-dimensional extension strategy which will provide guidance on the future development of social protection in the countries of the world by:

- Achieving universal social protection of the population by ensuring at least basic levels of income security and access to essential health care as well as encouraging the spreading of national social protection floors and horizontal dimensions; and
- Progressively ensuring wider scope and higher levels of protection guided by ILO's social security standards (Vertical Dimensions). Together with other international standards that will assist to guide the development and continuous evolution of national social protection systems including frameworks.

Deveraux (2015) argued that during recent years, many countries have notably extended social protection coverage reinforced their social protection systems and established effective social protection floors. Many nations have achieved near universal coverage of social protection in different areas through a combination of non-contributory together with contributory schemes. For example, this has been achieved by more than twenty countries and territories in all regions including: Bolivia, Botswana, Brazil, Cabo Verde, China, Georgia, Kosovo, Lesotho, Maldives, Mongolia, Namibia, Nepal, South Africa, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Trinidad and Tobago, Ukraine, and Tanzania.

The positive impact of the progressive extension of social protection coverage on the wellbeing of the populations has been well documented in many countries such as Cabo Verde, Mozambique, Thailand, South Africa, India, and Mexico and has contributed to combination with economic, labor market and employment policies to fostering economic and social development together with inclusive growth. Achieving the SDGs especially those related to social protection requires concerted efforts of national stakeholders from member countries and social dialogue should be given a key role in ensuring that viable and sustainable progress is made. Effective participation allows for greater transparency and accountability, sharing of information and knowledge and the exchange of opinions thus ensuring good governance of social protection schemes. Such participating also echoes with the 2030 Agenda as reflected specifically in SDGs 16 and 17 (Ortiz et al., 2015).

Despite an important progress in the extension of social protection, the fundamental human right to social security remains unfulfilled for most of the world population. According to ILO (2018), Only about 45 percent of the World's population are protected by a social protection system in at least one area with remarkable variations across the continental regions. Kidd et al., (2017) attest that regardless of a considerable progress in the extension of coverage, most of the global population, 55 per cent remain vulnerable thus unprotected. A relatively reasonable share of the global population has access to comprehensive social protection systems. The recent information shows that in 2015 only about 29 per cent of the working age population and their families had access to social protection, this therefore would mean that about 71% of the global population do not have

access to a comprehensive social protection. Many of the individuals not sufficiently protected live in poverty which despite significant progress still affects 10.1 per cent of the global population or 767 million people (The World Bank, 2016). For many people such lack of protection is a cause and a consequence of a lack of decent employment and of working poverty. Hence working poverty affected 29.4 per cent of the global labor force, or 783 million people in 2016 and many of those affected work in the informal market.

3.7 World Progress made so far in building social protection systems.

The development of national legislative frameworks and the extension of legal coverage are an essential aspect towards the full achievement for the development of social protection systems the world over (CESCR, 2008). Since the beginning of the 20th century, significant progress has been made around the globe, from early steps taken in several pioneer countries, the world has seen social protection systems develop at an inspiring pace. Presently most countries have in place workable social protection schemes anchored in national legislation covering all or most policy areas of social protection albeit in some cases these cover only a minority of their populations. Despite a commendable progress larger gaps of unfulfilled social protection responsibility remain in parts of Asia and mainly in Africa (OHCHR, 2012). The extension of effective coverage has significantly lagged that of legal coverage due to problems in implementation and enforcement, a lack of policy coordination and weak institutional capacities for the effective delivery of social protection benefits and services. It is therefore essential to monitor legal and effective coverage in parallel as will be done throughout the world.

According to ILO (2018), the process of building social protection systems usually follows the logic of progressive realization regarding policy areas covered and population coverage. Different countries tend to build their systems chronologically depending on their national circumstances and primacies. In other instances, countries first address the area of unemployment injury then introduced old age pensions and disability and survivors' benefits, followed by sickness, health, and maternity coverage; benefits for children and families and unemployment benefits typically are lastly prioritized. When it comes to population coverage, countries tend to prioritize two major groups right at

opposite ends of the income scale through different mechanisms. On the one hand the introduction of contributory mechanisms for example, social insurance tends to start with employees in the public and private sectors particularly those in stable full-time employment relationships with the general understanding that they should be gradually extended to other groups of workers. The extension to other groups of workers mainly in the informal sector, persons in more unstable forms of wage employment as well as the self-employed is not automatic as it requires the adaptation of those mechanisms to the needs and circumstances of these groups of workers particularly workers with low and irregular earnings and limited contributory capacities (Barrientos, 2013).

In other nations, the focus has shifted to creating additional non-contributory facilities, most of which are tax-financed social assistance systems to meet the needs of those in complete poverty. These procedures are aimed at the most vulnerable and those in extreme poverty, yet they frequently exclude a sizable portion of the program's target population (Ravallion and Van de Walle, 2016). According to Kidd et al. (2017), programmes for the poor are frequently short-lived, frequently taking the form of trial projects for relatively small geographic areas and lack a sound legal and financial underpinning negatively affects their ability to provide predictable and transparent benefits to persons who need them most and leads to significant coverage gaps. They argued that still these programmes play an important role in improving the situation of those benefiting from them.

According to Schologl and Sumner (2014), many people work in the unorganized sector of the economy, and in some circumstances, they are part of the newly rising middle class. A significant barrier to economic and social progress is the purposeful absence of protection for the missing middle, which can keep individuals in poverty and prevent their ascent out of it. Therefore, expanding coverage to everyone through appropriate mechanisms is a top priority. However, it is now generally acknowledged that social protection policies encourage both economic and social development in the short and long terms by ensuring that people have access to effective health care and other social services as well as the ability to take advantage of economic opportunities. These initiatives are essential in boosting domestic demand, supporting structural

transformation of national economies, promoting decent work, and fostering inclusivity and sustainable growth.

The International Labor Organization (ILO) (2017: 67), proposed its ten recommendations which reflects ILO's two dimensional extensions strategy which provides clear guidance on the future development of social protection in its 187 member states which are to: achieving universal protection of the population by ensuring at list basic levels of income security and access to essential health care, progressively ensuring wider scope and higher levels of protection guided by ILO's social security standards. Achieving SDGs especially those related to social protection will require concerted efforts of national stakeholders, and social dialogue should have a key role in ensuring that viable and sustainable progress is made. Effective participation allows for greater transparency and accountability, the sharing of information and knowledge and the exchange of opinions and is thus one of the prerequisites for ensuring good governance of social protection schemes. Such participation also resonates with the 2030 SDG Agenda as reflected particularly in SDGs 16 and 17 (Ortiz et al., 2015).

The fundamental human right to social safety, according to Dang and Dabalen (2017), is still a pipe dream for most people in the globe. Only 45% of the global population, according to recent ILO figures, is effectively safeguarded by a social protection system in at least one location. Despite significant progress in expanding coverage, 55% of the world's population is still unprotected, and only a small portion of that population has access to full social protection systems. The most recent statistics, according to World Bank (2017), indicates that just 29% of people of working age and their families had access to such systems in 2025. This suggests that about 71% of the world's population lacks adequate social protection, with many of those who are not sufficiently protected living in extreme poverty, which, despite substantial advances, still affects 10.7% of the world's population, or 767 million people (Christiaensen and Martin, 2018: 34). Lack of good job and working poverty are frequently both causes and effects of this lack of protection for many. 783 people, or 29.4% of the world labor force, were living in working poverty.

3.8 Social protection through the Sustainable Development goal Lenses

World leaders adopted the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in September 2015 at the United Nations Headquarters. This 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development holds a more powerful promise for the world's population: by 2030, the world will have made significant progress towards sustainable development, social, environmental, and economic justice. According to Beegle et al, (2018) the first global reports on progress towards reaching the SDGs indicates however that there is still a long way to the achievement of these goals, specifically reaching those who are at risk of being left behind. The most fundamental foundation to the achievement of these goals is through the robust implementation of social protection. Social protection is therefore central to achieving the SDGs, to promote social justice and to realizing the human right to social security for all. The contribution of social protection to the social and economic pillars of sustainable development, it is therewith reflected directly or indirectly in at least five of the 17 SDG goals (Bossuroy et al, 2021).

Through its role in promoting the equitable transition towards greener economies and societies, social protection also contributes to the environmental pillar. As a result, social protection plays a crucial role in accelerating progress towards the SDGs (Kaltenborn, 2015). Social protection is a collection of laws and initiatives aimed at eradicating and preventing poverty and vulnerability throughout the life cycle. The nine primary sectors of social protection are: child and family benefits, maternity protection, unemployment support, employment injury benefits, sickness benefits, health protection, old age benefits, disability benefits, and survivors' benefits, among others. All these policy areas are addressed through social protection systems, which combine contributory and non-contributory social assistance programmes.

Social protection systems are fundamental not only in reducing poverty but also in preventing people to fall back into poverty across the life circle, (Chronic Poverty Advisory Network, 2014). This is one critical element of any policy framework aiming at leaving no one behind, this target highlights in particular the global commitment to building social protection floors as the fundamental element of each country's social protection system to ensure at least a basic level of social security for all and to extent social protection

systems to ensure at least a basic level of social security for all and extending social protection coverage to those who were once excluded. Beegle et al, (2018) argued that such social protection programmes are essential for alleviating and preventing poverty, vulnerability, and social exclusion by guaranteeing at least a basic level of income security and effective access to health care throughout the life course of the world citizens.

The SDG goals and social protection programmes are intertwined; social protection programmes help to realize universal health coverage, including financial protection in health, and they ensure access to quality and essential health care services as well as safe, effective, quality, and affordable essential medicines and vaccines for all—SDG target 3.8. Countries invest in achieving the SDG goals to achieve affordable health outcomes. Achieving the SDGs, particularly eliminating health inequities, depends on having universal health care. Deaton (2013) further claimed that SDG target 5.4—recognizing and appreciating unpaid care and domestic work—is a keyway in which social protection contributes to gender equality. Along with the provision of public care services and infrastructure, social protection programmes can play a major role in redistributing care responsibilities and recognizing and valuing unpaid work.

Social protection is also requisite to the promotion of decent work and inclusive growth—SDG target 8.5. As one of the four pillars of decent work, social protection contributes to the promotion of employment, fosters higher labor productivity and investments in human capital and capabilities and stabilizes aggregate demand during major economic crisis (Jones et al, 2019). As the world is heavily suffering from high levels of unemployment, underemployment and informality, social protection systems adapt to ensure the protection of incomes and to facilitate access to health, education and decent employment including for those in unwarranted and informal employment.

According to Yemstov (2013), social protection can also positively affect productivity, local economic development (LED), inclusive growth, and combined demand, supporting both social advancement and inclusive economic growth. Yemstov added that SDG target 10.4 on income inequality and other forms of inequality include social protection programmes as crucial elements of policies to contain and reduce inequality. Social protection systems are one of the avenues for the redistribution of income, along with tax policies, and they

are also crucial in addressing non-financial inequality, such as lowering disparities in access to health and education. McNabb and Granger (2022: 25), pointed out that recent studies around social protection have demonstrated the important contribution of social protection towards the reduction of inequalities in Africa and in Asia.

According to The World Bank Group (2018) social protection contributes to several other SDGs including eliminating hunger by promoting food security and access to an improved nutrition-SDG 2, facilitating access to quality education-SDG 4, clean water and sanitation-SDG 6 and affordable and clean energy-SDG 7. By contributing to investments in people, promoting productive employment and facilitating structural change of the economy, social protection systems also contribute to building resilient infrastructure, promoting inclusive and sustainable industrialization, and fostering innovation SDG 9. These social protection programmes also contribute to making cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable by providing income security and access to social services for residents SDG-11, notably targets 11.1 and 11.5, ensuring more sustainable consumption and production patterns by allowing people to plan ahead and avoid environmentally harmful behavior SDG 12, fostering climate action by providing income support to households affected by climate-related hardships or by green policies leading to the phasing out of certain industries SDG 13, specifically target 13.3 and contributing to environmental conservation by offering an offsetting income security measures to reduce exploitation of marine and land resources SDG 14 and 15 respectively (Sub Saharan Africa Population Services, 2019).

Roelen (2014: 67) posit that social protection systems are also key element of policies promoting peaceful and inclusive societies, particularly through their contribution to the development of effective, accountable, and transparent institutions that manage and govern social protection schemes SDG 16, particularly target 16.6, and providing basic income security and facilitating access to job opportunities and training for unemployment workers and the youth. Gomez (2016) also argued that many of the indicators related to strengthening the means of implementation and revitalizing the global partnership for sustainable development SDG 17 have been promoted through the development of social protection systems and floors with the technical and financial support of external partners

Despite significant advances in the extension of social protection coverage in many parts of the world, progress in building social protection systems including social protection floors is still too slow. If the 20130 Agenda is to be achieved, the national and global efforts need to be stepped up to fully harness the pivotal role of social protection systems in promoting social and economic development (ILO, 2014), more inclusive societies and more effective investments in human capital and human capabilities and to promote transformative change (Roelen, 2014).

3.9 Rethinking social protection through sustainable development lenses

According to Barrientos (2013), social protection has been a crucial component of development policy and practice since the turn of the century. Over the past 20 years, social safety systems have expanded at a never-before-seen rate, especially in low- and middle-income countries. Large-scale initiatives in middle-income nations that provide direct income transfers to low-income households have a considerable positive impact on the elimination of global poverty and vulnerability. Gonzalez and Moore (2012). Examples of these include the Bolsa Escola/Familia program in Brazil, the Progresa/Oportunidades program in Mexico, the Child Support Grant in South Africa, the Productive Safety Net Program in Ethiopia, the National Rural Employment Guarantee program in India, the DiBao program in China, and the Basic Education Assistance Module in Zimbabwe. The rise of social protection in Africa has mostly been the consequence of domestic policy responses to poverty and vulnerability; it was predicted that by 2010, almost one billion individuals in low- and middle-income nations would live in homes with at least one transfer recipient (Barrientos, 2013).

Although social protection was not explicitly addressed in the Millennium Development Goals, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which were adopted in 2015 to replace them, have the potential to produce the necessary outcomes. According to the SDGs, all people, including floors, must have access to social protection systems and measures that are adequate for their country contexts by the year 2030. Through the provision of public services, infrastructure, and social protection measures, they also seek to acknowledge and respect unpaid and domestic care. More importantly, they promote the adoption of policies, particularly fiscal, wage, and social protection policies, which

gradually advance toward more equality and acknowledge and support global efforts to increase social protection coverage (Hickey et al, 2018).

3.10 Rethinking social protection in Sub-Saharan Africa

Using the World Bank's datum line for severe poverty, Patel (2018) hypothesized that Sub-Saharan Africa's experience with social development between 1981 and 2005 was restricted and that an extra 176.1 million people in the region fell into severe poverty. According to the World Bank's 2009 World Development Indicators, the economic crisis will cause an additional 46 million people to experience extreme poverty and an additional 53 million people to become poor. If the crisis continues, it is predicted that every year between 200 000 and 400 000 children will perish; between 2009 and 2015, there will be between 1.4 million and 2.8 million additional occurrences of child death (Hickey et al, 2018).

According to Samson et al. (2015), among the many social protection programmes that have ever been implemented in Africa and around the world, cash transfers have generally received support from the donor community as the preferred policy instrument because they are market-compliant, effective at allocating resources and focusing on the right recipients, and well-suited to budget support programmes. Particularly in Southern Africa, the cash transfer program has received much praise as a significant tool for social protection action. Additionally, social protection tools like conditional cash transfer programmes appear to have reversed the conventional flow of ideas and policy-learning, with the global North learning from the global South. The alternative model for addressing the issue of inclusive development in Africa necessitates a major break from the dominant social protection paradigm and a return to a broader vision of society that integrates social policy with a larger development strategy. Social policy serves a variety of purposes, including production, protection, redistribution, reproduction, social cohesion, and nation-building, as opposed to just protecting the poor from destitution (Adesina 2009:38).

Adesina went on arguing that social policy goes beyond guaranteeing a minimum level of social well-being through social insurance, unemployment insurance, old age pensions or pro-natalist social provisioning, social policy includes publicly mediated access to education, healthcare, employment, housing, and many others. Economic policy on the

other hand refers to public efforts directed at the functioning of the economy using fiscal and monetary instruments (Harvey et al, 2017).

3.11 Social protection: Mapping the model.

Although mainly restrained, the social protection paradigm's march has indeed been long enough. Social protection, according to Devereux and Sabates Wheeler (2014), encompasses all public and private initiatives that give the poor income or consumption transfers, safeguard the vulnerable from risks to their way of life, and improve the social status and rights of the marginalized with the overall goal of lowering the economic and social vulnerability of the poor, vulnerable, and marginalized groups. The goal of the transformative social protection agenda was to broaden public perception of social protection beyond the deserving poor. Other forms of social protection would address distinct problems of social vulnerability, not essentially through resource transfers but through delivery of social services and through measures to modify and regulate behavior towards socially vulnerable groups (Devereaux and Sabates Wheeler, 2014).

Government institutions may also be included in the implementation process, but this is frequently done in a way that targets lower levels of government departments. The targeted units and their officials, in comparison to the rest of the civil service, have access to adequate resources and are well integrated into these donor-driven schemes. As a result, the public service's efforts to develop clear policies, institutionalize learning, and share information are undermined (Adesina 2004). To shift the social protection paradigm, poverty must be addressed holistically in nations with high levels of poverty. This calls for a return to holistic development thinking with an emphasis on cross-sectoral connections among policy instruments rather than the fragmentary thinking and single-issue policy-merchandising that currently permeate the international debate (Chitope, 2015).

3.12 Conclusion

United Nations agencies "working as one" and in concert with appropriate international, regional, sub regional, and nationwide organizations and partners in the social sector, civil society, and other participants, such as through the Global Partnership for Universal

Social Protection, help advance the cause of universal Now is the time to spend more in social security to close the funding deficit. Financial investments in regionally specified social safety levels must be prioritised if the 2030 Agenda is to fulfil its commitments.

CHAPTER FOUR: SOCIAL PROTECTION IN ZIMBABWE

4.0. Introduction

The post-independence government inherited a structurally and racially divided economy, it was characterized by a relatively modern white settler. Africans were a source of largely unskilled labor used in the settler enclave. Robertson further argues that the Zimbabwean economy depended on a relatively well-developed mining industry with untapped mineral deposits as well as agriculture with tobacco which is one of the leading export crops. The post-independence government envisioned social transformation through democratizing access to social services and state control of resources because of deep-seated distrust of private capital (Raftopoulos, 2004) and western foreign investors and to comply with liberation war promises. Additionally, social change comes through social policy which includes agricultural reforms which seeks to end poverty, destitution and vulnerability through land redistribution, food subsidies and inclusive education and health care.

4.1 Background: Social protection in Zimbabwe

According to Gandure (2009), Zimbabwe has been experiencing an unprecedented economic failure and political unrest for over a decade, the indicators of this crisis are the persistent critical levels of food insecurity, high job losses, loss and prevalent suffering that has been tenacious since the 1990s. The government has attributed this crisis to extended drought periods compounded by economic sanctions and the cutting of aid by humanitarian organisations. However, it is now established that the humanitarian crisis in Zimbabwe is best described in the context of massive deindustrialization, the collapses of the agricultural sector because of the controversial land acquisition and the resultant spikes in poverty and vulnerability, corruption poor governance, impact of HIV/AIDS and massive migration of skilled and professionals.

At policy level, the government's interventions have largely been disproportionate and not in sync as evidenced by fixed exchange rates and numerous policy inconsistencies whose effects are still being felt decades after these misinformed policies across all sectors of the economy, for example: some credible economic instruments such as the Economic Structural Adjustment Program (ESAP) 1991 – 1995, The Zimbabwe Program

for Economic and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST) 1996 – 2000), the Millennium Economic Recovery Program (MERP) 2000 – 2002, the National Economic Recovery program (NERP) in 2003 and then National Economic Priority Development Program (NEDPP) in March 2006 have been unsuccessful in steadying the economy as well as the provision of decent social protection facilities. Their disjointed nature and their inappropriate implementation triggered an economic meltdown in Zimbabwe (Matshe, 2007)

At programming level, mitigatory measures have seen government and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) implementing an uncoordinated set of programmes in the form food aid, food for work, farming input schemes among many others that sought to avert massive starvations in the country. Long term developments in water resources and irrigation schemes have been in a bid to addresses poverty and vulnerability. Despite the numerous interventions intended to deal with this context, their efficacy on the ground has been eroded by the and limited by the macroeconomic instability. But in the wake of this reality, all stakeholders including donor community have been taking a rational evaluation at their range of interventions in the short run against the outcome that seem tom suggest the stark reality livelihood base of the people of Zimbabwe is not making meaningful progress (Gandure, 2008).

The International Labour Organization (ILO) recommends that state parties to implement the social protection floor initiative which calls for a minimum package of social protection benefits comprising of old age pensions, child benefit, public works programmes which are designed at cushioning the elderly persons in their old age, the programmes are seriously affected by high exclusion errors given that only a small number of the elderly population are covered by the programmes (Hitchcock, 2016). The National Social Security Council (NSSA) which was promulgated in 1989 only provides pensions and other benefits allowances to the older persons that were formally employed. The insurance companies such as Old Mutual, ZIMNAT and First Mutual among others are private and voluntary organizations that are into providing coverage to private companies and those individuals that can afford, this therefore excludes most of the elderly persons that never contributed to any form of protection. This, therefore, causes a very serious

situation of the inadequacy of social protection in Zimbabwe hence the idea of rethinking it and make it more inclusive and not live out other vulnerable people within the society uncovered.

4.2 Zimbabwean social policies in the 1980s

Early in the 1980s, the Zimbabwean government implemented social policy objectives through broader strategies of agrarian reforms, labor market regulations, education, and health care interventions as well as drought/food security responses. These policies were implemented since 1980 to the present day (Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ), 2016).

4.2.1 Resettlement and land reform

The priority of the independence Zimbabwe land reforms was primarily sought to resettle families that were internally displaced during the liberation war. Sachikonye (2013) posits that out of 162 000 households the government intended to be resettled, only 35 000 households had received resettlement plot permits by 1985. Resettlement permit holders also accessed subsidized agro credit but were not allowed to seek urban wage work, a requirement of measures to ensure rural development, this fact combined with funding challenges since the 1980s points to the conclusion that the government's role in social protection was incidental. The measure or extend to which social protection was undertaken was very much inadequate, it did not manage to fully cater for the vulnerable citizens of the country. According to Kaseke et al (2013) repeated droughts in 1980/81 and 1984/85 decreased performance of the agro-based economy undermined the benefits of land reforms and destabilized the national budget because of the need for food aid sourced from international donors.

4.2.2 Expanding employment through Africanizing the civil service

By 1980, Zimbabweans who were not affected by the resettlement policy opted to be employed in the civil service and the manufacturing sector which were attractive options. Wages in the civil service increased by 66 percent between 1981 and 1984 (Stepheneson, 2017). The government of Zimbabwe passed pro-labor legislation including on minimum wage to ensure security of employment and improve standards of

living for wage workers as part of its national liberation ethos. This then strengthened the social security aspect of social protection although at a very small scale.

4.2.3 Social assistance and other poverty alleviation programmes

Adesina, (2020) posits that the expansion of social protection coverage was sought but the reality of environmental and economic challenges like droughts in the years 1982/3 made it impossible to fully implement a comprehensive social assistance program. Donors provided food aid which was in some cases channelled through food for work programmes and child supplementary feeding to address considerable child malnutrition. As part of the small scaled social assistance programmes the government also catered for persons with disabilities. Persons with disabilities received support to acquire devices such as crutches, wheelchairs, and monthly grants on assessment of their disabilities.

4.2.4 Education for all

Soon after the government attained independence, it described education as a means “to achieving equity” and as an end “human right” and a “basic need” (GoZ 1981). The new government democratized education by passing the Education Act of 1981. The motto was “education for all” (EFA) thereby committing to undo the education system’s erstwhile racially defined duality and inequality in orientation and quality. Primary education became free and compulsory for all children of school going age group. EFA policies spurred an unprecedented growth in enrolments, teacher training programmes and the number of primary and secondary schools (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015). In 1980s, enrolment in Zimbabwe’s only university increased from 2,240 in 1980 to 9,288 in 1989, a 414 percent increase. Thus, despite expansion, university education remained elitist and exclusionary. More technical colleges were built in smaller towns, increasing their combined enrolment from 3,663 in 1979 to 18,213 in 1985 (Arruda, 2018: 54)

4.2.5 Health for all

Soon after 1980, the newly appointed government focused on primary health care (PHC). PHC was described as a means to “fight a war on diseases and malnutrition, poverty and ignorance” (Government of Zimbabwe 2016:12). This approach sought to transform the health care system from a centralized curative, costly, urban-biased, and racially divided

system to an integrated decentralized one focused on preventive and promotive health approaches. Many Zimbabweans about 65 percent lived in rural areas where morbidity was predominantly due to preventable disease and conditions related to malnutrition, poor sanitation, and limited access to health care facilities.

4.3 Sources of funding for social policy in Zimbabwe

Buzuzi et al (2016) pointed out that resource mobilization for social policy was challenged on many sides since Zimbabwe by this time (1980) was seriously over borrowed., the budget was funded by local resources like mining and agriculture as major sources of revenue, however the fall in world market prices of minerals in the 1980s shrunk the revenue base. Droughts in 1981 and 1984 challenged revenue generation, the government had borrowed USD 30 million from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1981 with another loan in 1983. The IMF applied stringent loan conditions and called for more support for exports and spending caps in social programmes.

The deterioration of the Zimbabwean economy seriously compromised the delivery of social services a great deal. Between 1980 and 1990, investment in mining declined, employment rate fell by 22 percent. The quest for state control of the economy saw the government creating new parastatals, many which would rely on government funding thus increasing the budget deficit, for example, grants to parastatals consumed 5.1 percent of national budgets by 1985, while support for the national airline, national railways and the iron smelting company ran to 14 percent of the budget and half of the budget deficit. Instead of helping in revenue generation, most parastatals were loss-making, deepening local industrialists' distrust of government economic policies (Mildred, 2015). Regardless of these negative economic downturns, compared to the rest of Sub-Saharan Africa Zimbabwe enjoyed donor good will especially in social sectors, still there was no disaggregation of national and donor resources in the budget.

4.3.1 Education Funding

This was the most favoured aspect in the early 1980 budget, receiving about 17.3 percent of the national budget, which increased to 19.6 percent in 1982/83 and decreased to 15.4 percent in 1985/86 due to escalating military costs in Mozambique and the economic

stabilization program (GoZ, 2020). Government policy stated that school's infrastructure was provided by local communities' parent-teacher associations (PTAs)/ school development associations (SDAs) at each school. Government of Zimbabwe (2020) states that by 1985, 85 percent of Zimbabwean schools' infrastructure was privately funded by communities' PTAs, SDAs and local authorities and donors. The government also gave grants to local authorities and mission schools for some of their expenses. Communities had limited input in curriculum development save for vernacular language policy and decisions as to whether education with production could be reintroduced.

In tertiary education, revolving funds which paid tuition through partial grants and loans dating from colonial times were extended to all students who qualified to attend the country's university and other tertiary institutions. Initially, officials were confident that the economy would absorb students with tertiary qualifications, enabling fund recipients to repay their loans, thereby ensuring the sustainability of the revolving funds, however, growing unemployment and poor tracking of the employment of 1980s and 1990s student loan recipients undermined the realization of this paying back objective.

4.3.2 Funding health care

According to Trednos, and Flockhart (2020) the health budget's share of government spending hovered between 4.5 percent and 5.1 percent between 1980 and 1986, in 1980/81, 26.8 percent of the ministry's budget went to salaries, by 1985-86 salaries accounted for 44.7 percent. In the 1980s, persons who earned less than ZWD 150/month were entitled to free health care upon producing a pays lip and identity card, a letter from their employer or assessment from the DSW indicating that the bearer (s) were on public assistance. People who qualified included domestic workers, unskilled and semiskilled workers in industry, farm workers and lower levels of the civil service. Beneficiaries also included persons with disabilities, retirees and the general unemployed, however, free health care existed in name only because the process of getting an exemption was cumbersome. Besides practically there were drug shortages, lack of supplies as well as pilfering of drugs and supplies by staff whose wages had declined and trying to deal with low staff morale.

4.4 The role of international aid towards the provision of social protection

International organizations play a very critical role in the provision of social protection services, especially the Zimbabwean situation when the government plays a very low profiled role the provision of social services, this has been caused by the government's poor preference to social protection. In 1981, at a donor conference held to mobilize resources from the newly independent country, over USD 1 billion was pledged (Nhongo, 2015), but because of the cold war and other geopolitical calculi, pledges were paid piecemeal for example, the USA pledged USD 225 million but its congress approved only USD 40 million in 1984 because of its displeasure of Zim's one-party policy. Madzongwe (2017) added that bilateral donors took a more active role in health provisioning, water and sanitation, child immunization and agriculture. More than a dozen European countries, Kuwait, Japan, the United States and Canada supported agriculture research, land redistribution, institutional reforms, and food aid.

Furthermore, United Nations agencies such as children's charities like save the children and faith-based organizations such as World Vision among others, contributed to the construction of schools, clinics and pit latrines, supply books, materials, and technical expertise in child immunization, and provided food aid and food for the children supplementary feeding thus contributing to both health and education outcomes. Government together with donors contributed materials, expertise, and capacity development and by 1983, 18 percent of the Ministry of Health budget was funded from aid from the World Health Organization (WHO), EU and major bilateral donors (Kaseke, 2010). World Vision also ran a child sponsorship program in which oversees well-wishers could sponsor children through school in Zimbabwe. Similarly, mission hospitals benefited from affiliated overseas denominational church and mission societies who donated aid in cash and expertise. Donor communities like Netherlands, United Kingdom, Australia, the United States of America, Union of Soviet Socialist Republic (USSR) and others offered scholarships to overseas universities, giving Zimbabwean disadvantaged but bright student's opportunities to further their education in the above-mentioned countries.

4.5 Social policy outcomes as implemented since 1980 in Zimbabwe.

4.5.1 Education outcomes

Improvement in literacy rates versus shrinking employment: Adult literacy rates improved from 69.5 percent for males and 55.5 percent for females in 1982 (CSO 1993: 13) to 86.06 percent and 75.12 percent respectively in 1992 (Zvobgo, 1987). Zvobgo further argued that although education had been billed as a means out of peasant ways of life, the economic reality offered no clear pathways since by the end of the 1980s, school leaver unemployment was seriously becoming a cause for concern.

Academic versus vocational subjects in secondary school: During the liberation war, refugee camp schools offered a combination of academic subjects and manual work referred to as education with production in line with self-reliance and pro-socialist aspirations of the government. And after independence, Zimbabweans preferred an elitist academic education with exams marked and moderated by University of Cambridge Local Exams Syndicate (UCLES) in the United Kingdom (Kunambura, 2015). There was indeed mileage in the improvement of the literacy rate but mainly blacks were marginalized, and their level of achievement was interiorized by the white minority hence creating vast gaps in societal status.

4.5.2 Health outcomes

Primary health care radically improved health outcomes, firstly the village health workers training programmes had not met its target by 1984 nor did VHWs benefited from minimum wage legislation, and secondly, although PHC was at the core of transformation, it was one of the first to be affected by budget cuts during the 1982 budget stabilization (Roberts, 2016). Another setback was that decentralization of the health care system did not meet its targets as 34 out of 59 districts were still without a district hospital thus missing a link in the health care chain until the end of 1990s, thus the referral system did not function well and eventually broke down – nonetheless the commitment of decentralization remained steadfast (MoHCW, 2018).

4.6 The state of social policy in the 1990s to present.

Abels and Guven (2016) argue that, despite favourable economic growth projections at the start of ESAP, investments in mining were rather slow with notable inflows only after 1995. For example, eight mining projects worth slightly over USD 500 million in gold and platinum were approved. The political crisis of the late 1990s i.e. (wanton fiscal indiscipline seen in the war veterans' pensions and the war in the Democratic Republic of Congo DRC, deteriorating donor relations, arbitrary policy-making militarization, and lack of rule of law squandered investor confidence painted the Zimbabwean investor flag very much unfavourable hence completely crippling the newly developed social policy buds (Baird et al, 2015). Mining production further declined by 1999, Aid withdrawals and targeted sanctions against political leaders and their business partners compounded problems by removing likely sources of funding or punishing investors who aided leaders under sanctions and consequently there were negligible fiscal resources for social spending and the budget deficit festered (Roberts, 2016).

4.6.1 Deteriorating donor relations

Although donors funded various programmes in Zimbabwe like food aid and the HIV and AIDS, donor relations deteriorated to unprecedented levels by the end of the decade. In 1997, the IMF agreed to release a USD175 million loan after the government implemented corrective measures to address the budget deficit. By the end of 1997 the government's ad hoc and defiant activities for example joining the war in the DRC and providing war veterans with unbudgeted pensions further alienated donors (Malholtra and Elnakib, 2020). Sachikonye, (2013) argued that it is not clear whether this IMF loan was released in full or if it became part of other aid withdrawal when relations soared between Zimbabwe and those aid countries in 1998. The still birth of ZIMPREST left the country without a coherent strategy to revamp the economy while souring donor relations meant that there were neither resources nor comprehensive responses to deepening poverty. Investor confidence plummeted further except for South African investors who kept on trading with Zimbabwe, donors did however remain committed to remedy humanitarian emergencies such as hunger and HIV and AIDS.

4.6.2 Declining real spending on Zimbabwean Education and health care

According to Government of Zimbabwe, ZIMVAC (2016), per capita spending in primary education was between USD1.50 and 2.00 and USD 1.30 and 0.90 in secondary schools in 1990/91 and 1993/94 respectively, this compromised quality of education and enrolments seriously hence the quality of education in Zimbabwe deteriorated. Per capita spending in USD terms declined further as economic and political crisis deepened in the late 1990s when donors withdrew.

The budget of the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare (MoHCW) consistently hovered around 6 percent of the national budget with insignificant changes in some years due to inflation adjustments (MoHCW, 1999). Per capita public spending in health declined from ZWD 55 IN 1990/1 to ZWD 36 in 1995/96, such low investments impinged on the quality of services, staff morale and ultimately on health indicators. Contrary to the logic of cost recovery, health care facilities were not effective at revenue collection because of people had no means to pay, without resources to fund their activities, quality of services declined in healthcare services (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015). Economic Structural Adjustment Programmes (ESAP) imposed severity not only reduced the government's ability to leverage domestic resources in mining and agriculture, but it led to decreased access to services, simultaneously increasing inequality and tensions between and among groups:

ESAP caused an untold suffering to the people of Zimbabwe since its inception, poverty increased markedly due to intertwined effects of deindustrialization, removal of subsidies in health, education, agriculture, and food as well as droughts in 1990/91 and 1994/95 leaving two million people in need of food aid and in debt following the 1980s cheap agro credit which they could no longer pay back (National Authority Social Security Agency (NSSA), 2015). In 1995, the government commissioned a donor funded Poverty Assessment Study Survey (PASS) which was spear headed by the Ministry of Public Services Labor and Social Welfare. According to the CSO study of 1998, over 63 percent of the rural area's households were poor with poverty worse in rural areas due to cyclical droughts, limited access to resources like land and insufficient employment opportunities.

Female-headed households fared worse because of male-biased access to land and wage work.

With respect to agro-infrastructure and agrarian reforms, Gukurume and Oosterom (2020) pointed out that the Agriculture Finance Corporation (AFC), then responsible for agro-finance reeled under debt due to unpaid loans while neoliberal rationalization shrunk produce marketing infrastructure such as the closure of grain collecting depots. The government of Zimbabwe relented by selling maize, and this proved to be an ill-advised idea given two impending droughts. Consequently, maize had to be imported from South Africa as donor funded food aid amid logistical challenges. Deteriorating relations with donor in the 1990s especially due to the fallout from ESAP, made recovery from effects of neoliberal policies in agriculture difficult.

4.6.3 Education outcomes

Due to cost recovery policies, a considerable number of parents withdrew their children from schools due to inability to pay fees and the inadequacy of safety nets. This resulted in enrolments declining, the 1990 to 1991 drought likely accentuated patrilineal rationalizations that strategic resources are better allocated to sons (Mate, 2018). Secondary school enrolments had peaked in 1991 at 710, 700 and dipped thereafter and only rose past 1991 onwards. UNICEF intervened by sponsoring girls secondary school fees to ameliorate gendered attrition although the number of beneficiaries is not discernible.

With respect to working conditions, there was a notable declining in real funding and remuneration, created poor working conditions and low morale among health workers, referrals of patients to expensive private clinics increased. Tensions between patients and health care providers in public institutions increased with allegations of corruption and favouritism and occasionally reports of grievous malpractice, over and above all this health was neither seen as a right nor were patients seen as consumers with choices and rights (Evans et al, 2017).

The year 2000 ushered in multi-dimensional crises which encroached on social spending and social policy spending, planning and implementation, at the middle of these crisis

was again a failure to mobilize local resources (World Food Programme, 2015). Economically, foreign currency controls failed, consequently the government could neither import fuel nor pay for electricity imports for which it owed USD100 million, parallel markets defiantly prospered leading to hyperinflation, inflation reached above two hundred million percentage points in July 2008 (Evans, 2017). Hyperinflation made strategic planning impossible as prices of goods and services changed daily (Bland, 2011), access to social services receded, relentlessly worsening poverty with negative impacts on social development indicators. The 2008-2009 cholera outbreak which claimed thousands of lives accounts for deplorable declines in access to social services (Daidone et al, 2016). The situation in the year 2000 triggered a serious poor service delivery in almost all sectors of the economy, corruption was also on the increase, political unrest exacerbated the situation, social protection provisions completely died a natural death and hence many people suffered from lack of proper services.

4.7 Formal and informal social protection systems in Zimbabwe

According to Chikova (2013), the constitution of Zimbabwe provides for amongst other things, the provisioning of social protection to selected populations groups. In its founding values the constitution espouses the respect of the elderly, children, and people with various forms of disabilities. Chikova further elaborated that in its national objectives, the constitution of Zimbabwe touches on issues of empowerment, employment creation, and food security and compels the state to adopt policies and measures that relate to enhancing proper delivery of social protection programmes. The state is also obliged to take reasonable measures to ensure that youths between the ages of fifteen and thirty-five years are economically empowered and are protected from harmful cultural practices. The state is also expected to take commendable measures to improve the quality of life for elderly persons and to ensure free and compulsory basic education for children and promoting higher and tertiary education for all deserving citizens of the country. The Zimbabwean constitution also observes the right to education through the provision of basic education with the intention of eliminating the risk of impairment of one's capacity to earn income through lack of basic education.

Mate (2018) also posits that in Zimbabwe the public assistance scheme is mandated by the provisions of the Social Welfare Assistance Act, and this has significantly safeguarded it from possible abuse, manipulation, and corruption by various governmental and non-governmental structures. This Act of parliament clearly stipulates the eligibility criteria for one to qualify to become a social welfare beneficiary. Mate further argued that Zimbabwe has been characterized by a growing spate of politicization of social protection schemes such as the Grain Loan Schemes and food for work programmes, on the other side, the Harmonized Social Cash Transfers Program though founded on the same values as its predecessor, could be vulnerable to political manipulation and corruption as the selection parameters that provide for its definition, eligibility criteria and targeting depend largely on the community leadership rather than on the professional and judicious assessment of need.

4.8 Social protection exit strategy

Sustainable and effective social protection schemes should ensure that there are graduation and people are not on social protection for ever (Department for International Development, 2015). Although the Public Assistance program is meant to achieve this objective, sometimes program beneficiaries benefit for 10 years, this points to the fact that the program has no clearly outlined exit strategy, it however acknowledges that there should be mechanisms to ensure that beneficiaries capacity is monitored, it acknowledges that the social situation in a community is dynamic and undergoes a number of changes such as having other poor households and dearth of the recipient bread winner hence need for continuous retargeting (Schubert, 2015). He further argued that the responsibility of retargeting involves the continuous assessment of all current beneficiary households that are still poverty constrained, phasing out those beneficiaries that are no longer poverty constrained and updating the volume of these cash transfers.

Masuka (2013) asserted that the new constitution of Zimbabwe has reinforced the state's commitment to provide social protection as part of the human rights agenda, for example Chapter 2 of the Constitution of Zimbabwe section 30 states that "... the state must take all practical measures to provide social protection and social care to those who are in need" (Government of Zimbabwe 2013). In accordance with article 25 of the universal

declaration of human privileges, that asserts that everybody has the entitlement to a model of surviving sufficient for the wellness and good health of oneself and his relatives, this social safety availability ensures that everybody has access to food, accessories, shelter, healthcare treatment, and other essential state assistance. As a result, Zimbabwe is making progress in implementing human rights-compliant social protection measures. Several welfare support plans in Zimbabwe are struggling with a variety of problems, which suggests that these programmes are missing some of the essential components of social care. Continuity, integrity, transparency, and sustainability are all qualities cited by Gandure (2009). It has been determined that programmes like BEAM and the Assisted Medical Treatment Orders (AMTOs) are neither robust, reliable, or dependable. In Zimbabwe, the delivery of social assistance as a privilege, as stipulated in the proposed law, must be made real by addressing the identified difficulties.

4.9 Possible sources of financing and potential obstacles

The provisioning of humanitarian amenities raises the question of how to pay for them, as noted by Chatiza (2019), who notes that the focus of a Zimbabwean public welfare system is on doing the best with the least possible reserves. Delivery of public care is intrinsically tied to financial and assets availability. While the country has received praise for developing thoughtful principles, the country has only proven able to partly realize these regulations owing to an incompletely comprehensive strategy to execution. Considering this, there is increasing concern in the academic's community that the constitution well-intentioned entitlements predicated on community assistance stipulations may be challenging to recognize. Nevertheless, the new administration that took office following the 31 July 2013 harmonised elections has philosophically designed a manuscript named "Zim Asset to direct the social economic evolution of the nation over the timeframe 2013-2018. According to Watson (2016), Zim Asset is a strategy for achieving sustainable development and social services equality via a spatial approach. The Zim Asset template is connected to stipulations of the new charter like those relating to socioeconomic privileges, but its financing modalities are nonetheless a problem under consideration; the administration has not provided sufficient resources to implement the plan.

Despite Wong's (2016) reiteration of the problem of financing restrictions, it is highly suggested that the revenue for Zim Asset as an instrument for the accomplishment of the civil equality must be across the regular government yearly budget allocations enacted by the Zimbabwean legislative assembly of, although with constrained donor assistance. This is due to the constitutional amendment emphasizes the crucial importance of ensuring that the social rights guaranteed by the constitution are put into practice.

4.10 Drivers of exclusion and inadequacy of social protection in Zimbabwe

In spite of legal protections for the vulnerable, not everyone benefits from welfare services even in nations that provide them. Certain socioeconomic groupings are impacted heavily by deficiencies in provision, inadequate rewards, and hurdles to accessing, decreasing the effectiveness of social assistance in limiting disparities and achieving the goal of leaving no one abandoned. Disparity and marginalization are fuelled by factors such as discrimination against individuals on the premise of features or identities, that in return leads to uneven economic relationships that play out in the creation of societal programmes as well as the provision of government programmes, resulting in accessibility shortages (United Nations, 2016). Inadequacy is seriously caused by a shortage of a nationally agreed legal framework of social protection, this seriously cases the administration towards underestimating the quantities of the populations that needs welfare attention in their communities. The other problem is that the government seems to be refusing its responsibility of looking after its own people that is they are leaving the larger part of the social protection provisioning to non-state organizations like NGOs to carry this burden.

Numerous restrictions that previously limited accessibility to humanitarian assistance and government assistance for specific demographic segments have already been abolished, making it easier for organizations to engage such populations. However, institutional prejudice persists, reinforcing many of the obstacles individuals encounter, including inadequate access to knowledge about rights or the democratic mandate or inclusion essential to pursue those privileges (Wong et al, 2016). In some instances, there is a very high bias and favouritism towards those communities who are known for supporting the ruling part, but NGOs try by all means to neutralize this partisan food

distribution but still shortage remains a problem. In contrast extreme, sometimes in nations wherein prejudice is actively being combated and institutional obstacles to accessing have indeed been removed, financial limitations nevertheless play a part in limiting welfare support availability. Women and representatives of traditional regions and other minority groups, as well as migrators, individuals suffering impairments, and youths, have it much tougher in the employment sector than the general population, and therefore frequently make little money if individuals do find employment (United Nations, 2017). Many individuals of traditional and other minority groups reside in isolated or otherwise out-of-the-way places, wherein they lack easy accessibility to basic amenities.

Policies formulation as well as execution also have a significant impact in either ensuring that welfare benefits remain out of range for many or providing possibilities for others on the margins to join in. Nevertheless, just because welfare support is available may not mean that the requirements of marginalized populations will be met; the effect of societal safety on deprivation and inequalities is larger in nations that spend most in it. The degree to which welfare support reduces racial marginalization is conditional on the exact policies adopted and their execution. Since 2000, Zimbabwe's economy and society have been negatively impacted by so-called unlawful restrictions, leading to a severe financial and societal catastrophe marked by high inflation, poor manufacturing utilisation (below 11%), and an accumulated GDP fall of 49% by 2009. Financial constraints and a lack of capital had a devastating impact on humanitarian security programmes like BEAM as the industry teetered on the brink of collapse, threatening the well-being of the population (ZIMASSET, 2014).

According to ZIMASSET (2014), the focus of the draft's state programmes and starvation - reduction clusters has been to help the Zimbabwean authorities to raise the quality of life of its people so that they might become more self-reliant and stimulate economic growth. Almost every government organization is suffering with a catastrophic brain drain of talented people because of the financial implosion of government services provision, the degradation of infrastructural development, rising impoverishment, and the tremendous loss of expertise. Given the goal of eventually rectifying the circumstance, it is imperative that tactics geared at empowering the disadvantaged be adopted without

delay, and this necessitates the incorporation of initiatives that aim to alleviate the misery of the marginalised. The Zimbabwean government has suggested "easy victories" to be incorporated within the community assistance and antipoverty cluster to bring welfare support closer to the grassroots citizens. These include, but are not limited to, supplying community safety initiatives to marginalised communities and eliminating user charges for certain segments of the inhabitants (ZIMASSET, 2014).

Owing to ring fencing of assets as parts of the different social protection execution of the workforce supervised projects, the financial plan for social safety initiatives in Zim has indeed been maintained at higher levels. The total amount of money set aside to fund different social security programmes increased from \$16.8 million in 2012 to \$119.8 million in 2015 (World Bank, 2016). Numerous social indices have shown the terrible human cost of the economic, societal, and budgetary crises. In the 2000s, there was a sharp drop in life expectancies at conception, along with increases in new-born, child, and prenatal deaths.

Almost a third of the kids here are without a parent, and most kids are being raised by retirees who don't get any kind of retirement or state social remittances. Although enrolment in schools remained high relative to other parts of Africa, numerous children were forced to leave out because their families could not pay the necessary educational expenses. Inadequate pay and the allure of neighbouring nations have made it challenging for rural communities to keep its surgeons and professors (World Bank, 2016). As a result of these challenges, it is crucial to lay the groundwork for a social welfare system that guarantees all residents at least a certain minimum standard of living. Consequently, the state should conduct a thorough evaluation of the current public welfare architecture for its citizens and create a more unified and encompassing multi - sectoral approach. This allows for fewer, more comprehensive, and less expensive combined programmes to reach more people. Other than BEAM, state-funded social safety net initiatives were woefully mismanaged, with some programmes using as much as a quarter of the whole government welfare expenditure on overhead.

To increase consumption for fundamental public amenities, especially in the healthcare and educational sectors, the Gvt (2015) proposed a programme of Conditional Cash

Transfer (CCTs). According to global best standards, in need for monetary aid to have the greatest possible effect, recipients must be required to take on specific roles and duties. If supervision and compliance methods permit, the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) programme in Zimbabwe might decrease spillages and provide a bigger influence on student enrolment by delivering services to consumers underneath the precondition of stringent educational participation standards.

Poor Citizens, as stated to Ortiz (2017), are increasingly depending heavily on charitable aid to cover the costs of healthcare, schooling, and nourishment. Just a tiny fraction of Zimbabwean government expenditure (3.0% of the total expenditure) goes toward human security and social welfare, even though these programmes are very important. In 2012, they accounted for 1.4% of GDP. Even though more money is currently set aside for social security, the majority of it is being wasted on bureaucratic overhead, especially in the youths and indigenisation departments. The majority of government protection spending has gone toward helping low-income students with their tuition.

4.11 Inadequacies in Zimbabwean Social Protection System

The country's impoverished and disadvantaged citizenry grew dramatically during a generation of industrial collapse, yet official assistance to the marginalized all but vanished (Zimbabwe Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 2016). After land redistribution and high currency devaluation, conventional work dropped, public security was eliminated (including retirement plans and medical coverage), and there remained relatively limited room to implement workforce laws. Uncertain targeted procedures have resulted in a significant reduction in nationally sponsored government welfare. Many new-borns were left without parents, and many handicapped and aged people were left with long-term health problems because of the catastrophe. Without safety net and the bulk of humanitarian assistance distributions left for NGOs and foreigners throughout the peak of the crises, it is apparent that the nation has seen a dramatic decline in its public assistance system.

While no authorized inequality statistics are accessible, the updated approved statistics illustrate that the ratio of extremely disadvantaged families in Zimbabwe that were unable to match fundamental nutritional needs accelerated from 20% in 1996 to 49% in 2004.

This is consistent with the claim made by the (GOZ, 2016) that the recession there has left a bigger fraction of the inhabitants in desperate conditions. These regions of traditional land settlements had a greater rise in severe deprivation than town locations. Comparatively, between 1997 and 2005, the percentage of extremely impoverished families who lacked the resources to cover their entire expenditures needs rose from 53% to 71%.

It has been estimated by del Ninno and Mills (2015) that two million Zimbabwean children are either orphaned or at risk. An approximated 29 percent of all youngsters under the age of 17 are classified OVCs, with 23.5 percent having been orphaned due to the death of all or a single parent "disabled, infected by AIDS, destitute, abandoned, living in the streets, married, having chronically ill parents or even adopted". It was also concluded through the research that the proportion of OVCs had decreased from 1,140,000 in 2015 to 978,00 in 2010. Anti-retroviral treatment (ART) has already been linked to a drop in new-born death, which has contributed to an overall decline in OVCs. The spread of Diseases among Zimbabwean families is responsible for the death of almost 71% of the country's children who have no living relatives.

Throughout the inflationary period, social protection programmes were all but abandoned, but they have since received renewed attention and support from the state as well as various aid agencies. Since its inception in 2002, BEAM has helped around 700,000 students in elementary and higher educational institutions. According to the (GOZ, 2016), by 2006, the programme had a budgeted expenditure of about US\$36 million and was helping 870,000 students, or 28% of enrolled students. In the same year, BEAM was responsible for 47% of all resources devoted to these initiatives while serving 25.4% of all individuals designated by governmental humanitarian support programmes (behind only the drought relief and public works program). Due to financial constraints, the project's breadth and available supplies have significantly shrunk in succeeding years. Due to the state's inability to properly fund for humanitarian welfare, public safety programmes were terminated throughout the inflationary decades.

Apart from BEAM, Zimbabwe does not have another bigger scale social protection scheme, additional programmes are fragmented and have inadequate financing and

reach. The administration allocates roughly US\$7 million- one fourth of the public sector welfare expenditure, on a multitude of initiatives with little demographic representation. Currently the significant operational expenses coupled with the tiny size of the initiatives could render them any cost benefit analysis. Furthermore, most of these programmes overlaps in regards of benefactor categories and therefore there is substantial pay-off for merging some of these initiatives in less highly focused and well-funded programmes. The state in its entirety lacks a robust governmental public welfare strategy that governs human welfare initiatives and community objectives and activities (Devereux, 2015). (Devereux, 2015).

Contributory social security plans, such as retirement annuities and healthcare coverage, have crumbled because of devaluation, and humanitarian support to the aged is nearly absent, according to this study's findings. The impacts of economic instability and the scarcity of jobs in the professional sectors of the industry has damaged workforce linked social security systems including privatized and state annuities and healthcare assistance programmes. Because these plans were priced in the regional currencies, savers saw their investments nearly evaporate throughout that period (McPherson, 2020). Household workers and individuals in the unofficial economy are not included, as is the situation in numerous comparable nations. Conventional opinions that the aged will be taken care of by their relatives and that they must have managed to prepare for health care cover throughout their professional life contribute to the widespread disregard for Zimbabwe's poor senior citizens, a problem that existed even prior the country's financial downturn. As much as these state welfare programmes remain underfunded and do not provide for individuals in the casual economy, the country would be unable to provide for all its residents. This occurs because the state has failed so miserably at providing official job opportunities for its people that the bulk of the citizenry now works in the irregular industry.

The inability of the authorities to provide welfare benefits was found to be a major contributor to additional problem that was uncovered by the study. Many Zimbabweans have sought refuge overseas, but without state support, their families back home must depend on the money they send every month to make ends meet. A person or family may

decide to move away as a precautionary or coping measure in the face of adversity. The migrator's ability to send money back to his or her family at home is directly related to this trend. Since the beginning of the socio-political and fiscal crises, more citizens have moved into the country and abroad. Residents have emigrated to places like South Africa, Namibia, Mozambique, Canada, and the Great Britain, which is proof of this (Devereux, 2015).

Devereux (2015) claims that sponsors are making up the shortfall in sectors of human assistance by, for example, funding cash and inputs distributions for persons residing in remote regions. In 2006-2007, 4.5 million people benefited from charity welfare systems such as BEAM and nutrition programmes including nutritional government aid and student nutritional programmes primarily administered by UNESCO, WFP, UNDP, and the Global Food Programme. Donors often prioritize helping families with infants, those who are terminally sick, the aged, and the handicapped. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) coordinates the multi-donor National Plan of Action for Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC) to improve these children's accessibility to essential resources including educational, medical services, food, water and hygiene practices, and HIV/AIDS medication. A number of these regulations severely hinder the effective activities of such NGOs, and the economic instability of our nation has prompted many Non-profits to cease providing welfare care.

4.12 Conclusion

Ring fencing of government income streams like money from natural and mining resources, social security payments, and particularly targeted taxation will ensure that social safety will be reliably financed as part of the plan to ensure that government financing is viable. The government's attempts to provide social security to disadvantaged groups will also receive help from development allies, the business sector, and civil society organizations. Funding for social security can be made viable if the government takes the primary position and is supported by other stakeholders. In addition, the government and its allies will work on plans to help people on welfare grow up and transition off welfare services as they become self-sufficient. Beneficiaries of social

security programs may be encouraged to leave those programs after receiving a boost to their social and fiscal standing through better management of those programs.

CHAPTER FIVE: MAIN-STREAMING SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES IN ZIMBABWE

5.0 Introduction

Zimbabwe's social protection structure is of its own kind, there are stories of successes and failures in this field, there are challenges as well as problems associated with it. This research is going to look at two main social protection programmes which can be categorized or termed the "main-stream social protection programmes", these programmes include the Public Works Program and the Zimbabwe Conditional Cash Transfers. Firstly, the research will start presenting the implementation and nature of the BEAM program, how it has been implemented in Zimbabwe, what were the successes as well as failures and lastly some recommendations of the program.

5.1 Public works program in Zimbabwe: Masvingo Province - Case Study

Public Works was defined by Samson et al. (2016) as the routine reimbursement of financial resources or in-kind incentives by the current administration or Non-profit making Institutions to persons in return for job with the goal of shrinking prolonged and suffering, delivering welfare support, improving social dangers, or minimizing financial insecurity and deprivation. Zimbabwe's social protection system has been premised on three main pillars namely social safety nets, income security, social assistance, and social security. Social security has always been limited by a small formal economy and in the recent years economic decline has seen increased reliance and strain on social safety nets. Public works have been included as a state safety net since the early 1980s addressing drought and cost recovery approaches. Upon the implementation of the public works, there were concerns however around dependency as well as both fiscal and state capacity to administer such programmes in the face of the need to expand basic services provision to underdeveloped rural communities (Roelen and Devereux, 2014). Davies further argues that in the year 1990 the drought relief program continued and an agricultural recovery component together with the Food for Work (FFW) for adults was introduced, moving away from community activities to enhancing homestead-based production systems. The FFD was replaced by a Grain

Loan Program in 1995 where grain was immediately available to assist needy households through the hunger period but had to be replaced by recipients from subsequent harvests.

The challenge was obviously that many would not manage to pay back their grain loans, the scheme brought about political gains and fiscal losses. Roelen, et al. (2017) postulates that this scheme of Societal Dimensions Funding (SDF) was started under the Department of Social Welfare to administer and coordinate interventions meant to cushion vulnerable groups against the negative impact of the adjustment. This fund supported the health sector ensuring subsidies for the poor, food coupons for urban households, school fees assistance and employment training and small loan for entrepreneurs but there was much leakage. ZIMPREST followed but at the time funding from the IMF and WB had ceased and although the program was launched, activities stalled. In 1995, the poverty alleviation Action Plan (PAAP) was also developed, this was a national strategy and a road map within whose all-inequality reduction activities were planned and executed. Its major emphasis was integrating the disadvantaged within its economic improvement, lobbying for inequality surveillance and targeted, neighborhood actions programmes and a collaboration strategy with other organizations

5.1.1 Large- and small-scale public works in Zimbabwe

In pre-independency Zimbabwe, the Ministry of Works was involved in large capital development schemes for the then Rhodesian Government. In the post-independence, this mandate was transferred to the new ministry of Construction and a rapid expansion of services to the black majority. From the mid-1980s housing was added to this Ministry's Portfolio and in the 1990s with the Local Government Ministry. The Local Government Ministry has always maintained technical and coordinator links with community based public works at district level even when the responsibility for these programmes was moved away from Local Authorities and transferred to social services (Gandure, 2009)

5.1.2 Public works and community-based approaches in Masvingo

According to Ngom's hypothesis (2016), in Zimbabwe, infrastructure improvements have already been linked to equally huge development initiatives in the public sectors that need a significant investment of cash, such as an administrative facilities, clinics, and other

huge academic institutions large dams as well as national housing schemes, and smaller more labour intensive efforts at community level, such as water point rehabilitation, small dam construction and maintenance, irrigation scheme set up, feeder road grading in low income areas, classroom and clinics blocks, latrines and dip tanks. As a result of the country's ongoing droughts, the phrase "public works" has developed to be used interchangeably in Zimbabwe to refer to any initiative taken on the local levels to construct useful resources and aid the populace in dealing with its effects. The focus of this research on Public Works is only referring to smaller scale and predominantly labour-intensive community based public works that enhance local safety nets. This then includes labour-based initiatives that transferee cash, food, voucher, or other like benefits to individual households whilst the efforts the labour itself aims at enhancing communal and public goods.

Nkala, (2020) states that public works approaches have evolved from emergency responses to famine and reliance in 1981 to more coordinated government and quasi emergency aid today. The direct or short-term requirements of the disadvantaged and highly susceptible have been mostly met through the provision of foodstuffs, money, or other methods community members whilst the assets generated or rehabilitated intend to have clear links longer term benefits for low income, poor and vulnerable households in terms of livelihood viability, coping and disaster risk reduction (DRR). This capacity in which community based public works engage low-income households through both income support and livelihood enhancement makes the safety net support system efficient as it has both immediate long-term benefits. The condition of work is perceived by many in the community as combating dependency syndrome of otherwise able-bodied people in the community and moving communities away from reliance on aid to self-reliance, productivity, and trade. Institutionalized components of security and protection have been added into community-based infrastructural development by government and non-government actors, including alleviation from poverty through financial and/or food handouts throughout the periods of hunger and other disasters, and promotions by increasing revenue using valuable government resources.

Ngom (2016) further asserts that the state has been and is the most consistent in the use of public works approaches with annual fiscal allocations for several months of programming every year. NGOs, the private sector, faith-based organizations, and other civil societies groups have also brought people together to support in either cash, food or other benefits to work on assets and recovery has been weakened by the dominance of aid. More recently, faith-based organizations have also shown an interest in adopting and supporting key public sector services such as local police stations and prisons. The support for these critical social assets demonstrates the diversity of interest and renewed energy for community based public works in Zimbabwe.

5.1.3 Targetting: Zimbabwe's public works program today

Such community projects are set up so that low-income households may sign up for the help they need at a certain period and location. Free government aid and public works assistance are the two types of data entry in a provincial government activities registry. Adults in working families do manual labor, whereas those in nonworking families get the same remittances minus the job requirement. The purpose of this was to standardize administrative and community-level government welfare financing. Realistically, targeting is selective, driven by local councillors often with limited communication on programmes outcomes and benefits (Gandure, 2009).

5.1.4 Inclusion and exclusion in public works in Zimbabwe

Experiments in the fields have shown that the results of both including and excluding people in focused community labor initiatives may differ greatly. Rotational systems, as opposed to targeted ones, are widely used in modern societies. The goal of these community projects initiatives is to assist as much people as feasible in their homes, and each time a new set of families receives the benefits of involvement. The politicization of targeted and the subsequent exclusions of dwellings beyond the tight socioeconomic or political connections are both consequences of making the choosing of recipients the duty of the municipal authorities through its own councillors and ward leaders. Given the difficult and dull labour tasks offered through the program, young people are uninspired to be part of the work, the work is generally for the physically capable and only those between the ages of 18 to 60. There is a clear inclusion agenda for woman who are often

the neediest in the Zimbabwean poor communities (Samson et al (2016). Although child labour issues are a concern, no monitoring has taken place as to their involvement and therefore no conclusion can be made on the participation of under 18 years only. Realistically the decision on who is involved in the works are made locally and because of the lack of state and non-state coordination, the likelihood of the same homestead benefiting across programmes is high and those in need remaining invisible to all.

5.1.5 Public work entitlements

Rasool (2020) asserted that the 50kg grain or cash equivalent per household is projected to encounter only fundamental requirements for rural dwellers. It has not been reviewed despite the effect of conditions like AIDS, Diabetes and High Blood pressure. and an increase of non-food needs of homesteads equally in the rural areas and urban localities. The following highlights the typical work and remittance pattern for the program in recent years with disbursements and payment challenges spreading activities across the year “This program has a 20 percent success in coordinating 80 per cent success is from the NGOs. All our programmes are underfunded, problems occur at ward level where coordinators and councillors belonged to the ruling party and beneficiaries were selected on partisan grounds and there are no social welfare officers to go to verify” Masvingo District Social Welfare Officer, (Rasool, 2020).

5.1.6 Asset creation, capacity building and project sustainability

Karenga (2015) noted that asset creation has not been a central focus of the program, a major limitation of these government programmes is that it has no budget line for basic equipment repairs and relies on resources freely available in communities. Despite their participation, communities reported little ownership of the program and felt that the amount of work put into the program and the incentive did not tally. A telephone survey to provincial offices in planning field work revealed a bias towards activities that need less technical supervision and less equipment's or inputs, at one field site visit, the group reported that they had five handmade grass slashers shared between over 50 people. Most spent the time just sitting around.

Various communities consulted in Masvingo and Zaka Provinces viewed the activities taking place in the program to an end. The community had more appreciation of classrooms, irrigation schemes and work around clinics as they felt the whole community benefited from this. However, road rehabilitation and rainwater gully filling as well as drain clearing and grass slashing were more common activities and simply seen as tasks that needed to be done (Ringson and Chereni, 2020:24). It has been more common in previous generations for employers to fail to pay their employees at the end of the month, leaving certain populations with the impression that people have been used as a low-priced labor option. Reports indicate that a decline in cooperation has occurred because of the project's low appeal, inadequate compensation, and unfair recruitment of volunteers by municipal government officials.

In contrast to older generations, today's youth are less likely to volunteer for state-run projects because they have their sights set on more lofty goals. Females, the elderly, and people with disabilities had never fully been included in the organizing or decision-making processes, whether as individuals or as respective advocacy organizations. of the program, despite the consultation being a critical part of social assistance “The numbers are determined by the budget, this is not like the WFP projects where surveys are done first before funds are released, beneficiaries in a public work program are selected by the politicians like councillors hence making the whole program political” – Masvingo Provincial Social Welfare Officer (Ringson and Chereni, 2020)

5.1.7 Public works approaches in the none—state actors NGOs

Karenga (2015) alluded that public works are not consistently used by NGOs and only feature in a few programmes but in recent years the relationship between the state and NGOs has become increasingly stained. Some stakeholders view public works initiatives as a necessary mechanism to keep food flowing to communities in the face of the ongoing food shortages and a political standoff. Families led by able-bodied personnel are mandated to take part in community tasks in attempt to obtain food donation support, as highlighted by the Ministry of Public Service Labour and Social Welfare in (2018). As such, all NGOs involved in nutritional allocation and nutritional aid must guarantee that

their agents are familiar with the Organisational Handbook of the Public Works Initiative, as underlined in the National Strategy for Food Security and Nutrition.

Mutasa (2018) stated that NGOs deliberately or intentionally prefer to work with traditional leaders more instead of working with politically active and attached people within their societies. This is so because traditional leaders tend to exercise some better degrees of fairness when selecting public works beneficiaries for any task. Developmental good practices have shown that the neediest households in any given community can better be reached when the whole communities are involved in selection, minimizing bias, nepotism, and favouritism. Other targeting criteria's NGOs use when implementing public works is the inclusion of community members who are not directly benefiting from any program or project at hand. This spreads the benefits of support across the community and provides some wider local support for a project in the area.

5.2 NGOs adopts several entitlements for work to be done and also investment for example, work assets.

Food for Assets: An example of a program using a food pipeline for community based public works is the USAID Food for Peace Initiative. The program uses a monthly food basket ration in exchange for work on a huge range of communal assets that involve physical labour, and the food is mostly collected by woman (United Nations, 2017)

Vouchers for work: A good example of this type of public works is OXFARM which engages communities in initiatives involving seed and livestock transfers. Able bodied rural communal farmers who can effectively maximize these assets are targeted. Critical agricultural inputs such as seed, and fertilizer and small livestock's restocking were the focus. The voucher however has a budget impact coming out at around 6% of the overall amount transferred cost excluding the additional human resources and logistics needed to implement them.

Work for assets: This is mainly done by agencies such as Environmental Africa and the UN Africa 2000 Network together with the micro-hydro projects, they have also used this strategy. This often focuses on the outcomes to gap areas or existing community structures in need of support. The wider community benefits through the short-term

transfers for labour and indirectly through enhanced productivity services at community level through the scheme.

5.3 Rethinking Social Protection: An analysis of public works in Masvingo

Province

According to Ngom (2016), the public works strategy fits within a larger social welfare framework in the nation. Without a well-defined national social protection framework or a policy statement on the categorization of public projects, it is difficult to ascertain, evaluate, or perhaps even analyze the functions and impacts of these many components of human safety. Closely analyzing public works in Zimbabwe using the sustainable development framework to look at them, the program is seriously affected by political and donor aid cycles hence the program is handicapped by a strong dependence syndrome. The country needs to redress its social protection implementation style by reconsidering the capability of public works to address vulnerability if well implemented. As a starting point, these programmes have parallels in the main objective of public works programmes, its framework places households and neighborhood at the center and highlighting the pro-poor strategy that must be pursued if positive results are to be achieved. Importantly –:

- Insufficient community projects strategy provides inadequate resources and lacklustre direction for project management.
- The socioeconomic background suffers every year as the legislature allocates money in the absent a defined strategy, collaboration, or powerful democratic commitment to change public projects programmes. These initiatives do not provide sufficient support for local institutions.
- Target marketing is essential in this case since the project's goals and approach of assistance must be influenced by the shifting socioeconomic environment. Lack of governmental will power to augment the public works programmes seriously affects the success of these programmes, it is the responsibility of the government to make sure that these programmes are implemented without any element of political bias but with all fairness so that the aims of the programmes is achieved i.e., the intended beneficiaries of the programmes should benefit.

5.4 Challenges for state led community based public works programmes

- Poor communication and understanding of the objectives and outcomes of public works at all levels, aggravated by high staff attrition. Operational guidelines have urban areas as an add-on lack of consistency across urban/rural programmes for example councillor's vs ward coordinators, no monitoring and evaluation means no best practices guidelines or training component.
- Public works programmes are placed within social protection agenda with minimal links to the economic cluster that has capacity and mandate to raise productivity. Role of economic cluster officers at field level like agriculture not formalized.
- It was also reported that limited capacity of district staff to prevent senior government officials influencing programming issues, no effective complaints structures complaints are made almost are never followed up or even resolved or even a help desk at local level.
- Limited data availability from CSO and labour agencies on remittances and wages.
- The program relies more on appointed rather than elected structures causing polarization within communities and causing conflict.
- Activities were generally rushed and not planned, no guidance on how to engage communities in effectively selecting activities that will increase everyone's access to basic services and improve food security.
- There was also the problem of poor-quality reporting that includes many errors that include free and works figures being submitted as one. As well data collection focuses on numbers receiving transfers rather than assets produced or rehabilitated use of indicators limited, no regular program evaluations conducted locally or nationally.
- Financial allocations are spread too thinly across all districts and wards thereby reducing impact and capacity to make a difference locally, limited coordination with non-state actors means resources envelopes from NGOs cannot be maximized with state allocations at community level.
- Low quality outputs, households have limited equipment and the program does not provide equipment, quality of supervision is poor, activities repetitive and outcomes short lived.

5.5 Recommendations emanating from the public works as a social protection program.

According to Mutasa (2018) the Zimbabwean governments logistical incapacity has held back the delivery of timely and adequate grain from as far back as the 1980's, the inability of the state program to provide grain for labour in recent years has damaged the reputation of the program raising questions of accountability and the experiences of the communities. The move to cash programmes by many non-state actors is an indication of the desire and need to move public works to more cash-based models and other models that involve benefits in other forms. The foregoing are the 6 main reasons why public works projects are important:

- Under difficult circumstances, low-income families might rely on the revenue remittances provided by community services projects.
- When families participate in these public projects, individuals can make up for any consuming gaps that might occur throughout slow farming periods.
- The exchange involving government expenditure on cash grants and expansion may be reduced by well-designed community projects that build the most critical infrastructures.
- Government projects initiatives that produce permanent improvements are more likely to have a multiplier effect on unemployment when essential infrastructures are built.
- Communities with significant percentages of joblessness, impoverishment, and fragility are prime candidates for public works initiatives.
- Numerous smaller private enterprises have emerged and flourished thanks to public works projects.

In the designing of public works policy and the implementation of programmes, the above considerations need a careful consideration and regular review to make the programmes viable and sustainable. The recommendations offers guidance on disaster risk reduction planning, offers support to food insecurity planning, supports development targets such as the SDGs and public accountability, addresses directly to livelihood support, calls for a mind-set shift from dependency/spoon feeding to capacity building, especially for state

programmes and its political dimensions and finally addresses partnerships in the short term through non state actors and in the long term private sector (Mutasa, 2018). Zimbabwe as a country must be able to rethink its social protection national framework to re-orient public works to be more implemented by the state itself, the current scenario as it stands spells social protection as being mainly implemented by other institutions like non-state actors and voluntary organizations. Once the government personalize and nationalize social protection, its achievements will be widened and hence contribute to reducing various forms of vulnerability and poverty.

5.6 The coordinated money transfer package in Masvingo Province: Case study

In what follows, we'll examine the history of social cash transfers in Zimbabwe, including its goals and the results of prior attempts to execute the program. Zimbabwe's Humans Performance Ratio decreased from 0.794 in 1991 to 0.562 in 2001, and then to 0.580 in 2007. This fall is unparalleled in the history of Zimbabwe's humans' advancement measures (EIU Data Services, 2016). As of 2007, its per capita gross domestic product has dropped to \$201 from \$536.40 in 2001. The Gini index, which measures wealth gap, rose from 0.64 in 1994 to 0.72 in 2004. From 2007 and into 2009, each of those metrics had continued to decline. Eighty percent joblessness is predicted (ZimVac, 2014). There was a total breakdown in governmental incomes and expenses in 2009 due to inflationary effects.

The privatized and governmental retirement pensions and security systems that rely on workers' contributions have indeed been cut down. According to the Poverty Assessment Survey on Health (PASS) from 2004, the higher rate of HIV/AIDS significantly decreased expected lifespan, marginalized 31% of all children in the country, and contributed to an increase in the generational divide. People in some occupations, such as agricultural laborers and urban slum residents, have been forcibly evacuated and rely heavily on humanitarian relief. Over 50% of the people, including almost 4.6 million children, have been surviving underneath the nutritional insecurity level because of the overall socioeconomic collapse and the deterioration of government services such basic medical services, schooling, hygiene, and freshwater. Infants in food-insecure homes lacked access to many essentials, and adults had to resort to desperate measures like sex

trafficking and teenage labor emigration in attempt to provide for the family (ZIMVAC, 2014). While the country's Enhanced Social Protection Program was widely hailed as an example of the continent's leading public safety nets, its effectiveness has been undermined in recent years by a lack of funding and a dismantling of the governmental agencies responsible for putting it into practice. The Department of Social Services' (DSS) Social Cash Transfer program is a key component of the redesigned National Action Plan for orphans and Vulnerable Children (NAP for OVC) 2011-2015.

5.7 The objectives and targeted beneficiaries of the Zaka District cash allocation scheme

Monetary payment schemes aimed to improve the healthcare of infants together with females by alleviating impoverishment in around 55,000 severely disadvantaged families, notably homes which have the highest number of orphans and other underprivileged youngsters. An astounding estimated 25,000 infant victims of aggression, manipulation, and mistreatment annually benefits from these cash payment initiatives, which had been also designed to improve all disadvantaged child's accessibility to appropriate secured services such protective measures (lawful, livelihood, legislative).

Poor infants and other disadvantaged infants may benefit from income support schemes that provide at minimum \$600.00 annually for their learning. The overarching goal of these tenets was to strengthen already government programmes that aid the disadvantaged. This involves, but is not limited to, bolstering the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM), providing continuing public backing to health plans for disadvantages families (AMTO), and expanding the public financial help strategy cash transfer system of administration to serve about 11,000 additional families (UNICEF, 2020).

According to Schubert (2017), the initial goal of the monthly money distribution was to target severely impoverished or nutritional families with limited access to labor. Families who are nutritional insecure often have trouble meeting their nutritional needs since they must pay 20-30% of their earnings on non-food products such as healthcare, clothes, housing, utilities, schooling, and transportation. This has been planned that way since there are often fewer or no adult's workforce in homes that suffer from labour-constrained nutritional deprivation. Homeowners with manpower constraints are those that cannot

participate in self-help or labor-based initiatives, such as the public initiatives mentioned above, to escape impoverishment. This is because families manned by youngsters, the handicapped, or the terminally sick tend to cluster together with those commanded by widowed moms with several youngsters.

5.8 Priorities and other important details of the societal money payment programmes

With a nationwide system, even 61,000 ultra-poor families with limited access to labor may have their buying capacity bolstered by unconditionally income support, increasing their overall economic productivity (UNICEF, 2020). In terms of results, the money payment has the potential to enable recipient families to boost expenditure to a threshold that surpasses the dietary deprivation threshold, hence drastically reducing the number of ultra-poor families. Beneficiaries of social money direct payment initiatives will be dissuaded from engaging in perilous coping techniques such as youth labor and underage marriages, and the increased utilization of commodities and facilities, particularly common necessities, would strengthen beneficiaries' nutritional condition, wellness, and schooling, and minimize death rates, particularly among children staying in such families.

5.9 Selection/targeting criteria

The initial and greatest important criterion is nutritional insecurity, which is defined as the inability to afford even the greatest fundamental necessities, such as meals, shelter, clothes, and hygiene products; subsisting solely on beggar's wages or the proceeds of illegal activities; having no useful resources; and receiving no frequent assistance from friends or family (Department of Social Protection, 2017).

Another aspect to be considered is labour constraints: Whenever there is no working-age adult in the home or whenever that adult, if they are within the ages of 17 and 60, needs to cater for much more than 3 dependencies, the families is said to be facing a labor shortage. Individuals who live in a family where at least one person is unable of or must not be required to working due to age (18 or older), health (severe illness, disability, impairment), or education (youngsters, elderly, or students) are considered dependencies (MoLSW, 2017).

The other factor that is considered when considering who is to benefit is the volume of transfers: Twenty dollars for family, each month is the current rate. As an illustration, a home with one member would get a remittance of ten United States dollars, a family with two people would receive fifteen, a home of three would receive twenty, and a family's containing four or above would receive twenty-five dollars. The nutrition package defined or given by the administration now the payment is made is reflected in the composition of the money donation. Depending on the data provided, the services providers provide a reimbursement of Twenty U.s. dollars for a standard grocery shopping trip. Due to the acute deprivation and exorbitant cost of living in Zimbabwe, this sum is considered relatively tiny; thus, it is vital to adjust the value of the pay-out with parental income in attempt to make a real difference in the livelihoods of recipients.

At the same period, the money distribution scheme must not be regarded as a replacement for alternative forms of aid given to qualified families; for instance, a family that qualifies for the money disbursement is also highly probable to qualify for BEAM, child welfare, and possibly other food baskets during the lean or even desperate periods. To minimize duplicate benefactors and the consequent deprivation of others, it is important that a condition in prioritizing is that a family cannot be entitled for two transfers if it is currently obtaining a money transfer from other sources or initiatives.

5.10 Criteria used by the government and voluntary organisations when administering cash transfer programmes

5.10.1 Phase A

A commercial enterprise or non-governmental organization (NGO) would be contracted after a bidding procedure identifies and lists those families in a certain neighborhood that are experiencing labor constraints.

- a. To guarantee that no family is overlooked, a group of 10 coordinators from outside the area visits every house in the area throughout the course of seven weekdays to gather baseline biographical information for each family membership utilizing questionnaires. Every interviewer interviews a total of 20 families per day.

- b. Services providers often employ information editors to take acquired information and input it onto the information. The research coordinator accesses the database to compile a listing of all homes in the wards that are labor constrained, along with the name of the family leader, his Identification numbers, and the hamlet in which he or she resides. Roughly 16% of all families could end up being labor limited on aggregate.

5.10.2 Breadwinner interviewing (Phase B): Those with limited access to labor.

Phase B's goals primarily confirm that the families selected in Phase A seem to be in fact labor restricted, to ascertain whether they are poor, and to collect all the necessary data for crisis intervention, certification, and authorization. Another group of iterators uses questionnaires to conduct interviews with every house if finding enough labor is difficult. Testing enumeration results of Zaka suggest that ten interviewers may complete a zone in 4 weekdays if stage A identifies 300 families as being labor constrained. The evidence acquired from houses with limited available labor is input accurately into the database by the research supervisor with the help of a dataset collection specialist.

5.10.3 Verification of the information entered: Phase C

At this point, the DSSO verifies the accuracy of the information entry and verification procedure by correlating a subset of documents to the central database. Once the DSSO is happy with the procedure and outcomes of the data collecting and data registration procedures, the information is utilized to generate a full listing of all homes that match the qualification requirements, accounting for potential inconsistencies that may have arisen during the database gathering and input procedures.

Then, the programme administrator at the central level will transmit the authorized recipients' information to his or her database. The DSSO runs a program in which members of the ward's social protection committee (SPC) are educated on their duties. Next, the commission hands out recipients' credentials and gives the approved recipients information on when and where to pick up their initial paycheck.

5.10.4 The Purchasing and dispatching: Phase D

The method of distribution chosen for each area will decide the next steps in this procedure. Computerized Scratching Tickets might work in remote areas, but Cash in Transit (CIT) is the best alternative for RDCs. About the day that payments are made, recipients are briefed on the project's goals and other important details.

- Why they confirmed, and here's (targeting criteria).
- Methods used to determine the total amount of money moved.
- When, where, and how funds would be transferred in the future
- How should the funds be used.
- If a problem arises, who must the residents report to?

Initial distributions are made to recipients once the concerns have been resolved. As recipients of CIT could wish to receive all of their money for the initial two calendar months at once, and as recipients of E-Scratch cards, whose balances are activated for 30 weeks but can only be paid back in increments of 2 months, might well prefer to do so, the distribution authority must ensure that sufficient money is on hand at the corporate businesses serving as compensation sites, such as corner stores. After then, the initiative would keep on as planned, with beneficiary checks to ensure that the funds are reaching the intended underprivileged individuals.

5.11 Modifications in the composition of beneficiary's families and their administration

The CPC at the grassroot stage is obligated to notify the District Officer as soon as the family leader passes, becomes unable to serve as leader of family, or moves out of the programme zone. The District Office may choose one of the succeeding responses to the development.

Payments must be terminated if the family leader or head of each benefactor family passes away, the homeowner pulls out of the study location, or the homeowner entirely dissolves. However, if the family head of a multi-person benefactor family passes away or would be excessively ill to keep staying as the bread winner of the family, and there is another family head who might start taking as leader of the family, such as the oldest

daughter, then the circumstance would be distinctive. The nomination of a representation is perpetual; hence, the family may not pick a new delegate each time; however, the member may be removed following consulting with the local offices in the event of the candidate's burial or dishonesty.

5.12 Exclusion of beneficiary households

Although there are various safeguards in place throughout the selection and certification processes, mistakes can sometimes happen. Each time it is revealed during random inspections or supervision trips that there are homes that ought not have belonged on the plan from the outset, actions must be done (ZIMVAC, 2014). (ZIMVAC, 2014). Donations for homes that may not match the qualification requirements now of selecting including families which have several industrious individuals, families with livestock, homes with a functioning company must be halted forthwith. In instance if any of the players in the procedure have reasons to suspect that a previously recognized home is worthy, they must remain aware of the residence identity and analyze the matter carefully. This knowledge would then be given to District Social Services Officer (DSSO) and needs to be cross verified by a Social Services Officer the ultimate determination on whether the home must be omitted then remains with the DSSO. If a family unit is disqualified from receiving remittances, an SSO should notify the family unit that it would no longer be eligible to receiving assistance. After explaining to the family what sort of families the plan is aiming for and reasons, they do not meet the requirements, the DSSO removes the family from the database of authorized families.

5.13 Retargeting process

It is expected that in the first 24 months from the initial selection, many modifications would have occurred in the socioeconomic status of a neighborhood, and that more homes have become vulnerable and precarious and would have had labor constraints, for instance since heads of families have died.

5.13.1 These households require some form of social protection and retargeting

Since their kids would have grown older and become productive individuals, the homes of certain recipients are no more experiencing a shortage of available labor.

- The amount of people living in a home and the number of kids attending schools are likely to already have shifted for several families.
- Currently approved beneficiaries' families with a labor constraint will have their eligibility renewed.
- Beneficiaries' families who are no longer under a labor constraint will be phased out.
- Adjusting the amount of the payments so that they are appropriate for the current quantity of people living in the home.
- Authorizing more households who fell into nutritional poverty and/or have had a shortage of available labor during the last round of prioritizing.

According to Stepheneson (2017), the re-selection process entails merely repeating the steps taken during the preliminary profiling and authorization: data collectors tour all prioritized families, data collectors question all labor-constrained families, information is collected, the DSSO re authorizes all existing recipients families that remains labor-constrained, the revised information source selection is forwarded by the District Office to primary documentation, a conference of all recipients is held. Those who previously qualified as recipients but no longer in need of assistance due of changes in their employment status are called "graduates," and must surrender their recipient certificates. Many recipients will keep receiving benefits since they are generally considered to be labor-limited; nevertheless, they will soon get new recipient certificates that indicate the adjustments made to their benefits based on the current size of their families. At the appropriate time, new participants must get all programme details previously communicated on the initial day of compensation.

5.14 Management of individual cases to increase beneficiaries' usage of available social services

According to UNICEF's (2020) estimations, most food-poor families' primary and most pressing need is an improvement in incomes adequate to lift them beyond the food poverty line. Having access to social services, such as protective amenities for disadvantaged populations, is essential for low-income families to thrive. The social cash

transfer project's MIS will gather, record, and examine data on the humanitarian assistance requirements of each person of the families' receiving transfers. The data gathered by the MIS is used to connect eligible families to civic care like BEAM, infrastructure improvements, and other forms of social protection. Therefore, cash transfers are seen as one of the most feasible initiatives that, if administered correctly, may tackle the persistent causes of extreme deprivation in both rural and urban Zimbabwe. Advocates of money transfers stress the benefits of giving recipients the freedom to create their own emergency funds while also helping them deal with short-term difficulties.

5.15 Conclusion and Way Forward

With the goal of empowering key stakeholders to do a good work of advancing the welfare support action plan in Africa, the preceding exposition illuminates multiple alternatives for those engrossed to social protection, including politicians, philanthropists, professionals, scientists, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and labourers. Ten guidelines are offered for the prospective involvement of international donors with state social protection governance issues and policies within the African continent, and these concepts form the basis of several projects that aim to improve societies and social welfare intervention strategies. The state of Zimbabwe and its independent country compatriots ought to be capable of comprehending the significance of a good social protection as an essential instrument for improving socioeconomic development in Sub-Saharan Africa, and they must also be capable of supporting governmental major policies by first recognising the strategic goal for welfare assistance, and then designing intervening strategies around those objectives beginning with what is already in place. Additional welfare support practitioners must similarly try to keep developmental partnerships' preferences out of the way as much as possible, whether in respect of the tools used or the populations served. Policymakers and their social protection decision makers must be capable of rationalizing financial guidance by synchronizing donation operations to thwart competitive pressures, streamline the process, and promote the accumulation together of productive capacity. For a blatant execution, they could perhaps embrace a plethora of strategies, such as developing their own nationwide social protection frameworks cantered on local analytic data rather than acquiring systematic frameworks.

CHAPTER SIX: METHODOLOGY

6.0 Introduction

The preceding chapter introduced social state welfare theory, which will serve as the theoretical foundation for this research. The methodology, the research paradigm, the research instruments, and their rationale, as well as the study's background, are all discussed in this chapter.

The research sought to explore the concept of rethinking social protection in Zimbabwe's Masvingo Province to create a social protection framework that would serve as the foundation for social protection service provision not just in Masvingo Province, but across the country. The researcher was guided in unravelling the purpose of this study by three critical questions: to assess the prevailing state of social protection in Zimbabwe; to analyze the involvement of national, non-governmental organizations, and the private sector to social protection programmes aimed at addressing poverty in the study area; and to develop a new social protection framework for the country.

Because this research is mostly qualitative in nature and is based on the interpretative paradigm, it will rely heavily on semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions for data gathering. A research technique is a method for solving a research issue in a methodical manner. According to Kothari (2004), it may be defined as the science of examining how research is conducted scientifically; in research, we examine the different stages that a researcher often takes while investigating his or her research issue, as well as the reasoning behind them. Not only must the researcher be familiar with the tools of research, but also with the methodology itself. Researchers need to understand which approaches or procedures are applicable, and which are not, as well as the reasons for their non-applicability.

As a researcher, I wanted to grasp the assumptions behind different methods and the criteria for determining whether certain techniques and procedures are relevant to certain issues, and which are not. In research as well, I was required to subject research choices to assessment prior to implementation; I had to explain very clearly and exactly which judgments I made and why, so that they could be assessed by others as well. The scope

of research methodology is broader than the scope of research methods; thus, when one speaks of research methodology, he is not only referring to research methods but also to the logic that underpins the methodologies used in the context of the research study and justifies why one method was chosen over another. Methodology seeks to comprehend why a research study was conducted, how and why the research problem was defined, what data were collected and what method was used, why a particular technique of data analysis was used, and a host of other similar questions that are typically addressed when discussing research methodology (Kothari, 2004).

I used a qualitative research framework in my research because this method is beneficial for providing detailed descriptions of complicated systems; tracking unique or unanticipated incidents; enlightening the understanding and interpretation of viewpoint by actors with widely varying stakes and duties; giving voice to those that perspectives are rarely heard; and conducting enquiry to develop theories. Qualitative research at its finest is methodical and thorough, aiming to minimize bias and mistake and to uncover evidence that contradicts original or emerging assumptions. My primary research or data collection methods have been semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions. Both methods were complemented by pre-designed interview questions, which were subsequently utilized to administer the interviewing procedure.

6.1 The study's location

The next section will discuss the exact areas where this research was conducted. Additionally, it will highlight some of the pertinent geographical and climatic characteristics of these two distinct locations. This research was conducted in Zimbabwe, particularly in the Chivi and Zaka regions of Masvingo Province.

6.2 The study's context

The case study region is in Zimbabwe's Masvingo province, namely in the Chivi and Zaka districts. These two areas are inherently impacted by certain unfavourable rainfall patterns nearly every season, putting residents under significant strain. Since then, nongovernmental organizations, private sector organizations, and the Zimbabwean government have taken an interest in addressing these issues of poverty and vulnerability

through the implementation of various developmental programmes such as free school meals, cash transfers, food for work, and income-generating projects, among others, which contribute to the districts' viability (Marongwe, 2009). Additionally, the districts draw a sizable number of non-governmental groups, sufficient proof that there is a widespread food scarcity in the provinces.

6.2.1 District of Chivi

Chivi is a district in Zimbabwe's Masvingo Province. It is a semi-arid region located in agricultural areas four and five, about 56 kilometres from Masvingo Town. The district is situated north of Mwenezi District in a drought-prone area of the nation. The district's primary activity is subsistence farming, with a focus on drought-resistant crops such as sorghum, rapoko, millet, and maize. Due to the area's low average rainfall, the Zimbabwean government built numerous small-scale irrigation projects to augment its meagre crops. Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) are also engaged in the area to supplement inadequate harvests; they engage in humanitarian and poverty reduction initiatives (Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency, 2017).

6.2.2 Zaka district

Zaka is a district in Zimbabwe's Masvingo Province, 86 kilometres southeast of Masvingo Town. Zaka is in a relatively low-lying region, which gives it the Shona name *kwa-ka-zaka*, which translates as "to the place where it slows down." Zaka is a karanga smallholder agricultural area located in a semi-arid mountainous region with irregular rainfall of between 600 and 800 millimetres per year. The soils are usually poor, and subsistence farming is the primary economic activity, with maize, groundnuts, sorghum, sweet potatoes, and a variety of other drought-tolerant crops being produced. The population density exceeds six people per km², which is much too high for a hilly region; it is considered as one of the province's and country's most densely inhabited rural districts (Chitsiku and Chemapuwa, 1981). Other activities in the area include poultry, welding, and soap manufacturing. CARE Zimbabwe, a non-governmental organization, administers humanitarian work in the district, mostly in the fields of conservation farming, cash transfers, and school meals, to name a few (Devereux, 2004). The next section will discuss the study's purpose, goals, and research questions.

6.3 A qualitative method was used in conducting the research

This research used a qualitative methodology. Qualitative approach allows the production of detailed descriptive data that can be used to better understand the function of social protection in reducing poverty and vulnerability and in advancing the establishment of a complete social protection system. McMillan and Schumacher (1993:479) described qualitative research as an "inductive process of classifying data and determining trends (relationships) among subcategories."

6.4 A case study method to research

Gilbert (2008) said that although case studies are primarily qualitative in nature, they are also common in quantitative research. A case may be a person, a group, a community, an instance, an episode, an event, a subgroup of a population, a town, or a city in this data collection method. To qualify as a case study, the whole research population must be treated as a single unit. In a case study research design, the case chosen serves as the foundation for a comprehensive, holistic, and in-depth examination of the researcher's desired outcomes. A case study is a method in which a single instance or a small number of carefully chosen instances is extensively examined (Gilbert 2008). According to Burns (1997:364), "a case study must be a bounded system, a self-contained entity; a case study should concentrate on a bounded subject/unit that is either extremely representative or extremely typical."

According to Grinnel (1981:302), a case study is a flexible data gathering which is highly adaptable and also used for analysis." The case study accentuates that studying a single entity is quite a credible of reasonably be taken to be representative of similar cases. According to Burns (1997:365), "the emphasis of a case study is on the single case in all its characteristic complexity and that is applied to the generality cases." Thus, while choosing a case, one must often use purposive, judgmental, or information-based

selection methods. It is a very helpful design when investigating a new region or when the researcher wishes to get a comprehensive knowledge of a scenario, event, episode, location, group, or community. This design is extremely useful when the study's objective is to thoroughly explore and comprehend rather than to confirm and quantify; it provides an insight and an in-depth comprehension of a case procedure and its situational

complexities within a unit study but cannot make any sweeping generalisations to a population other than those studied. The researcher's objective in this specific study design is not to pick a random sample but to select a case that can offer the researcher with as much information as possible to comprehend the case in its entirety. When a researcher is examining an episode or an instance, he or she will try to collect information from all accessible sources to comprehend it completely. While the use of a single method is critical, more data collection methods such observations, in -depth interviews, focus group discussions and secondary methods such as secondary methods are essential for triangulation purposes (Burns, 1997).

As a researcher, I thus used a case study method to examine two district communities in Masvingo Province, namely Zaka District and Chivi District. Since these two districts are severely impacted by a variety of vulnerabilities and poverty, the government and non-governmental organizations are undertaking a variety of social protection programmes to relieve poverty in and around these areas. The two chosen towns are believed would clearly demonstrate the social protections schemes functions in poverty alleviation and the importance of a nation in adopting a framework for social protection. It is researchers aim to use the dissimilarities between the two district communities to advance a better understanding of the impact of social protection on susceptibility and reduction of reduction in Zimbabwe.

6.5 Population

Population is defined as an assortment or entirety of all things, topics, or members that satisfy a set of criteria (Polit and Hugler 1999). In this instance, the population consists of Zimbabwean residents living in Chivi and Zaka District who have benefited from or are currently enrolled in different of social protection programmes offered by the state, non-governmental organizations, and the private sector.

The term "population under study" refers to the whole group from whom the study participants are recruited (Neuman, 2006; De Vos et al., 2005). For this study, the population was drawn from Zaka District and Chivi District, both of which are located in Masvingo province. The study population would have benefitted from any social protection program, such as meals for work, school feeding, money transfers, food

assistance, or input contributions, in this instance. From Chivi and Zaka Districts, one village head was picked from each Municipal Ward, and nine (9) participants who are breadwinners were chosen and interviewed from each village. The study population was a total of 18 households from the two districts. Eighteen responders from both districts and one focus group discussion from each community were utilized as the population size. Six (6) family heads who had previously benefitted from any kind of social protection institution participated in the focus group discussion. In this instance, I purposefully chose six bread winners from Chigwagwa village and six bread winners from Gororo village, which resulted in two distinct focus group conversations.

6.6 Sampling

Siririka (2007:34) defines sampling as "the process by which a researcher selects individuals, places, or things to study." The planned research will be performed in two districts in Masvingo province that have been arbitrarily chosen. Within this province, the researcher purposefully chose two district communities: Chivi and Zaka. Chivi district is primarily defined by natural region 5, which is ideal for cattle ranching. Due to the region's year-round low rainfall, several private, governmental, and non-governmental organizations are spearheading developmental projects aimed at curbing poverty and vulnerability in the community. Typically, beneficiaries of public protection programmes are the vulnerable people in different communities, so the respondent's researcher will visit three village heads in each of the two districts and ask him or her to provide a data base of those in his or her village who benefit from various social protection programmes. Additionally, the researcher chose twenty-nine (9) participants who are family heads or breadwinners in the two village heads, totalling 18 households from the two districts. Nine Gororo village households and nine Chigwagwa village families were questioned.

Sampling occurs when a small sample of people or things is chosen to represent the whole population. Sampling alludes to the process of settling for a part of the universe to examine to make conclusions about it. Sampling is the process by which in categorizations are chosen from a population to form a sample survey; therefore, sampling is a statistical technique which settles for pre-set number of observations is drawn from a larger population. As seen by Goode and Hatt (2013), a sample is a subset

of a greater population, a collection of instances drawn from the population. Thus, the entire grouping which produced the sample is called a population while the chosen group for research constitutes a sample.

6.6.1 Purposive sampling

This sampling method consists of several non-probability sampling strategies. Purposive sampling, also known as judgmental, selective, or subjective sampling, is based on the cases, events, or bits under examination. The sample size is normally small, especially when probability sampling is compared to it. In this kind of non-probability sampling, the investigator makes selections for the sample centred on several factors, which encompasses specialized knowledge of the study topic or the competence and willingness to undertake the research. Purposive selection, according to Johnson (2005), is the process of choosing a quantity of sets of units in such a way that the chosen groups provide an average or percentage that is as close to the totality as feasible for those qualities that are already known statistically. Unlike the various sampling methods that are obtainable in probability sampling, like simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, and others, the purpose of purposive sampling is to select units from a population to enable generalisations, that is, conveying statistical intrusions from the sample to the population of interest. This is the overarching goal of qualitative research, which is informed by a qualitative research design. The key objective of purposive sampling is to deliberately focus on definite features of a population that best capture the researcher's interest to best answer the research questions.

While the sample may not be representative of the whole population, as a qualitative researcher, this is not seen as a weakness but as a strength or a decision, the aim of which changes according to the kind of purposive sampling method employed. For example, the units in homogeneous sampling, units are chosen based on their shared characteristics because these shared characteristics are of special interest to the researcher; in contrast, critical case sampling is frequently used in exploratory, qualitative research to ascertain the existence of the phenomenon of interest, among other reasons. Purposive sampling is not essentially a non-representative subcategory of a bigger population; instead, it is designed to meet a very specific need or objective. In this case,

the researcher may have in mind a particular group, such as senior business executives, common rural residents who are beneficiaries of a common government or donor-funded program, or even a group of people who belong to a particular profession (Johnson, 2005).

Purposive convenience sample was used for the research on rethinking social protection in Masvingo Province since it was not practical to investigate the entire population and, furthermore, encompass all regions that contributed in or benefitted from any social protection program in Masvingo Province. Thus, this research was performed in two districts in Masvingo province, namely Chivi and Zaka. Additionally, the two communities were appropriate for the research of the phenomena since they included populations that had previously benefitted from or are now benefiting from any social protection program.

6.6.2 Merits of purposive sampling

One of the advantages of using purposive sampling is that the participants chosen clearly to advance the objectives of the study and are opted for because of certain knowledge or characteristics they possess. Furthermore, the essence of time in research goes a long way in determining the quality of work and purposive sampling offers exactly that. The methods allow the researcher to confine himself to the study by ensuring that no overlapping of themes and objectives takes place (Kothari, 2005).

6.6.3 Demerits of purposive sampling

Purposive samples are notoriously susceptible to researcher bias. The notion that a purposeful sample is founded based on the researcher's clear judgement chooses to ignore that the investigator is also prone to individual biases, especially when compared to probability sampling methods that are designed to reduce such biases. However, This subjective, judgmental factor of purpose sampling is a noteworthy drawback only when such judgments are vague or ill-studied, that is, when they are not based on solid premises, whether a theory-based framework, professional elaboration, or any other recognized criterion. The researcher may not always have access to population information; in this case, the researcher will be unable to fully use the technique.

6.7 Instruments used for data gathering

According to Merriam (2009), most data collecting techniques are applicable to both quantitative and qualitative research alike. The constraints placed on investigator's versatility, framework, and successive flexibility throughout the research procedure. Quantitative-based techniques are in favour of these constraints, while qualitative approaches are opposed to them. Classification of a technique as quantitative or qualitative is contingent on the next answers to these questions: what epistemology i philosophy underpins the research approach inquiry? How were the data collected? Were the data collected in an organized or haphazard manner? Were the problems addressed throughout the data gathering process predefined or generated during the data collection process? How were the data collected and recorded? Was it quantitative, narrative, numerical, or narrative in nature, or was it on a scale? How were the data analysed? How does the researcher intend to disseminate his or her findings?

Because this study is entirely qualitative, two primary data gathering methods namely semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were used. The rationale behind the use of these two kinds of data collecting devices because they provide readily qualifiable data that can be simply analysed thematically. The two instruments gathered data, which was then organized into different themes, which were then analysed to determine the likely results or conclusions of the study. Because the researcher's collection of qualitative data was based on organized interviews and focus group discussions, themes were and presented in the data collection chapter (Kothari, 2007).

6.8 Data collection methods

This section will present the two main data collection methods used in this research which are the structured interviews and focus group discussion.

6.8.1 Focus group discussions

Kerlinger (1986) defines focus group talks as a qualitative - based research method in which examines views, attitudes or perceptions about a problem, service, and programmes. This is achieved through an open and free conversation between members of a group and the investigator. Interview and focus groups are both directed group

conversations. The researcher initiates topics or poses questions to elicit responses from group members. Due to its cheap cost, it is a widely used technique of information retrieval in virtually every professional and academic sector. This technique is commonly used by market researchers, behavioural scientists, market and product testing companies, as well urban and town planning specialists in different circumstances. In marketing research for example, this design is often used to ascertain customers' views and comments on a product, their perceptions of its quality, acceptability and interrogate, packaging and pricing, and ways of improving product excellence and sales. Additionally, focus groups are often used in initial and closing assessments, and in the expansion of societal services and programmes.

Focus group talks were very easy to conduct in this study; I just choose a group of individuals I believed would be most prepared to address the topic at hand. The groups I formed consisted of persons whom I chose from a group of severely disadvantaged citizens who, in my opinion, were disadvantaged in the sense that they were unable to make ends meet. The size of the focus group is critical when forming it, since it should not be too big or too small, as this may limit the scope and quality of the conversation. Around six to eight individuals are the optimum amount for such debate since it allows for the possibility of new pertinent points to arise. The primary distinction between a focus group interview and a group interview is the level of precision of the issues under discussion are predetermined by the researcher. In a focus group, the issues to be discussed are more exact and detailed compared to group interviews and are mainly disposed by the researcher. Group members are free to engage in any discussion they deem relevant (Thyer, 1993).

I visited Chigwagwa Village in Masvingo province's Zaka region and conducted focus group discussion and structured interviews. During focus groups in Chigwagwa, I purposefully chose six (6) breadwinners who have benefitted from any social protection program administered by the government, private sector, or even volunteer organizations. I initiated contact with these six family members via the use of a framework for focus group discussion questions. My research assistant and I were collecting answers, which we subsequently presented in the chapter on data presentation and analysis.

In comparison to other data collection methods, focus group talks are less costly and take much less time to conduct. The material produced may therefore be comprehensive and rich, allowing for the exploration of a wide range of topics; but, if the conversation is not properly guided, it may represent the viewpoint of individuals who have a propensity to dominate a group discussion. This technique is very helpful for examining the variety of viewpoints on various topics, but it does not assist the researcher in determining the degree or size of this diversity.

Numerous suggestions on the size of focus group discussions have been made in the literature, stretching from six (6) to nine (9) people (Morgan, 2010; Leedy, 2010; Sandelowski, 2007), and six (6) to twelve (12) people (Morgan, 2010; Leedy, 2010; Sandelowski, 2007). (Cohen, Morrison & Manion, 2011). Krueger (1994, p. 17) has advocated for the use of extremely small focus groups, which he refers to as "mini-focus groups," with three (Morgan, 1997) or six (Krueger, 1994) contributors when members are subject matter resources persons. A manageable focus group allows individuals to express themselves freely. The investigator emulated Morgan and Krueger's (1998, p. 4) guiding principles of being interested in and showing positive regard for the participants; acting as an originator, not a contributor; and being ready to hear hostile opinions.

Each of the two participant villages had one focus group session with six members. The focus group conversation in Chigwagwa village were convened on the 2nd of August 2020, while the discussion in Gororo village took place on August 13, 2020. Due to the summer season's high temperatures, the contributors suggested the meetings be held in the cool mornings under tree shades. According to Kruger and Casey (2014, p. 11), "focus group discussions afford a more conducive environment as compared to individual interviews do because of contributor influence and are persuaded by others just like in everyday life." Thus, the element of persuading and being persuaded by others fit within the theoretical framework of community welfare that guides this research.

Additionally, focus groups provide a social environment (Krueger, 2000). On the other side, this may imply a significant drawback of focus group talks, namely that "others exhibit hesitance to express their opinions publicly or there could power tussles within the cluster, which may be detrimental to smooth and free discussion" (Thomas & Nelson,

2001, p. 337). A combination of paraphrasing, non-verbal and verbal cues, were used to explore and ascertain the perceptions of participants on community protection (Silverman, 2000, p. 272). Focus group discussion further addressed the nature and scope of social protection recipients' impact in different rural areas across Masvingo region. The talks also examined into the motives for voluntary participation and/or the community's penalties (or incentives) for non-participation.

Thus, focus groups were used in this research owing to their capacity to reveal participants' opinions on community protection, which agree with the outcomes of this study. Bloor, Frankland, Thomas, and Robson (2001, p. 57) state that "focus groups are naturalistic rather than natural events and cannot and should not be left to chance and circumstance; their naturalism must be prudently crafted by the investigators." The focus groups depended on group members collaborating on subjects given by the researcher (Morgan 1997, p. 12). The focus group talks, are intended to ascertain people' attitudes about social protection, namely if they are happy with its delivery or support the rethinking idea.

6.8.2 The Interview

According to Burns (1997), interviewing is a frequently utilized technique for eliciting information from individuals. In many professions, information is gathered via various kinds of interpersonal contact. Monette (1986) defines an interview as "a process in which an investigator reads questions to participants and records their responses." According to Burns (1997), an interview is an oral conversation, usually face to face, but it may happen telephonically in which an interviewer tries to obtain information, opinions, or views from another individual. An interview may be non-face-to-face or face to face interaction between two or more people for a particular purpose.

6.8.2.1 Semi-structured interviews

The semi-structured interview data collecting method was also utilized in my research. This technique involves a conversation between the investigator and the respondent, defined by a customizable interview procedure and amplified by probes, comments follow-up questions, probes, and comments and questions arising from vague

explanations. The technique enables the investigator to gather flexible data, to dig extensively into contributor ideas, emotions, and opinions about a specific subject, and to dig profoundly into secretive and oftentimes complex topics.

Generally semi-structured interviews requires both rapport building and experience with hosting abilities. I began by identifying prospective participants; I undertook all processes guided by ethics that protect the participants and the outcomes itself. Transportation to research settings and meals for my study assistants were organised. After seeking permission from higher degrees, I proceeded to prepare my interview guide. This was followed by the next conducting the interviews and ultimately presenting and analysing of the results.

The semi-structured interview was conducted at the premises of the village committee. The researcher conducted interviews in two locations: Zaka Chigwagwa and Chivi-Gororo hamlet. While the interviews with the remaining participants, nine chosen breadwinners who had previously benefitted from social assistance via governmental, volunteer, or private sector institutions, were done in different school-assigned office spaces, each village had nine participants in the same structured interviews, i.e., Gororo had nine semi-structured interview participants, and Chigwagwa had the same quantity.

Interviews were performed at both study locations between 2 and 13 August 2020. According to Willig and Rogers (2008), interviewees ought to be given comfortable seats and a serene atmosphere. Each of the study's eighteen semi-structured interviews lasted forty minutes. According to Borg and Gall (2009) and Willig and Rogers (2008), interviews should not be rushed for meaningful conversation to take place. Consensus was struck between the investigator and participants to conduct the interviews in the morning because to the hot summer days. Afternoons would have been too hot to conduct comfortable conversations because of intense heat. Additionally, the talks were streamlined to exhaust that all pertinent points within the hour-long debate. As a result, the research interviewed two village chiefs, one from each community, and sixteen participants, eight from each village. The two village chiefs are key stakeholders in this study; they are people whose roles or experiences have resulted in them possessing pertinent information or expertise that they are prepared to offer with a researcher. They

may be important in providing entry to a world that the researcher would not have been able to comprehend if he or she were to be restricted (O'Leary, 2014, p. 191).

The key participants were questioned on the significance of social protection in their communities. The researcher used a timetable as a guideline rather than as "a prescriptive device" (Berg, 2001, p. 70). The researcher used interview notebooks to record all answers from participants during interviews in both communities. The researcher obtained consent from study participants to record interview sessions using notebooks (Cohen et al, 2011). The local language Shona, the people' being a native language was used to conduct structured interviews Peu, Van Wyk, and Botha (2008) suggest that participants' native languages be used. Moreover, the researcher benefited from being fluent in Shona and acquainted with Shona idioms.

6.8.2.2 The rationale for doing semi-structured interviews

The central objective of conducting semi-structured interviews was to gather data from key informants who had personal knowledge and experience about my subject of rethinking social protection in Masvingo Province. The use semi-structured interviews differ with researchers some may use them to triangulate data sources, collect new data on a topic, or validate findings from respondent feedback. In this researcher`s case, semi-structured interviews demonstrated to be a viable technique for data collection primarily because I wanted to gather qualitative, open-ended data.

6.9 Validity and trustworthiness

According to Struwig and Stead (2001:136), validity refers to the degree to which a study design is technically sound or properly performed. To ensure the validity and reliability of data gathered in the community context, I followed what De Vos, Strydom, and Fouche (2012) refer to as a study's "trustworthiness," which comprises credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. According to Polit and Beck (2008), integrity is the belief in the reality of evidence and its clarification. Thus, the researcher will rely on extended interactions with land reform recipients to confirm the data's reliability. Additionally, research cannot be trustworthy unless it is reliable (Streubert, Speziale and Carpenter, 2003). Thus, despite being conducted in Masvingo Province, I tried to guarantee that it is

transferable to other areas in the nation. Finally, confirmability has to do with the extent to which the results are linked to the contributors' answers and the study circumstances, rather than the researcher's biases, motivations, and views (De Vos et al, 2005). Thus, one might claim that research that shows credibility, transferability, and dependability has conformability.

Guba and Lincoln (1994) proposed a system of four criteria as a means of paralleling validity and reliability in a constructivism paradigm. According to them, under the constructivism paradigm, there are two sets of criteria for evaluating the quality of an inquiry: dependability and genuineness. Guba and Lincoln, submit that there the four signs of trustworthiness in a qualitative study are namely transferability, dependability, credibility, and confirmability; these four pointers also characterise the validity and reliability of qualitative research. They further state that, trustworthiness criteria of credibility transferability, dependability, and confirmability are all related to the validity and reliability conceptions.

6.9.1 Credibility

Trochim and Donnelly (2007:149) posit that 'credibility entails demonstrating that the findings of qualitative research are plausible from the contributor's viewpoint. Qualitative research examines people's views, experiences, emotions, and beliefs. The participants, it is thought, are the best judge of whether the study results properly represent their views and emotions. Thus, credibility, which is identical with validity, is determined by the degree of respondent concordance, as I confirmed, congruent, validated, and approved the results with individuals who participated in the study. The greater the significance of these outcomes, the more legitimate the research.

6.9.2 Transferability

This metric indicates the applicability and generalizability of qualitative research findings to different contexts or situations (Goba, 2007). Though transferability is difficult to establish in qualitative research due to the approach taken by the researcher, transferability can be established in this researcher's case because I broadly and

thoroughly defined the process I used for others to emulate and replicate; thus, this research can be transferred to interpret social protection issues.

6.9.3 Dependability

This is closely related to the concept of dependability in quantitative research, according to the framework advanced by Guba and Lincoln. Dependability refers to the likelihood that I would get the same findings if I could repeat the study procedure indefinitely. Dependability may be difficult to establish in qualitative research since each community may have unique social triggers. (Trochim and Donnelly, 2007).

6.9.4 Confirmability

This metric indicates the degree to which the outcomes may be confirmed or reproduced by other studies. Confirmability is a term that is used interchangeably with dependability in qualitative research. It is only feasible to compare findings if two researchers follow the same procedure exactly.

6.10 Procedure for data analysis

According to Babbie (2008, p. 415), "qualitative examination is the non-numerical exploration and interpretations of observations with the aim of elucidating hidden meaning and nature of relationships. Kothari (2005) and Mitchell (2012) assert that analysis of data is methodically gleaning over data to draw conclusions about the subject under study. The investigator attempted to ascertain the plain significance and nature of community protection and their connection to poverty and vulnerability alleviation in this study. The data analysis method in this research included "bringing order, structure, and meaning to the mass of data" (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, Poggenpoel, & Delport, 2005, p. 338) and "establishing a framework for conveying the crux of what the data disclose" (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, Poggenpoel & Delport, 2011, p. 397). O'Leary (2004, p. 269) states that qualitative analysis frequently involves delving through inductive and deductive thinking cycles; thematic considerations founded on world concepts and examination of the nexus between themes."

Kothari (2005:122) adds coding, classification, coding, editing and tabulation of data collected to make them accessible for assessment," which was done in this research.

Data analysis in this investigation occurred concurrently with data collection of data in the two districts of Zaka and Chivi. As a result, analysis of the data in this research began immediately after they were gathered, which swayed judgments in favour of further data gathering (Burns & Grove, 2005). According to LeCompte and Schensul (1999, p. 6), "qualitative analysis of data starts almost immediately after the investigator goes into the field site and runs until the last page of the concluding written report." Strauss and Corbin (1990) agree that data gathering and processing occur concurrently throughout the investigation. Thematic analysis was employed in this research, which is a fundamental technique for analyzing and understanding data (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003). According to Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 4), "thematic analysis is badly defined and underappreciated but broadly used qualitative analytic technique within and beyond social sciences."

Furthermore, Braun and Clarke (2006) say that "thematic analysis is a technique for classifying, analyzing, and recording outlines (themes) inside data." According to Kumar (1999), thematic analysis has historically included filtering data to identify recurrent patterns. Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 10) go on to elucidate that "a theme takes significant aspects about data associated with the research question and epitomises some degree of patterned answer or meaning within the data set." It could be argued that absence of prior understanding of the topic enhances fact-finding ability of this ability. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), the investigator followed six major stages: "acquaint oneself with data, generate coding categories, search for themes, review themes, define and relate themes, and finally produce the report." Eventually, similar groupings resulted in the formation of themes in the research (Merriam, 2009; Basit, 2003; White, 2005). The study's topics were vulnerability and poverty, as well as their effect on the lives of people who benefit from social protection programmes. The research's goal is to propose the expansion of a national community protection framework for the Zimbabwean administration to adopt.

The researcher used analysis based on transcript to analyze data gathered during focus group talks in this study. According to Onwegbuzie, Dickinson, Leach, and Zoran (2009, p. 4), "transcript-based analysis is the most stringent and time-consuming mode of data

analysis." According to Krueger (2000), this method involves compiling data from focus group conversations and producing a condensed transcript. Additionally, Onwuegbuzie et al. (2009, p. 5) assert that "focus group data can be classified as individual data, group data, or group interaction data." Thus, the researcher mixed units of analysis (individual, group, and interaction) in this study owing to a lack of agreement among focus group theorists about the proper unit of assessment for focus group discussion (Onwuegbuzie et al, 2009). All semi-structured interviews and focus groups with community protection receivers were done in Shona, since it was their preferred native tongue (Peu, van Wyk, & Botha, 2008). Resolutely, the investigator spent significant effort data instruments into English.

6.11 Ethics

Numerous ethical considerations were made throughout the data collecting process for this research, since data collection is always a costly undertaking. According to Mugweni (2012), ethics is a philosophy of morals concerned with forming judgments about what is bad or good, appropriate, or not appropriate, acceptable or unacceptable, wrong or right Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) demonstrate that recent advances research in social science research have put a premium on ethical concerns, with investigators obligated to honour and safeguard individuals engaged or impacted by their study. The investigator considered the following:

6.11.1 Informed consent

Gall et al. (1996) argue that a critical aspect of student research is ensuring that participants understand the task at hand and are informed of any possible negative implications of involvement. The investigator ensured that participants understood the purpose of their participation and the implications of their participation in the data collection procedure. Polit and Beck (2008) agree that every investigator must provide precise or truthful and appropriate evidence regarding the study procedure to all participants for them to provide informed consent. The researcher explained the study's aim to prospective volunteers in their native tongue, Shona. After participants had an overview of the study and the research procedure, they were asked to sign permission

forms. The consent form for this research is attached under the appendices section in this thesis.

6.11.2 Research limitations

The research included constraints related to participants' overall desire to undertake the study. However, the investigator acquired assistance and authorization from the suitable officials to maximize community protection receivers' willingness to participate in the project. Additionally, this study was restricted by the investigator's lack of financial resources. All travel, lodging, interviews, focus group discussions, and paperwork expenses were not sufficiently covered, although the researcher had some problems fulfilling these budgetary limitations.

The researcher raised financial resources for the project by leveraging some of his funds. Perhaps the size of the sample and purposeful sampling is no guaranteed coverage. However, the investigator is led by O' Leary (2014), who says, "The fundamental principle of qualitative research is not coverage but deep comprehension, which may be obtained from a limited rather than a large number." These studies rely on the investigator's capacity to demonstrate the 'relevance of any sample to a larger environment' (O'Leary, 2014). Additionally, the study's generalizability is limited. Guba and Lincoln (1994:124) cautioned against generalizing qualitative study results because "...the presence of home-grown conditions makes generalization difficult." Cronbach (1975 :125) continues, "... where appropriate emphasis is given to local environments, any generalization is a tentative hypothesis, not a conclusion." The chapter concludes with a discussion of the research's shortcomings.

6.11.3 Permission to do research

According to Kombo and Tromp (2006: 98), "an investigator must obtain a research authority prior to initiating a study." The investigator made sure that "the research's objectives and expectations of potential participants were communicated clearly to them" (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 47-48). Before engaging the participants, the investigator obtained permission from the gatekeepers to conduct the study. The Permanent Secretary in the Ministry of Local Government and Public Works approved the research.

Additionally, the researcher spoke with Provincial and District Administration authorities as required by the permission given. The Permanent Secretary was furnished with a copy of the research proposal, research equipment, and any other pertinent information about the study. The researcher obtained Ethics Clearance (Protocol reference number: HSS/0177/018D) from the University of KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa. After receiving authorization to conduct the study, the investigator ensured that contributors gave their informed consent.

6.11.4 Voluntarily participation

Borg and Gall (1989 :411), state participation in all research should be voluntary and free of coercion or dishonesty." The researcher ensured that all subjects provided their information freely and without fear of pressure or deceit. "Deception entails concealment of information or providing wrong information in order to lure participants who might otherwise decline." (Strydom, 2011, p. 66-67 in De Vos et al., 2011). The investigator explained the study's objectives to each participant. The investigator made no withholding of information to unethically elicit data. Following his or her voluntary involvement in this study, the investigator observed to the secrecy ethic. Confidentiality is discussed in more detail in the next section.

6.11.5 Confidentiality

According to O'Leary (2004, p. 54), "confidentiality entails safeguarding the individuality of those giving data." Prior to their involvement in the study, the researcher addressed the assurance of anonymity with the participants. According to O'Leary (2004, p. 54), "protecting confidentiality may involve protected data storage; limiting admittance to raw data; gaining authorisation for subsequent use of data; publishing research findings in a way that stops subjects from being easily identified; and eventually destroying raw data." As a result, the investigator employed pseudonyms for the contributors, locations where the study was conducted in the final thesis report. The next section of this chapter discusses providing response to contributors.

6.11.6 Feedback to participants

Schulz, Riddle, Valdimirsdottir, Abramson, and Sklar (2003) contend that many investigators see the conception of reverence for people to include a moral obligation to provide research outcomes to research participants after the completion of a study. While Fernandez, Kodish, and Weijer (2003, p. 12) say that "giving results honours the ethical code of treating participants with humanity and dignity " Additionally, copies of the final thesis were sent to the two district administrators of Chivi and Zaka districts, as well as the Provincial Administration and gatekeepers, in accordance with the authorization given. Additionally, each participant was given with a connection to the electronic database of the university which contains a copy of the thesis. Following the section on ethics, a review of the shortcomings of the study follows.

6.12 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research methodology used. It basically focused .and elucidated and advanced the study design utilized by explaining how the sample was selected; the data collection procedures and equipment used; and the analytic methodologies used. The chapter discussed the data collection tools utilized in this research, which included semi- structured interviews and focal group discussions. Additionally, the study methodology showed that data were gathered from two districts, four village chiefs, and twenty social protection recipients. Data presentation and analysis follows in the next chapter. Emphasis will be given to the presentation of collected data and thematically analyzing it to reach a conclusion for this specific study. The following part details the data analysis method utilized after the semi-structured interviews and focus groups.

CHAPTER SEVEN: DATA PRESENTATION AND RESULTS ANALYSIS

7.0 Introduction

The methods used in this study and its justification were covered in the chapter that came before it. The information about Rethinking Social Protection in Masvingo Province, Zimbabwe: Toward the Development of a Social Protection Framework is presented in this chapter. The data is based on 18 semi-structured interviews and 2 focus groups that were conducted at 2 research sites in Masvingo Province: Gororo Village in Chivi District and Chigwagwa Village in Zaka District. Accordingly, this chapter answers the following three important queries: What kind and how is social protection provided in Zimbabwe? How has poverty been addressed through the implementation of social protection programmes by non-governmental organizations, the private sector, and the government? What kind of social protection system could be created to combat poverty in Zimbabwe? And finally, how has poverty been addressed through the implementation of social protection programmes by Non-Governmental Organizations, the private sector, and the government? What kind of social protection system could be created to combat poverty in Zimbabwe? Finally, why does the Zimbabwean government want to create a plan for the national social protection framework? These four crucial questions are explored in this chapter's four sections. The codes used to facilitate data presentation and analysis are presented in Section 5.1 of this chapter. The demographic information about the participants is covered in Section 5.2, and the results of the case study are presented in Sections 5.3 and 5.4. The results are given as themes and illustrative sub-themes that developed throughout data collection and subsequent thematic analysis.

Eighteen (18) volunteers from two communities in Masvingo Province, Zimbabwe, were used in the study. The participants were assigned pseudonyms, which are as follows: The districts being studied are Chigwagwa Village in the Zaka District and Gororo Village in the Chivi District, both of which are in Zimbabwe's Masvingo Province. Participants in this study came from two villages each from the districts of Chivi and Zaka in the province of Masvingo. Nine social protection recipients from each village a total of 18 beneficiaries were interviewed for the study. To gather information for the study, which involved

conducting one focus group conversation in each town or village, two focus group discussions were done, each with three farmers with three beneficiaries.

As advised by Schnepf (2016) and Dorfman (2015), participants should use their preferred home language when data are being generated. The researcher used the vernacular language, which is Shona, for both communities and for semi-structured interviews as well as focus group discussions with various social protection beneficiaries. There was no language barrier because the researcher is a native Shona speaker and grew up in the province where the study was conducted. To have my translations verified, I asked two researchers from the Great Zimbabwe University for assistance. The participants in the semi-structured interviews in Gororo Village and Chigwagwa received codes from me. The following section contains a list of the codes.

7.1 Codes utilized in this study

Table 7.1 reveals the codes that were assigned to participants in the semi-structured interviews in this study.

CODES	EXPLANATION
ZDVCB1	Zaka District Village Chigwagwa Beneficiary 1
ZDVCB2	Zaka District Village Chigwagwa Beneficiary 2
ZDVCB3	Zaka District Village Chigwagwa Beneficiary 3
ZDVCB4	Zaka District Village Chigwagwa Beneficiary 4
ZDVCB5	Zaka District Village Chigwagwa Beneficiary 5
ZDVCB6	Zaka District Village Chigwagwa Beneficiary 6
ZDVCB7	Zaka District Village Chigwagwa Beneficiary 7
ZDVCB8	Zaka District Village Chigwagwa Beneficiary 8
ZDVCB9	Zaka District Village Chigwagwa Beneficiary 9
CDVGB1	Chivi District Village Gororo Beneficiary 1
CDVGB2	Chivi District Village Gororo Beneficiary 2
CDVGB3	Chivi District Village Gororo Beneficiary 3
CDVGB4	Chivi District Village Gororo Beneficiary 4

CDVGB5	Chivi District Village Gororo Beneficiary 5
CDVGB6	Chivi District Village Gororo Beneficiary 6
CDVGB7	Chivi District Village Gororo Beneficiary 7
CDVGB8	Chivi District Village Gororo Beneficiary 8
CDVGB9	Chivi District Village Gororo Beneficiary 9

The study's codes can be categorized as setting/context codes (Breen, 2016). The codes represented the participant's neighborhood and identity. For instance, the codes ZDVGB1 and CDVGB1 stand for Zaka District Village Chigwagwa Beneficiary 1 and Chivi District Village Gororo Beneficiary 1, respectively. According to Nachimias and Nachimias (1996, p. 335), given codes should be constant across instances or units of analysis when the same condition exists, hence these codes were utilized consistently throughout the data presentation and analysis.

Table 7.2 Codes used for participants in Focus group discussion (Field data: 2020)

Codes	Explanation
FGDZDVC1	Focus Group Discussion Zaka District Village Chigwagwa 1
FGDZDVC1	Focus Group Discussion Zaka District Village Chigwagwa 1
FGDZDVC1	Focus Group Discussion Zaka District Village Chigwagwa 1
FGDCDVG1	Focus Group Discussion Chivi District Village Gororo 1
FGDCDVG1	Focus Group Discussion Chivi District Village Gororo 1
FGDCDVG1	Focus Group Discussion Chivi District Village Gororo 1

The participants' codes for the two focus group discussions one held in the Chivi District Gororo village and the other in the Zaka District Chigwagwa village—are displayed in the above table. Focus Group Discussions Zaka District Village Chigwagwa and Focus Group Discussion Chivi District Village Gororo, respectively, are shown in the above table. Five people participated in each focus group discussion, and each group was assigned a different code, such as 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5.

7.2 Gender characteristics of the participants in Gororo and Chigwagwa

The table below depicts the gender division amongst several participants who took part in the interviews and the focus group discussions

Table 7.3 Gender characteristics of the participants at Gororo and Chigwagwa (Field data: 2020).

Interview participant	Gender		Total number of participants according to sex
	M	F	
Interview Participants in Zaka District Village Chigwagwa	5	13	18
Interview Participants in Chivi District village Gororo	4	15	18
Focus group participants in Zaka village Chigwagwa	2	3	5
Focus group participants in Chivi District village Gororo	1	4	5

The gender distribution of the study's participants is shown in the table above. In both villages, the study had 18 participants. Five men and thirteen women were questioned in the community of Chigwagwa. This suggested that Chigwagwa women are more vulnerable than men, making them the beneficiaries of social protection services to the greatest extent. Only three recipients were male in Gororo village, where 15 beneficiaries were interviewed during the interview session. There was a total of five people in each of the two focus group sessions in the two districts: three people in the Chigwagwa focus group and four people in the Gororo focus group. women and two men. From the above table, it can be deduced that women are more susceptible to poverty than males are, and as a result, the condition of women needs to be given priority by social protection agencies like NGOs, the government, and the private sector. Beneficiary selection must consider such gender concerns and be correctly conducted. Another reason why women made up a higher portion of the population could be that they are eager to participate in initiatives that promote community development and are also always available near their homes. In the section that follows, the study's results are summarized.

7.3 Findings from the Study

This part conducts a main data analysis on the focus group talks and semi-structured interviews. Themes and supporting sub-themes that emerged from this research are used to illustrate the findings of this study on the idea of rethinking social protection in the province of Masvingo, and more especially in two districts, to unravel the important topics. Significant concepts were recognized by the researcher, who then organized them into themes. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), Creswell (2009), and Guba and Lincoln (1994), every theme that appears captures an essential aspect of the data. As a result, each subject in this study highlights an important aspect of the rethinking of social protection in the province of Masvingo.

According to researchers like Basit (2003), Braun and Clarke (2006), De Vos et al. (2002), Le Compte and Schensul (1999), and Merriam (1999), the steps of data analysis in this study were followed (2009). According to these researchers, the steps are as follows: first codes are formed as the researcher becomes familiar with the data, followed by topic seeking, theme review, theme definition and narration, and report production. The material covered in Chapters 2 and 3 as well as the conceptualizations of crucial elements of the social protection theories by Bourdieu, Coleman, and Putnam were the key sources the researcher used to analyze each issue. The emerging themes are supported through evidence from the actual spoken words by the participants during the semi-structured interviews as well as focus group discussions as suggested by Ely, Vinz, Downing and Anzul (1997). The use of the participants' actual spoken words helped the researcher to reveal their interpretation of the state, Private sector and NGOs administered social assistance packages. Thus, the researcher utilised the actual words spoken by the participants to present and analyse the emerging themes and sub-themes in this section. In these two communities, the Chigwagwa communities mainly benefitted from the following social assistance programmes: Presidential inputs schemes, food aid from CARE international and BEAM. THE Gororo communities mainly benefitted from food aid from CARE Zimbabwe and BEAM although all these programmes had a very little representation.

7.4 Emerging themes from the findings at Chigwagwa and Gororo

Participants were asked to elaborate on possible initiatives that must be adopted as a matter of rethinking or readdressing social protection and I captured their responses. The findings in this study as captured reveal that eight main themes emerged from the main research questions underlying this study as well as some few sub themes. The questions are bolstering the issue of rethinking social protection with the aim of coming up with a workable social protection framework. The study reveals that social protection as an intervention policy to fight inequality and vulnerability has the potential of addressing these negative societal vices like Poverty, inequality and vulnerability that are exposing the innocent citizens to suffering. Participants in both semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions agreed that social protection has a role to play in addressing vulnerability.

7.4.1 The inadequacy of social protection resources

I administered these interviews at Chigwagwa village, and the following response was given by a male beneficiary who is seventy-four years old and staying with his wife and grand children who were of primary school age. Concerning the inadequacy of social protection, she had the following to say:

The problem we have here in our community is that our village is too big, our village has got more than seventy-five households and amongst the seventy-five a majority of them are female headed families and they are generally living in Poverty, some of their children and grandchildren are not going to school and yet when non-Governmental programmes comes in to give us various food items it will be difficult for social protection administrators to cater for all the vulnerable people. The resources that they are giving are too few and they are chasing the needs for a lot of people who are disadvantaged. It is not interesting for us to be given assistance whilst our friends and relatives are starving, welfare yes is coming but the truth of the matter is that it is not enough (Interviewee CDVCB1, Female – 61 Years - August 2021).

According to Mabasa, (2015) the Government of Zimbabwe acknowledges that the level of funding it allocates towards social protection is far much low as compared to the level of welfare demand in the country. The above sentiments have been supported by (Dhemba, 2012:05) who asserted that “The Government of Zimbabwe aims to increasing public expenditure on social protection, encourage greater private sector funding, and

improve the coordination between Government funding and funding from development partners". According to (Narayan, 2013) Zimbabwean expenditure on social protection is far less adequate in the country hence most of the citizens is exposed to numerous vulnerabilities. More notably, expenditure on the civil service pension dominates social protection spending in Zimbabwe living out the rest of the people mainly in the rural areas.

Towindo (2016) contended that the Government of Zimbabwe should aim to increasing public expenditure on social protection, encourage greater private sector funding, and improve the coordination between Government funding and funding from development partners and the private sector. Muchemwa, (2016) reiterated that expenditure on social protection is far less adequate in the country hence most of the citizens is exposed to numerous vulnerabilities. More notably, expenditure on the civil service pension dominates social protection spending in Zimbabwe.

The inadequacy of social protection resources is aptly seen in the words of a participant in the semi-structured interview who said,

The programmes offered by all the stakeholders that is the NGOs, the government and the private sector are to a great extent inadequate, the programmes cover very few households for example, Chigwagwa village is geographically located in the remote areas of Zaka central, we are in the mountainous areas where vehicles find it difficult to manoeuvre hence NGOs deliberately live us out of their programmes. We are therefore cut out from the civilized world where things are happening. The government must seriously do something to prioritize welfare for its people. Incapacitation of the government is a serious challenge that is crippling social protection not only in our village but all over the country. Our government is not willing to prioritize social protection hence most of the citizens are suffering due to lack of food, lack of agricultural inputs and even lack of school fees. This to my opinion should be taken as a matter of urgency (Interviewee ZDVCB1 – Female – 48 Years - August 2020)

The above proclamation from a social protection beneficiary is supported by (Adelman, 2015) who hypothesized that funding limitations are a challenge for the successful implementation of social protection programmes not only in Zimbabwe but even in the developing countries. The creation of a national social protection framework is envisaged as the solution to the problem of inadequacy. In the short term, this will include the use of national budgets, private sector support and donor funds. In the long term, greater

emphasis on domestic resources will be pursued, which will require mechanisms to increase fiscal space. From this interview it is evident that the demand for welfare is much higher than the availability of it hence the government needs to re-strategize and focus on addressing the problem of social protection inadequacy or shortage. The other interviewee had this to say concerning the inadequacy of social protection:

Beam is good but the numbers of pupils it caters for is too few considering the numbers of incapacitated bread winners mainly in rural Zimbabwe. There are so many orphans, unemployed bread winners and incapacitated parents as well as the aged populations who are not able to pay school fees for their children. The government must seriously consider scaling up BEAM coverage to cater for the poverty-stricken majority in the rural areas. The government must go back to the days soon after independence when education was given for free (Interviewee- CDVGB2- Male – 57 Years August 2020).

The response school heads, members of the Community Selection Committee, parents/guardians, and beneficiaries, according to Mutasa (2015), concurred with the assessment and felt that the BEAM funding were insufficient. The amount of money given to each student was insufficient and fell short of expectations in terms of helping underprivileged families. The problem with BEAM was that when the allocated money was depleted, some worthy children were left out after the CSCs ranked potential beneficiaries according to levels of vulnerability. As a result, qualified kids didn't get full assistance. Another recipient from the village of Gororo in the Chivi District stated:

BEAM funds only catered for tuition, levy, and examination fees only. There is no provision made for other essentials like books, uniforms and school projects approved by the SDAs which were more expensive to many parents. As a result, pupils and students who failed to raise funds for school projects are sent away by the SDAs who were running schools, to encourage them to pay. Eventually the poor parents and guardians would have to find other means and ways of raising the required amounts to supplement the BEAM allocations. Thus, the poor could engage in perverse coping mechanisms against poverty like prostitution and even dropping out from school or other extremes like selling everything they had and become poorer, to send their children to school (Interviewee FGDCDVG – Female – 37 Years – August 2020)

The inadequacy of BEAM, according to Mutasa (2015), also stemmed from the lack of a supplemental budget. As a result, any potential increases in tuition over the course of the school year are not considered, leaving the chosen beneficiaries with outstanding debt

that must be paid by their parents and legal guardians. Since BEAM's eligible recipients were only chosen at the beginning of the year, children who became orphans during that time were also not covered. Mate (2018) urges the government to evaluate all programmes for reducing poverty, not just BEAM, in a comprehensive manner. Since the government is aware that there are other private players' education assistance programmes in addition to BEAM, there is a need for an annual evaluation of the level of the other players' involvement to determine the level of assistance that BEAM should provide, rather than the current practice of considering the resources available.

7.4.2 An inconsistent and unfair beneficiary selection criterion

Setting eligibility criteria and putting them into effect are the two components of determining eligibility to receive food (Aizer, 2016). The targeting purpose leads to the eligibility requirements. Individuals may be subject to eligibility requirements, such as children under the age of seven, orphans, or even the unemployed. To identify people or households who will get food, eligibility criteria must be specified in a way that includes the intended beneficiaries.

Certain segments of the population are the focus of donors and NGOs. Age, health status, and many other factors are used to differentiate groups. The feeding initiatives in Zaka Chigwagwa Village mostly served primary school-aged children and infants. The Food for Work program was designed with the most vulnerable households in mind. In other words, because everyone in the community is thought to be entitled to food aid or affected by the emergency, Harvey et al. (2010) claimed that food aid is spread among a considerably greater number of individuals than planned by humanitarian organizations. This is what a recipient of food for work in Gororo village had to say about the bias in the beneficiary selection process.:

There is a lot of politics surrounding welfare and social protection programmes mainly within the government structures. The involvement of politicians like councillors in the distribution and selection of aid beneficiaries jeopardizes the fairness of beneficiary selection. Councillors and village heads must desist from participating in beneficiary selection process based on political party affiliation. Politicians must not be part of the beneficiary selection process whether BEAM, Vulnerable groups feeding or food for work. Traditional leaders must shun politics, they should be

real leaders with citizens at heart regardless of whatever political party one supports Interviewee –
(Interviewee ~ FGDCDVG ~ Male ~ 53 Years ~ August 2020)

The above statement from a worried Zimbabwean citizen coincided with the following research that was carried by (Ardington, 2016) who claimed that-

In 2018, the year of elections following President Mugabe's ouster, politicians, veteran organizations, party youth, and young militias attempted, in several well-publicized cases, to use aid for their own purposes. A week before the presidential election, the WFP stopped distributing relief in Matabeleland North "to avoid politicians from utilizing the food for political objectives." According to (Handa and Seidenfeld, 2014), the local Catholic Commission for Justice and Peace (CCJP) fed 40,000 children the year before the harmonized elections, but the program was discontinued after the Minister of Local Government, Mr. Kasukuwere, ordered that it be disbanded because its structures were like those of government. Children at 17 pre-schools and schools were denied food when war veterans suspended activities, but a few weeks later, without the involvement of the CCJP, feeding was restored (Handa, and Seidenfeld, 2014). The following is what a different interviewee from the community of Chigwagwa in the Chivi District had to say about the politicization of food aid:

As you also know that Zaka is a politically volatile district, here in our village there is a mixed multitude of people with divers' political affiliations. Sometimes these NGOs are manipulated to dance according to the tune of the ruling part ZANU PF which to my thinking does not have more supporters, but they have violent supporters who are occupying respectable positions in our community. Reporting these violent Politian's might be fruitless since even the police themselves seem to be partisan/supporting the ruling part because they do not take any action after receiving these reports. To my opinion the solution to food aid politicization can only be through changing the government and bringing in new leaders even though it might mean changing leadership within the ruling part and have different people with different political approaches to have people at heart (Interviewee ~ CDVGB ~. Female ~ 55 Years ~ August 2020).

The account from a recipient of social assistance is consistent with (Nyamukapa, 2016 p. 37), who argued that a mother of nine children reported that she repeatedly attempted to get on the World Food Program (WFP) feeding lists in 2016 but was informed by the local community leaders responsible for compiling lists that she was ineligible because she

was a member of the MDC. When the kraal leader visited her at home, he informed her that if she wanted to receive food from donors, she had to give over her MDC cards. Like this, Nyamukapa (2016) claimed that ten MDC supporters in the Midlands were singled out by name and compelled to leave the meeting that was conducted to update the list of recipients of food donations. Before the WFP personnel arrived, ZANU PF officials carried out this task. Some houses in Masvingo area are allegedly left off the assistance lists by their village elders, while a website in the Midlands alleges political bias in compiling the beneficiary lists (Mabasa, 2015).

The most popular types of relief assistance over the years have been food handouts, agricultural inputs, school fee help, and other aid for the chronically ill. Manyena (2006) asserts that Zimbabwe's political climate has long been marked by an increase in the politicization of agricultural inputs and food aid, all of which are dispersed along partisan lines to the advantage of mostly Zanu PF supporters. Over the years, perceived opposition supporters and allies have been marginalized during the distribution of government-sponsored aid, leading to the use of food as a political tool to sway votes. The following is a statement from a BEAM beneficiary in Gororo Village of Chivi District concerning the politicization of aid in that area, the statement resonates with the above assertion by Manyena (2006):

Even if donors do not want people to be chanting partisan slogans or even wearing party regalia, people still do not respect that. ZANU PF inclined war veterans are a real problem during these food aid and food distribution sessions. War veterans hijack non-governmental food aid and control the way aid is distributed. The food is never distributed equally among the vulnerable people of the village but supporters of the ruling part benefit in their majority while opposition known supporters are deprived of their freely given aid. During the distribution of presidential inputs, known opposition supporters are openly side-lined and the ruling party leadership distributes the inputs to ZANU PF loyalties hence depriving every citizen the right to access presidential inputs. The issue of politicization of aid is a real problem in our village. Social protection can never be a reality if these anomalies are not addressed because the real intended vulnerable beneficiaries are deprived of their right hence jeopardizing the whole process (Interviewee ~ FGDCVG ~ Female ~ 55 Years ~ August 2020)

Other participants in Zaka district village Chigwagwa aired his view in the following statement:

“These people take side always hence the government should make sure that politicians or any politically active person should never be part of welfare programmes, they must not take a leading role in welfare administration. The politicians should not take any leading role in any social protection program. They must stay away however this does not exclude them from benefiting. I can reference our ward councillor here who is always in the forefront belongs to the ruling party and the most biased part is that the very person is our village head. When NGOs comes down here to select the intended beneficiaries, they work with these village heads who turns out to be active ZANU PF politicians. He tries to write a bigger number of the beneficiaries depending on political affiliation, the opposition members will be very few so the whole process of benefiting the disadvantaged populations is distorted” (Interviewee ~ FGDZDVC ~ Female ~ 70 Years ~ August 2020).

This finding is consistent with that of Save the Children (2014), which revealed that political players had intentionally manipulated aid to further their own political goals against those of other political parties. As Zanu PF uses aid as a political tool to win over people and penalize those with opposing viewpoints, several patterns and trends have been seen in the partisan distribution of aid around the nation. Zanu PF officials have taken over the delivery of food aid and agricultural inputs, among other forms of help, in most areas (Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee) (2011). The systematic checking of attendance registers of Zanu PF meetings, the demand for Zanu PF membership cards and the chanting of Zanu PF party slogans before accessing relief aid, have all worked in the denial of relief aid to deemed opposition supporters. This has been common across all the provinces in Zimbabwe. In some communities where people receive food aid after working some have been denied food even after investing their labour on community projects. The existence of selective ways of distributing food aid after work has compounded the plight of vulnerable citizens deemed to be supporters of opposition political parties (Schnepf, 2016).

7.4.3 Corruption as a major setback

The other serious challenge which was exposed by this research is the problem of corruption which was manifesting through various ways and forms. A 58 year widow in Chigwagwa Village was amongst the social protection beneficiaries who had the following to say concerning the problem of corruption during the food distribution exercises:

I witnessed corruption during food distribution here in our village, this was through nepotism where community members related to the village head had their names written down in the beneficiary lists even though these people do not qualify to be part of the beneficiaries. The other corrupt scene was seen when village heads and councillors demanded more handouts from the administrators of the aid, this was done at the expense of the real intended beneficiaries who then were deprived of their right. If only these corrupt activities can be rooted out from amongst village leaders, fairness will prevail. (Interviewee ~ FGDGV ~ Female ~ 58 Years ~ August 2020)

The complaint was echoed by Schinepf (2016), who asserted that one of the basic problems with Zimbabwe's welfare system is how to reduce corruption while still meeting the humanitarian requirement of meeting urgent needs. Schinepf hinted that field-level assistance workers wrestle with similar decisions every day, including whether to pay bribes at checkpoints or ports to hasten the delivery of aid and how to handle local relief committees that might be abusing their authority during the targeting process. The issue is not new. Over the past 20 years, aid organizations have made significant investments in strengthening their financial, logistical, procurement, and human resource systems in Zimbabwe. They have also adopted various codes of conduct to raise standards and started investing in measures to increase accountability to both the people receiving relief assistance and the people providing the funding (Sphere, 2004).

A 63-year male social protection beneficiary in Gororo village Chivi district also presented a different version of corruption practiced by those villagers with better political and community powers; he had the following to say

I witnessed first-hand corruption before my eyes in our village, it was during the distribution of Presidential inputs (Fertilizers and maize seed). These inputs are said to be given to all Zimbabwean citizens regardless of political affiliation but however when these inputs arrived in our village, the ZANU village leadership only distributed the inputs to their ZANU loyalists and after these distributions, delivery cars were seen delivering these seeds at the homesteads of local ZANU PF leadership. We could not question them because we were afraid of being victimized hence, we just ignored (Interviewee ~ CDVGB ~ Male ~ 63 Years ~ August 2020)

The study's two case districts and villages, Chigwagwa in the Zaka District and Gororo in the Chivi District, both saw popular outrage over corrupt practices involving presidential inputs and donor funding. For instance, there have been allegations of corruption in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries in Chigwagwa. It was rumoured that the responsible

authority was pressuring candidates to either pledge their allegiance to the ruling group or even to pay bribes to those responsible for making the selection. The distribution of presidential inputs and NGO-related initiatives, where food packages like fertilizer, seedlings, and even food items were given out in exchange for payments, were further examples of corruption. An interviewee had this to comment concerning corrupt activities in aid related activities.

Many times, we hear those politicians and traditional leader often loot goods and money meant to benefit the poor and channel them to their personal benefits. There is also a lot of nepotism and favouritism in the food distribution process. In BEAM and food for work programmes ghost names appear in beneficiary lists and families of village heads are the main beneficiaries depriving the real intended beneficiaries who need this kind of assistance, these corrupt accusations must stop. (Interviewee ~ ZDVCB ~ Female ~ 68 Years ~ August 2020).

(Ouma and Adesina, 2019) suggested that corruption is a touchy subject in the welfare industry in support of the aforementioned remark. Humanitarian actors must eradicate corruption in all its forms, recognize the harm it causes, ascertain its true scope, and better comprehend the circumstances that give rise to it. To improve the delivery of social protection services and packages, NGOs and the government must also determine what safeguards must be established or improved to combat corruption, even in the most challenging situations. If welfare administrators want to achieve operational effectiveness and accountability to their stakeholders, they must mitigate corruption. However, it is also important to recognise that adopting a proactive and transparent approach to dealing with corruption may improve welfare delivery system.

7.4.4 Inadequate Coverage: Exclusion of Informal Sector Workers in pension schemes

Concerning the challenge of inadequate coverage of social protection, the interviewee in Chigwagwa village claimed that:

I was an informal employee for the rest of my life and now I am 66 years old. For the rest of my working life, I was a tailor specializing in designing and repairing man's and woman's clothing in Mbare Harare. Now I am a retired person, and I don't have any fall back because I was not formally employed. Since most of our children are not formally employed, they are not contributing to NSSA hence when they will be of my age, they will still be in the same problem that I am in now. The

National Social Security Council (NSSA) should also find a way of in cooperating those people who are in the informal sector and give them some sort of a pension scheme, like monthly contributions of a certain amount and the government should also meet half way with these informal sector citizens for them to have a viable pension scheme so that when they retire through old age, they have a fall back to cushion and strengthen their livelihoods. Some people retire from the informal sector through old age and some through sickness, they need to be assisted, NSSA must come up with a plan to help these citizens in the informal sector (Interviewee ~ CDVGB ~ Female ~ 72 Years ~ August 2020)

Adesina (2020) echoed the sentiments expressed by the interviewer above when he said that workers in the informal sector are typically not covered well, and in many cases not at all, by modern, structured pension systems. Workers in the formal sector typically join either mandatory or voluntary pension systems, or both. They may not have official registration papers or other documents that could help the relevant authorities target them for other schemes, they may frequently change jobs, and they frequently live and work in rural areas with weak or non-existent financial infrastructure. They also lack access to pension plans organized or managed by employers. Devereux (2016) claimed that these workers may also belong to underprivileged socioeconomic groups with low levels of education, which would limit their knowledge of long-term investment options and their understanding of pension plans. The inability of these informal workers to access a structured pension system is a result. In fact, an increase in the informal sector has been linked to economic growth in numerous areas, and this problem is considerably more serious in emerging nations like Zimbabwe.

Mate (2018) argued that the difficulty is larger in developing nations due in part to the logistical challenges of enlisting workers in the informal sector into pension plans and in part due to the historic role of family assistance in pension delivery. Recent years have seen a growing awareness among the world community and national governments of the necessity and importance of expanding the pension system to include the unorganized sector. In fact, a variety of policy efforts have been implemented with the goal of addressing this issue given the country-specific characteristics and settings (Pieterse, 2002).

Coincidentally, when I was contacting a focus group discussion in Chivi District Chigwagwa village, I asked a former National Railways of Zimbabwe (NRZ) woman pensioner about the extend and effects of inadequate pension scheme coverage and her response was:

I did not have any problem with this inadequate coverage of pension schemes because I was working for NRZ the rest of my life and I was receiving a good salary, now I am 70 years and have since retired from work. Just because I was contributing to NSSA pension schemes, since I retires 15 years ago, I have been receiving my pension ever since but now because of inflation the money is now useless and it's no longer adequate anymore. I think it's reasonable to contribute to NSSA because the pay-outs will cushion the workers in times of old age and Poverty. The only thing that needs to be addressed is that the government must consider paying the pensions in United States Dollars so that the funds will capacitate the pensioners (Interviewee ~ FGDZDVC ~ Female ~ 38 Years ~ August 2020).

One can infer from the aforementioned statement that there are differing views on the issue of inadequate pension financing. Those who made NSSA contributions complain that the pay-outs they are receiving are insufficient, but Dhembha (2012) contends that pension funding is crucial for preserving income in old age and increasing the economic potential of older people and their families. The old age pension also has the potential to encourage senior citizens to spend money on worthwhile endeavours (Dhembha, 2012). Social security is a scheme of income-maintenance in situations when an individual's earning capacity is interrupted and is meaningless unless beneficiaries feel secure under the scheme (Kaseke, 1988). He further reiterated that the government of Zimbabwe must reconsider the inclusion of the informal sector to contribute their pensions so that when old age comes, they will be covered.

7.4.5 Inadequate social protection Awareness Campaigns

According to the widely accepted definition, a public awareness campaign is a series of various activities planned for a specific period, directed at a specific target audience, and intended to raise awareness of and encourage behavioral and mental changes regarding a particular social problem (Dorfman, 2015). (Jelena, 2016). Tools and marketing strategies used in commercial marketing are frequently used in social campaigns. They include advertising in various mediums, such as print, radio, television, and the internet.

This is not usually the main component of a well-prepared social campaign very important in this regard is also intervention, but it plays an important role in terms of its public perception and draws attention of a wide audience to the problem.

This study discovered that rural families in the district or ward are consistently overlooked, easily forgotten since they are inaccessible by nature, and as a result, many programmes ignore them. The people who live roughly five kilometres from rural highways are the ones who always benefit from social security programmes. This tendency is concerning since aid vehicles occasionally find it difficult to take the risk of traveling through hazardous rural roads. Those who are close to the highways are easily accessible and therefore always benefit from these welfare programmes. This focus group participant had the following to say about educational awareness campaigns: (United Nations, 2016)

Many people in the villages are not aware of these social protection programmes which are administered by the government, Non-Governmental Organizations, and the private sector. Programmes like Vulnerable Group Feeding, BEAM and food for work are repetitively benefiting the same population year in and year out. NGOs and the government must embark on a serious adequate village awareness campaign to inform the people that there are various programmes that are designed to benefit the poor, some programmes come and go without our attention, the owners of the programmes must adequately advertise their activities to the whole community before anything takes place. The problem I think lies with the implementing institutions who either lack the necessary expertise to herald their message or maybe they don't have enough resources to embark on a holistic awareness campaign so that the intended beneficiaries are also catered for (Interviewee ~ FGDCDV ~ Female ~ 62 Years ~ August 2020).

The above statement clearly outlines the ineffectiveness of the current social protection initiatives due to not being able to reach out exercises especially in the remote regions of Zaka. Those who are located along country roads are the ones mainly involved in these programmes. Those settlements in the remote regions are mostly side-lined hence discrediting welfare facilities by the government and NGOs.

The aforementioned quotes from the interviewers are in line with the theories of (Daritanto et al., 2016), who posited the significance of raising awareness for the extension of social protection. According to them, social protection policies and programmes have little chance of success if workers and employers are unaware of the various social protection

schemes that are available to them, their rights, and obligations, and how to access such schemes. (Chinyoka, 2017) claimed that the extension of social security may be seriously hampered by limited access to information and awareness. The bulk of workers in many nations have little formal education, make a living in the unorganized sector of the economy, and frequently have no access to social security information. An empirical study carried out in Indonesia confirms the significance of promoting awareness to encourage workers to enrol in the national health insurance program. This study discovered that the absence of awareness campaigns prior to the distribution of welfare products was one of the main barriers to the registration of vulnerable residents, which was also a contributing factor (Dartanto et al. 2016). There is a general lack of information dissemination about government, private sector, and NGOs social protection programmes, especially in rural areas.

7.4.6 Inadequate Empowerment Programmes: Dependency Syndrome

It is also argued by Scoones (2010) that social protection programmes lack the empowerment component. These programmes do not empower people. They always target lazy people who are always ready to receive whatever given to them instead of desiring to work with their own hands hence if these programmes are to address the problem of dependency they must change their focus and thrust on addressing the issue of empowerment first for example, these voluntary organizations can team up with the government and its traditional leadership to give pieces of land to the landless citizens, drilling boreholes for them and just give them the initial capital to kick start their personal agricultural programmes, by this, dependency will be a thing of the past.

A BEAM beneficiary In Zaka District Chigwagwa village had this to say concerning the problem of dependency syndrome that is necessitated by the provision of aid:

Dependency is a very dangerous disease amongst most of the poor Zimbabwean citizens. The following programmes in my opinion are perpetrating dependency in our community: cash transfer, vulnerable group feeding, school feeding, food for work, BEAM just to mention a few. The government should implement other programmes that deliver real empowerment to the people so that they do not further become victims of vulnerability and poverty. Social protection administrators should also consider empowering programmes like agricultural activities, livestock pass on programmes, skills training like soap making, sowing, and even building. These programmes will

ensure long lasting livelihoods to the vulnerable groups even in the absence of donors or government aid. Giving us food is good but when we finish the food, we will still be needing more but if they provide us with the means or methods of creating our own ways of survival, we can still be benefiting even in the absence of assistance programmes (Interviewee ~ ZDVCB ~ Female ~ 40 Years ~ August 2021)

In support of the aforementioned claim, Gentilini (2015) argued that a common critique of social assistance, typically advanced by elite and some middle-class circles, is that it encourages dependency among recipients, undermining their ability to support themselves and their desire to escape poverty through hard work. Recipients of predictable, cost-free social handouts, according to some neo-liberal economists, are dissuaded from seeking employment. Social assistance opponents assert that recipients will lose the motivation to invest in diversification and business development, save money, build up assets, and join the labor force. In other words, it is believed that receiving social aid leads to "laziness" and a lifelong "dependence" on "handouts."

Manyena (2006) argued that There is also a socially conservative ideology that sees welfare recipients as 'scroungers' likely to transmit their dependency on 'hand-outs' to their children. It is this concern that has shaped recent welfare reforms in developing countries such as Zimbabwe, with benefits being increasingly tied to conditions on finding work, policies to limit benefits, and continual efforts to reduce the number of people receiving social assistance. The issue of responsibility also informs debates around social assistance and dependency.

7.4.7 Inadequate Social Protection Coverage: Social Exclusion

According to Merrian (2009), vulnerability and a lack of social protection both cause and manifest poverty and social exclusion. Lack of social protection may be a barrier to learning new skills and getting access to chances and occupations that are productive. To help people, escape multifaceted poverty traps, several social protection programmes are now being developed. These programmes try to integrate and order various interventions from the economic, social, and political domains. Social protection can help with the broad goals of maintaining minimum living standards, providing income support, providing employment opportunities and guarantees, improving access to services,

including health, and reducing occupational risks. Finally, social protection can help with social inclusion and favourable (Arnold and DeCosmo, 2015).

The problem of social exclusion is a cause for concern even in this research where the researcher is aiming at rethinking social protection in Masvingo province to come up with a holistic social protection framework. In a Focus group discussion in Chigwagwa village Zaka district one interviewer had this to say concerning the problem of social exclusion:

The number of vulnerable households that need social protection assistance is too high as compared to the amount of goods available to meet their ever-increasing demand. We do not want to blame our village heads for not being able to give everybody because the donations are not sufficient, they are not adequate to be given to everybody. In order to address this social exclusion problem, the government, Non-Governmental Organizations and the private sector must be able to join hence and come with some programmes that will capacitate the villagers even in the absence of them donors, as long as they are bringing food items to the people, before they get back to Harare the food will be finished hence creating a vicious circle of dependency and poverty trap (Interviewee ~ FGDZDVCB ~ Female ~ 55 Years ~ August 2021)

The above statement is the evidence that there is a serious inadequacy of social protection in the area under study. There is an ever-increasing demand of welfare packages from the villagers. The solution lies with the ability of policy makers to rethink how best they can implement social protection in the province and at large in the country. National budgets must be adjusted to generously cater and prefer social protection. The United Nations, (2016a) concurs with the above statement when it affirms that overall, social exclusion describes a state in which individuals are unable to participate fully in economic, social, political, and cultural life, as well as the process leading to and sustaining such a state. Handa et al (2015) postulated that participation may be hindered when people lack access to government and NGO programmes, material resources, including income, employment, land, and housing, or to such services as education and health care essential foundations of well-being that are captured in Agenda 2030.

In Gororo village, citizens had their version of social exclusion which was rehearsed by a 68-year-old man beneficiary who stated that

Due to the AIDS pandemic and other dangerous diseases, people are dying in their numbers and in our village, there are so many orphans and child headed families as well as vulnerable widows

and poor citizens. Our district here in Chivi does not receive adequate annual rainfalls hence during many farming seasons our harvests are so meager that they don't suffice us to the next season. I can confirm that government welfare, NGOs welfare and private sector welfare exclude most of the above-mentioned vulnerable groups. This exclusion is caused by too few resources chasing too many beneficiaries, some are excluded due to political affiliations, and some are left out of the programmes because of the inadequacies of the resource. (Interviewee ~ FGDCDVGB ~ Female ~ 40 Years ~ August 2021)

Jellema, et al. (2016) shares the same sentiments with the above interviewer when he alluded that there are several other factors that contribute to social exclusion, but inadequate income is not the only factor that can affect access to services and participation. Inequitable public policies may lead to exclusion from services. For example, public pensions or health care in some countries only cover public sector employees, excluding most people employed in the informal sector. Restricted access of children to education may be the result of traditional norms rather than insufficient income. Individuals may also be excluded from social participation or community decision-making because of their social identity and political affiliation. Exclusion from income sources or difficulty generating adequate income to satisfy immediate needs is a key dimension of overall exclusion. The limited income earning capacity of individuals can be caused by various drivers, including life course cycle vulnerabilities, limited human capabilities, inadequate legal rights, and discriminatory informal norms and practices.

7.4.8 Capacity building

The fundamental premise of capacity building is that these vulnerable individuals will be more effective in their governance positions if the necessary skills, attitudes, and knowledge are improved (Lustig, 2016 and Parlemo et al, 2016). As a result, there is a higher equivalence of authority, better accessibility to venues for decision-making, and a more equitable distribution of society's advantages. The lack of a clear aim implied by the terminology when describing capacity building is one of the issues. For instance, while some academics advocate for enhancing individual knowledge, others emphasize strengthening governmental or community institutions. One may look at the many goals and methods connected with the concept of capacity building to comprehend it better. Capacity building is a crucial building block if only social protection stakeholders are

dedicated to build an invincible social protection bedrock starting from the grassroots up to the central government. Grass root dwellers needs not to be surprised but rather they should be initiators of grassroots development. An interviewee in a focus group discussion commended that:

NGOs mainly should shun the hit and run approach to development and in the administration of social protection services to the citizens. Proper consultations must be done in order to understand what kind of programmes the people want, and the community must give suggestions as to what exactly do the people want. NGOs should make the people feel to be the owners of the programmes in the initiation stage. The nature or types of the programmes administered by various institutions must be able to capacitate the local people by engaging the community into undertaking projects that are meant at empowering the citizens for example, community gardening and small livestock production. This kind of projects will capacitate us as the community dwellers, and we can still be running these projects even in the absence of the program administrators. Giving us money and food is temporarily good but that will never empower us because after the money is finished, we remain vulnerable. Giving us hands skills is the best approach to improve our livelihoods here in Chivi, Gororo village (Interviewee ~ CDVGB ~ Female ~ 70 Years ~ August 2020)

Peralta-Alva, (2017), concurred with the above feelings, they noted that organisations who are administering social protections services to the citizens must aim to bring real empowerment to the community. Capacitating the community means giving the community something permanent, projects that have a longer life like the Livestock pass-on project that was implemented by Heifer international in various Zimbabwean Provinces since the year 2000 (Schwarz and Abels, 2016)). The pass-on project is still thriving to date, people are still benefitting from the project even in the absence of the organization, this is indeed real empowerment and real capacity building. Capacity depends on the presence of viable institutions, leadership and vision, financial and material resources, skilled human resources, and effective work practices systems, procedures, and appropriate incentives.

Capacity-building is a process of developing and strengthening the skills, instincts, abilities, processes, and resources that organizations and communities need to survive, adapt, and thrive in a fast-changing world. An essential ingredient in capacity-building is transformation that is generated and sustained over time from within; transformation of this kind goes beyond performing tasks to changing mindsets and attitudes.

7.4.9 Inadequate Social Protection Citizen Consultations in Social Protection

According to Kim and Sumberg (2015), the extent to which government ministries can implement meaningful dialogue on social protection among them and come to an agreement on a predetermined agenda to pursue with other stakeholders will greatly influence the success of a meaningful national platform. By allocating taxpayer funds to policies that will benefit the majority as well as the minority, the government must play a significant role. Since these programmes help non-taxpayers much more, they should be subject to referendums to include them in the creation of these welfare policies. One beneficiary in Zaka noted that: "In light of the poor social protection consultancy"

The government must take a serious position concerning the issue of having a constitutionalized social protection framework. The government must give it priority, once the issue of a social protection framework becomes constitutional then it means even when designing the national budgets, the Ministry of Social Welfare will be allocated its budget to be channelled towards the welfare of the vulnerable populations of the country. We the vulnerable groups must have a voice in the designing of a national social protection framework. The consultation process must include various other stakeholders, but it should not live us out because we are the consumers of these programmes. (Interviewee ~ ZDVCB ~ Male ~ 65 Years ~ August 2020)

The aforementioned observations are consistent with (Ulrichs, 2016), who maintains that because social protection is multifaceted and multidimensional, it necessitates the participation of numerous stakeholders, including the government, non-profit organizations, the private sector, and lastly the public. To realize national goals, Ardington (2016) also hinted to the necessity of a continuous consultative process that fully includes all stakeholders. The necessary consultations might be facilitated by creating a platform for national dialogue, which should involve all relevant sectors and not exclude rural populations. With social protection platforms, there is already some regional experience and examples in several nations. For example, through the Africa Platform for Social Protection (APSP), civil society organizations are being assisted to develop platforms that will promote the engagement of civil society in social protection related issues at the national level. At the same time, the development of key social protection documents, such as the National Social Protection Policy in Kenya and the National Strategy for Basic Social Security in Mozambique, involved a high level of national consultation (Southern African Social Protection Experts Network (2016).

7.5 Conclusion

To develop a social protection framework, the subject of how to rethink social protection in the province of Masvingo was addressed in this chapter. The chapter also made clear that social protection has the capacity to address a variety of vulnerabilities and deficiencies if it is administered comprehensively. Nine new themes that emerged from the data that was gathered were recognized in the analysis chapter. The following themes were identified: insufficient funding and resources for social protection; unfair beneficiary selection criteria; corruption by community leaders in charge of aid distribution; inadequate social protection coverage; an increasing dependence syndrome; unjustified social exclusion; capacity building; and inadequate social protection citizen consultations. The next chapter provides recommendations from the findings on rethinking of social protection in Masvingo province.

CHAPTER EIGHT: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.0 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the findings from this investigation into alternative approaches to social security in Zimbabwe's Masvingo Province. This last section of the thesis verifies that the study's major research questions have already been addressed and the project's primary objective has been met. This chapter provides a concise overview of the entire study up to this point, outlining the primary findings and considerations based on the literature and the data proffered and analyzed in chapter four. The purpose of this research was to re-evaluate social protection in Masvingo Province with the hope of informing the establishment of a more comprehensive system of social safety there. The following part of this article is a short overview of the research. This overview is organized into sections that correspond to the chapters of the project.

8.1 Summary of the Study

Nine chapters were presented in the study, but that number is subject to change as more data becomes available. The nine chapters each contain in-depth analyses that were meant to shed light on the study's central concerns. In this study's introduction, the researcher summarizes the key points from each chapter to highlight the most important aspects of the research. Therefore, this section emphasizes the study's underpinnings. This study's first chapter provided a historical context for the study and identified areas where more research was needed. The key issues were also spelled out. The research theoretical and subjective foundations were also laid out. The crucial terms used in this thesis were explained. Besides discussing the study's relevance and its constraints, this chapter also discussed other relevant topics.

The state, the corporate sector, and non-state participants all have unique roles to play in implementing and delivering social protection programmes, which were discussed in Chapter Two. The researcher investigated the services provided by the largest welfare organizations in Masvingo province. By analyzing the writings of various academics, we were able to draw these conclusions about the connection between land reform and schooling. In Chapter the researcher discussed the research methodology, the tools used

to gather information, and methods for analyzing the information gathered. This chapter questioned the efficacy of the semi-structured interviews and focus groups. Masvingo Province was the focus of the research, specifically the Masvingo and Chivi districts. Eighteen (18) participants from two Masvingo Province communities Gororo and Chigwagwa in Zimbabwe were used. People from both communities participated in the research.

The results of this investigation were discussed and analyzed in Chapter Four. According to the most important research objectives, the results were presented and analyzed. The data also revealed nine themes regarding the causes of these involvements, including a lack of social protection advisory, institutional capacity, social inclusion, dependency syndrome, social protection awareness outreach programmes, retirement benefits coverage for workers in the informal economy, corrupt practices as a substantial barrier, the partisanship of welfare products, and an absence of social protection assets. The survey 's results were displayed and evaluated under topic categories that reflected the study's overarching themes.

8.2 Conclusions from the study

This section contains some of the key conclusions that were made by this present study.

8.2.1 Research outcomes and suggested measures

Regarding the improvement and expansion of its social safety provision, Zimbabwe is at a pivotal juncture. Zimbabwe's social protection platform used to be lauded for its extensive range of initiatives designed to satisfy the necessities of the citizenry. However, the country's ongoing industrial recession and frequent crisis situations have taken a severe impact on their ability to provide effective and extensive welfare care. There is no way for Zimbabwe to maintain its current level of social welfare spending. Other issues of government spending and developmental partnership dissipation have been ignored in favour of pursuing projects. Financial support for social protection is provided by governmental sector pensions to the tune of about 70%, while spending on social welfare has decreased considerably due to financial limitations. Social protection is still not a high

enough emphasis for the state, and significant changes are required to shift the state's emphasis.

Poor distribution and equitable issues plague Zimbabwe's social protection schemes; most social safety schemes only reach a tiny fraction of the poor, and reimbursements are often inconsistent and overlooked. Approximately 84% of the workforce is not covered by social insurance since it is only available to those working in the official industry, even though the informal sector is responsible for the circulation of thousands of dollars but contributes nothing to the government in the way of tax revenue. While many such initiatives in Zimbabwe have been around for quite some time, data on their effects and efficacy is scant. The bulk of projects' operating accomplishments have not been evaluated. There have been comprehensive effect assessments conducted on a wide range of social protection activities, and the findings have not been encouraging due to the continued inability of governments and donors to adequately support these initiatives. There is a need for more streamlining of social protection administration since the limited funds allocated to individual sectors have been distributed too thin among programmes. Substantial redundancy, dual requirements, double dipping, and overlapping have emerged because of the lack of an efficient coordinating structure for social protection programmes.

Despite repeated economic downturns and widespread crises, the social safety net has not evolved to include more responsive programme initiatives. Social protection schemes have failed miserably because they can't be quickly expanded to deal with emergencies like temporary food shortages. The GoZ still executes the same number of programmes from the beginning of nineties, notwithstanding a notable loss in governmental funding and a large fall in the Gross Domestic Product. Of great importance are deficiencies in openness and compliance, which endanger the integrity of social protection propulsion mechanisms, and hinder programmes from running as envisioned. Zimbabwe confronts a complicated policy platform, particularly considering the constrained budgetary space which social safety services currently work within. There are three key sectors which emphasis must be paid to by the government:

- The unification of several safety net initiatives into a more manageable core set of programmes with well-defined goals.
- More effort put into promoting fairness by locating and expanding on initiatives that are beneficial to the poor and address their long-term and short-term problems.
- Reducing programmes diversity and harmonizing bureaucratic procedures are two examples of ways in which we might streamline organizational capacity to boost the distribution of social safety nets.
- Retirement systems transformation in line with the public management reform plan for the total cost of salaries in the civil service.

Finding a way of incorporating the informal sector workforce to also contribute to the tax fund of the country at the same time they will also be benefitting from the social security contributory facilities. On top of the above key areas the research also made the following recommendations to be adopted by the government of Zimbabwe to register a lifelong impact as far as social protection is concerned in the country.

- The Government of Zimbabwe should plan and invest in social protection and not abdicate their responsibility to provide welfare to communities. The government needs to acknowledge and work towards strengthening the role played by the local leadership in harnessing the social capital benefits through facilitating their participation in social protection. They also need to tap external funding through their networking to overcome local resources constraints.
- Policy makers need to examine the importance of social protection and harnessing the social protection programmes as this may impact on enhancing economic development in Zimbabwe.
- An important component of the effort to propagate social protection throughout Africa has been investment by external actors in building the capacity of policymakers and practitioners from governments and agencies in understanding, designing and delivering social protection programmes and systems. Research trips, seminars, and even incorporating foreign skilled advisers inside the government departments are all examples of ways that capability has been bolstered.

This is explained by the fact that technological, non-state players are stepping in to cover crucial capacity shortfalls. The states of developing nations often lack the financial, managerial, and strategical resources to successfully oversee complex programmes, which is why it is crucial for wealthy nations to step in and back the policies of poor ones (Holmes and Lwanga-Ntale 2012: 16). Donor organisations in Africa may promote a more comprehensive social protection system by concentrating on the following three areas:

Access to services: There must be a connection between the provision of social protection and the provision of fundamental services, such as health care, education, and welfare programmes and family support programmes. Among the many facets that need to be addressed is the need for community-based evaluation of services delivering and effectiveness, as well as the need for fostering local responsibility and effective administration in delivering services. NGO participation in facilitating service delivery and fostering accountable leadership is directly relevant to this aim.

Civil society engagements: As has been highlighted in the literature, civil society is under-represented in domestic social protection issues in several African nations. Particularly, the "Africa Civil Society Forum for Social Protection" is an effort that the authorities of Zimbabwe should promote to help organize civil society. Because the ability of civil society to affect policy varies from place to place, it is critical to develop plans for lobbying the state in situations where civic society is either ineffective or non-existent. Donors' commitment in bolstering Zimbabwe's civic involvement is consistent with this aim.

Promoting economic and social rights: In Africa, transfer payments are the primary method of social safety; nevertheless, these payments are made as charity rather than in recognition of any legal entitlements or political privileges. To refocus the conversation on social protection, we need to look beyond welfare benefits at 'transformative' problems like women 's reproduction healthcare, property and land entitlement, and the privileges of migrants to social benefits. Similar work is being done by other NGOs in Sub-Saharan Africa.

8.2.2 My theorisation

Based on my findings, I theorise as follows:

- There is the potential to reduce poverty through social protection;
- Jobs must be created to reduce reliance on social protection;
- Social protection can be inadequate in circumstances of widespread poverty;
- Social protection is a tool that can deliver equity and the fulfilment of rights for children, orphans, the disabled, aged, vulnerable and other categories of people in a focused manner;
- Pay-outs from social protection can stimulate demand for local goods and services;
- Income taxes are a viable and critical avenue to ensure social protection;
- Social protection can exclude masses in the informal economy – in other words it can be exclusionary;
- Social protection presupposes the existence of apt targeting mechanisms for effectiveness;
- Social protection can assist in achieving national and international goals such as the elimination of hunger;
- Social protection can enhance people's resilience;
- Social protection cannot emerge in an evolutionary manner, it must be initiated through policy;
- Social protection represents the basic level for income security;
- Social protection can take various forms: formal and informal;
- Social protection can take many formats: small scale (individual cash transfers) to large scale (public works programmes – for example, for environmental conservation);
- Social protection involves a variety of players, namely governmental and non-governmental players;
- Social protection systems of beneficiary selection must be fair, just, consistent, and transparent;
- Social protection can enhance and reflect the level of socio-economic development;
- Social protection works as a mechanism for redistribution of national income;
- Social protection impacts the health and education outcomes of beneficiaries;
- Social protection is developmental for society;
- There are costs associated with the provision of social protection.

8.3 Research suggestions

Recommendations for further studies are included in the study.

- Additional comparative research may be needed to determine whether or if social protection has helped to reduce poverty and work on improving living standards in Zimbabwe, particularly in economically depressed areas and in other provinces.
- Given that it was primarily a qualitative multiple case study on two villages in Masvingo Province (Village Gororo in Chivi district and Village Chigwagwa in Zaka district), this research cannot be generalized beyond those specific settings. Given that quantitative surveys may accommodate bigger samples, the researcher suggests doing a mixed-methods or quantitative study to determine the scope of the examined phenomena across a wider area, such as the whole nation.

8.4 Linking research objectives and research recommendations.

8.4.1 Objective one: To assess the current state of social protection in Zimbabwe

As a result of the country's existing macroeconomic situation, Zimbabwe has significant social and economic weaknesses. The COVID-19 epidemic has exacerbated a precarious condition marked by slow economic development, frequent shortages, and escalating inequality. The nation is still striving to recover from Cyclone IDA's devastation, as well as political turmoil and an economic downturn (Jones, 2015). The deficit reduction exercise, although necessary to resolve macroeconomic inefficiencies and generate budgetary room for financing of important social safety programmes, has had unanticipated negative impacts that have exacerbated the country's already precarious financial condition. Because of this, the state was unable to improve its welfare system.

According to the World Bank, allocating US\$950 million in 2020 will not be enough to cover the cost of the full social protection burden. Well over half of Zimbabweans, according to the 2019 Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZimVAC) Report, are food deficient and in need of emergency help. This means that, despite limited funding, social protection requirements have escalated. The poor and the disadvantaged

are the most affected by these macroeconomic shocks, but the bulk of the population is feeling the effects (World Bank, 2015).

Another contributing reason is the growing urbanization and severity of poverty in Zimbabwe. 70% of the people are poor according to the 2017 PICES data (defined as below the Total Consumption Poverty Line), and 31 % are very poor (defined as below the Food Poverty Line) (ZIMSTATS, 2019). As a result, Zimbabwe is among the nations that has the highest estimates of multi-dimensional and financial disparities, at 58 % and 69 % correspondingly. To combat inequality, strengthen societies' robustness, and increase fairness, well-targeted and shock-responsive Social Protection initiatives are an essential instrument. People with impairments and other at-risk people, as well as those living in economically precarious situations, need extra support.

UNICEF's Report for (2020) indicates that overall spending for social protection in Zimbabwe at large is falling. Sponsors and Developmental Organizations are cutting down significantly. Government spending has been eroded by rising expenses and a falling currency value, and it can no longer keep up with rising demands for social security. Increasing demands are being met by diminishing actual worth of appropriations for the key social protection initiatives, such as the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM), Health Assistance, and the Harmonized Social Cash Transfer (HSCT). In 2020, social protection support from Developmental Partners is expected to fall to US\$19 million, down from US\$22 million in 2019. It's a decrease from 2019's 3% to 2020's 2% of overall Development Partner Support to Zimbabwe. Food Deficit Mitigation (FDM) has been given more funding in previous years, which is noteworthy given the nation 's history of crop failure as well as other climate catastrophes. Considering the present financing problems, and with the COVID-19 epidemic complicating matters, expanding the reach of these programmes will be challenging. The UNICEF Report (2020) states that Zimbabwe has one of the weakest reimbursement rates for social protection initiatives in all Sub-Saharan Africa, at only 11%.

Notwithstanding of the documented diminution of social protection in 2020, expenditure has climbed considerably in comparison to the year preceding 2017. In numerical measures, anticipated public social protection investment for 2020 is US\$222 million up

from US\$48.8 million in 2019 (UNICEF, 2019). (UNICEF, 2019). This is comparable to an increase from 2019's spending of \$45.7 million to 2020's spending of \$206 million. Social protection expenditure averaged \$11.6 million in fact, or \$12 million nominally, between 2014 and 2018 (UNICEF, 2020). The persistent shortages, the devastation wrought by Cyclone Idai, and the worsening socioeconomic climate have all contributed to a rise in social instabilities, necessitating higher levels of social investment. Social protection expenditure will make up 7.3% of the entire expenditure in 2020, up from 6% this year. Furthermore, a proportion of GDP, Social Protection expenditure in 2020 is predicted at 1.2% up from 0.7% in 2019. This is due mostly to the free sanitary equipment program (US\$9.3 million) and the school meals program (US\$47.9 million) that were both recently implemented by the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education as forms of social protection (ZIMSTATS, 2019).

Whilst it is obviously insufficient, public expenditure on all the major social assistance programmes has grown. From an annualized \$4 million in 2015–2017, the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) will have a \$20 million budget in 2020. Also, the Harmonized Social Cash Transfer (HSCT) will be 23 times larger in 2020 than it was in 2017 (at \$1 million) (Atchison and Alexander Forbes, 2019). The cabinet has boosted funding for the Food Deficit Mitigation Initiative from US\$200,000 in 2014 to US\$47 million in 2020 in response to the reoccurring disasters in recent years, which have had a severe effect on food production. The magnitude of pay reduction is reflected in the very low employment expenses of 0.5% of overall expenditure. The employment cost portion of the Social Protection Budget has decreased from 10% in 2018 to 5% in 2020. (ZIMSTATS, 2019). As a consequence, the other budget line items may not be executed to their full potential, which will have a major impact on the implementation of the programmes. The government must find a way to cut costs without demoralizing its workforce that is responsible for providing essential welfare care.

Zimbabwe barely allocates 1.2% of its GDP to non-contributory social assistance packages, making it difficult to assess the effectiveness of state, NGO, and private sector contributions to efforts to reduce poverty in the study region. When contrasted to our neighbour South Africa, public spending on social protection in Zimbabwe is minimal,

(GoZ and UNICEF, 2018). In comparison to other upper middle-income nations, South Africa's social support systems is expensive, accounting for 3.3% of GDP and 15.4% of total government expenditure (UMICs) (Seeking, 2015). South Africa invests 5 times as much as its counterparts on social benefits, with 51% going to the Aged Care Allowance, even though the research acknowledges that social pensioners are boosted to accommodate for the inadequate distribution of the scheme of contributory pensions in South Africa (Brockhoff, 2019). South Africa's delivery of social handouts attempts to do the same, with 38% of expenditure going toward Child Support Programmes and other specialized payments like the Care Dependency Grant and the Foster Child Payment. According to Altman et al. (2018), the program has been a crucial government initiative and policy reaction in the post-apartheid period due to high joblessness levels and restricted accessibility to joblessness compensation for those not in formal employment. Together, proportional taxes and targeted social expenditure on the poor serve to reduce income disparity under this arrangement.

Zimbabwe should thrive to expand subsidies to the standards of its regional counterparts. Out of the US\$222 million Social Protection budget in Zimbabwe in 2018, 98% is intended for social payments (Atchison and Alexander, (2019). (2019). The welfare benefits expenditure as a proportion of the overall revenue has grown considerably comparable to 2018. The entire administrative funding allotted employment and operations and maintenance expenses for providing the social protection is minimal and inadequate for efficient execution of social protection initiatives in the nation. At 1.1% of the overall social protection budget, the administrative spending plan looks too low to enable the efficient functioning of the numerous social assistance programmes (Atchison and Alexander, 2019). (Atchison and Alexander, 2019).

8.4.2 Objective two: To develop a new social protection framework for the country.

The Social Protection Sector Review (2017) suggests that Zimbabwe's National Social Protection Policy Framework (NSPPF), a comprehensive formulation for safety nets, ought to be refocused and linked to the country's developing social protection requirements. As a result, improving access to social protection programmes depends on

a robust organizational and regulatory underpinning. So, the authorities must make completing the Disability Policy and other important legal frameworks a top priority (National Authority Social Security Agency (NSSA), 2015). Twenty-one percent (or \$47 million) of the Social Protection funding went into the Food Deficit Mitigation (FDM) scheme (ZIMSTATS, 2020). As of 2020, the MoPSLSW plans to have fed over a million individuals. The School Feeding Service underneath the MoPSE was granted US\$48 million, which equals 22% of overall social protection Expenditures. Approximately 23% of the overall social protection budget will be allocated to farm production for poor and disadvantaged families in the 2020/2021 planting season (Government of Zimbabwe, 2018).

To further protect at-risk populations, the government wants to increase HSCT coverage from the existing 23 districts to 33 districts by 2020. Spending on HSCT was 11% (or \$23.3 million) of the total (World Food Program, 2016). The districts that will not be prioritized under the HSCT will remain to be aided under the Public Assistance Programme. The existing social protection system must be improved so that it will not leave out other districts who are as much in need of social help. The National Framework must be comprehensive consequently the state should ramp up its financial resources to properly accommodate for their disadvantaged people.

The funding for the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) enhanced from US\$16 million in 2019 to US\$20.9 million in 2020, a 12 percent increase (Mutasa, 2015). The government 's goal is to increase the number of people served by the programme from the current 415,000 to 700,000 by the year 2020. (ZIMSTATS, 2020). There is a pressing need to harmonize the targeting for the two initiatives to achieve optimum relevance and benefits to the disadvantaged with the introduction of free basic education under the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education. To avoid unnecessary repetition, the budgeting calls for the Management Information System to be implemented as soon as possible.

Decent Work Programme (DWP) (US\$14 million), sanitary wear (US\$9.3 million), support to disabled persons (US\$0.3 million), support to Government social protection institutions (US\$2.5 million), self-sustaining livelihoods (US\$2.3 million), health assistance through

the Assisted Medical Treatment Orders (AMTO) (US\$1.9 million), Social Protection MIS (US\$0.5 million), and Child Protection MIS (US\$0.1 million) are all allocated funds in the 2020 budget (UNICEF, 2020). The inadequacies of the country's social protection system persist notwithstanding the country's efforts to address the issue. To provide a comprehensive and unified social protection systems, the government must engage in activities to solicit prospective contributors and engage the business sector as a collaborator.

8.4.3 Social protection sector financing

According to the American Institutes for Research (2018), the national government will provide 93% (or US\$222 million) of the total US\$239 million required to fund Social Protection in 2020. When contrasted to the years before to 2017, when governmental funding only accounted for around 32% of overall social protection funding, this figure has climbed significantly. Although it is encouraging to see an improvement in budgetary funding, it is not nearly enough to meet the expanding demands for social protection. In 2020, the World Bank forecasts that \$US950,000,000 would be needed to fund the different social assistance programmes. If Zimbabwe is going to be able to provide for its citizens' necessities, the national budget must be expanded. The state's primary objective should be to provide social services to all the residents in need, not just a select few.

There has been a dramatic decrease in funding from development partners since 2017. Donors' money has always been a major factor in the social protection sector's expenditure, accounting for an average of 67% of the sector's total budget from 2015-2017. (UNICEF, 2020). Donor funding have been falling since the beginning of 2018, and Development Partners have been pushing for a larger role for the government in the industry. Financing from Development Partners is declining, although it is still an important portion of the sector's overall funding. The accompanying immediate and long-term measures should be taken considering the results of this study:

Intervention Prioritization: In the present situation, resources are being dispersed too thinly across too many programmes, which is both unsustainable and inefficient. Financial constraints mean that the authorities must prioritize spending from the Exchequer on

high-impact social protection programmes like pension plans, Basic Education Assistance Module monies, and the Children's Protection Fund.

Keeping the HSCT on track: For Zimbabwe, the HSCT has the greatest potential to grow and be highlighted as the primary mechanism for social safety nets. Assessments of cash transfer programmes, such as the HSCT, provide the greatest indications of program success. Fixing the HSCT so that it once again reaches all the government's regions and most disadvantaged residents is an urgent matter.

Programmes for social security and medical care in Zimbabwe need to be evaluated by the government: Throughout the three primary pensions systems, the assessment underlines the unsustainable nature of social insurance spending. Given the huge finance commitments implicated, more study would be valuable, for instance to establish the potential for revising fundamental design characteristics of key projects, which is outside the scope of this analysis. The public administration's reform of the civil service salary budget should serve as a reference point for the accuracy of this study.

Governments need to work with non-governmental organizations (NGOs), known as "Development Partners: Since 2010, money for social protection from development partners has been on a declining trajectory, falling from almost 84% of total spending to 59% in 2015. (Jones, 2015). The lack of government funding pledges has made development partners wary about fully funding initiatives. Moreover, it's possible that multilateral development funds have migrated slightly from social safety nets to emergency concerns, such as the El Nino and Idai cyclones. To get support for the transformation programme in the long run, it is important to include key stakeholders in discussions on the near-term posture of social protection. Despite the limited resources, foreign involvement is nevertheless highly valued. However, it is important not to place too much stock in foreign aid since it is not guaranteed to last and may not apply on a national scale.

To improve accountability and transparency, the government must take the following steps: The current lack of openness and responsibility in social protection delivery systems endangers the legitimacy of these mechanisms and prevents

programmes from functioning as intended. There is an immediate need for proof that interventions are being watched and protected for their intended functions. Short-term, programmes may guarantee the successful execution of measures at the implementation level, such as inspections and functional evaluations, and evaluate whether measures at the beneficiary's threshold may be implemented or enhanced, such as grievance redress procedures, citizens councils, and rankings. Initiatives in countries like Argentina, Somalia, and Pakistan have yielded valuable international experience that might influence such initiatives.

The government should re-evaluate its long-term goals and the way it allocates resources: Identifying and prioritizing key goals and constituents is crucial to the reform agenda's longer-term focus. This analysis sheds information on the broader risk and vulnerabilities profile of Zimbabwe's existing social safety systems. Children, youngsters who are currently unemployed, and those who are temporarily food insecure appear to be suffering the greatest difficulties. The existing social safety net initiatives try to fix a lot of different things with a variety of initiatives that are getting less and less funding. Even if implemented, the National Social Protection policy does not make it obvious how this problem would be solved. A more refined program mix requires more discerning programming choices. The eventual reduction of funding for fee exemptions and agricultural input programmes will play a significant role in these choices. If properly administered, programmes like fee exemptions and agricultural input schemes may help the country's disadvantaged majority and those without steady employment and hence no resources to provide for their families to get by. Since agricultural production is the primary source of income for most people in Zimbabwe, and since most people in rural areas only farm for themselves, providing farmers with access to essential inputs like seeds and fertilizer would go a long way toward alleviating starvation and, by extension, reducing insecurity and deprivation.

Streamlining social protection sector cooperation and aid: The administration of social security is disjointed and requires additional streamlining. Consolidating certain cash handouts under the HSCT and implementing the Social Transfers Policy Framework are both vital steps toward creating a more unified social welfare system. Furthermore,

there is a lack of enough funding to meet capacity needs, and obligations for the provision of social protection are stretched out across governments. Consequently, I propose that the current regime of Zimbabwe think about the ideal range of goals and mix of programmes for social protection; this conversation should also include the organisational cooperative relationships that will help these efforts succeed, and this can be done most efficiently if it starts at the state level and trickles down to the provincial and district ones.

Data and information management inside the government should be standardized:

Application, remittance, reimbursement, and data processing for each program are handled independently. One of the most pressing issues is the creation of a unified social register for all MPSLSW courses, which would centralize data and knowledge administration. A lack of a central social registration makes it difficult to get information about individual beneficiaries. Poor data quality hinders accountability and transparency. The MPSLSW began developing a unified MIS in 2015 with funding from the World Bank (World Bank, 2015). To improve programme documentation and oversight, this worthwhile effort requires swift backing and completion. The absence of critical documentation to evaluate program efficacy and outcomes reflects the difficulty in conducting this evaluation due to the lack of systematized and accessible information. To evaluate program execution, make necessary adjustments, and rally support from various stakeholders' groupings as Zimbabwe begins a new chapter of change, it will be essential to promote facts and share knowledge. To minimize problems like double-dipping, duplication, and non-existent recipients, a rigorous surveillance and assessment structure will need to be implemented. To better inform policy and programmes decisions, constant data collection is required.

As soon as possible, social protection measures should be put into action to help those in need and prevent the circumstance from becoming any worse. There should be no delay in getting food and cash to the neediest families. Given the rise in vulnerable persons because of this tragedy, there is a need for organizational construction and upgrading; for instance, the Department of Social Welfare need greater human, financial, and other assets to implement successful social protection services. Human rights concepts should inform the design and execution of social protection programmes, which

in turn should adhere to social protection principles such as adaptability, long-term viability, and an integrated approach. After finishing this study, the researcher made the accompanying suggestions to the government of Zimbabwe and other organizations providing social protection. They government should:

Finding a solution to the final mile dilemma in ending severe poverty: Data reveals that the nation is not spending enough on social safety to reduce severe deprivation. As a result, this money isn't going to the people who need it most, and a lot of it is leaking out to the well-off. If you want to reduce poverty and inequalities, you probably shouldn't try to achieve flawless distribution of remittances. Instead, you should increase expenditure and focus on minimizing exemption mistakes, even if that means accepting some inclusion mistakes.

Strengthening social insurance in a context of high informality: The general population is not well covered by social insurance programmes since these programmes are normally available to only those who are technically employed. Since most people would still be working in agriculture and other forms of casual occupation in 50 years, the country will have to adjust its social insurance programmes accordingly. If this is not done, many people will be at risk of poverty in the case of a sudden loss of income or if they become unable to work.

Adjusting public assistance programmes for increased urbanization: Zimbabwe, like the rest of Africa, will see a rise in urban inhabitants, thus it is wise for the country to be ready with urban-specific social protection policies. Extending social protection to urban areas would need a far greater knowledge of the requirements of city-dwellers, particularly those dwelling in squatter settlements. Rather than focusing mostly on rural regions, as they have in the past, social protection administrators should now prioritize metropolitan areas.

Resilience to climate change: African livelihoods are under severe, ever-increasing danger from climate change. Not only may social protection programmes assist people in weathering a climate-related shocks, but they can also aid families and societies in adapting to and mitigating the consequences of climate change.

It is imperative that the state create a unified system of social protection, which includes welfare, healthcare, and employment programmes: To provide lifelong protection, the government must determine the interdependencies among the various forms of social insurance. Assimilating social protection into wider nationwide development schemes and techniques for accomplishing the Sustainable Development Goals and the desired outcomes of Agenda 2063 will allow for greater cooperation throughout the industry and the exploitation of the fiscal multiplier consequences that are possible because of social protection.

Maintain sufficient funding for social protection while balancing fiscal and social policy goals plans for domestic resource mobilization should prioritize increases in direct taxes; measures to promote conformity must address not just indigenous citizens but also global corporations and non-governmental organizations. To guarantee that the fiscal system is favourable to the poor, the authorities should evaluate the effects of taxes and transfers on poverty and inequality and make necessary adjustments, such as eliminating or reducing nutrition and energy assistance to free up funds for social safety programmes. The African Union estimates that yearly expenditure needs more than quadruple throughout the continent to 5% of GDP for social security to reach its promise. The need for internal resources mobilisation is substantial; the poor must not be forced to bear an unfair share of this cost. The federal government should make a strong commitment to becoming a leader in the development and rollout of social safety net initiatives.

To safeguard the expanding unofficial working population, those responsible for implementing social protection policies should investigate introducing discounted or corresponding commitments from the government to stimulate engagement in social insurance agreements, and they should also expand creative and versatile social health coverage options. To guarantee that investments in financed agreements earn profits and are safeguarded against market volatility, it is necessary to create a favourable environment in financial and capital markets. To increase participation from the informal sector, it is important to leverage labor groups via cooperatives and formal firms that employ significant numbers of informal employees.

8.5 Proposed social protection Framework for the Government of Zimbabwe

The envisaged National Social Protection Strategy Framework for Zimbabwe characterizes social protection as a series of measures whose goals are to minimize socioeconomic financial burden and vulnerabilities, and to relieve hardship and inequality. These measures are intended to work together as a whole to improve conditions for the world's most disadvantaged people by increasing their access to resources, resistance to adversity, and opportunity. Like in most similar nations, Zimbabwe's government provides funding for things like social safety nets (SSNs), social insurance, and employment and income support programmes and initiatives.

Formerly a leader in coverage and other metrics, Zimbabwe's social safety system has been weakened by previous catastrophes and systemic issues (Jackson and Gibson, 2021). Zimbabwe presently devotes over 0.5 percent of its GDP to programmes that may be classified as social protection, but most of these funds are not directed toward helping the country's poor (ILO, 2021). Multilateral development finance is crucial to programmes that help the poor and disadvantaged, but it has been decreasing over the last several years. Due to insufficient harmonization of procedures and collaboration amongst government partners, even well-targeted initiatives sometimes have substantial administrative expenses.

In Zimbabwe, most of the money spent on social protection goes to those with more means. A large 67 percent of social security spending is committed to public sector retirement, that supports only 1.3 percent of the population (World Bank, 2021). Only a tiny fraction of Zimbabwe's poor is served by the country's fundamental social safety net services, which have limited and irregular prevalence. Weak targeted methods and a lack of data on the success of most initiatives hinder attempts to improve services for the poor. This is according to research by (Brockhoff, 2019). The Harmonized Social Cash Transfer System (HSCT) stands out because of the explicit processes it uses to identifying recipients, such as households and intermediary welfare benefits, and the stringent qualification standards it enforces.

It is clear from the results of this study that the government lacks the resources necessary to implement a comprehensive social protection scheme, much alone to effectively

oversee and assess existing initiatives. Governments have not carefully examined most social protection programmes, mainly owing to low money, inadequate personnel capabilities, and inadequately connected information systems. The Harmonized Social Cash Transfer (HSCT) is an exception, with positive effects on earnings, food security, happiness, and agricultural assets (ZIMSTATS, 2020).

8.5.1 An overview of social protection in Zimbabwe 2021

Jackson and Gibson (2021) attribute that notwithstanding widespread impoverishment, just 5% of the country's population is enrolled in at least one kind of social protection. There is a significant gap between what is spent and what is covered when it comes to social protection in Zimbabwe. Women and men in the informal economy are denied access to the same levels of social security, including healthy working conditions, medical care, retirement compensation, and maternal leave, respectively. Those tasked with social protection programmes planning and implementation encounter significant difficulties in investing the given resources, and poor prioritizing. As a result, certain groups inside metropolitan areas, such as low-income families in which teenagers act as primary breadwinners, continue to be overlooked by present social security programmes, which are heavily weighted towards (Newton, 2016).

Inflation has a detrimental effect on government financing, which has not kept pace with rising demands for social services. Residents of Zimbabwe coming from neighbouring nations typically lack resources and possessions, necessitating temporary social security help while they settle in and recover from shock (International Labour Organization (ILO), 2021). This scenario has been aggravated by the COVID-19 epidemic. Since the start of the COVID-19 outbreak, it is anticipated that approximately 170,000 citizens and residents have returned to Zimbabwe. Several returnees are still financially productive; thus, they need access to work prospects in addition to the temporary social protection aid.

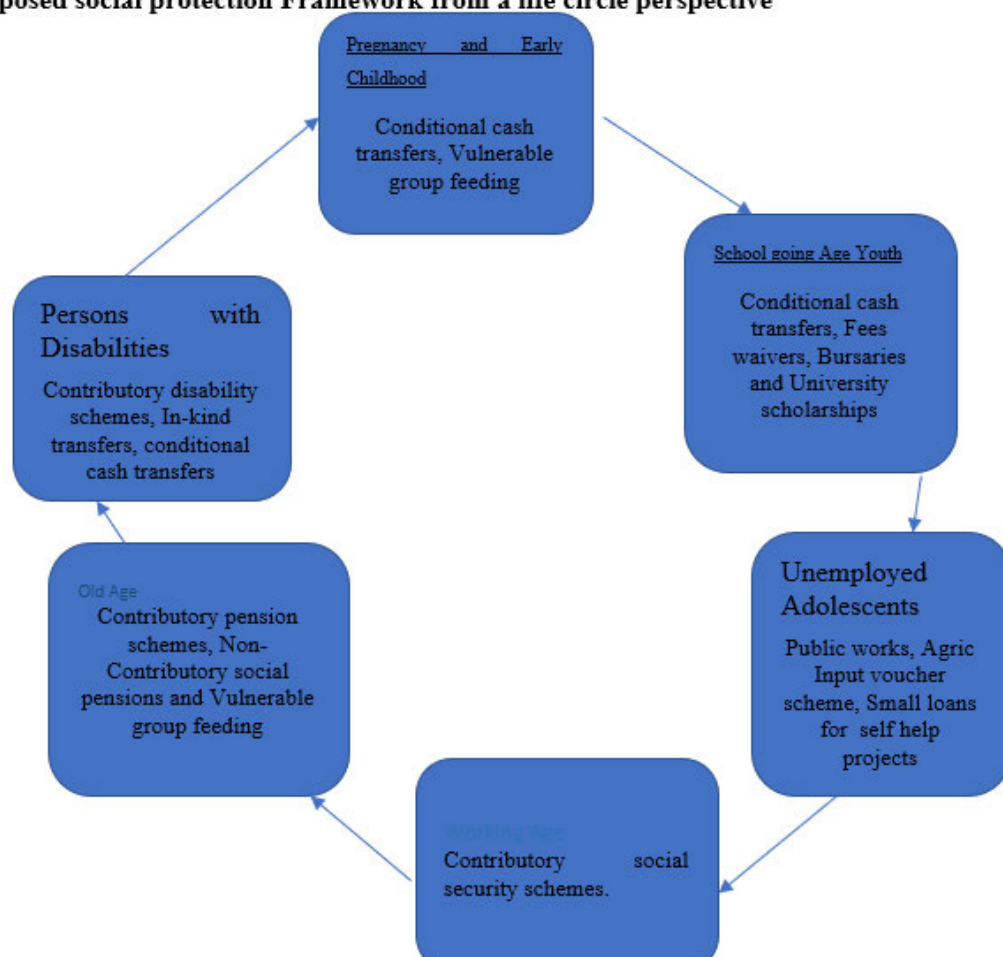
Due to a lack of harmonisation procedures and underfunded collaboration across development partners, social protection schemes also struggle from high budgetary expenses, redundancy, weak commitment and openness on targeting frameworks, and inadequate data on the effectiveness of initiatives, thereby undermining the effectiveness

of government expenditure and the possibilities for potential gains (Newton, 2016). The social protection system is hampered by a lack of institutional capability in addition to the operational inadequacies it has experienced due to varying levels of assistance from development partners.

8.5.2 The Framework

The National Social Protection Framework provides a foundation to encourage cooperation and harmonisation of programmes in the short-term, and to support a move towards a simplified, but more cohesive model of social protection in the medium- to long-term.

Proposed social protection Framework from a life circle perspective



Source: Author generated (November 2020)

8.5.3 Prospects for Zimbabwe's Welfare System

To create a society where all citizens, irrespective of race, religion, or political orientation, are guaranteed a basic level of life that is appropriate to them.

8.5.4 the key objectives of the proposed National Social Protection Framework

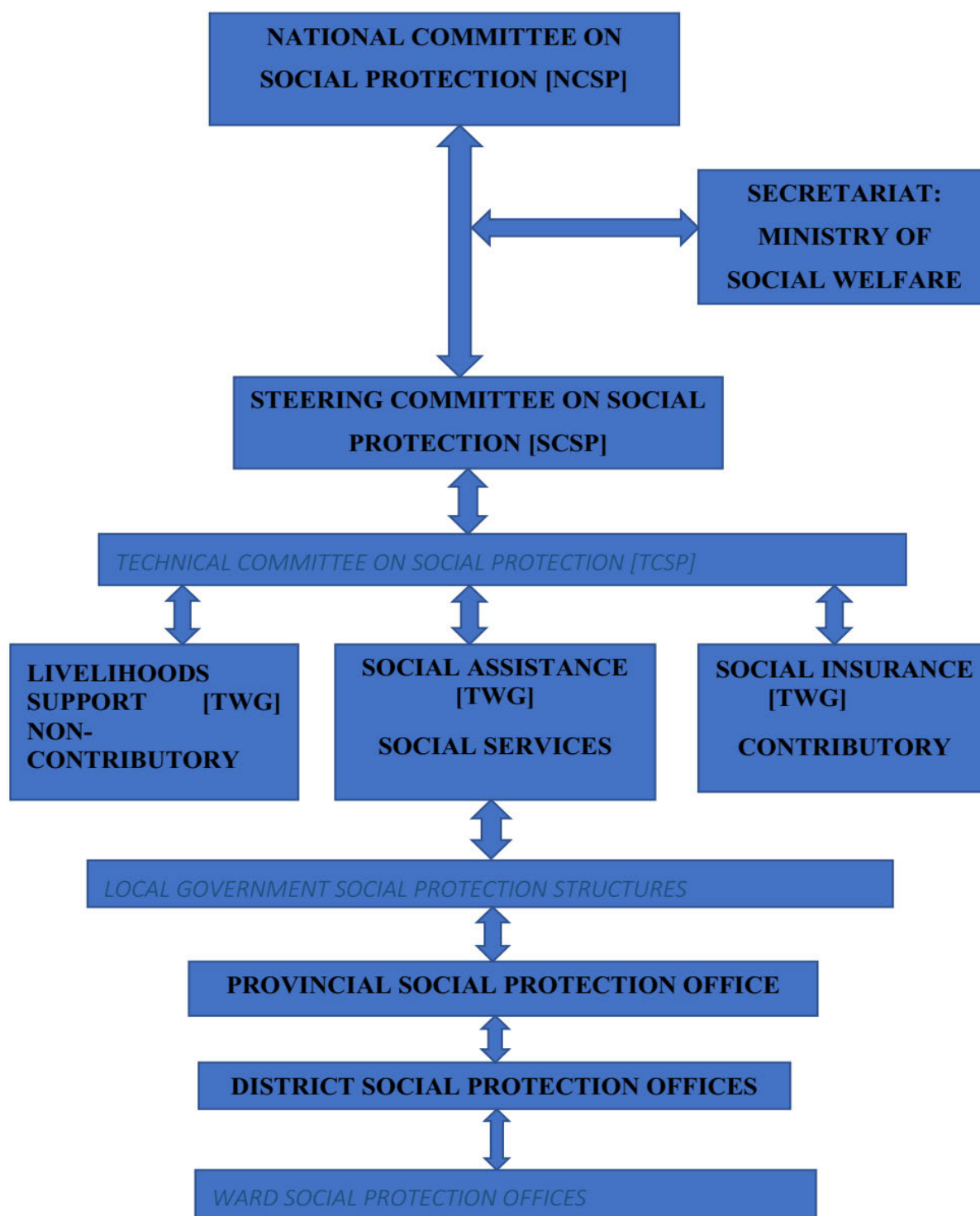
- To promote equity in society by eliminating discrimination based on age, sexuality, location, or social and economic status;
- To facilitating the harmonisation, amalgamation, and modification of pre-existing social protection programmes;
- To shape the development and rollout of innovative social safety nets;
- To establish procedures for keeping checks on and assessing social service initiatives;
- to improve openness and responsibility in the delivery of social assistance;
- To improve fiscal space for social protection; and
- To ensure the availability of unified and well executed set of social protection policies, laws, and institutions is a top priority.

8.5.5 Strategic Formulation of the proposed National Social Protection Framework

- Governmental direction;
- Homogeneity;
- Acceptance and appreciation for the good societal and historical traditions and values of the nation;
- Protracted investments in personal and institutional capacity;
- Large-scale engagement in communal decision-making;
- Multiple facets of impoverishment
- rights-based strategy;
- Child-focused welfare support;
- Gender receptivity;
- Synchronized and integrated social protection systems;
- Interconnected framework;
- Observance of global conventions and norms;
- Administration and responsibility;

- Sustainable development;
- Efficiency and effectiveness;

Proposed Institutional arrangement



8.6 National Social Protection Commission

It is presided by the Minister of social welfare and comprises numerous different ministries with responsibilities and/or initiatives pertaining to social protection, including the Ministry of Finance and economic growth, the Ministry of social welfare, the Ministry of health and child welfare, and the Ministry of agricultural production.

8.6.1 Steering Committee on Social Protection

- Presided over by the National Social Protection Secretariat
- Membership consists of:
- Permanent Secretaries of the Ministers who are NCSP members;
- Representatives from the following sectors: United Nations Agencies; The private sector; National Association for Non-Governmental Organizations (NANGO); Labour Unions and other significant civil society organizations and other hand-picked renown think-tanks within the country.

8.7 Technical Social Protection Council

Co-chaired by the Poverty Eradication Department of the Ministry of Finance. Co-chaired by the Director of Coordination of Government Business in the President's Office. Harmonised framework between and it has about four theme categories of social protection:

- Contribution-free schemes
- Contribution schemes
- Beneficial Integration
- Humanitarian Welfare
- Membership represents the Government, CSOs, and the Private sector.

8.7.1 Technical Working Groups (TWG)

The Technical Working Groups (TWGs) are intended to unify the concept and execution aspects of theme categories, including:

- Targeting
- Enrolment

- Verification
- Reimbursement procedures
- Observation and Appraisal

Every one of the above four TWGs would be established and led by a facilitator who is a full-time employee of the National Social Protection Secretariat (NSSP). The TWGs would also be accessible to any interesting parties.

8.7.2 National Secretariat of Social Protection

- Full-time, contracted personnel functioning as the administrative engine and specialized branch of the NSPF.
- Facilitates the organization of NCSP and SCSP and ensures NSPF deployment.

8.7.3 Lower-Level Administration Structures

- The framework will connect to current local government arrangements.
- Social protection will be added as a distinct topic on the agendas of current panels.
- Pursuing integration opportunities with the reformed Nutrition Committee
- This organization will be the responsibility of the Regional Administrative Secretariat (RAS) and the Council Executives.
- LGA formations will be recognized in the TCSP and TWG through the regional administrative ministries.

8.7.4 Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E)

- There will be a mechanism situated inside the national framework.
- Comprises interconnected, interrelated, and interactive policy variables, such as:
 - ϕ Productivity measures
 - ϕ Competency evaluations
 - ϕ Assessments
 - ϕ Extensive data collections

8.8 Financing

This framework proposes that the social grants in Zimbabwe should be administered by the Ministry of social welfare and should be funded by national taxes but at the same time these social grants should be means-tested; which means they should only pay out if one

receives below a certain income threshold and has been properly selected by the responsible authority within the ministry. The government of Zimbabwe therefore should make social protection a priority by setting aside a reasonable yearly social protection budget.

According to Borat and Cassim (2014), the worldwide aggregate of \$1.25 per day is the World Bank's conventional poverty threshold. The global poverty limit has been lowered to \$1.90 per day. Only five Sub-Saharan African (SSA) states had a greater aggregate contribution cost depending on the older poverty standard, whereas only three countries (Zambia, South Africa, and Botswana) surpass this barrier depending on the updated line (Bonnet and Viegelahn, 2014). Angola, Mozambique, South Africa, Zambia, and Lesotho have the largest ratio of participation of the lowest percentile to overall participation, indicating that social protection in these nations is predominantly pro-poor (Ferreira et al, 2015). There are considerable disparities in social protection expenditure throughout Africa. The regional standard of 2.8 % of GDP conceals a broad range of expenses in various nations, from peaks of over 12 and 8 % of GDP in the Seychelles and South Africa, correspondingly, to low points of less than 0.5 % of GDP in Chad, Congo, Senegal, Nigeria, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe.

A total of 0.5% of GDP allocated to social protection expenditures in Zimbabwe is insufficient for the government to wage a victorious battle against fragility and inequalities. The government should aspire to increase its social security expenditures from 0.5% of GDP to at least 10% of GDP per capita (Lavers, 2013). This low amount of investment is primarily a result of Africa's very inadequate social security provision. The Social Protection Atlas¹ of the World Bank demonstrates that just 20% of Africans get any kind of publicly supplied social protection, a considerably lower percentage than in any other area (World Bank, 2015). 80% of African families lack official social protection benefits, compared to 56% of families worldwide.

8.9 Conclusion

Without question, the level of poverty and the variety of vulnerability factors that Zimbabwe is confronting make it the country with the greatest need for social protection in the global world, in sub-Saharan Africa, and most significantly, in Zimbabwe. Most

people in the nation are poor. Africa has double the rate of fragility, a surrogate for famine, as the rest of the underdeveloped world, a trend that the world food crisis of 2008 further aggravated. Humanitarian aid and food-based safety nets have historically formed the backbone of Zimbabwe's social protection system. However, social assistance, and more particularly unconditional cash transfers, monopolize the arising social protection ideology in Africa as a whole. This is in part because generations of urgent food aid have had little measurable effect on poverty or food vulnerability, and in part because there is a desire to stimulate sluggish local economies through sustained injections of purchasing power. It is the responsibility of governments to provide for their citizens, and in certain nations, particularly in southern Africa, they have taken the initiative to do so by instituting their own welfare programmes. It is commonly held that the United Nations and its affiliated non-governmental organizations (NGOs), such as CARE, Concern, Oxfam, Save the Children, and the World Bank, are behind Zimbabwe's social protection initiative, even though these same organizations are the ones providing these vital facilities to the country's most susceptible civilians. Recent adoption of a national social protection framework by the Zimbabwean government has been met with scepticism as to its effectiveness in reducing poverty, particularly considering the lack of any significant modifications to the provision or coverage of government and voluntary organizations. Much work must be done to create a social protection system that is coherent and inclusive of the business sector, non-profit organizations, and government initiatives to combat poverty in Zimbabwe.

CHAPTER NINE: CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

9.0. Introduction

The provision of social security has become a major area of interest globally due to high level of poverty to address social injustice and advance human wellbeing (Melber and Henning, 2016). Through social and economic transformations of the world, the AU Agenda 2063 seeks to create a prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development without poverty. The Sustainable Development Goals of the UN Agenda 2030 incorporate social protection in Goal 1 which states that there must be an end to absolute poverty, which emphasizes the end of economic hardship in all its manifestations worldwide. Goal 5 emphasizes accomplishing gender equality and empowering all women and girls, and Goal 10 promotes a reduction in inequality within and among countries so that social protection is no longer an optional policy but must be adopted by all member countries (Southern African Social Protection Experts Network, 2016).

First, at a conceptual level, I offer a comprehensive framework or model for social protection, which is illustratively illustrated under the recommendations and conclusions chapter of the thesis. According to Mothobi et al. (2020), social welfare decisions are made by a minority of government representatives and policy makers without involving the citizens who should be part and parcel of this developmental agenda, the prevailing social protection model in Zimbabwe is blatantly counterproductive. To formulate social protection policy initiatives, I propose an all-inclusive strategy starting with the smallest structures in rural areas and billowing up to the national levels, which will then have the authority to take note of and implement social protection policies that will improve the lives of Zimbabweans.

My other addition to the body of knowledge is my suggestion that the Zimbabwean government and other social protection implementers consider creating social protection for the informal sectors. This is because of the existence of Zimbabwe's substantial and diversified informal sector, which serves as the primary employer in the nation. Ninety five percent of Zimbabweans, labor in the unorganized economy (BBC Reality Check News, 2017). However, according to ZimStat Labour Force Survey from 2022, which measures

the percentage of adults over 15 who are available for employment but are not employed, the unemployment rate is 11.3%.

I am suggesting that the government must roll out specific programmes targeting citizens in the informal sector so that when misfortune like death, illness or poverty befall them, they must be able to have a fall back. The Zimbabwean government, through the appropriate Ministry and other organizations, needs to re-evaluate social protection in light of the informal sector's limited access to resources like electricity, finance, land, and public services as well as its lower human capital and productivity when contrasted to the formal economy (Roll, et al, 2020). People who operate in the informal economy are typically more vulnerable to short-term shocks, as well as the more severe effects of exogenous risk such as acute short-term crises like disease and covariate shocks such as chronic or broad shocks impacting whole communities (Jarden, et al, 2018). These risks are made worse by the fact that these individuals typically have few access points to official financial institutions or risk management tools.

I also contribute to the growth of knowledge among decision-makers, the government, and other non-profit organizations so that they can truly address the issue of inadequate social protection in all its manifestations. The present vulnerability condition identified by (Loayza and Norman, 2018), who claimed that the extremely poor population rose from 30% in 2017 to 38% in 2019, despite several social protection activities on the ground, is proof of the insufficiency of social protection in Zimbabwe. Based on the Food Poverty Line of US\$29.80 per person per month, the percentage of persons who are exceedingly poor grew significantly from 4.5 million in 2017 to 6 million in 2019. An overwhelming 90% of the Zimbabwean population in rural regions suffers from extreme poverty, and it has recently become more prominent in urban areas because of employment and revenue shortages brought on by the socioeconomic slump, which was subsequently worsened by the COVID-19 issue. Zimbabwe, nevertheless, spends much less on social protection than the regional average of 1.5% of GDP for Sub-Saharan Africa, at just 0.4% of GDP (Jarden, et al, 2018). To lessen vulnerability and hardship among the poorest, social protection expenditure must be raised to at least the level of regional comparators.

In the province and throughout Zimbabwe, I argue that social protection must be inclusive. The movement, administration, and delivery of welfare to the intended beneficiaries, who are located at the grassroots level, are all hampered by national control of the funds, so a proper decentralized provincial framework that is citizen-formulated consent is required to prevent these amenities from being simply imposed on the populace. A significant issue is the involvement of politicians in the administration of social security programmes, which endangers the impartiality of beneficiary selection and equitable distribution. Politicians always choose sides and are inherently prejudiced toward one political party, which disadvantages the intended welfare recipients.

According to this study, the administrative budget for the Ministry of Public Service Labour and Social Welfare (MoPSLSW), which covers employment costs and social protection operations, is only 5%, which is way too little to guarantee efficient synchronization and seamless operationalization of social protection programmes. To promote the delivery of social protection that is efficient and goal-oriented, the government should think about allocating additional resources to the coordination and management of social protection programmes. In fact, the economy's decade-long poor productivity has had a deleterious repercussions on the delivery of social protection amenities in Zimbabwe; as a result, the social protection industry is facing substantial hurdles, including restricted monetary space to fund programmes, segmentation, and a lack of collaboration by the MoPSLSW, weak delivery systems, poor monitoring and accountability systems for resources allocated toward social protection, and insufficient capabilities to fully incorporate social protection policies.

Therefore, I contend that the country will not likely be able to accomplish the Policy's stated objectives, which encompass, among other things, resolving the marginalization and discrimination of people with impairments, addressing the food insecurity in poor communities, providing a workable educational waiver to Zimbabwe's school-age population, and providing a productive, quality healthcare delivery system. The government of Zimbabwe must enhance public spending on social protection from 2% to the proportion needed to appropriately provide benefits for the nation's most disadvantaged populations to ensure an inclusive social protection delivery.

The number of exceedingly poor people multiplied by 33% from 4.5 million in 2017 to 6 million in 2019, which has also been made worse by socio-political difficulties and natural crises like the global COVID-19 Pandemic and Cyclone Idai, which severely damaged human livelihoods in part of Manicaland Province. Despite significant increases in social protection expenditure over the last five years in Zimbabwe, they are still insufficient. The adoption of the Education Amendment Act in 2019 has increased social protection spending for kids under the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) to support the Free Basic Education program, the Sanitary Wear Program, and examination fee waivers, which has worsened the inadequacy situation (MoPSLSW, 2018). In 2021, 55% of the entire non-contributory social protection budget went toward social protection for the education sector, which includes BEAM and tuition payments under Free Basic Education, however the requirement for BEAM programmes has not yet been met.

I thus proposed the following proposals to be additionally taken into consideration by the government of Zimbabwe as a solution to solve the issue of social protection inadequacy:

- The government must work on enhancing coverage of social protection programmes that will be critical in reducing poverty, deprivation, and in bolstering equity, social inclusion, and access to basic social services.
- The Government of Zimbabwe should strive to increase social protection spending both contributory and non-contributory to at least reach the levels of regional comparator countries.
- There is a strong need to further rationalize existing social assistance programmes to better integrate them and reduce duplication of efforts.
- Since the informal sector constitutes the highest numbers of the employable age group, the government must formulate policies that will also include social protection for the informal sector people so that after their retirement because of old age or sickness they will also have some fall-back.
- Masvingo province is annually affected by poor rainfall pattern which always leaves most of the districts vulnerable for example Chivi, Zaka, Mwenezi, Chiredzi, Gutu, Bikita and Masvingo District. The province falls in the natural regions 4 and 5 therefore the practicing of agriculture for personal and home consumption is

seriously affected by an unfavourable and inadequate rains which characterise this region. NGOs and other voluntary organizations must be brought in and given the mandate to deliver welfare to the need communities apolitically, they should be part and parcel of the overall development vehicle and hence should be fully consulted for the formulation of a provincial social protection framework.

Because foreign funding for social protection in Zimbabwe has considerably decreased from US\$18 million in 2020 to US\$6 million in 2021, further measures must be made to mobilize local resources. The lack of adequate social protection services is also made worse by foreign funding of the social protection system, and the only option to revive it is to increase domestic savings by enlisting the cooperation of other financial institutions. Despite a decline in support from development partners, the government itself must assume financial responsibilities by making social protection budget a priority and allocating a bigger amount of cash. To continue maximizing the potential of external financing for the growth of the social protection sector, it is essential to address the concerns of the Development Partners, including enhancing public financial management and expanding government counterpart financing.

9.1 Conclusion

The knowledge contribution in this research particularly addresses several issues but the major contribution is the inadequacy of social protection in Zimbabwe. Despite the activities offered by other players outside of the government, there is still vast shortage of social protection in the country.

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Appendices A: Ethics Clearance



03 August 2018

Mr Joseph Daitai (214567876)
School of Built Environment & Development Studies
Howard College Campus

Dear Mr Daitai,

Protocol reference number: HSS/0177/018D

Project Title: Poverty, vulnerability and social protection in Zimbabwe: Towards the development of a social protection framework

Approval Notification – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 24 April 2018, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Professor Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/ms

Cc Supervisor: Professor Oliver Mtapuri
Cc Academic Leader Research:
Cc School Administrator: Ms Angeline Msomi

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Professor Shenuka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3587/8350/4557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4609 Email: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za / snymann@ukzn.ac.za / mohung@ukzn.ac.za

Website: www.ukzn.ac.za

1910 - 2010
100 YEARS OF ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE

Founding Campuses: Edgewood Howard College Medical School Pietermaritzburg Westville

Appendices: Application for ethics approval

UKZN HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (HSSREC)

APPLICATION FOR ETHICS APPROVAL For research with human participants

INFORMED CONSENT

Zuva: 28/08/17

Adiwa.....

Zita rangu ndi Joseph Daitai, ndirimudzidzi we PhD pa chikoro che Built Environment and Development Studies pa University of KwaZulu Natal (Student Number: 214567876). Nhare dzangu uye kero:

- Nharembozha : +263-773897620
 - Dandemutande: joedaitai@gmail.com
 - Kero: Stand No 20547, Mhizha Street, Rujeko, Masvingo
- Murairidzi wangu ndiMuzvinafundo Oliver Mutapuri vanobatika pa:

- Chikoro che Built Environment and Development Studies
- Dandemutandel: mtapurio@ukzn.ac.za
- Nhare: 031 260 1031

Munokumbirwa kuva umwe wevachabatidza pa chironzwa chetsvakurudzo yekuchikoro kwangu iyo inotarisa maererano nevinhu vitatu zvinoti: Nhamo dzinosanganidzwa nadzo navanhu varimunharaunda dzenyu, zvimiro zvinosakisa kuti vanhu vange vachibatwa nechimiro chenhamo dzakasiyana-siyana uye tsvagurudzo iyi inozotarisa zvirongwa zvehurumende kana mabazi akazvimirira oga mukuedza kubatsira vanhu varimuzvimiro izvi venhamo. Chikamu chekupedzisira chechidzido ichi chinozotsvaka kuvumba nheyo yezvirongwa izvi zvinofambiswa nehurumende mukuedza kubatsira zvizvaga zvemuZimbabwe.

Pamwe chete tinotarisa kuva nevanhu mazana maviri muchironzwa ichi kureva kuti makumi mashanu kubva mubhuku roga-roga kana kuti Sabhuku oga-oga, maSabhuku maviri muDunhu rokwaChivi uye maSabhuku maviri mudunhu reZaka. Tsvagurudzo iyi ichanyanya kunangana nevanhu varimunzvimbo idzi dzataugwa vanezvavarikuitigwa neHurumende yeZimbabwe kana kuti ma Donors kubatsira upenyu hwavo kuti vabude muzvimiro zvenhamo.

Tichange tichizokuvhunzai mibvunzo uye imwiwo muchange muchitibatsira nehumbowo hwezvese zvinenge zvichiitika munharaunda menyu zvakasiyana-siyana zvinobatsira vagary venzvimbo yenyu zvakaita sokubhadharigwa mari yechikoro, kupiwa chikafu kana mari, nezvimwe zvakawanda. Tinotarisa kunge tapedza panopera mwedzi mishanu kana mitanhatu (Ndira 2017 kusvika Chikunguru 2017). Chirongwa ichi hachina hacho mari yatinokupai kusara kweyekufonesa muchitipa zvamunenge mawana. Pasvondo tichakupai dhora rimwe chete pamunenge mafona. Tichazenge tichikupai zvimwiwa kana tikange taita nguva tinemwi tichiita hurukuro dzedu.

Chirongwa ichi chinogona kukonzera kuti murangarire nguva isingafadzi yamunogona kunge makambosangana nayo maererana nenguva dzakaoma dzaiva nehamo uye kushushikana muupenyu hwenyu dzamakambosangana nadzo. Chirongwa ichi hachina hacho pundutso kwamuri ingawanikwa chiriporipocho. Asi nekufamba kwenguva kana chapera zvinenge zvabuda zvichaendeswa kunevese vanemasimba ekuzadzikisa kurudziro inenge yabuda. Zvichida sedunhu ndipo pamungazowanawo pundutso ipapo.

Zvichabuda zvichashambadziwa nenzira dzakasiyana siyana asi zita renyu harisikuzotaurwa. Saka musatya henyu kupinda muchirongwa ichi makasununguka. Makasunungukazve kubatidza muchirongwa ichi murikunze henyu kuburidza nekungotipawo henyu humbowo panezvinenge zvichiitika pamadiro enyu uye kutibatanidza neavo vanogona kutibatsira neruzivo rwunobatsira muchirongwa chedu. Zvose zvatichashandisa muchirongwa chino zvichachengetedzwa pakahwanda asi zvozoparadzwa hazvo pamashure pemakore anosvika mashanu.

Chirongwa ichi chakaongororwa nevakuru vakuru vechikoro chedu che UKZN. Number yemvumo yedu inoti.....

Kana kurikuti tinenge tavakuita zvamusinganzwisisi muchirongwa chedu ichi, makasununguka kuridzira vakuru vechikoro pa:

Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Administration
Research Office, Howard Campus
KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa
Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Makasununguka kubuda muchirongwa ichi kana ipi zvayo nguva asi munokumbirwa kutizivisa pachinenguva nenhare kana tsamba. Kana mukange mave kuita zvevatongerwo enyika uye kuvhiringidza vamwe hatizokwanisi kuramba tichifamba nemwi muchirongwa ichi.

CONSENT

Ini ndaziviswa zvakakwana
nezvechirongwa ichi chinemusoro wenyaya unoti: **Poverty, Vulnerability and
Social Protection in Zimbabwe: Towards the development of a social
protection framework**
na

Ndanzwisisa donzvo rechirongwa ichi.

Ndapihwa mukana wekubvunza zvandinoda maererano nechirongwa ichi uye ndagutsikana.

Ndinovimbisa kuti ndinogona hangu kubuda muchirongwa pandinodira uye handitarisiri kubhadharwa .

Ndavimbiswa kuti ndichabatsira kana ndikaita dambudziko kuburikidza nekubatidza muchirongwa ichi.

Kana ndaita zvimwe zvandingada kuziva maererano nezvechirongwa ichi ndapihwa kero uye foni dzemudzidzi zvinoti:

- Nharembozha +263-773897620
- Dandemutande: joedaitai@gmail.com
- Kero: Stand No 20547, Mhizha Street, Rujeko, Masvingo

Kana ndaita dambudziko nemudzidzi ndinogona kubata mukuru wemudzidzi, Muzvinafundo Oliver Mutapuri pa:

- Chikoro che Built Environment and Development Studies
- Dandemutandel: mtapurio@ukzn.ac.za
- Nhare: 031 260 1031

Kana kuti or Vakuru vakuru vechikoro ve UKZN Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, contact details as follows:

Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Administration
Research Office, Howard Campus
KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa
Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Zvimwezve zvinogona kubatsira:

Ndabvuma kuita zvinotevera:

Kutapwa manzwi panhaurirano	YES / NO
Kutapwa manzwi panhaurirano nekutorwa mifananidzo	YES / NO
Kushandiswa kwemifananidzo yangu muchirongwa ichi	YES / NO

Siginecha yemudzidzi

Zuva

**Siginecha yemupupuri
(Panogoneka)**

Zuva

**Siginecha yemuturikiri
(Panogoneka)**

Zuva

Appendices C: Informed consent letter

Social Sciences, College of Humanities,
University of KwaZulu-Natal,
Howard Campus

Dear Participant

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

My name is **DAITAI JOSEPH**; I am a Social Science PhD candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard campus, South Africa. I am interested in studying the following topic: Poverty, Vulnerability and Social Protection in Zimbabwe: Towards the development of a social protection framework. I am particularly interested in studying cases in Zaka District and Chivi District both of Masvingo Province. As a village head, you are one of my case studies. To gather the information, I am interested in asking you some questions.

The instruments I will be using to collect data are:

- Interviews
- Focus group discussion
- Participant Observation

Please note that:

- Your confidentiality is guaranteed as your inputs will not be attributed to you in person, but reported only as a participant's opinion.
- The interview may last for about an hour and may be split depending on your preference.
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the collected data will be used for purposes of this research only.
- All documents will be stored securely at the University Of KwaZulu-Natal in the Social Sciences archives of the School of Built Environment for a period of 5 years and thereafter destroyed by shredding.
- You have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be penalized for taking such an action.
- The research aims understanding the nature of poverty and vulnerability that is affecting the general citizens and the suggest ways of reducing these vulnerabilities. It is also the focus of this study to suggest a policy framework for poverty alleviation.
- Your involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial benefits involved.

If you are willing to be interviewed, please indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not you are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment:

Equipment used	Willing	Not willing
Audio equipment		
Photographic equipment		
Video equipment		

My address is: Stand No 20547, Mhizha Street, Rujeko, Masvingo. My email address is: kudzayit@gmail.com and my cell number: 0773 900 618

My supervisor is Professor Oliver Mtapuri who is located at the School of Built Environment Howard campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Contact details: email: mtapurio@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: 031 260 1031

Alternatively; the research office of the university can be contacted. Their details are:

HSSREC, Research Office Govan Mbeki Building, Westville Campus; contacts: Ms Phumelele Ximba Tel. 031 260 3587, Email: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

DECLARATION

I..... (Full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

.....
SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

.....
DATE

Appendices D: Semi Structured Interview guide

SEMI STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SOCIAL PROTECTION

BENEFICIARIES

INTRODUCTION:

My name is JOSEPH DAITAI; I am a Social Science PhD candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard campus, South Africa. I am interested in learning about rethinking/reconsidering social protection towards the development of a social protection framework. I am particularly interested in studying cases in Masvingo province. You are assured that the information you provide will be kept confidential and will only be utilized for research purposes. You must be honest in giving your views and feel free to ask questions if you do not understand any question.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

SECTION ONE

This section of the questionnaire requires you to provide demographic information related to age in year, gender and educational qualifications.

1. Your age range: Please mark with **X** in the appropriate box relevant to you.

18-30	
31-40	
41-50	
51-65	
65-75	
76-100	

2. Your Gender

Male	
Female	

3. Please indicate your position in your family

Father	
Mother	
Child	
Others (Specify)	

SECTION 2

1. What do you understand by the term social protection?

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2. Is there any form of social protection activities in your area?

- a. If the answer is YES above, identify the types of social protection in your area and how are they benefiting you as a citizen?

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3. To what extend do you encourage the government and voluntary organisations to prioritise/prefer social protection programmes in your area?

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4. In your opinion what else should the government and voluntary organisations do to improve social protection delivery in your community?

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5. What do you think can be done by the government to strengthen or ensure drive of social protection programmes in your community?

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6. In your opinion, which institution is delivering favourable social protection services and what do you think is enabling that institution to be successful?
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.....
 7. what should Non-governmental Organisations do to ensure an all year round service to the people
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.....
 8. From amongst the three main providers of social protection i.e. - Government, NGOs and the Private sector which one is the most efficient in providing social protection services?
.....
 9. Which institution also is the list efficient in providing social protection service and why?
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.....
- Which program is most active in addressing poverty in the rural areas?
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10. What should the government do to ensure effective poverty alleviation in your area?
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.....
 11. What are the types of social protection the government is delivering to you?
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12. What is the coverage of the programmes (In terms of population and geographical distance)? In your opinion is the coverage adequate to fight poverty and vulnerability in your area.

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13. In your opinion, what should be done by the government, voluntary organisations and the private sector in order to achieve more positive results in the social protection field?

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What in your opinion do you understand by a social protection framework/system?

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14. What are the advantages of having a National social protection framework in Zimbabwe?

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15. Who do you think is responsible for designing an all-inclusive social protection framework in your country?

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16. In your view, what can constitute the most important pillars of social protection and what should be involved in the social protection framework of your country?

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17. In your decision, how useful will the framework be in addressing poverty prevalence in Zimbabwe?

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20 If you like to add any final comments, we will be pleased to include them in our analysis, please use the space below

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THANK YOU!

Appendices E: Focus Group discussion interview guide

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION FOR BENEFICIARIES OF SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES

Greetings. My name is Joseph Daitai I am very pleased that you have agreed to join me today. We are here to talk about the subject on rethinking social protection in Masvingo Province towards the development of a social protection framework The discussion we are going to have is called a focus group. Please allow me to take this opportunity to explain a little bit about focus group discussions. Focus group discussions are used to gather information informally from a small group of individuals who have a common interest in a particular subject, in this instance rethinking the contribution of social protection in Masvingo Province In focus groups, there are no right or wrong answers. I am pleased you can be part of this group because I think you have important ideas regarding the contribution of donor and government social protection programmes in trying to reduce poverty Don't hesitate to speak up when you have a point you would like to make. I will be moderating the session and moving us along so that we touch on all of the key subjects on our agenda. My role today is to see that we have a productive discussion and to summarize the group's feelings. I will not refer to any participant by name in the reports I prepare. The information will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Section one

This section of the questionnaire requires you to provide demographic information related to age in year, gender and educational qualifications.

4. Your age range: Please mark with **X** in the appropriate box relevant to you.

18-30	
31-40	
41-50	
51-65	
65-75	
76-100	

5. Your Gender

Male	
Female	

6. Please indicate your position in your family

Father	
Mother	
Child	
Others (Specify)	

SECTION TWO

18. QUESTION ONE: What do you understand by the term Social Protection and also can you identify any five forms/types of social protection programmes that you know?

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19. What are some of the notable achievements that have been brought about by state and non-state social protection service providers?

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a. If YES what exactly has been addressed and achieved by these programmes (list the achievements/or successes)

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- b. If NO then what should be done to make sure that these programmes achieve positive goals.
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20. In your opinion how can the government achieve the successful implementation of all-inclusive social protection coverage?

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21. To what extent has social protection programmes implemented by NGOs and the government managed to address rural poverty?

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5 Also to what extent did the social protection programmes administered/controlled by Nongovernmental Organisations managed to address vulnerability problem?

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5 What do you understand by the term poverty?

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6 What are the most prevalent/widespread types of poverty affecting your family?

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7 In your view, what might be the causes of this poverty?

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8 What are the differences between government social programmes and NGO social protection programmes?

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9 Which institution/body offers the most favourable services that you can say they directly address major problems on the ground?

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5 What should the government and NGOs do to make sure that information about social protection is sufficiently spread?

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6 Who do you think can facilitate the spreading of information about the programmes?

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7 Who are the most active donors who are operating in your community?

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7 What are the main problems preventing effective delivery of social protection programmes in your district?

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8 In your view what do you understand about a social protection framework/outline?

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9 Given that the responsibility to design a National Social Protection Framework is given to you, what exactly will you include in your contribution?

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10 To what extent do you agree with the idea that if social protection will be put in place it will be able to address
(a) Poverty problems?

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(b) Vulnerability problems?

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11 What is your opinion/idea about the formulation/designing of a National social protection Framework in Zimbabwe

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.....

12 If you like to add any final comments, we will be pleased to include them in
our analysis, please use the space below

.....

.....