DSPACE

https://dspace.org/

The contribution of the Basic Education Assistance Module in enhancing access to education in Gutu District, Zimbabwe

Kanengoni, Joice

2021
https://hdl.handle.net/10539/33746

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/



The contribution of the Basic Education Assistance Module in enhancing access to education in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

by

Joice Kanengoni

Supervised by

Professor Edmarie Pretorius

2021

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Social Work at the University of the Witwatersrand.

DECLARATION

I, Joice Kanengoni, hereby declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. Sources used are acknowledged in accord with the requirements of the University of the Witwatersrand. This thesis has not been submitted for degree purposes at any other University.



30-07-2021

……. ……

Signature Date

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Tackson and Beauty Kanengoni, my brothers: Pardon, Takudzwa and Simbarashe Kanengoni, my sister in-law Kudzai Musingwini-Kanengoni and my niece Sophia Kanengoni.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to thank God for giving me the ability to conduct this study. I honour and glorify his holy name.

I want to extend my gratitude to my supervisor, Professor Edmarie Pretorius, for her unwavering intellectual guidance and support throughout the study. Thank you very much.

I would like to thank the Ministry of Labour and Social Services, the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, the principals and the deputy principals of the schools that I worked with for giving me the permission to conduct this study. I would like to express my appreciation to the participants, educators, principals, deputy principals and government officials who took their precious time to participate in this study.

My sincere gratitude goes to my parents, Beauty Kanengoni and Tackson Kanengoni, my brothers; Pardon, Takudzwa and Simbarashe and my sister in-law Kudzai Musingwini-Kanengoni for giving me the needed encouragement and support during my study. My aunt, Ndomupei Manamike, my uncle Jefta Madzingo, thank you for your support. My sisters, Kudzai Madzingo, Beauty Madzingo, Ndomupei Madzingo, Honour Madzingo, Gamuchirai Madzingo and Nyengeterai Dzinyotyiwei, thank you for supporting my dreams.

To all my friends; Memory Chipfunde, Courage Shumba, Yemurai Mbudzi, Rachel Matapura, Anna Mushure, Sostina Matina, Kimberly Zindi, Cynthia Mhlanga, Zvichanaka Muzenda and Getrude Guduza, I am grateful for the support that you showed me during this study.

Professor Victor Chikadzi, thank you for encouraging me to keep going. Your continued support is much appreciated.

Lastly, I would like to acknowledge the support that I received from the Department of Social Work, at the University of the Witwatersrand. Thank you for making my journey easier through providing a conducive academic environment which nurtured me into the researcher that I am today.

ABSTRACT

This study explored the contribution of the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) in enhancing access to education in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. BEAM is the largest social protection programme in Zimbabwe, the programme provides educational assistance, in form of school and examination fees, for orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs) who have never been to school, who are likely to drop out of school and those who have dropped out of school. The objective of the programme is to alleviate poverty through enhancing access to education. Despite the fact that BEAM has been providing educational assistance for the past two decades, there is lack of literature on the lived experiences of BEAM beneficiaries. It is against this background that this study sought to explore BEAM.

This study was guided by seven objectives namely: to establish the profiles of parents/guardians/caregivers and beneficiaries of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe; to explore the experiences of parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries on the selection process and the provision of the BEAM; to explore the perceptions of the parents/guardians/caregivers of BEAM beneficiaries about the contributions of the programme in enabling beneficiaries to access education and remain in school; to explore educators' experiences when operationalising BEAM to beneficiaries in Gutu District, Zimbabwe; to determine the challenges associated with the provision of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe; to explore the perceptions of government officials about the implementation of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe and to develop guidelines to enhance the usefulness of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. To achieve the stated objectives, a qualitative research approach was adopted in the study; a case study design was used. The study population consisted of 60 parents/guardians/caregivers of the beneficiaries of BEAM and 8 key informants who consisted of 6 educators who were responsible for managing BEAM, the District Remedial Tutor and the head of the Department of Social Welfare in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. Purposive sampling was used to select participants. Data was collected using separate semi-structured interview schedules for participants and key informants. In-depth face to face interviews were used to collect data. Data was analysed using thematic analysis.

The findings of the study revealed that attaining basic education remains a major challenge for OVCs, particularly those who reside in rural areas characterised by extreme poverty. It emerged that BEAM made a notable contribution in enhancing access to education for OVCs. The study

showed that children who were eligible for BEAM benefits were single and double orphans, disabled children, children from low income families and children under the care of individuals who were old aged, chronically poor and ill health. Additionally, the findings of the study revealed that community members took a leading role in selecting BEAM beneficiaries. While principals, deputy principals, and educators participated in the nomination of BEAM beneficiaries, they were not involved in their selection. The findings of the study revealed that the implementation of BEAM was informed by gender equity, the selection of BEAM beneficiaries and members of Community Selection Committee (CSC) was informed by the principle that at least 50% of them should be females.

The challenges that are associated with the provision of BEAM are notable to this study. It emerged that BEAM applications were carried out on annual basis, this was a major inconvenience for disabled and old aged parents/guardians/caregivers who had to walk long distances to the selected schools to renew applications, also, yearly applications led to the removal of beneficiaries from BEAM before attaining basic education. The findings of the study indicated that BEAM was less comprehensive in addressing the educational needs of beneficiaries as benefits were limited to school fees and half of examination fees, while complementary benefits including school uniforms, meals and books were not covered on the programme. The findings of the study showed that not all eligible children were on BEAM due to the underfunding of the programme, also, the inconsistences that characterised the provision of BEAM led to beneficiaries dropping out of school.

Drawing from its findings, the study proposes that skills building programmes should be implemented to equip parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM with skills which enable then to generate income and become better equipped in meeting their needs. Additionally, the study proposes that BEAM applications should be once off, to eliminate the possibility of beneficiaries being removed from the programme before attaining education. The study recommends that there should be improved budgetary allocations for BEAM, to ensure that all eligible children benefit from the programme and to ensure the provisions of full examination fees, books, school uniforms and meals on BEAM. The study calls for the inclusion of educators, principals and deputy principals in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries, it is envisaged that the knowledge they possess on the experiences of children will allow for the selection of most eligible children. On addition the study proposes that there should be student representatives for BEAM beneficiaries, who communicate with responsible authorities regarding the needs and concerns of BEAM beneficiaries, this will promote the

social inclusion of beneficiaries in the development of their communities. Given that beneficiaries of BEAM were children who suffered vulnerabilities associated with losing parents through death, the study proposes that counselling services should be made available for BEAM beneficiaries and their families.

This study expanded knowledge and understanding of the contributions of BEAM in enabling OVCs to access education. This study contributed to the development of guidelines to enhance the usefulness of BEAM. On addition, the study expanded social work knowledge on social protection and education, which helps to improve the existing support services for vulnerable members of society.

Key concepts:

Basic Education Assistance Module

Caregiver

Education

Guardian

Gutu District

Orphan

Parent

Poverty

Primary education

Secondary education

Social protection

Tertiary education

Vulnerable children

Zimbabwe

Table of Contents

DECLARATION i
DEDICATION ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS iii
ABSTRACT iv
Keywords: vi
Table of Contents vii
APPENDICES xvii
TABLES xviii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE STUDY xix
CHAPTER 1 1
OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY 1
1.1 INTRODUCTION 1
1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY 1
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY 3
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION 5
The following are sub-questions 5
1.5 AIM AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES 5
The objectives of the study are: 5
1.6 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS 6
Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) 6
Caregiver 6
Education 6
Guardian 7
Gutu District 7
Orphan 8
Parent 8
Poverty 8
Primary education 9
Secondary education 9
Social protection 10
Tertiary education 10

Vulnerable children 11
Zimbabwe 11
1.7 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 11
1.8 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS 12
CHAPTER 2 15
THEORATICAL FRAMEWORKS UNDERPINNING THE STUDY 15
2.1 INTRODUCTION 15
2.2 NEOLIBERAL THEORY 15
Defining the neoliberal theory 15
Principles of neoliberalism 15
2.3 THE GLOBAL EVOLUTION OF NEOLIBERALISM AND THE PROVISION OF SOCIAL PROTECTION SERVICES 16
Shortcomings of the global implementation of the neoliberal theory 17
2.4 NEOLIBERALISM AND THE PROVISION OF SOCIAL PROTECTION SERVICES IN AFRICA 18
Shortcomings of the neoliberal theory in Africa 19
2.5 RELEVANCE OF THE NEOLIBERAL THEORY FOR THE STUDY 21
2.6 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT THEORY 22
Defining the social development theory 22
2.7 THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT 23
2.8. CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT 26
2.9 RELEVANCE OF THE SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT THEORY FOR THE STUDY 28
2.10 SUMMARY 29
CHAPTER 3 30
SOCIAL PROTECTION AND POVERTY 30
3.1 INTRODUCTION 30
3.2 DEFINING SOCIAL PROTECTION 30
3.3 OVERVIEW OF SOCIAL PROTECTION 31
The historical development of social protection in Europe 31
The historical development of social protection in Pre-colonial Africa 32
The historical development of social protection in Colonial Africa 32
The historical development of social protection in Post-Colonial Africa 34
The historical development of social protection in Zimbabwe 35
3.4 APPROACHES TO SOCIAL PROTECTION 38
3.5 POVERTY AND POVERTY TRENDS 38

Poverty trends around the world 38
Poverty trends in Africa 39
Poverty trends in Zimbabwe 41
3.6 SUMMARY 42
CHAPTER 4 43
HIV /AIDS, CHILD POVERTY AND SOCIAL PROTECTION 43
4.1 INTRODUCTION 43
4.2 DEFINING HIV/AIDS 43
4.3 HIV/AIDS TRENDS IN THE WORLD 43
4.4 HIV/AIDS TRENDS IN AFRICA 45
4.5 HIV/AIDS TRENDS IN ZIMBABWE 46
4.6 DEFINING CHILD POVERTY 47
4.7 TRENDS OF CHILD POVERTY IN THE WORLD 47
4.8 TRENDS OF CHILD POVERTY IN AFRICA 48
4.9 TRENDS OF CHILD POVERTY IN ZIMBABWE 49
4.10 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HIV/AIDS AND CHILD POVERTY 50
4.11 SOCIAL PROTECTION AS A STRATEGY AGAINST HIV/AIDS AND CHILD POVERTY 53
4.12 CHALLENGES IN THE PROVISION OF SOCIAL PROTECTION 54
4.13 SUMMARY 56
CHAPTER 5 57
SOCIAL PROTECTION AND EDUCATION 57
5.1. INTRODUCTION 57
5.2. THE ROLE OF EDUCATION IN ENHANCING CHILD DEVELOPMENT 57
5.3. THE ROLE OF SOCIAL PROTECTION IN ENHANCING ACCESS TO EDUCATION FOR OVCs 58
5.4. SOCIAL PROTECTION AS AN INITIATIVE OF ENHANCING ACCESS TO EDUCATION FOR OVCs 59
Cash transfers 59
Conditional cash transfers 61
Unconditional cash transfers 63
5.5. SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES THAT PROVIDE EDUCATIONAL SUPPORT FOR OVCs 64
5.5.1 OPORTUNIDADES OF MEXICO 64
5.5.2 BOLSA FAMILIA OF BRAZIL 65
5.5.3 THE CASH TRANSFER FOR ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN PROGRAMME OF KENYA 66

5.5.4 THE SARVA SHIKSHA ABHIYAN AND THE RASHTRIYA MADHYAMIK SHIKSHA ABHIYAN OF INDIA 67
5.5.5 THE BANTUAN OPERASIONAL SEKOLAH AND THE BANTUAN SISWA MISKIN OF INDONESIA 69
5.5.6 THE CHILD SUPPORT GRANT OF SOUTH AFRICA 70
5.5.7 THE CARE OF PEOPLE OF NIGERIA 71
5.5.8 THE LIVELIHOOD EMPOWERMENT AGAINST POVERTY PROGRAMME OF GHANA 72
5.5.9 THE SOCIAL CASH TRANSFER PROGRAMME OF MALAWI 73
5.5.10 THE MINIMUM LIVELIHOOD GUARANTEE PROGRAMME OF CHINA 74
5.5.11 THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE (BEAM) OF ZIMBABWE 75
5.6. SUMMARY 80
CHAPTER 6 81
INTERNATIONAL, REGIONAL AND LOCAL FRAMEWORKS UPHOLDING CHILDREN'S RIGHTS TO EDUCATION 81
6.1. INTRODUCTION 81
6.2. THE CONVENTION AGAINST DISCRIMINATION IN EDUCATION 81
6.3. THE INTERNATIONAL COVENANT ON ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS 82
6.4. THE CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD 84
6.5. THE AFRICAN CHARTER ON THE RIGHTS AND WELFARE OF THE CHILD 85
6.6. SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS 87
6.7. THE UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS 89
6.8. CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN 91
6.9. THE NATIONAL ACTION PLAN FOR ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN OF ZIMBABWE 92
6.10. SUMMARY 95
CHAPTER 7 97
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 97
7.1. INTRODUCTION 97
7.2. RESEARCH PARADIGM 97
7.3. RESEARCH APPROACH 98
7.4. RESEARCH DESIGN 99
7.5. STUDY POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES 100
7.6. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS 102
TABLE 7.1. REASONS FOR INCLUDING VARIOUS ISSUES IN THE INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS 103
TABLE 7.2. REASONS FOR INCLUDING VARIOUS ISSUES IN THE INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR KEY INFORMANTS 105

7.7. PRETESTING OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS 106
7.8. METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION 107
7.9. RESEACHER'S DATA COLLECTION EXPERIENCES 109
7.10. METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS 111
Familiarising yourself with data 111
Generating initial codes 112
Searching for themes 112
Reviewing themes 113
Defining and naming themes 113
Producing the report 114
7.11. TRUSTWORTHINESS 114
Credibility 114
Dependability 115
Transferability 116
Confirmability 117
7.12. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS 117
Submission and Approval of proposal to ethics review boards 118
Informed consent 118
Voluntary Participation 119
Anonymity 119
Confidentiality 120
Avoidance of harm/ non-maleficence 120
7.13. POTENTIAL LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY 120
7.14. DELIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH STUDY 121
7.15. SUMMARY 121
CHAPTER 8 123
PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS 123
8.1 INTRODUCTION 123
8.2THE PROFILES AND CONTEXT OF PARENTS/GUARDIANS/CAREGIVERS OF BENEFICIARIES OF THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE. 123
TABLE 8.1: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS (N= 60) 123
Table 8.2 Themes that emerged from the profile of the participants 132
8.2.1 Theme 1: Illiteracy 133
8.2.2 Theme 2: Unemployment 135

8.2.3 Theme 3: Ill-health 136

8.2.4 Theme 4: Orphans 137

8.2.5 Theme 5: Poverty 139

8.2.6 Theme 6: Disability 140

8.2.7 Theme 7: Old age 141

8.3 THE EXPERIENCES OF PARENTS/GUARDIANS/CAREGIVERS OF BENEFICIARIES ON THE SELECTION PROCESS AND THE PROVISION OF THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE 142

Table 8.3 Themes that emerged from the experiences of parents/guardians /caregivers of beneficiaries on the selection process and the provision of BEAM. 142

8.3.1 Theme 1: Support for orphans and poor children 143

8.3.2 Theme 2: Disability, orphanhood and poverty 144

8.3.3 Theme 3: Poverty 144

8.3.4 Theme 4: Support in completing application forms 145

8.3.5 Theme 5: Eligibility criteria 146

8.3.6 Theme 6: Exclusion of eligible children 149

8.3.7 Theme 7: Community involvement in selecting BEAM beneficiaries 149

8.3.8 Theme 8: Educator nominations 152

8.3.9 Theme 9: School dropouts 152

8.3.10 Theme 10: Poverty alleviation 153

8.3.11 Theme 11: Self-sustaining 154

8.4 THE PERCEPTIONS OF THE PARENTS/GUARDIANS/CAREGIVERS OF BENEFICIARIES OF THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE ABOUT THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE PROGRAMME IN ENABLING BENEFICIARIES TO ACCESS EDUCATION AND REMAIN IN SCHOOL. 156

Table 8.4 Themes that emerged from the perceptions of the parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM about the contributions of the programme in enabling beneficiaries to access education and remain in school. 156

8.4.1 Theme 1: Education access 157

8.4.2 Theme 2: Education attainment 159

8.4.3 Theme 3: Collection of results 161

8.5 EDUCATORS' EXPERIENCES WHEN OPERATIONALISING THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE TO BENEFICIARIES IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE 161

Table 8.5 Themes that emerged from educators' experiences when operationalising the Basic Education Assistance Module to beneficiaries in Gutu District, Zimbabwe 162

8.5.1 Theme 1: Poverty alleviation 162

8.5.2 Theme 2: Social inclusion of women 163

8.5.3 Theme 3: Education of girl children 165

8.5.4 Theme 4:Fairness 165
8.5.5 Theme 5: Nominations by educators 167
8.5.6 Theme 6: Community involvement 168
8.5.7 Theme 7: Education attainment and poverty alleviation 170
8.5.8 Theme 8: Grievance Committees 171
8.5.9 Theme 9: Unmet needs 172
8.5.10 Theme 10: Community awareness on BEAM 175
8.6 CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH THE PROVISION OF THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE 176
Table 8.6 Themes that emerged from challenges associated with the provision of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. 176
8.6.1 Theme 1: Yearly applications 177
8.6.2 Theme 2: Inconsistency 178
8.6.3 Theme 3: Inadequacy 180
8.6.4 Theme 4: Missing school 183
8.7 THE PERCEPTIONS OF GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS ABOUT THE IMPLEMENTATION OF BEAM IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE. 184
Table 8.7 Themes that emerged from the perceptions of government officials about the implementation of BEAM. 185
8.7.1 Theme 1: Stakeholders involved in the selection process of beneficiaries of BEAM 185
8.7.2 Theme 2: Well-structured and transparent selection process of beneficiaries of BEAM 186
8.7.3 Theme 3: Community participation 188
8.7.4 Theme 4: Gender equity 189
8.7.5 Theme 5: BEAM benefits and categories of eligible children 190
8.7.6 Theme 6: Nominations 191
8.7.7 Theme 7: Poverty alleviation 192
8.7.8 Theme 8: Aspects that are easy to implement during the selection process of BEAM beneficiaries 193
8.7.9 Theme 9: Inconsistency and inadequacy 194
8.8 GUIDELINES TO ENHANCE THE USEFULNESS OF BEAM IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE. 195
Table 8.8 Guidelines to enhance the usefulness of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. 195
8.8.1 Guideline1: Skills building programmes for parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM 196
8.8.2 Guideline 2: Improved budgetary allocations for BEAM 197
8.8.3 Guideline 3: Enhanced focus on the educational attainment of BEAM beneficiaries 199

8.8.4 Guideline 4: Community workshops to raise awareness on BEAM 200
8.8.5 Guideline 5: Yearly applications 201
8.8.6 Guideline 6: The establishment of feeding programmes for beneficiaries of BEAM 201
8.8.7 Guideline 7: The implementation of counselling services for OVCs and their families 202
SUMMARY 203
CHAPTER 9 204
MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 204
9.1. INTRODUCTION 204
9.2. RESEARCH QUESTION 204
The following are sub-questions 204
9.3. AIM AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES 204
Objective 1 205
Objective 2 205
Objective 3 205
Objective 4 205
Objective 5 205
Objective 6 206
Objective 7 206
9.4. KEY FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS 206
Finding 1: Illiteracy, unemployment and poverty 206
Conclusion on Finding 1 207
Finding 2: Participants' understanding of BEAM and its objectives 207
Conclusion on Finding 2 208
Finding 3: Key informants' understanding of BEAM and its objectives 208
Conclusion on finding 3 208
Finding 4: The eligibility criteria for BEAM 208
Conclusion on Finding 4 209
Finding 5: Support in completing application forms 209
Conclusion on Finding 5 209
Finding 6: Community involvement in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries 209
Conclusion on Finding 6 210
Finding 7: Nominations by social workers, educators and community leaders 210
Conclusion on finding 7 211
Finding 8: The promotion of gender equity 211

Conclusion of finding 8 212
Finding 9: Fairness and transparency in selecting BEAM beneficiaries 212
Conclusion from finding 9 212
Finding 10: Grievance Committees 212
Conclusion on Finding 10 213
Finding 11: Enhanced access to education 213
Conclusion on Finding 11 213
Finding 12: Yearly applications of BEAM 213
Conclusion on finding 12 214
Finding 13: Exclusion of eligible children 214
Conclusion on Finding 13 214
Finding 14: Inconsistency 214
Conclusion on finding 14 215
Finding 15: Failure to attain secondary education 215
Conclusion on finding 15 215
Finding 16: Failure to collect results 215
Conclusion on finding 16 216
Finding 17: The exclusion of complimentary benefits on BEAM 216
Conclusion of Finding 17 216
Finding 18: The need for increased community awareness on BEAM 216
Conclusion from finding 18 217
9.5. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE 217
Skills building programmes 217
Improved budgetary allocations for BEAM 218
Enhanced focus on the educational attainment of BEAM beneficiaries 218
Community workshops to raise awareness on BEAM 219
Yearly applications 219
The establishment of feeding programmes for beneficiaries of BEAM 219
The implementation of counselling services for OVCs and their families 219
9.6. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION 220
The involvement of educators, principals and deputy principals who manage BEAM in the Community Selection Committee 220
Beneficiary representatives on BEAM 220
9. 7. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH 220

9.8. CONCLUDING COMMENTS 221
REFERENCES 222
APPENDIX A 306
APPENDIX B 308
APPENDIX C 310
APPENDIX D 312
APPENDIX E 313
APPENDIX F 314
APPENDIX G 315
APPENDIX H 316
APPENDIX I 317
APPENDIX J 318
APPENDIX K 319
APPENDIX L 320
APPENDIX M 321
APPENDIX N 322
APPENDIX O 323

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Participant Information Sheet for parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of the Basic Education Assistance Module

APPENDIX B: Participant Information Sheet for key informants

APPENDIX: C: Interview guide for parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM

APPENDIX D: Interview guide for key informants

APPENDIX E: Consent form for participation and tape-recording of the interview in the study

APPENDIX F: Ethics clearance certificate

APPENDIX G: Permission letter from the Ministry of Labour and Social Services, Harare, Zimbabwe

APPENDIX H: Permission letter from the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, Harare, Zimbabwe

APPENDIX I: Permission letter from the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, Masvingo, Zimbabwe

APPENDIX J: Permission letter from Chindito Secondary School

APPENDIX K: Permission letter from Mupandawana High School

APPENDIX L: Permission letter from Gadzingo Secondary School

APPENDIX M: Permission letter from Hwiru Primary School

APPENDIX N: Permission letter Gutu United Primary School

APPENDIX O: Permission letter from Gona Primary School

TABLES

TABLE 7.1: Reasons for including various issues in the interview guide for research participants

TABLE 7.2: Reasons for including various issues in the interview guide for key informants

TABLE 8.1: Demographic profile of research participants (N= 60)

TABLE 8.2: Themes that emerged from the profile of the participants

TABLE 8.3: Themes that emerged from the experiences of parents/guardians /caregivers of beneficiaries on the selection process and the provision of BEAM.

TABLE 8.4: Themes that emerged from the perceptions of the parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM about the contributions of the programme in enabling beneficiaries to access education and remain in school.

TABLE 8.5: Themes that emerged from educators' experiences when operationalising the Basic Education Assistance Module to beneficiaries in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

TABLE 8.6: Themes that emerged from challenges associated with the provision of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

TABLE 8.7: Themes that emerged from the perceptions of government officials about the implementation of BEAM.

TABLE 8.8: Guidelines to enhance the usefulness of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE STUDY

ACERWC	Africa Committee of Experts on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
ACPF	African Child Policy Forum
ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
ADP	African Development Programme
ANC	African National Congress
ARVs	Antiretroviral regiments
ASSAF	Academic of Science of South Africa
ASPE	Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation
AU	Africa Union
BEAM	Basic Education Assistance Module
BOS	Bantuan Operasional Sekolah
BSM	Bantuan Siswa Miskin
CADE	Convention against Discrimination in Education
CCTs	Conditional Cash Transfers
CCW	Community Case Workers
CEDC	Children in Extremely Difficult Circumstances
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CEPA	Centre for Policy Analyses
CESCR	Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
CHIP	Childhood Poverty Research and Policy Centre
COPE	Care of People

CPCs	Child Protection Committees
CPRC	Chronic Poverty Research Centre
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CSC	Community Selection Committee
CSG	Child Support Grant
CT-OVC	Cash Transfer for Orphans and Vulnerable Children Programme
DIFID	Department of International Development
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
DSD	Department of Social Development
DSI	District Schools Inspector
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EDMS	Essential Drugs and Medical Supplies Component
EFA	Education for All
ESPP	Enhanced Social Protection Project
EU	European Union
EUI	European University Institute
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
GHS	Girls Hostel Scheme
GOI	Government of India
GOZ	Government of Zimbabwe
HDI	Human Development Index
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus /Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

IEDSS	Inclusive Education for the Disabled at Secondary Stage
ILO	International Labour Office
ILO	International labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IRIN	Integrated Regional Information Networks
LEAP	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty
LEDCs	Less Economically Developed countries
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoGCSP	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection
MoLSS	Ministry of Labour and Social Services
MoPSE	Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
NAP 1	First Phase of the National Action Plan for Orphans and Vulnerable Children
NAP 11	Second Phase of the National Action Plan for Orphans and Vulnerable Children
NAP 111	Third Phase of the National Action Plan for Orphans and Vulnerable Children
NAP for OVCs	National Action Plan for Orphans and Vulnerable Children
NPA for OVCs	National Plans of Action for Orphans and Vulnerable Children
NGOs	Non-governmental Organisations
OAU	Organisation of Africa Unity
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development.
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Health Rights
OVCs	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
OVC-VR	Orphans and Vulnerable Children Village Register

PEPFAR	President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief
PMU	Project Management Unit
PoS	Programme of Support
PRAI	Poverty Reduction Accelerator Investment
PWC	Public Works Component
PWESCR	Programme on Women's Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
RHVP	Regional Hunger and Vulnerability Programme
RMSA	Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Programs
SASSA	South African Social Security Agency
SC	Save the Children
SCTP	Social Cash Transfer Programme
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SPFs	Social Protection Floors
SPS	Social Protection Strategy
STIs	Sexually Transmitted Infections
SSA	Sarya Shiksha Abhiyan
UCTs	Unconditional Cash Transfers
UN	United Nations
UDHR	Universal Deceleration of Human Rights
UNAIDS	United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UNDESA	United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNGA	United Nations General Assembly
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation
World War 11	WW11
WPO	Working Party of officials
ZimAsset	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZIMSTAT	Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency
ZNASP	Zimbabwe National Strategic Plan on HIV/AIDS

CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study qualitatively explores the contribution of the Basic Education Assistance Module henceforth BEAM in enhancing access to education in Gut District, Zimbabwe. This chapter introduces this study. The background of the study, statement of the problem and the rationale for the study are presented. The chapter also highlights the research questions, aim of the study and research objectives. The key concepts are defined and explained. A brief overview of the research methodology applied is explained and the organisation of the thesis is provided in this chapter.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The prevalence of HIV/AIDS has become a global disaster, leaving millions of children vulnerable to poverty, ill-health and malnutrition (Mishra et al., 2008; Newel et al., 2004). Worldwide, 151 million children lost their parents due to the HIV/AIDS pandemic, of which 10% of these children have lost both parents (United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF], 2016). The overwhelming effects of HIV/AIDS are felt more severely in Sub-Saharan Africa where more than 80% of children orphaned due to HIV/AIDS reside (President's Emergency Plan for Aids Relief [PEPFAR], 2016; UNICEF, United State Agency for International Development [USAID] & United Nations Programme on HIV/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome [UNAIDS], 2004).

Zimbabwe is severely affected by this pandemic, as one in every four children is orphaned (Mishra & Bignami-Van, 2008). As noted by Case et al. (2004) orphans are more prone to lacking means to access education than non-orphans. Orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs) are often forced to drop out of school, as their parents/guardians/caregivers are unable to provide for their educational expenses.

Families are the main sources of providing support and care for children (Kidman & Tharman, 2014; Miller et al., 2006). Despite the economic hardships faced in Zimbabwe, there has been continued family support for OVCs, however, disadvantaged families often lack the capacity to address the needs of children in an adequate manner (Hlatywayo et al., 2015). Hence, it is

fundamental to provide support for families raising OVCs (Richter, 2010). Given high rates of OVC's, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, it is vital to implement social protection programmes that are aimed at enhancing access to social services for OVC's. Globally, several governments have made considerable efforts to enhance the wellness of children through the provision of social protection programmes that provide educational benefits for disadvantaged children (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation [UNESCO], 2015).

The Basic Education Assistance Module (hereafter BEAM) is the biggest social protection intervention in Zimbabwe (Kaseke, 2012). The programme seeks to alleviate poverty through the provision of educational assistance to OVC's between the ages of 6 and 19. The objective of BEAM is to enable children who have dropped out of school, children who have never attended school, and those who are likely to drop out of school due to poverty, to have access to education (Government of Zimbabwe (hereafter GOZ), 2001). The requirement is that at least 50% of children who benefit from the programme should be girls, to bring about gender equity (GOZ, 2010). Since 2001, the programme has been providing educational assistance to children in line with the objectives of the programme and assistance is provided in both rural and urban schools in Zimbabwe.

BEAM enables disadvantaged children to have access to education, thereby preventing their families from withdrawing them from school. However, several challenges that are being faced by the programme have negatively affected its sustainability. For example, BEAM is underfunded due to economic challenges that the government faces (Maushe, 2014). Consequently, large numbers of deserving OVC's are not benefiting from the programme.

During the year 2008, BEAM was unable to distribute funds to schools because the Zimbabwean currency had lost value due to hyperinflation which had become the order of the day (Ha a et al., 2014). Funding became as low as US$ 8.20 per each primary school while there were no funds for secondary schools (Smith et al., 2012). The 2012 evaluation on BEAM revealed that there were approximately 2.8 million children in primary schools in Zimbabwe, 28% of these children were in need of educational assistance and only 16% of children who were in need of educational assistance managed to get financial assistance in 2011 (GOZ & UNICEF, 2012). Of the 24% of secondary school students who were struggling to pay for their school fees due to economic hardships, only 17% of them managed to obtain financial assistance (GOZ & UNICEF, 2012). In 2017, the GOZ only managed to fund 161 103 children, out of 50 000 OVC's who needed educational assistance (World Bank [WB], 2018). Due to

the lack of consistency by the government in providing assistance to BEAM beneficiaries, parents/guardians/caregivers are not in a position to send their children to school. This results in increased school dropouts.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Zimbabwe is characterised by high levels of poverty; the majority of the population fall below the poverty line (WB, 2019). The high levels of poverty are attributed to unemployment, lack of access to basic services, droughts and the prevalence of HIV/AIDS. As revealed by the United Nations Children's Fund (2016), 73% of all individuals in Zimbabwe were extremely poor in 2013. The World Bank (2019) revealed that poverty rates increased from 29% to 34% between 2018 and 2019. High rates of poverty left many children out of school, particularly in rural areas, where the majority of impoverished individuals in Zimbabwe reside. According to Zengeya (2011), school dropout rates in all primary schools stood at 60% and 24% in secondary schools. In 2018, around 20 400 children in primary schools dropped out of school, while 37 081 dropouts were recorded in secondary schools (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education of Zimbabwe [MoPSE], 2018).

BEAM is one of the five components of the Enhanced Social Protection Project (ESPP), which was implemented by the Government of Zimbabwe to provide temporal assistance to impoverished individuals (Karararch & Otieno, 2016). ESPP addresses poverty through the provision of health, education and employment services for beneficiaries, and services are extended to providing psychological support for children who fall victim to abuse and neglect (Gray, 2016). BEAM has been implemented for the past 20 years. Previous mixed methods studies conducted on BEAM by Chatikobo (2015) and Nyambuya (2018) have revealed that BEAM is instrumental in reducing school dropouts among beneficiaries. However, based on reviewed literature, the researcher is not aware of qualitative studies that have been done to describe the lived experiences of BEAM beneficiaries, specifically within the selected schools in Gutu District.

There is a paucity of literature on the voices of beneficiaries of BEAM, regardless of it being applauded for increasing school enrolments and poverty reduction (GOZ, 2015; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011; UNICEF, 2012). There is lack of sufficient evidence from a qualitative perspective to support this observation. Furthermore, beneficiaries of social protection

regularly feel that they are dependants who do not have the right to voice their concerns (Browne, 2014) and this in turn explains the need to explore the contributions of BEAM in enabling OVCs to access education and in achieving its main objective of alleviating poverty.

Literature reviewed indicated that the selection process for beneficiaries of BEAM is done at community/local level and is mainly driven by community members (Dhlembeu, 2004; GOZ, 2016; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). There is global recognition of the importance of community involvement in the implementation of social protection programmes, this is to maintain a collaborative process in which beneficiaries are actively involved in the social and economic development of their communities (Conning & Kevane, 2002; Kaseke, 2004; WB, 2018). Literature reveals that community participation in the implementation of social protection programmes enhances social inclusion, empowers community members and is also regarded as a way ensuring shared responsibilities among involved stakeholders (Coady et al., 2013; Devereux, 2017: Paes-Sousa et al., 2013). However, there is no empirical evidence, from the beneficiaries themselves, that suggests that the selection of beneficiaries is driven by the community. Against this background, this study sought to expand knowledge on beneficiaries' viewpoints, with regards to the selection process of BEAM.

The objective of BEAM is to alleviate poverty; however, it is not yet clear if the programme is meeting its objective. This observation stems from the fact that the benefits of BEAM are inconsistent and inadequate in covering the educational needs of orphans and vulnerable children (Gandure, 2009; Maushe, 2014; WB, 2018). It is anticipated that this study will contribute to the existing body of literature on the education of OVCs through broadening understanding of the lived experiences and perceptions of beneficiaries of BEAM. Furthermore, this study is expected to expand knowledge on BEAM and its contributions in enabling orphans and vulnerable children to access education. The insights drawn from the results of the study may inform policy development and practice on possible ways of strengthening the capacity of social protection programmes in enhancing access to education for OVCs in developing countries. In addition, the findings of this study may be instrumental in expanding knowledge on programmes that can be employed to enhance the psychosocial wellbeing of OVCs and their families. This study contributes to understanding of the lived experiences of beneficiaries of BEAM. More so the study expands and deepens knowledge on how beneficiaries perceive the role of BEAM.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION

The overarching research question for this study is: how does the Zimbabwean Basic Education Assistance Module enable orphans and vulnerable children to access and achieve education?

The following are sub-questions

1. What are the experiences of parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries about the implementation of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe?
2. What are the experiences of educators involved with the operationalisation of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe?
3. What are the views of government officials about the implementation of BEAM in Gutu District Zimbabwe?

1.5 AIM AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The aim of the study is to establish how the Zimbabwean Basic Education Assistance Module enables orphans and vulnerable children to access education.

The objectives of the study are:

1. To establish the profiles of parents/guardians/caregivers and beneficiaries of the Basic Education Assistance Module in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.
2. To explore the experiences of parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries on the selection process and the provision of the Basic Education Assistance Module.
3. To explore the perceptions of the parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of the Basic Education Assistance Module about the contributions of the programme in enabling beneficiaries to access education and remain in school.
4. To explore educators' experiences when operationalising the Basic Education Assistance Module to beneficiaries in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.
5. To determine the challenges associated with the provision of the Basic Education Assistance Module in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.
6. To explore the perceptions of government officials about the implementation of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

7. To develop guidelines to enhance the usefulness of the Basic Education Assistance Module in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

1.6 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM)

BEAM is a social protection programme that was implemented by GOZ in 2001 and is a major element of the Enhanced Social Protection Programme (ESPP), which consists of programmes that enhance the wellness of OVCs and their families (Smith et al., 2012). It is the largest social protection programme in Zimbabwe, covering all districts within the country. The objective of BEAM is to enable children who dropped out of school, who are at risk of dropping out of school and those who have never been to school due to financial constraints, to access education (Kaseke, 2012). BEAM pays school and examination fees. In the context of this study BEAM is a poverty alleviation programme, instigated by GOZ, with the goal of enabling OVC's to access primary and secondary education, thus escaping poverty.

Caregiver

The World Bank (2016b) defined a caregiver as an individual who provides emotional and financial support for individuals under their custodianship, these may include children, the chronically ill and disabled individuals. A caregiver refers to an adult who provides informal care to a relative or a peer in need of financial, social and emotional support for at least 12 months (Cox, 2004). In the context of this study, a caregiver is referred to as an individual who takes the responsibility of providing care for OVCs who are not their biological children but are family members whose biological parents may be deceased, disabled or ill-health.

Education

Education refers to a logical process whereby children and adults acquire skills, knowledge and experience (Prankimalil, 2012). Kuma and Ahmad (2007) defined education as the development of all capacities which enables individuals to gain full control over their environment. Education refers to a cognitive process through which individuals intellectually progress under methodical instructions throughout their lives or for specified periods

(UNESCO, 2015). In the context of this study, education is referred to as a gradual learning process in which knowledge and skills are passed on to individuals throughout primary and secondary education. In addition, education is viewed as a poverty alleviation tool which enables OVCs to become independent. It expected to equip with educational skills and knowledge that enables them to become self-sufficient.

Guardian

A guardian refers to an individual who provides legal care to incapacitated individuals, be it an elderly person, a child or an individual who suffers chronic illness (United Nations Human Rights Council, [UNHCR], 2018). A guardian may be a parent or an individual who provides legal care for orphans, adopted children or individuals who suffer mental and physical ill-health. In some cases, individuals become guardians of children through the court of law, provided that the deceased parents designated parental duties to them in the event of chronic illnesses or death (Sanders & Morawska, 2018). However, in most rural areas, particularly in Zimbabwe, the responsibility of providing care for OVCs lies with members of the extended family who may or may not be their legal guardians. In this study, a guardian is referred to as a member of the extended family who takes the responsibility of addressing the needs of OVCs who are under their care.

Gutu District

Gutu is a largely rural district which is located in the Southern part of Zimbabwe (Wekwete, 2010). Gutu is situated in the Northern part of Masvingo Province and is predominantly occupied by the Karanga people of the Shona tribe. The name Gutu emanated from Chinomukutu Wemiseve meaning a person in possession of many arrows. The 2012 census, which was conducted in Zimbabwe, revealed that Gutu is home to 203 081 people (Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency [ZIMSTAT], 2012). The establishment of Gutu is dated back to the beginning of the 19th century, when the district was occupied by individuals who belonged to the Gumbo clan. Gutu is situated in ecological region 4 which is characterised by low rainfall and droughts (WB, 2017) . In general, Gutu is a rural district in Zimbabwe which is characterised by social ills including high rates of poverty, unemployment, HIV/AIDS and illiteracy (UNICEF, 2015).

Orphan

An orphan refers to an individual under the age of 18, who has suffered the loss of a father, a mother or both (Smart, 2003). Knitting (2012) defines an orphan as parentless child, either by abandonment, neglect or death. The definition of an orphan that is applicable to this study is illustrated by Skinner et al. (2004) who defined an orphan as a child who has lost one or both parents through death. Children who lost their fathers are defined as paternal orphans while children who have lost mother figures are referred to as maternal orphans. In this study children who have lost both parents as a result of death are referred to as double orphans.

Parent

A parent is an individual who takes the responsibility of providing care for his or her own children, who may be biological or adoptive (UNICEF, 2016). As stated by Sanders and Morawska (2018), a parent is an individual who supervises children throughout their physical and cognitive development and assists them in building social competencies needed to socialize with family members, peers, educators and societal members. In this study, a parent is referred to as individual who provides care, supervision and support for his or her biological children.

Poverty

Poverty refers to lack of basic income, necessary to access health, education, housing and social services (United Nations [UN], 2008). Wolfensohn and Bourguignon (2004) defined poverty as the inability to access adequate shelter, health services, food and education. Poverty refers to the inability to attain living standards that are socially desirable which such as having opportunities to participate in social, economic and political aspects of life and living without adequate access to food, clothing and shelter.

Absolute poverty refers to poverty measured against standards set on a global scale, and compared between different continents, countries and ethnic groups, with the commonly used measures being income per capita and the United Nations' US$ 1.25 per day (Atkinson 2017; UD, 2005; UN, 1995). ***Relative poverty*** denotes a state whereby a certain group of individuals suffer poor living conditions, comparative to common standards of the community or country in question (Nielsen, 2009).***Overall poverty*** means lack of basic income, health, education and

resources necessary to enhance development, and is also typified by social exclusion (WB, 2018). In this study, poverty means the inability to attain a minimum standard of living, that is, having no means to access basic services such as educations, healthcare, nutrition and housing.

Primary education

Primary education refers to the first stage of acquiring formal education (Muedini, 2015). Primary education is acquired in primary schools, junior schools or elementary schools, depending on a country in which an individual is situated in (Sen, 2010). It is globally accepted as the foundation of acquiring formal education (Muedini, 2015) and consists of basic education in the form of reading and writing which is provided for children between the ages of six and twelve (Cox, 2011). Subjects that are covered in primary school include mathematics, history, religious studies, science and language (UNESCO, 2011).

In Zimbabwe, primary education refers to the first seven years of attaining formal education, which is attended by children between the ages of six and thirteen (Gibbs, 2005). Subjects that are covered in primary schools in Zimbabwe are maths, language, content and agriculture (Ngwenya, 2020). In the context of this study, primary education is referred to as education that is acquired from grade 1 to grade 7 in preparing children to advance to secondary education.

Secondary education

Secondary education refers to education that is acquired after primary school (UNESCO, 2005). Subjects that are taught in secondary education include history, maths, science and geography (Capel et al., 2016). The ethics, values and skills that are taught in primary education are further ingrained in students in secondary school (Maguire et al., 2018). Children who attend secondary education are between the ages 12 and 18 (UNESCO, 2011).

In Zimbabwe, secondary education is attended after primary school and is from form 1to 6. The subjects that are taught in Zimbabwe's secondary education system include maths, biology, history and accounts (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). The secondary education system of Zimbabwe consists of secondary schools and high schools (Mutepfa et al., 2007). In secondary schools, children attain O-Level certificates, in high schools children attain O-Level and A-

level certificates (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). In the context of this study, secondary education refers to education that is attended after attaining primary school and is from form 1 to 6.

Social protection

Social protection refers to public interventions taken by governments and the civil society to address high levels of vulnerability, poverty and social exclusion within a given society (Norton & Conway, 2001). The World Bank (2015) referred to social protection as a set of measures taken by various governments and the international community to cushion individuals from socio-economic challenges caused by poverty and natural disasters.

Social Protection refers to interventions and programmes that are employed to safeguard the wellness of individuals and to mitigate adversities that increase the vulnerability of individuals who are economically disadvantaged (Gentilini, 2009). In the context of this study, social protection refers to interventions employed by various governments, international organisations and Nongovernmental Organisations (NGOs) in a bid to enhance the wellness of vulnerable members of society.

Tertiary education

Tertiary education refers to education that is acquired after secondary school education (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], 2019). Institutions which provide tertiary education include public and private universities colleges (Lauder & Mayhew, 2020). Tertiary education includes specialised fields such as engineering, medicine and social sciences and the achievement of academic certificates, diplomas and degrees in such fields (Earle, 2010; OECD, 2007b).

Tertiary education enables individuals to discover, disseminate and apply knowledge within different academic fields (Ozturk, 2001; WB, 2010). Tertiary education fosters economic growth through equipping individuals with skills and knowledge necessary to participate towards the development of nations (Lauder & Mayhew, 2020; Oketch et al., 2014). Tertiary education provides highly skilled workers who contribute towards technological advancement and the social and economic development of societies (OECD, 2011). In this study, tertiary education is referred to as post-secondary education that is attained through universities and colleges, which may be private or state owned.

Vulnerable children

Vulnerable children are children who lack access to basic needs and rights, due to social ills faced within their families or in their environments (Skinner et al., 2006). Vulnerable children are individuals under the age of 18, who are at risk of living without adequate access to education, health, care and protection (WB, 2005). Vulnerable children refer to enslaved children, street children, children whose parents/guardians/caregivers suffer from chronic illness and children who stay in child headed families (Sabbaro et al., 2001). For the purposes of this study, vulnerable children are those whose physical wellness, emotional wellbeing and cognitive development is at risk due to factors including poverty, social exclusion and lack of adult care. Furthermore, children who suffer inadequate access to education, healthcare facilities and sanitation are referred to as vulnerable children.

Zimbabwe

Formerly known as Southern Rhodesia, Zimbabwe is a landlocked country situated in the southern part of Africa. Zimbabwe is a former British colony which gained its independence in 1980 (Arnold, 2016).There are 16 official languages in Zimbabwe, with Shona, English and Ndebele being the most commonly used languages (Lifshitz, 2009).

Zimbabwe is predominantly occupied by the Shona and Ndebele people. The estimated population of individuals living in Zimbabwe is 14 919 162 as of 2019 (UN, 2019). Zimbabwe is characterised by decades of droughts, which are as a result of lack of rainfall and unfavourable climate changes in most parts of the country (World Food Programme [WFP], 2015). In this study, Zimbabwe is referred to as a third world country which is characterised by high rates of poverty, chronic droughts and unemployment. Besides, Zimbabwe is viewed as a country in which OVCs have no adequate access to basic services which include education, nutrition and healthcare.

1.7 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A qualitative research approach was adopted for this study. This involved an intense evaluation of BEAM, which helped the researcher to drive meaning from the study (Al Riyami, 2015; Richardson, 2012). The exploratory nature of qualitative research enabled the researcher to

gather comprehensive information on participants' perceptions regarding the contribution of BEAM in enabling OVCs to access education (Creswell, 2012; Marshall & Rossman, 2011).

An intrinsic case study design was employed in this study, which enabled the researcher to gather compelling information necessary to address the aim and objectives of the study in an effective manner (Trainor & Graue, 2013; Yin, 2014).The use of purposive sampling in selecting the study population permitted the researcher to select the most appropriate individuals, whose knowledge and experience were synonymous with the aim study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Zhi, 2014). The population of this study consisted of parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. Also included are key informants who were educators of selected schools, the District Remedial Tutor and Head of the Department of Social Welfare.

Two semi structured interview guides, one for key informants and one for parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM were used as instruments of collecting data during individual interviews. The researcher mainly used open-ended questions which allowed participants to fully express their perceptions and enabled the researcher to acquire more factual information from the research participants (Janice, 2008; Polgar & Thomas, 2019).

Pretesting of the research instruments was done to reduce the possibility of flaws in its design (Wolf et al., 2016). The research instruments were pretested by using two parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM and one key informant. Data collected during pre-testing of the research instruments did not form part of the data collected during the study. The researcher collected data using face-to-face interviews, which facilitated good cooperation (Depoy & Gitlin, 2016; Muratovski, 2016). Analysis of data was done using thematic analysis, following the steps recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006) in analysing data.

1.8 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

The thesis has been structured into the following chapters:

Chapter 1 introduces the study and provides comprehensive information on the background of the study. This chapter presents the statement of the problem and rationale, the research questions, sub questions, the aim of the research and research objectives. The researcher also

clarifies key concepts that are used in the study and elaborates on the research methodology adopted.

In ***Chapter 2***, the theoretical frameworks underpinning then study are described.

Chapter 3 reviews existing literature on social protection and poverty. The researcher provides a comprehensive definition of social protection and explains different approaches to social protection. An overview of the historical development of social protection is provided. The researcher elaborates on the poverty trends, starting with the global perspective, narrowing down to the regional and the Zimbabwean context.

Literature on the prevalence of HIV/AIDS and child poverty is elaborated on in ***Chapter 4.*** The researcher discusses the challenges that are faced by orphans and vulnerable children. Social protection is also discussed as a response to child poverty and vulnerability. Challenges faced in the provision of social protection also looked at in this chapter.

Chapter 5 provides detailed literature on social protection programmes that provide educational assistance for orphans and vulnerable children. The researcher elaborates on the Basic Education Assistance Module and its contribution in enhancing access to education and in alleviating poverty in Gutu District Zimbabwe.

Literature review on international standards and global commitments that focus on safeguarding the wellness of children, particularly OVCs is given in ***Chapter 6***. The researcher further explains the policy frameworks that guide the provision of social protection benefits for children in Zimbabwe.

Chapter 7 presents a discussion of the research approach used in the study. The chapter discusses the research design used in the study. The study population and sampling procedures employed in the study are looked at too in this chapter. The researcher explains the research instrument that was used in the study and provides a detailed description of the methods of data collection employed in this study. More so, a discussion of how data was collected and analysed is provided. In addition, the chapter provides a description of how trustworthiness was established in the study. The researcher discusses ethical considerations used in the study and states the limitations and delimitations of the study.

Chapter 8 is a presentation of the analysed data and a comprehensive discussion of the study findings. Themes which emerge from the study are presented and discussed under each of the seven objectives of the study.

Chapter 9 summaries the key findings of the study. In addition, the conclusions in relation to the key findings are presented and recommendations likely to inform policy on social protection and education, as well as further research options are presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER 2

THEORATICAL FRAMEWORKS UNDERPINNING THE STUDY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the theoretical frameworks that inform this study, namely, neoliberal theory and social development theory. The chapter begins with defining the neoliberal theory. It discusses the main principles of neoliberalism. The chapter elaborates on the global evolution of neoliberalism and the provision of social protection, and shortcomings of the global implementation of neoliberalism.

In addition, the chapter discusses the intricate interplay between neoliberalism and the provision of social protection services in Africa, and shortcomings of the neoliberal theory in Africa. Furthermore, this provides a discussion of the social development theory, focusing on its historical development, its main tenets and applicability to the context under investigation.

2.2 NEOLIBERAL THEORY

Defining the neoliberal theory

Martinez and Garcia (2010) define neoliberalism as set of ideologies and practices that inform the production and provision of goods and services. Lodhi (2017) further indicates that neoliberalism is a political and economic theory which is based on the notion that the wellbeing of all individuals is best achieved through liberating the labour market system and limiting government intervention in national and international systems of trade. Thus, the neoliberal theory is driven by absolutism, in which it is viewed as a definitive strategy of gaining economic prosperity and is based on the notion that any state which desires economic growth will only achieve this goal through employing neoliberal principles (Brown, 2015; Kottak, 2014; Plant, 2009).

Principles of neoliberalism

The core principle of the neoliberal theory is the privatisation of all enterprises that are state owned (Hendrikse, 2018; Kotz, 2015; Peck & Theodore, 2012b). Neoliberalism is based on the

view that human wellness can only be achieved if all health and education institutions that are regulated by the state are privatised (Brand & Sekler, 2009; Jessop, 2007; Massey, 2015). This is based on the conception that state regulation of social services impedes the efficient interplay of market forces in providing adequate social services for individuals, and thus is a major setback towards achieving economic growth (Fine, 2015; Konings, 2011; Peck et al., 2018).

Likewise, neoliberalism supports the liberalisation of private institutions from restrictions placed by governments on national and global markets of trade (Kiely, 2005; Peck et al., 2012; Quinn, 2018b). Shawn (2016) states that the liberation of the labour market system facilitates global trade and ensures free movement of goods, services and capital. Thus, limited state intervention on labour markets leads to reduced taxation, which in turn promotes economic development (Haque, 2008; Peck, 2010).

In addition, neoliberalism calls for the reduction of government expenditure on all social services and places the responsibility of meeting basic needs on individuals (Cahill, 2013; Howard & King, 2008; Rodgers, 2018). The state is only expected to intervene with limited assistance, in scenarios where individuals fail to cater for their needs (Albo, 2008; Fine & Saad-Filho, 2014; Tooze, 2018). Similarly, Dunn (2017) states that neoliberalism disregards the term society and replaces it with individuality, thus placing the responsibility of meeting health and education needs on individuals, regardless of their financial conditions. It supports the deregulation of employee and environmental protection policies that are imposed by governments in workplace, as these policies are highly expensive and, thus, result in decreased profits (Brown, 2018a; Crouch, 2011, Dardot & Laval, 2013).

2.3 THE GLOBAL EVOLUTION OF NEOLIBERALISM AND THE PROVISION OF SOCIAL PROTECTION SERVICES

Neoliberalism originated during the 1930s and 1940s, as a movement of philosophers who held a shared belief that the market system is in a best position to provide services for individuals, and thus should be given freedom to do so with minimum intervention of the state (Alkalg, 2005; Kingfisher & Maskovsky, 2008; Wengraf, 2018). It was regarded as an economic solution to the global economic depression of the 1930's. The implementation of neoliberal principles was expected to eradicate global poverty and to enhance employment opportunities (Peck et al., 2018).

Germany was the first country to implement neoliberal principles, in a bid to boost economic restoration after the second World War (WW II). However, neoliberal principles gradually lost popularity as they were regarded as being autocratic. Neoliberalism was also blamed for increased poverty and lack of access to health and education services (Harvey, 2005; Holmwood, 2014; Slobodian, 2018). Consequently, the social market economy was introduced to increase access to social services. As a result, it gained public approval and entered into full force during the 1950s (Slobodian, 2018).

Chile was one of the first countries to adopt neoliberal principles in Latin America (Boas, 2009). As Harvey (2005) puts it, the significant adoption of neoliberal principles was first experienced in Chile. The implementation of neoliberalism in Chile led to the privatisation of state-owned enterprises, more so, there was significant reduction of trade barriers on labour markets (Borzutzky, 2005; Eduardo, 2000; Harvey, 2007a). In addition, the role of the state in the provision of pensions, education and health services was reduced (Harvey, 2007a).

The adoption of Neoliberalism in Chile amounted to a 10% increase in economic growth. Upon recognising the economic prosperity witnessed in Chile, the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States of America (USA) adopted neoliberal principles during the early 1980's (Gray, 2004; Steger & Roy, 2010). Neoliberal reforms were adopted to counter the economic recession that had been experienced in UK and USA during the 1970s. Since its adoption, neoliberalism continues to dominate the economic sectors of these two countries (Harvey, 2007b; Lavelle, 2016). Following the adoption of neoliberalism in USA and UK, neoliberal principles were exported to other countries including Venezuela, Argentina, China and Mexico (Dumenil & Levy, 2004; Mudge, 2018). Neoliberal principles were further implemented in the developing world by the IMF and the WB, through structural adjustment programmes, in which developing nations received loans which were attached to the condition of adopting neoliberal principles (Wengraf, 2018).

Shortcomings of the global implementation of the neoliberal theory

As indicated by Brown (2016) the globalisation of neoliberal principles intensifies global poverty and social exclusion. While neoliberalism promotes economic development, it ignores the social aspect of development which includes employee wellness and access to social services (Grimaldi, 2011; Lavelle, 2016; Robinson, 2004). The reduced power of trade unions

and the removal of labour market regulations in Venezuela led to an increase in occupational diseases and accidents (Feo, 2008).

Furthermore, unregulated systems of trade result in the degradation of the environment. Harvey (2007a) states that the implementation of neoliberal principles within industrial companies is behind the rapid extinction of species, which is as a result of the pollution of oceans, seas, land and air. The individualist approach that informs neoliberalism promotes social exclusion (Rushing, 2016). Public health and education systems are often underfunded, this undermines the wellness of medical personnel and is a stumbling block towards safeguarding the health and wellness of the underprivileged (Peck, 2013; Spector, 2007).

Neoliberalism is a major factor behind high levels of poverty in the USA. While the privatisation of health and education institutions has led to numerous profits, those who cannot afford such services suffer deprivation (Ostry et al., 2016). The economic growth experienced in Chile upon the adoption of neoliberalism led to increased inequalities as the working class suffered poor wages and unfavourable working conditions. By the end of 1990, around 44% of the total population in Chile were extremely poor (Edwards, 2019).

Neoliberalism is the major factor contributing to the underemployment of 35% of the US population (Howell & Mamadou, 2007). It leads to political instability. For example, the 2019 and 2020 protests in Chile and the 2018 yellow vests movement of France emerged as an opposition to neoliberal policies of privatisation and deregulation (Ehrenreich, 2019; Haskins, 2018).The global adoption of neoliberal principles has led to the accumulation of profits for capitalists, while worsening the living and working conditions of members of the lower class (Gilbert, 2013). Consequently, adequate access to health and education services for the poor remains an unmet need (Connel, 2015; Gupta, 2018; Holland et al., 2016).

2.4 NEOLIBERALISM AND THE PROVISION OF SOCIAL PROTECTION SERVICES IN AFRICA

The provision of social protection services in Africa is largely informed by the neo-liberal theory, which calls for the reduction of government spending on social services including education and health (Harvey 2005; Varoufakis, 2014; Williams, 2007). The provision of health and education benefits for the poor is informed by the residual approach to welfare, whereby beneficiaries receive minimal support for limited periods of time (Tansel, 2017). The

financial constrictions faced by African governments have rendered them incapable of providing all-inclusive social protection services and benefits are often inadequate in meeting the needs of beneficiaries (Dean 2014; Kaseke, 2012).

The implementation of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) in Africa facilitated the adoption of neoliberal principles (Cox & Nielson, 2014; Konings, 2011;Wengraf, 2018). SAPs are policy responses employed by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and WB to assist countries in reducing poverty and in enhancing social and economic development (IMF, 2017; Peck et al., 2018; Piven, 2015). SAPs were implemented in countries such as Malawi, Tanzania, Zambia, Uganda, Lesotho and Zimbabwe (Della Porta, 2017; Flew, 2014; Siddiqui, 2012). The financial support provided for African governments under SAPS was conditioned on the adoption of neoliberal principles (Kentikelenis, 2015; Siddiqui, 2012). As a result, recipient countries experienced cutbacks on government spending on social services (Della Porta, 2017; Flew, 2014; Siddiqui, 2012).

SAPs were expected to facilitate poverty reduction through fostering social and economic development, particularly in rural areas, where the majority of the poor reside (Harrison, 2019; Pikalo, 2007; Piven, 2015). While economic growth resulting from the adoption of SAPS was reported in Lesotho and Tanzania, the situation in Zimbabwe proved to be different (UNICEF, 2016). The implementation of SAPS in Zimbabwe led to increased poverty and deprivation, resulting from reduced governmental support in the provision of social services (Chitambara, 2010; UNICEF, 2016). Rural poverty intensified as low-income families suffered lack of access to education and health care services (UNICEF, 2018a). The consequences of limited governmental support for the poor resulted in increased school dropout numbers in both primary and secondary education and malnutrition (WB, 2018; World Food Programme [WPF], 2015).

Shortcomings of the neoliberal theory in Africa

After decades of employing neoliberalism, most African countries are yet to achieve considerable economic progress (Rowden, 2013; Siddiqui, 2012; Ugwu et al., 2016). Similarly, Wengraf (2018) notes that there is no evidence to suggest that neoliberalism led to economic development in Africa and further alludes to the fact that the rapid economic growth and poverty reduction that has been noted in the neoliberal era has not been experienced in Africa. Wilkinson and Pickett (2010) state that instead of reducing inequality and poverty,

neoliberalism resulted in increased levels of social injustice and extreme poverty in African countries. Critiques of the neo-liberal theory state that labour market values promote individualism and perpetuates social inequalities and thus is incapable of addressing the needs of the poor (Catree, 2006; Fine, 2015; Wisman & Smith, 2011).

Neoliberalists insist that there is no better substitute of neoliberalism in Africa, even though the ideology has resulted in worsening levels of poverty (Fine & Hall, 2012; Stuckler & Bosau, 2011; Varoufakis, 2014).While neoliberalism is expected to lessen the inequalities that exist between developed and less developed countries, a far worse situation is created, whereby developed nations exercise their economic superiority on the global market to acquire financial gains (Dumenil & Levy, 2011; Fiorentini, 2015; Parnel & Robinson, 2012). Neoliberalism has resulted in income inequalities within African countries, as those at the top of the economic ladder continue to benefit from profits generated through the labour market, while the living conditions of the poor continue to worsen (Ferguson, 2006; Lodhi, 2017; Thomson, 2010).

Velikonja (2005) points out that Neoliberal policies largely benefit top officials who accumulate a larger part of profits, at the expense of the labour force who, in most cases, work in unfavourable conditions. Likewise, Bruff (2014) states that the financial gains within the labour market system are only enjoyed by shareholders and individuals who hold influential positions.

Ezeonu (2008) postulates that neoliberalism is socially harmful and leads to increased poverty and vulnerability amongst economically disadvantaged individuals, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa where poverty already prevails in high levels. The privatisation of goods and services hinders disadvantaged members of society from accessing basic social services, without state intervention to support the poor, they suffer social injustice and chronic poverty (Ashman & Fine, 2013; Birch & Fraser, 2017; Zenawi, 2012).

Neoliberalism continues to be inapplicable in Africa, as the ideology does not recognise the longstanding social and economic patterns that remain unaddressed within the continent (Birch & Mykhnenko, 2010; Fraser, 2017; Ugwu et al., 2016). Kottak (2014) states that development initiatives that are employed in underdeveloped nations will only be successful if they are informed by the indigenous socio-economic structures and practices of these states.

As noted by Aniako (2011), the overreliance of African states on foreign ideologies is misguided, as it allows the designers of such ideologies to exploit and control societies that are on the receiving end, thus further crippling their efforts towards economic development. Ugwu et al. (2016) further indicate that externally crafted ideologies should only be employed after a critical analysis, as there is a possibility that the inventors of such knowledge may only give out ideas that impede the receiving countries from competing with them.

The dismal failure of the Neoliberal ideology in Africa is rooted in the fact that the theory is informed by Westernised ideas that are highly inappropriate in an African context (Brown, 2018a; Saad-Filho, 2011). Neoliberal ideologies were imposed on African states through the use of top-down measures. The undemocratic practices that resemble the implementation of neoliberalism in Africa resulted in social and economic instability and generated weaker responses in providing for the needs of vulnerable members of society (Giroux, 2004; Saad-Filho, 2008; Fiorentini, 2015).

Countries progress along different paths because they have differing social, historical and economic realities. Therefore, efforts directed towards enhancing economic growth in any given country should be informed by its socio-economic conditions, not foreign philosophies (Clarke, 2008; Hall, 2017; Ugwu et al., 2016). The ideology of Neoliberalism needs to be modified in order for it to suite the socio-economic context of Africa.

2.5 RELEVANCE OF THE NEOLIBERAL THEORY FOR THE STUDY

The relevance of the neo-liberal theory to this study is justified on the premise that the provision of BEAM benefits is largely informed by neo-liberal principles (WB, 2018). Neoliberalists view education as a private service. In this context, the responsibility of providing for children's educational needs is placed on parents/guardians/caregivers, while the state only provides minimal assistance, in situations where individuals fail to fund the education of their children or children under their care (Garrett, 2008; Hodge, 2017; Knox & Haly, 2010; Layton, 2009).

The neoliberal theory denotes that individuals should take responsibility for their wellness and should address their needs through societal systems which include the labour market, the family and the church (Peck, 2013; Sniegocki, 2008; Zastrow, 2009). The state only aids in situations

whereby individuals fail to receive support from such systems (Mudge, 2008; Peck, 2013, Venugopal, 2015).

The provision of BEAM benefits in Zimbabwe is informed by the residual approach to welfare, where the government only intervenes in providing BEAM benefits for children who meet the legibility criteria of BEAM. The beneficiaries of BEAM are considered as poverty-stricken individuals who do not have the means to fund their education (Kaseke, 2012). The government intervenes to provide minimum assistance, which enables OVC's to access basic education.

BEAM is inclined to neoliberalism in the sense that the programme employs a minimalist approach to providing social protection benefits, BEAM does not cover all education related costs, but provides the basic support needed for beneficiaries to attain primary and secondary education. BEAM pays school fees and part of examination fees. All other education needs including school uniforms, books and stationery are not covered under BEAM. The reasoning behind providing minimum assistance is to avoid a situation where beneficiaries become dependent on social protection benefits. The temporal assistance is expected to enable beneficiaries to become self-sustaining. Thus, BEAM is seen as a means of enabling beneficiaries to grow out of poverty.

2.6 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT THEORY

Defining the social development theory

Midgley (2014, p. 13) define social development as "a process of planned social change designed to promote the wellbeing of the population as a whole within the context of a dynamic and multi-faceted development process". Social development refers to prearranged social and economic development initiatives that are employed by governments, NGOs and international organisations to enable individuals to achieve happiness, gratification and peaceful lives (Aspater & Singh, 2008; Pawar, 2014). Social development denotes interventions that seek to address underlying economic and social challenges that negatively impact on the wellness of individuals such as poverty, unemployment and inequality (Dimmel, 2014; Gray et al., 2012).Social development includes programmes, projects and policies aimed at achieving its goals (Drolet, 2016; Mohan, 2010; Midgley, 2013). Material goals of social development include enabling individuals to meet basic needs and enhancing access to health and education

services, and ideational goals include social justice and empowerment (Desai & Solas, 2012; Midgley, 2014; Pawar & Cox, 2010).

2.7 THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

The advent of social development is traced back to the 1940's when the approach was implemented by the British colonial administration in British colonies such as Zimbabwe, South Africa and Zambia to identify social welfare policies that were directly linked to economic development (Midgley 1995, 2013). Initially, social welfare benefits were provided by missionaries, charity organisations and the extended family (Midgley & Piachuad, 2011). As time went on, colonial cities expanded which led to increased rates of juvenile delinquency and destitution. Consequently, the colonial government recognised the urgent need to address such challenges (Kynoch, 2008; Ocheni & Nwankwo, 2012; Rodney, 1972, 2018). Social workers from UK and USA were imported to establish social welfare institutions and to provide training for indigenous workers who qualified to provide casework services (Midgley, 1981).

In addition, the British colonial government introduced youth programmes as a preventive measure of youthful crimes (Midgley, 1995). More programmes were established to enhance community participation in agricultural activities, road construction and infrastructural development (Midgley, 1984, 1995). Training programmes on maternal and healthcare, dressmaking and cooking were established for women (Midgley, 1995). Adult literacy was introduced to provide informal education on agriculture, water supply and infrastructure development. Furthermore, the programme was established to raise awareness on the importance of educating children (Midgley & Piachuad, 2011).

Adult literacy programmes were regarded as a strategy of involving people in the social and economic development of their environment. Such programmes were meant to develop rural areas in which there was severe lack of sanitation, health and education services (Midgley, 1995). All services rendered were regarded as developmental social welfare due to their nature of enhancing economic development while promoting the social wellness of larger groups of people (Gore, 1973; Estes, 1993).

Due to its nature of fostering community participation in social and economic development practices, the term adult literacy was replaced by the term community development in 1948 (Midgley et al., 1986). Community development programmes were implemented in French

colonies, USA, Latin America and Asia (Brokensha & Hodge, 1969). The British colonial government recognised the need for remedial services within social work practice. As a result, it adopted a needs-based approach in responding to differing needs of the urban poor and rural poor (Midgley, 1994, 1995). There was a shared perception that this approach of addressing poverty would enhance economic development in both rural and urban areas, while promoting the wellness of all individuals (Midgley, 1994, 2001).

The concept of social development gained formal approval in 1954 at a conference held by colonial officials from countries including UK, USA and France in Ashridge, UK (United Kingdom, 1954). It was commonly agreed that the focus of social development should be on promoting the social welfare of all individuals within the context of advancing economic development (Midgley, 1995). The adoption of the social development approach in the USA, especially within the country's educational sector, was largely influenced by social workers who had worked in developing countries (Midgley, 1995). USA was the first country to introduce social development within the academic sector, and its first School of Social Development was established at Minnesota University (Midgley, 1995). Subsequently, social development was introduced in social work programmes in and outside USA (UN, 1971b).

The social development approach was further embraced by the UN (UN, 1971b). During the early 1950s, the UN conducted various studies in remedial social welfare and made efforts in spreading social work in Africa (UN, 1971a). The United Nations Research Institute for Social Development in (UNRISD) and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) form part of UN Institutions that were employed to measure the extent to which social development goals were met in various counties (Midgley, 1995).

By the end of the 1960's, the UN reviewed its initial dedication to remedial social welfare which employed a narrow approach of responding to the needs of individuals and introduced comprehensive approaches that were more responsive to high levels of poverty (Midgley, 1995). During the years 1969 and 1971, the UN organised a meeting of expert economists from countries such as Canada, Sweden and UK to device policy proposals aimed at achieving social and economic development (UN, 1971b). Over the years, the UN has continued to a play significant role in promoting policies, programmes and projects that are aimed at promoting social and economic development and it regards childcare services, youth programmes and family welfare as central components of social development (UN, 2008: 2013d). Article 55 of

the UN Charter states that the organisation is committed to expanding initiatives that foster economic and social progress (Schill, 2015; Stayrinides, 1999; UN, 1971a).

In an attempt to promote social development ideals, the WB established a bank in 1946, which took the responsibility of lending funds to countries which were overwhelmed by poverty and inequality (WB, 1975). The most notable social development strategy of the 1970's was the basic needs approach adopted by ILO at the 1976 World Employment Conference (ILO, 2016; Jolly, 2008). The basic needs approach assumed that it is the state's responsibility to promote social development through ensuring that basic services are distributed in a fair and just manner (Estes, 1985; Benanay, 2019). After conducting intensive research on employment in Africa, the organisation concluded that the most sustainable way of achieving social development was through mobilising resources towards enhancing access to education and healthcare services, especially in rural areas (Midgley, 1995). Illiteracy, ill-health and lack of sanitation services were regarded as root causes of underdevelopment in Africa (Ghai et al., 1977, Midgley, 1994).

Organisations such as the WB, UNICEF, ILO and WHO incorporated the basic needs approach in service provision (WHO, 1981; UNICEF, 2006). However, this approach was criticised by social development advocates who claimed that social development can be best achieved through enhancing the active participation of communities in social development initiatives, which resulted in the adoption of the approach of community participation (UN, 1971a; Midgley, 1995). The concept of community participation gained popularity within indigenous and international NGOs and was widely incorporated in the provision of social development services (Elliot, 1993; Midgley, 1995). During the 1980s, the focus of social development was further expanded to focus on protecting the environment, and there were increased concerns on the depletion of natural resources due to continued economic growth, which gave rise to the term sustainable development which denotes achieving economic development without depleting natural resources (Estes, 1993: Redclift, 1987).

However, efforts made by international organisations in enhancing social development were negatively impacted on by the Radical Right-wing political movements which had gained influence in countries such as the USA and the UK during the 1960's and 1970's (Midgley, 1995). Such movements were strongly against the notion that it is the state's responsibility to promote the welfare of individuals and stated that individuals should take responsibility for their welfare (Glennester and Midgley, 1991). It was during this era that the universalistic

approach that had characterised the provision of social welfare benefits in developed countries swiftly collapsed (Midgley, 2013).

Poverty and inequality were experienced as the individualist approach to social welfare proved to be unsustainable (Midgley, 1995). The International Monetary Fund (IMF), which had opposed state funding of social welfare programmes was given an opportunity by Radical Right-wing governments to offer loans to countries that were experiencing extreme poverty (Midgley, 1995). IMF provided loans under the condition that beneficiary countries should limit state intervention in the provision of welfare benefits (Peck, 2013; Rushing, 2016). Consequently, government spending on social services was cut and some health and education services were privatised (Wengraf, 2018). Initially, comprehensive schemes of social welfare were narrowed to providing minimum benefits (Mudge, 2018).

With the demise of the Right-wing governments, developed countries have since shifted focus towards addressing the social needs of the less privileged in a compressive manner (Midgley & Piachuad, 2011). Upon gaining independence, African governments sort to establish comprehensive systems of social welfare, and health and education services were expanded and made accessible to indigenous people who suffered severe lack of access to social services prior to independence (Kaseke, 2008). However, the introduction of SAPS reversed the progress that had been made towards achieving social development in Africa (Harrison, 2019).

The achievement of social development in Africa is further hindered by high rates of poverty and unemployment that have been experienced within the continent for decades (Dumenil & Levy, 2018). Kaseke (2012) questions the pace of social development in Africa and notes that extreme poverty still prevails in the majority of African countries. However, international organisations such as the UN World Summit on Social Development of 1995, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of 2000 to 2015 and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of 2015 to 2030 form part of global commitments towards promoting social development and alleviation of global poverty (Midgley & Piachuad, 2013; UN, 2017; UNDP, 2013).

2.8. CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

The most distinctive characteristic of social development is that it is linked to economic development (Midgley, 2014). As argued by Pawar (2014) social development takes place through the implementation of various strategies that are focused on linking social development

with economic development. Social development integrates social policies with programmes that are designed to promote economic development (Clarke, 2002; Hasmath, 2014; Midgley, 2010c).

It is noteworthy that the social development approach is multidisciplinary because it utilises insights drawn from social science disciplines such as psychology and sociology. However, the main difference between social development and such disciplines is its strong focus on economic development (Midgley, 1995, 2014). More so, social development is a process. There are three major components to the social development process, namely, the original condition that social development aims to change, the goals it seeks to attain and the interventions that can make the goals achievable (Midgley, 2013; Gray et al., 2012).

In addition, social development takes place through a progressive and transformative process which addresses existing social ills (Midgley, 2001, 2014). Social development employs a universalistic approach, that is, it is concerned with the wellbeing of the population as a whole, and its emphasis is on individuals who are vulnerable to poverty (Hasmath 2014; Midgley & Tang, 2001).

Social development promotes the social welfare of all individuals through meeting social and economic needs, which enables individuals attain favourable standards of living (Midgley, 2010b; Welch, 2012). Social development interventions are implemented in a comprehensive manner that addresses social, economic and cultural issues, especially those that have a negative impact on humanity (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, [UNDESA], 2020).

Social development takes place as a multifaceted process encompassing environmental, economic, political and social policies designed to promote social and economic development (Midgley, 2010a). Social development seeks to increase productivity within the economic sector. In doing so, social development enables all individuals to benefit from economic development through increased employment opportunities and increased access to social services (Midgley, 2008, 2014). Moreover, social development is interventionist in that services are rendered through an organised process in which various policies and programmes are implemented to address underlying challenges that negatively impact on the wellness of individuals (Gray et al., 2012; Scott, 2010; WB, 2015). Social development promotes social inclusion, which enables all citizens to participate in the development of society, and to have access to social services (European Social Watch Report, 2010, Midgley, 2014).

2.9 RELEVANCE OF THE SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT THEORY FOR THE STUDY

The social development theory is relevant to this study as it is aimed at exploring BEAM, which is basically a social development programme that promotes social development goals by providing educational benefits to OVCs. According to Midgley (2013), social protection is focused on the social development of society. The United Nations (2018) states that there is a close link between social protection and social development. The overall goal of social protection and social development is to eradicate poverty through enhancing access to social services (Patel, 2015). The main objective of BEAM, as a social protection programme, is to alleviate poverty. Poverty alleviation is one of the main challenges that are addressed by social development and social protection initiatives (UN, 2018). Social development attempts to harmonise social protection measures designed to facilitate social and economic development (Midgley, 2014). In addition, social development and social protection programmes are concerned with the promotion of human rights, particularly the rights of individuals vulnerable to extreme deprivation (Sano, 2000; UN, 2018). As mentioned earlier, BEAM promotes the right of children to education through providing educational benefits for OVCs.

BEAM promotes the social development goal of enhancing the social inclusion of individuals who suffer poverty. The education benefits provided by social protection programmes promote the continued acquisition of knowledge, thus producing socially responsible adults who participate in the social and economic development of their countries (GOZ, 2016). Midgley (2014) states that investing in education is beneficial in promoting social and economic development as education produces skilled individuals needed on the labour market. Similarly, the World Bank (2018) states that social development outcomes of education include improved standards of living, better employment opportunities, economic growth, peace and democracy. Bravemen and Ruskin (2003) argued that social development practices place more emphasis on promoting gender equity. Likewise, the provision of BEAM benefits is guided by the principle that 50% of beneficiaries of the programme should be girls (UNICEF, 2012; GOZ, 2015).

2.10 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the theoretical frameworks that inform this study. It has been demonstrated that the global, regional and national adoption of neoliberalism has a negative impact on the wellness of individuals living in poverty. Neoliberalism perpetuates unjust systems of global trade, thus contributing to poverty within developing nations. Neoliberal principles also promote inequalities within the provision of social services.

It has also been demonstrated that the social development theory has the capacity to inform the provision of social protection benefits in a comprehensive manner which is focused on the wellbeing of all individuals. Social development is suitable approach for achieving sustainable development. Its universalist approach in providing social services is an effective way of promoting social justice and poverty alleviation. This next chapter is focused on discussing social protection and poverty.

CHAPTER 3

SOCIAL PROTECTION AND POVERTY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews literature on social protection and poverty. For centuries, social protection programmes have been used by various governments, NGO's, charity organisations and international organisations to address the negative consequences of poverty, deprivation and vulnerability (WB,2015). Social protection continues to dominate issues relating to poverty alleviation and the protection of human rights. In this chapter, the historical development of social protection is discussed from the precolonial, colonial and post-colonial era.

In addition, different approaches to social protection are elaborated on. Poverty is discussed as one of the major obstacles towards achieving sustainable development and economic prosperity in various countries around the globe. Poverty trends are looked globally, and locally, in Africa in general and Zimbabwe in particular.

3.2 DEFINING SOCIAL PROTECTION

According to the United Nations Economic and Social Council (2001, p. 4) "Social protection is broadly understood as a set of public and private policies and programmes undertaken by societies in response to various contingencies to offset the absence or substantial reduction of income from work; to provide assistance for families with children; as well as provide people with health care and housing." Handa et al. (2012) refer to social protection as a set of programmes and interventions carried out in an effort to support individuals, families and communities and enable them to overcome risks associated with deprivation, vulnerability and poverty.

Social protection involves various public institutions, and programmes that are aimed at safeguarding individuals from contingencies that threaten their wellbeing (WB, 2015). Social protection alleviates the inequalities that exist in terms of accessing social services and is concerned with facilitating social, political and economic stability (Devereux, 2015). Social protection plays an important role in responding to the needs of disabled children, children who

are victims of violence, children who suffer neglect and abuse, orphans and vulnerable children (Barrientos et al, 2013; Save the Children [SC], 2012b).

3.3 OVERVIEW OF SOCIAL PROTECTION

The historical development of social protection in Europe

Social protection programmes are globally employed in addressing the social and economic needs of individuals who suffer extreme poverty and lack of access to health, education and sanitation needs (WB, 2015). The focus of social protection is on poverty eradication and social inclusion. Social protection dates back to the 18th century, arising from the need to conserve nature and humankind (Polanyi, 1994; Ramia, 2002).

Hall and Midgley (2004) state that social protection emerged as a social policy goal of promoting social inclusion by way of eradicating poverty and vulnerability. In Europe, social protection emerged during the 19th century, as a result of industrialisation and was established to protect formal employees against unemployment and injuries that occur at the workplace (Barrientos & Hulme 2005; Ramia, 2002).

The 1930's great depression further necessitated the implementation of programmes that protect individuals against economic and social shocks (Hoefer & Curry, 2011). As a result, charity organisations and state-owned social protection schemes were implemented to provide welfare benefits to orphans, disabled individuals, poor households and the elderly (Gough & Wood, 2004).

Worldwide, social protection continues to gain support from various governments who made commitments at conferences held by the UN and the ILO, which include the MDG's, the SDG's and the Social Protection Floors (SPFs) (ASSAF, 2016; ILO, 2012). In developed countries, social protection is mainly focused on enhancing the living standards of all individuals, especially formal workers (De Haan 2000; World Bank, 2001a). In developing countries, emphasis is on poverty alleviation and in supporting the marginalised, particularly in rural areas (UN, 2017).

The historical development of social protection in Pre-colonial Africa

As stated by Midgely (1997) social protection has been existing for decades in Africa. During the pre-colonial era, vulnerabilities and shocks were addressed through informal social protection structures, namely, the extended family and various support networks within the community (Bevan, 2004b; IIiffe, 1987). The provision of social protection benefits varied across the continent. In countries such as Rwanda, Buganda and Burundi, Kings had no clearly stated obligations of providing relief for poor individuals, hence the provision of social protection benefits by the state was largely dependent on whether the Kings deemed it necessary to provide aid for the poor or not (Iliffe, 1987). Apart from Ethiopia, West Africa and Central Africa, there were very few formalised social protection institutions in Africa (Iliffe, 1987). Bevan (2004b) notes that, given the absence of well-established social protection schemes during the pre-colonial era, the responsibility of providing care for the elderly, impoverished and disabled individuals was taken by the family and community members.

The historical development of social protection in Colonial Africa

In 1486, the Portuguese settled in Africa on a permanent basis and placed regulations which guided the provision of social protection to favour the needs of white people while strict restrictions were put for black people (Academy of Science of South Africa [ASSAF], 2016). The eligibility criterion for social protection benefits was stricter for Africans, than Europeans and this was done to prevent large numbers of applicants, and thus few Africans were able to access the benefits (Bailey & Turner, 2002).

The provision of social protection for the African population was mainly though missionary work. Iiffe (1987) states that 1948 Sisters of Castress Founded Missions of Darkar and the Libreville of Gabon in 1849 were the first religious groups to concentrate on the needs of poor Africans. Gradually, Catholic and Protestant missionaries managed to penetrate the larger part of Sub-Saharan Africa. During this period, the provision of relief was closely linked to religious work, thus most Africans who were converted to Christianity were the extremely poor and marginalised who relied on charity organisations (ASSAF, 2016).

Missionary work was largely pioneered by NGOs, which proved to be significant channels of providing foreign aid (Mkandawire, 2016). The main reason for the establishment of NGOs in Africa was to address conflicts that arose from independence struggles. Ongoing conflicts led

to an increase in refugees and displaced individuals, who were susceptible to poverty and hunger (Shnji, 2007). An estimation of 4 million refugees was recorded in Sub-Saharan Africa in 1979, which this signalled the breakdown of family and community networks that had been providing support for vulnerable individuals (UN, 1989).

The 1960 Congo crisis and the 1967 to 1970 Briafan crises led to combined efforts by NGOs in providing rehabilitation and development benefits for affected individuals (Hobbs, 2014). The Save the Children Fund provided food aid for 1.5 million individuals in Nigeria and supplied meals for 20 % of the total population in Lesotho in 1984 (IIiffe, 1987). From 1955 to 1974, around 6 % of the global food aid was placed in Africa and increased to 52% by the end of 1980 (Shaw, 2002). The provision of food packages became the most dominant form of providing social protection for Africa's rural population. However, the effectiveness of this strategy was compromised by the fact that benefits were often inadequate in addressing the structural causes of poverty (Mkandawire, 2016).

Between 1880 and 1890, aid agencies provided support for affected populations during the famine in Ethiopia and Sudan (Bennett et al., 2016). Other forms of providing relief were in existence, for example, European traders provided poor black people with appropriated goods and surplus from employee levies (Rodney, 2018). In addition, hospitals were built in Angola and in Mozambique. However, there is little evidence to support that health benefits were open for the African population (Iliffe,1987). During the period of 1960 to 1970, retail foods were subsidised as a way of guaranteeing that citizens would afford food packages. Staple food prices in countries such as Sri Lanka, Egypt and Tanzania were kept low (Shaw, 2002).

When the British settled in South Africa in 1806, private charities were abolished as they were believed to create dependency amongst the Africans (Maclean, 2002). Organisations such as the Salvation Army and the Dutch Reformed Church were formed for Africans who were deemed to deserve of social protection benefits (Rodney, 2018). These measures were informed by the British New Poor Law of 1834 (Midgley & Piachaud, 2013; Rothschild, 1995). Between 1856 and 1857, the Poor Law principles were harshly imposed on Xhosa people, as they were denied relief until they agreed to seek employment (Maclean, 2002). The Nationalists came into power in 1948 and introduced the principles of apartheid. During the apartheid era, social protection schemes were mainly concentrated in urban areas, to benefit white workers within the formal sector (De Waal, 2000).

The welfare needs of Black South Africans were neglected, simply because they lived in rural areas in which their needs could be easily met through subsistence farming (Seekings & Nattrass, 2008). Blacks were discouraged from occupying urban areas unless they were to work for whites. Old age pensions were made available for only whites and coloureds (Rodney, 2018). Racial discrimination around the provision of social protection benefits was later abolished during the early 1990's when the African National Congress (ANC) government took over the ruling power (Patel, 2005). The ANC government made considerable efforts towards improving and expanding the scope of social protection benefits, and this resulted in a more inclusive and comprehensive social welfare system, which is currently enjoyed by millions of South Africans (Midgley & Piachaud, 2013).

The historical development of social protection in Post-Colonial Africa

The first phase of gaining independence in Africa was during the period between 1950's and 1960's, when countries including Morocco, Ghana and Guinea became free states. Mozambique, Zimbabwe and South Africa gained independence between the years 1980 and 1994 (ASSAF, 2016). Upon gained independence, African governments altered the provision of social protection to make it more responsive to the needs of approximately 90% of black Africans that had not been prioritised during the colonial era (Feng & Gizelis, 2002).

Social protection programmes continue to grow in Africa. In 2009, 25 social protection interventions existed in 9 African countries and by 2012 the programmes had increased to 254 in 41 countries (Garcia & Moore, 2012). Over the past decades, member states of the African Union have emphasised the positive implications that social protection initiatives have on all national economies, and its role in breaking the cycle of intergenerational poverty, reducing growing inequalities and in fostering Africa's social and economic development (Honorati et al., 2015; Pearson, 2014). Thus, it is apparent that social protection interventions in Africa do not only address poverty, they are also effective strategies of supporting international goals of development (Omilola & Kaniki, 2014).

Social Protection continues to dominate in issues relating to social development and social policy. Social protection schemes have proved to be effective in enhancing food security and the nutritional status of beneficiaries (Bastagli et al., 2016). The scope of social protection interventions is broad, including measures aimed at providing adequate access to housing,

nutrition, health and education and economic stability (Barrientos & Hulme, 2009; Barrientos & Nino-Zarazua, 2011).

Prior to the late 1990's, the fundamental role of social protection was to provide safety nets for individuals who suffer income shocks (Feng & Gizelis, 2002). Recently, the scope of social protection expanded to denote informal and formal measures taken by the private and public sector to mitigate vulnerabilities among individuals, groups and communities (Barrientos & Hulme, 2009). Within the developing world, social protection is largely focused on poverty alleviation. In developed countries, social protection interventions are aimed at enhancing the wellness of all individuals, particularly labour market employees (de Haan, et al., 2005).

For the past 15 years, social protection has been expanding rapidly in Africa; targeted individuals include OVC's, disabled individuals, the elderly and economically disadvantaged households (Cirillo & Tebaldi, 2016; European University Institute [EUI], 2010). African countries that have made progress towards establishing comprehensive systems of social protection include Mozambique, Uganda, Ghana and Sierra Leone (Garcia & Moore, 2012).

The amount of social protection benefits varies across Africa, and largely depends on the financial capacity of a country (ASSAF, 2016). Middle-income countries such as Botswana and South Africa have greater coverage while low income countries like Zimbabwe and Tanzania provide minimum benefits due to lack of financial and institutional resources (Garcia & Moore, 2012).

The historical development of social protection in Zimbabwe

The historical development of social protection in Zimbabwe is indistinguishable from the colonial history of the country (Kaseke, 1988; Midgley & Piachuad, 2011). Zimbabwe was under British colonial rule between 1890 and 1980 (Kwashirai, 2009). During this period, the country was developed into a colony in which racial segregation became the order of the day. Under this system, white settlers belonged to the upper class, while indigenous people were in the peasant class (Rodney, 2018).

Access to social protection services was mainly based on race. Thus, benefits which included public assistance and pensions were only available to white settlers and not to blacks (Kaseke, 1993). The assumption was that black people did not require social protection benefits because

they had simple needs, which could be met through small scale farming (Clarke, 1977; Raftopoulos & Mlambo, 2009).

Prior to the colonial era, individual needs were met through the family and the society. The extended family played the role of addressing the economic and social needs of orphans, the elderly and individuals who suffered destitution (West, 2009). Emphasis was placed on strengthening the spirit of solidarity among members of the same family or community. However, the role played by the family and the community in providing support for the needy was weakened by rapid urbanisation and industrialisation, which forced indigenous people to migrate to urban areas to seek employment opportunities (Kaseke, 2003).

The colonial government provided employment opportunities for black people, although not enough jobs were created. Consequently, there were high rates of unemployment among the black population and this gave rise to the development of the informal sector (Kaseke, 2003). The informal sector sought to address the negative effects of unemployment, as individuals managed to accumulate income through buying and selling goods to local people.

Blacks who suffered deprivation in urban areas were provided with transportation funds to go back to rural areas where they would receive support from the extended family and the community (Kaseke, 1988). Occupational and old age pensions were only extended to whites; the colonial government's assumption was that indigenous people were able to generate enough income to address their needs (Riddel, 1981). Black formal workers were seen as temporary residents of urban areas and were expected to move back to rural areas once they retire from work (Kaseke, 2003). The belief was that indigenous people did not require any form of retirement benefits since they could easily migrate to rural areas and receive support from the extend family or the community (Kaseke, 2003).

The first Department of Social Welfare in Zimbabwe was established in 1948 and mainly focused on issues relating to juvenile delinquency and employee wellness (Kaseke, 2003). In 1964, the department implemented the Public assistance programme which provided cash and or in-kind benefits for impoverished individuals who were largely whites, as blacks were excluded from social welfare benefits (Kaseke, 2003; Mupedziswa, 1988).

Upon attaining independence in 1980, the Government of Zimbabwe (GOZ) sought to achieve democracy in accessing social services. According to Raftopoulos (2004, p. 2), the post-independence era of Zimbabwe is described as the phase of "restoration and hope", in which

the government sought to redress colonial injustices. The government pursued the goal of improving the accessibility of health care facilities that had been urban based, making it difficult for 60% of Africans who resided in rural areas to access health benefits (Root, 2001).

Education was recognised as a tool of enhancing social justice (Zvobgo, 1994). The first Legislative Framework on education after independence was the Education Act of 1981, which made provisions for compulsory and free primary school education, in an attempt to remedy past inequalities in which education for blacks was regarded as a privilege not a right. As formal education became one of the Government's top priorities, 20% of the national budget was directed to education. By year 2000, Zimbabwe's literacy rates had increased and became outstanding in Africa (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004).

In addition, the GOZ adopted the Education For All (EFA) Policy, aimed at addressing the discriminatory policies that existed within the system of education (Zvobgo, 1994). Subsequently, there was a swift expansion of education within the first ten years of independence. However, during the 1990's, the GOZ introduced cost sharing, in which parents were required to pay part of their children's education expenses. This led to increased school dropout numbers among children whose parents/guardians could not afford to meet these educational expenses.

During the last two decades, various development initiatives were implemented by the government to strengthen the role of social protection in addressing poverty. The programmes included the National Economic Revival Programme of 2001, the Zimbabwe Economic Development Strategy of 2009-2013 and the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimAsset) of 2013 (GOZ & WB, 2016).

Various social safety nets were established through ESPP. These interventions include Public assistance, BEAM and Assisted Medical Treatment Orders (UNICEF, 2012). However, the GOZ has not been able to provide a comprehensive system of social protection for its citizens. The majority of individuals who reside in rural areas are still suffering from extreme poverty, with limited access to health and education services (UNICE, 2016). The government's capacity to provide constant and adequate benefits of social protection is crippled by the economic downturn that is being experienced within the country (GOZ & WB, 2016).

3.4 APPROACHES TO SOCIAL PROTECTION

There are five main approaches to social protection, namely: social assistance, social insurance, labour market interventions, informal / community based social protection and child protection (Norton et al., 2001; UNDP, 2015). Social assistance denotes cash or in kind benefits that are directed towards enhancing the wellness of individuals who are living in poverty (Gentilini, 2009).

Social insurance is concerned with addressing issues relating to unemployment, retirement benefits, disability, old age and injuries that are work related (Schwartz & Shieh, 2009). Labour market interventions are programs and legislations that are designed to enhance the availability of employment opportunities and to improve the operation of labour markets (UNDP, 2015). Informal / community based social protection refers to various mechanisms used by the family and the community to safeguard their wellness and to improve their living standards (Verpoorten & Verschraegen, 2008). Child protection refers to interventions that are directed at safeguarding the wellness of children, thus protecting them from physical and emotional harm and ensuring that they have access to basic health, education and nutritional services (African Development Program [ADP], 2013).

3.5 POVERTY AND POVERTY TRENDS

Poverty trends around the world

Poverty denotes a condition whereby individuals do not have access to services that are essential for acquiring healthy lifestyles and decent education (Garcia, 2011). High rates of poverty in the world, particularly in Africa, continue to undermine the wellness of the world's impoverished individuals (WB, 2020). On a global level, poverty remains high, billions of individuals continue to suffer extreme deprivation.

In 2013, 11% of the global population were living in extreme poverty (UN, 2018). However, a significant decrease in global income poverty has been noted for the past decades, such that the percentage of households which lived below US$1.90 per individual decreased from 26.9% to 9.2% between 2009 and 2017 (UN, 2018).

Natural disasters perpetuate global poverty. In 2017 alone, the USA and various Caribbean countries lost around US$ 300 billion to natural disasters (UN, 2018). The International Labour

Organization (2012) recorded that unemployment is one of the major causes of global poverty, such that in 2011, 75 million individuals were unemployed worldwide.

In 2015, there were 777 million individuals who were undernourished, and the numbers increased to 815 million in 2016. According to the Food and Agriculture Organization (2015), approximately 795 million people of the global population of 7.3 billion were living in chronic poverty between 2014 and 2015.

The World Bank (2013) states that 1.2 billion individuals were in extreme poverty in 2010, and 31% of them were in Sub-Saharan Africa. Despite the 10% decline in poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa between 1990 and 2012, the chronically poor within the region represent 33.3% of the world's poorest (WB, 2013). Almost all impoverished individuals, that is, 780 million, are from third world countries, which this represents 12.9% of the total population in the developing world (World Economic Forum, 2016).

The World Bank (2019) states that 689 million people in the world were extremely poor in 2019. For the past two decades, there has been a significant decrease in global poverty. However, benefits of this poverty reduction are not evenly spread, as the world's wealthiest people possess assets that are equal to those possessed by 3.6 billion people who are the world's poorest (WB, 2013). The benefits of economic growth are concentrated in China, India and Asia, while African countries such as Somalia, Egypt and Zimbabwe are improving at a slower rate and are still trapped in poverty (Collier, 2007; WB, 2013). Across the African Continent, economic growth has been witnessed in some countries such as Ethiopia and Cote D'lvoure and these two have been recorded as the world's fastest growing economies (World Economic Forum, 2016).

Poverty trends in Africa

Poverty continues to rise in Africa posing severe consequences on the economic and social development of the continent (ADP, 2016). Tazoacha (2001) sates that poverty poses devastating consequences on the health and wellness of individuals and continues to claim African lives on daily basis. Despite the commitments made by African governments in alleviating poverty, progresses towards achieving this goal remain very low (UNDP, 2003; WB, 2001).

The United Nations (2015) states that Africa is the only developing region that did not manage to reduce poverty by 50% between the years 1990 and 2015, and this is due to the financial constraints that continue to be experienced by African governments. In 2002, more than 30% of the total population in Rwanda, Zambia, Niger and Zimbabwe lived in extreme poverty (Addae-Korankye, 2014).

Around 25% of all individuals in West and Central Africa are trapped in poverty; more than 50% of the countries within the region are classified as the world's poorest (WB, 2007a). Around 46% of Nigeria's total population suffer multidimensional poverty (UNDP, 2016). Statistics South Africa (2017) revealed that 55% of the total population in South Africa were living in poverty in 2015.

Causes of high rates of poverty in Africa include social exclusion, unequal distribution of income, political conflicts, corruption, unemployment and climate changes (Addae-Korankye, 2014; FAO, 2015). Unemployment remains one of the major causes of chronic poverty in Africa. A study conducted by Zaalouk (2013) revealed that youth unemployment rates in North and East Africa stood at 51%.

According to the African Development Bank (2016), there are around 240 million individuals who are between the ages 15 and 35 in Africa and 33% of these are unemployed. Annually, an estimated 12 million individuals join the workforce in Africa, yet only 30% these are provided with jobs, while the majority remain unemployed. Furthermore, the underemployment of individuals is one of the reasons behind stalled economic development and increasing poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa (ADP, 2016). Millions of Africans are forced to take up jobs that are below their qualifications and suffer being underpaid; and this cripples their ability to address their needs and those of their families in an adequate manner (The Global Agenda Councils, 2013).

Africa's rural areas, particularly secluded and conflict prone zones, have witnessed little or no benefits in terms of economic growth. The majority of vulnerable individuals reside in rural areas and these include the elderly, widows, individuals who suffer chronic illness and orphans who can barely meet a minimum standard of survival (Food and Agriculture Organisation [FAO], 2015). The number of extremely poor people in Africa was 278 million in 1990 and increased to 413 million in 2015 (WB, 2019). In 2019, 82% of all individuals in Africa were living in rural areas which are characterised by extreme poverty (WB, 2019).

Poverty trends in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe has a long history of chronic poverty that has left millions of individuals extremely poor and unable to fend for themselves (WB, 2012). Major causes of poverty include harsh climatic conditions, political instability, unemployment and lack of adequate access to social welfare services (Mhaka- Mutepfa, 2010). The poverty assessment study of 2003 revealed that 55% of Zimbabweans were living in poverty in 1995. By 2003; the numbers had increased to 72%. In 2004, over 50% of the total population needed food aid as inflation rate rose to 600% (UNICEF, 2016). Between 1998 and 2008, Zimbabwe suffered a decade of severe economic downturn; the agriculture sector which had been the backbone of the economy was affected by recurring droughts, leaving thousands of individuals, especially the rural population, in extreme poverty (UNICEF, 2016).

The introduction of SAPS further expanded and intensified capitalist ideologies which led to increased poverty and vulnerability in Zimbabwe (Putzel, 2002). SAPs refer to fiscal measures that were taken by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund to revive the economies of countries which suffered economic depression between the 1980s and 1990s (Midgely & Tang, 2001).These measures were aimed at addressing economic challenges including food shortages and high rates of unemployment (Townsend, 2000). Unfortunately, poverty levels escalated during the era of SAPs (Midgely & Tang, 2001). Oduro (2010) notes that SAPs led to cut-offs on government spending on social protection, leaving beneficiaries without adequate supply of social protection services (Chitambara, 2010). Thousands of individuals were left unemployed and were unable to finance their basic needs. The unfavourable economic situation was further worsened by recurring droughts during the 1990s, which left the majority of the rural population in extreme hunger (Kaseke, 2003; UNICEF, 2016).

The World Food Programme (2015) estimated that more than 1.5 million people in Zimbabwe were living in poverty; this represents 10% of the whole population. The World Bank (2020) states that 4.7 million people were living in extreme poverty in 2018, and by the end of 2019, the numbers had increased to 5.7 million.

Zimbabwe is ranked 156 out of 187 third world countries on the Global Hunger Index, which measures success and failure in the global fight against poverty (WFP, 2015). Bhebhe et al. (2016) state that high levels of unemployment in Zimbabwe, especially among the youth, are

perpetuating the economic crisis that has existed for decades and is disrupting government's efforts towards alleviating poverty. In 2004, only 20% of the total population in Zimbabwe were employed (ILO, 2009). In 2012, Zimbabwe was recorded to have an unemployment rate of 95% (WB, 2012; IMF, 2013). The World Bank (2012) argued that high rates of unemployment are escalating the economic crisis within the country and perpetually leading to extreme poverty. If left unresolved the problem of unemployment in Zimbabwe will further disrupt the country's economic development (Bhebhe et al., 2016).

3.6 SUMMARY

Historically, social protection has been employed in various countries as a major instrument of addressing extreme poverty. However, the economic hardships that are faced within the larger part of the African continent have rendered social protection benefits insufficient in meeting the needs of the extremely poor and vulnerable individuals. Low income households continue to suffer ill-health and lack of access to essential services. Clearly, there is need for improvement within existing social protection programmes, particularly in Africa.

The impact of social protection in reducing poverty and in enhancing the living conditions of impoverished families would be improved if the coverage of programmes is further expanded to reach out to deserving individuals who are currently excluded. In addition, there is need to enhance consistence within the provision of benefits, in order to enable beneficiaries to grow out of poverty. The following chapter looks at the interplay between HIV/AIDS, child poverty and social protection.

CHAPTER 4

HIV /AIDS, CHILD POVERTY AND SOCIAL PROTECTION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The rapid increase of HIV/AIDS poses negative effects on the wellness of children. The disease continues to claim lives on a daily basis, leaving millions of children in desperate situations, characterised by chronic poverty, lack of parental care and lack of access to health and education.

This chapter presents literature and a discussion on trends in HIV/AIDS and child poverty. The researcher explains the link between high rates of HIV/AIDS and child poverty. The HIV/AIDS epidemic is discussed as one of the major causes of poverty and vulnerability among children. The aspects of HIV/AIDS and child poverty are presented and supported with statistics from different parts of the world. The role played by social protection in responding to the HIV/AIDS epidemic and child poverty is stated. The challenges that are faced at various states in providing social protection are stated and discussed.

4.2 DEFINING HIV/AIDS

HIV refers to the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (UNAIDS, 2018). The HIV virus impairs the effective functioning of the immune system. The HIV virus weakens the immune system and leaves the human body vulnerable to infections and diseases including cancer and tuberculosis (WHO, 2020). HIV reduces the ability of the body to fight diseases and infections. The Acquired Immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) refers to a combination of infections associated with deficiencies of the immune system. AIDS is caused by the HIV virus, through the gradual weakening of the immune system. Symptoms of HIV/AIDS include weight loss, fatigue and chronic infections (UNAIDS, 2018). There has not been a cure for HIV/AIDS. However, adherence to antiretroviral regiments (ARVs) slows the progression of the disease (UNAIDS, 2018; UNICEF & UN AIDS 2006).

4.3 HIV/AIDS TRENDS IN THE WORLD

The first documented case of HIV/AIDS was in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) in 1959. Since then, the HIV/AIDS epidemic continues to spread around the globe (Gustafson-

Brown, 2013). An estimated 10 million individuals in the world were living with HIV/AIDS in 1990. The global percentage of children who lost one or both parents to HIV/AIDS stood at 16% by the end of 1990, and increased to 78% in 2001 (UNICEF, 2006). The total number of people living with HIV/AIDS in the world was 30.6 million in 1997, 29.4 million adults and approximately 1.1 million children (UNAIDS & WHO, 1998). A total of 1.8 million adults and 460 000 children died of HIV/AIDS in 1997 (UNAIDS & UNICEF, 1998).

Around 3.5 million children and adults were newly infected by HIV/AIDS in 2001 (Goliber, 2002). The total number of individuals living with HIV/AIDS in 2003 was approximately 40 million, and approximately 37 million adults and 2.5 million children below the age of 15. HIV/AIDS related deaths were around 3 million in 2003, consisting of 2.5 million adults and 500 000 children (UNAIDS & WHO, 2003).

In 2007, an estimated 32.2 million individuals were living with HIV/AIDS, and 2.5 million of them were children. 2.5 million people contracted HIV/AIDS, and 420 000 of them were children. A total of 1.7 million adults and 330 000 children died of HIV/ AIDS in 2007 (UNAIDS & WHO, 2007).

Around 34 million individuals were HIV positive in 2010, and approximately 2.7 million individuals contracted HIV/AIDS in 2010, of these, 390 000 were children, an estimated 1.8 million individuals, of which 310 of them being children died of HIV/AIDS in 2010 (UNAIDS, 2020). In 2016, around 2.1 million individuals including children were newly affected by HIV/AIDS, and this added up to 36.7 million persons with HIV/AIDS worldwide (UNAIDS, 2016). As stated by the United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (2018), an estimated 36.9 million individuals were HIV positive in 2017, and 1.8 million of these were children below the age of 15.

The World Health Organisation (2020) states that 38 million individuals were living with HIV/AIDS in 2019, and this consists of 68% of all adults and 53% of all children in the world. 690 000 individuals died of HIV/AIDS in 2019. An estimated 880 children contracted HIV/AIDS daily in 2019, and around 310 of these lost their lives due to HIV/AIDS daily (WHO, 2020). By the end of 2019, around 138 million children had lost one or both parents to HIV/AIDS, and 690 000 individuals died of HIV/AIDS in 2019, while around 16% of them were children (UNICEF, 2020). Around 150 000 children contracted HIV/AIDS in 2019, 110 of them died of HIV/AIDS, and 70% of these deaths were among children aged 10 and below (UNICEF, 2020). Since HIV/AIDS was discovered, 75.7 million people contracted the disease

and 32.7 million individuals died of the disease (UNAIDS, 2020). The global numbers of newly infected individuals per day have decreased from 310 000 in 2010 to 150 000 in 2019 (UNAIDS, 2020).

4.4 HIV/AIDS TRENDS IN AFRICA

The rapid spread of HIV/AIDS in Africa has claimed millions of lives. Sub-Saharan Africa, Eastern and Southern Africa are the most severely affected regions (UNAIDS, 2020; UNICEF, 2019). In 2001, there were around 19.7 million individuals, including children, with HIV/AIDS. In Sub-Saharan Africa, there were 2.3 million infections and 1.4 million child and adult deaths (UNAIDS, 2009).

The United Nations Children's Fund (2006a) states that approximately 25% of all orphans in Sub-Saharan Africa lost one or both parents to HIV/AIDS before turning 5 years. In 2007, 1.7 million people contracted HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa, all HIV/AIDS cases added up to 22.5 million, within the same year, 270 000 children in Africa died of HIV/AIDS, 90% of them were in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNAIDS, 2007). Approximately, 68% of all individuals living with HIV/AIDS in the world were in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2007 (UNAIDS, 2016). In 2007, there were 24 million orphans in Southern and Eastern Africa and 40% of them were HIV/AIDS orphans (UNICEF, 2008).

In 2008, an estimated 22.4 million adults and children were living with HIV/AIDS in Sub Saharan Africa, 1.9 million new infections and 1.4 million adults and children died due to HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS, 2009). One in every 8 children in Sub Saharan Africa has lost one or both parents and more than 80% of all HIV/AIDS orphans in the world were in Sub Saharan Africa (USAID, 2008). World Vision (2012) states that an African parent dies every 30 seconds due to HIV/AIDS. Save the Children (2013a) estimates that there are 397 000 HIV/ AIDS related child deaths every year in Africa, and around 31% of babies who die shortly after birth are in Sub-Saharan Africa dies because of HIV/AIDS. By the end of 2019, an estimated 20.7 million people, including 2.8 million children, were living with HIV/AIDS in Africa, and 730 000 new infections were recorded (UNAIDS, 2020). In countries such as Zimbabwe and Botswana, more than 33% of child deaths are due to HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS, 2016).

An estimated 54% of all individuals with HIV/AIDS in the world are in Eastern and Southern Africa, around 1.1 million of them are children, this consists of 58% of all children within the

region (UNAIDS, 2020). The main causes of high rates of HIV/AIDS among children in Eastern and Southern Africa are mother to child transmissions, child marriages and forced marriages (UNICEF, 2019).

The highest cases of HIV/AIDS in the world are documented in South Africa, in the year 2000, the number of adults and children living with HIV/AIDS in the country was 4.1 million and increased to 52 million by the end of 2009 (UNAIDS, 2009). In 2018, more than 25% of all individuals living with HIV/AIDS in Southern Africa were in South Africa (UNAIDS, 2019). By the end of 2018, an estimated 7.7 million individuals in South Africa were living with HIV/AIDS, and one in every 5 people in the country is HIV positive (UNAIDS, 2019).

4.5 HIV/AIDS TRENDS IN ZIMBABWE

The first HIV/AIDS case to be recorded in Zimbabwe was in 1985, in the following years; the pandemic expanded and spread the whole country (Omilola, 2014; Zvobgo, 1994). There were approximately 119 cases of HIV/AIDS in 1987, by 1991, the cases had increased to 7 118 (Meldrum, 1991). By the end of 1989, there were 500 000 people with HIV/AIDS, the disease claimed 20 000 lives within the same year (Buve, 2006). There were approximately 1.5 million HIV/AIDS cases in 1998, representing 26% of the total population in the country, 400 000 individuals had contracted HIV/AIDS during the same year, an estimated 1200 people were dying on weekly basis, due to HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS 1998).

The Zimbabwe Ministry of Health and Child Welfare (2003) states that during the year 2003, Zimbabwe was one of the top 3 countries with highest rates of HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa, an estimated 1 820 000 individuals including children were HIV positive. In addition, 25% of all adults were HIV/positive and approximately 980 000 children lost one or both parents to HIV/AIDS, an estimated 170 000 children and adults lost their lives to the disease (Carael & Glynn, 2007; (Terceira et al., 2003).

Approximately 1 187 822 individuals, including children were living with HIV/AIDS in 2009 and approximately 182 people contracted HIV/AIDS on a daily basis (UNAIDS, 2009). An estimated 70% of all orphans in Zimbabwe were HIV/AIDS orphans in 2011, this amounted to more than 1.5 million OVC's (ZIMSTAT, 2011). In 2012, there were 890 000 HIV/AIDS orphans in Zimbabwe (WB, 2018). In 2015, an estimated 1.4 million children and adults were HIV positive, by the end of 2016, around 40 000 individuals had contracted HIV/AIDS

(UNAIDS, 2018). In 2017, approximately 1 330 000 individuals were HIV positive, 766 000 of them were children, 36 700 infections were recorded among adults and 4 300 among children, 46% of all HIV/AIDS deaths were in Midlands, Mashonaland and Harare Provinces (UNAIDS, 2019). In 2018, an estimated 1.3 million children and adults were living with HIV/AIDS, 12.7% of all individuals between the ages of 15 and 49 were HIV positive, 38 000 people contracted HIV/AIDS and 22 000 individuals died of HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS, 2020). As of 2019, 1.4 million people were living with HIV/AIDS, 40 000 infections were recorded during the same year and 20 000 succumbed to HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS, 2020). The United Nations Children's Fund (2019) states that Zimbabwe is home to 63 million children, 76 600 of them are living with HIV/AIDS.

4.6 DEFINING CHILD POVERTY

The World Health Organisation (2020) defines child poverty as a state in which children live in extreme deprivation characterised by lack of access to health care services, nutrition, shelter and education. Child poverty refers to chronic poverty that is experienced during the first 18 years of life (UNDP, 2014).

Child poverty means lack of financial and emotional resources needed for children to obtain minimum standards of living (UNICEF, 2005). It is a state in which children lack access to environmental, cultural, economic and political resources needed to attain a life free from poverty (Childhood Poverty Research and Policy Centre [CHIP], 2004). In the context of this study, child poverty is referred to as a living condition whereby children suffer inadequate access to basic services needed to attain a socially acceptable life, and such services include education, health, sanitation, nutrition and shelter.

4.7 TRENDS OF CHILD POVERTY IN THE WORLD

Globally, child poverty remains a major setback towards achieving the first sustainable development goal of reducing extreme poverty. Approximately 700 million children in the world were poverty stricken in 2005 (UNICEF, 2005). In 2008, an estimated 18% of children in Germany, Sweden and Belgium were living in poverty and around 30% of children in the USA were living below the average standard of living (UNICEF, 2014). An estimated 15.5 million children in the world were poor in 2009, by the end of 2010, the numbers had increased to 16.4 million (Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation [ASPE], 2010).

Gornick and Jäntti (2011) revealed that an estimated 32% of all children in Brazil were living in poverty. In 2016, approximately 63 million children in the world were out of school due to poverty (UNICEF, 2016). The highest rates of child poverty in Europe were recorded in Bulgaria, Spain and Romania, pegged at 30% in 2014 (UNICEF, 2014). Around 385 million children in the world were living in extreme poverty in 2015 (FAO, 2015).

An estimated 385 million children in the world were extremely poor in 2016 (WB, 2018). Approximately 365 million children in the world were extremely poor in 2017 (WB, 2020).The United Nations Children's Fund (2018) estimated that 900 million children in the world had limited access to clean water at school.

The World Bank (2018) states that more than half of the world's poor are children. Of all juveniles, 58% in the world have not been able to achieve a minimum standard of proficiency in education (UN, 2018). The United Nations Children's Fund (2020) states that an estimated 666 million children in the world have no adequate access to health facilities, education and shelter and approximately 385 million children are living in extremely poor households. One in every three children in the world live in extreme poverty (UNICEF, 2020). The highest levels of child poverty in the world were recorded in Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa in which 75% of all extremely poor individuals in the world reside (UNICEF, 2020).

4.8 TRENDS OF CHILD POVERTY IN AFRICA

Child poverty continues to escalate in Africa and is mainly due to the rapid increase in the spread of HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS, 2019). The United Nations Children's Fund (2020) states that Africa has the lowest indicators of child development in the world. As stated by the United Nations Children's Fund (2004), 50% of all children in Africa were living in poverty in 2003 (UNICEF, 2004).

An estimation of 43 million OVC's were recorded in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2004 (UNAIDS, 2004). Miller et al. (2005) conducted a study in Botswana and found that more than 50% of households who were providing care for OVC's were struggling in covering their health and educational expenses, this was due to the fact that the vast majority of parents/guardians and caregivers were unemployed and old aged. In 2005, around 12% of children in Zambia were living with chronically ill parents/guardians/caregivers (UNICEF & UNAIDS, 2006).

According to the United Nations Children's Fund (2011) 89% of all OVCs in the world were in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Devlin (2013) states that 50% of all children in Africa lacked basic literacy skills, and this is due high rates of school dropouts caused by poverty. Between 2009 and 2013, there were 32 711 000 children without access to education in Sub-Saharan Africa (SC, 2014). Save The Children (2014) states that around 15% of all children in Africa are involved in child labour, mainly due to lack of adequate parental care and support.

De Lannoy et al. (2015) revealed that 54% of South Africa's children lived in poverty and an estimated 33% lived in households with unemployed adults. In 2013, the number of poor children in Sub-Saharan was estimated to be 170 million and increased to 234 million in 2017 (WB, 2020). The United Nations Children's Fund (2016) states that an estimated 87 million children in Africa were living in extreme poverty characterised by poor sanitation, malnutrition, and lack of good quality education. By the end of 2018, 50% of all schools in the developing world lacked sanitation services (UNICEF, 2018). The World Bank (2020) states that the highest levels of child poverty in Africa are in Sub-Saharan Africa, in which 60% of extremely poor children in the world are living.

4.9 TRENDS OF CHILD POVERTY IN ZIMBABWE

Zimbabwe has one of the highest rates of child poverty in Africa, the majority of children stay in rural areas in which they suffer lack of access to education, health services and nutrition (Munro, 2015; WB, 2020). A study conducted by the United Nations Children's Fund (2003) revealed that around 60% of all children in Zimbabwe were living in extreme poverty, and had no adequate access to basic nutrition, shelter, health and education. In 2004, more than 40% of children in Zimbabwe were either vulnerable or orphaned (UNICEF, 2008). An estimated 44% of children who had lost one or both parents were severely malnourished in 2009 (ZIMSTAT & UNICEF, 2010). In 2012, 78% of all children in Zimbabwe were living in low-income households, and 28% of children under the age of five were malnourished (ZIMSTAT, 2012). In 2015, an estimated 1.5 million rural households were living in extreme poverty, and 3.5 million OVC's were living in these households (MoLSS, 2015).

Of the total population of 13.1 million people in Zimbabwe, 6.5 million are children, and 78% of these children suffer chronic poverty (UNICEF, 2016). Around 4.5 million children in

Zimbabwe were living without adequate sanitation, clean water, health and education services in 2016 (UNICEF, 2016). There were approximately 6.3 million children in Zimbabwe by the end of 2019, 1.6 million of them were extremely poor, an estimated 4% of all children aged 5 and below were malnourished (ZIMSTAT & UNICEF, 2019). Child poverty is more prevalent in rural areas, 4.5 million children were living in rural areas in 2019, in which there is extreme lack of basic needs such as health, education, sanitation and water (ZIMSTAT & UNICEF, 2019). Manicaland province has the highest rates of child poverty within the country, 18% of all extremely poor children in Zimbabwe stay within the province (ZIMSTAT & UNICEF, 2019).

4.10 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HIV/AIDS AND CHILD POVERTY

The United Nations (2014) states that there is a strong association between high rates of HIV/ AIDS and child poverty. Since the advent of HIV/AIDS, children continue to suffer the reality of losing parents/guardians/caregivers to the epidemic, consequently they suffer child poverty. Boller and Carrol (2003) note that the terms OVC's were coined in response to high numbers of children affected by HIV/AIDS. The global spread of HIV/AIDS has orphaned millions of children and left them in helpless situations characterised by lack of nutrition, shelter, health and education (Devereux, 2015).

According to Forster et al. (2005) orphans are more vulnerable to malnutrition and ill-health, when compared to non-orphans. Parents are the immediate care providers of children, their absence leaves children susceptible to lack of emotional care, exploitation, child labour and malnutrition (Baxen et al., 2014; Tikly, 2011). The continued spread of HIV/AIDS has compromised the wellness of orphaned children and continues to undermine governments' efforts in meeting internationally recognised commitments of safeguarding the wellness of children (Foster, 2006).

The devastating consequences of HIV/AIDS and poverty are more significant for children, while adults may temporarily fall into poverty, children who fall into poverty are more likely to be trapped in unendurable circumstances for their lifetimes (UN, 2014). In situations where children are socially excluded, their future becomes uncertain (ILO, 2013a). Child poverty has a negative impact on a child's wellbeing and it is passed on to future generations thereby creating an intergenerational cycle of poverty (Minujin & Nandy, 2012; Ortiz et al., 2012). The

distress and poverty that is experienced during childhood has lifelong consequences on the wellbeing of affected children (Birdthistle et al., 2008). In poverty-stricken communities, the transition of children to adulthood is difficult to achieve, and this is due to the vulnerabilities faced by these communities (Chronic Poverty Research Centre [CPRC], 2008).

As stated by Corak (2006), children who live in poverty have a high probability of becoming impoverished adults. The impact of poverty and vulnerability on children is multi-dimensional (Sabates-Wheeler & Roelen, 2011). Poverty and vulnerability do not only affect the present situation for children, it also negatively impacts on their whole lives and future generations (Csak, 2014; Jones & Holmes, 2010). Children who grow up in poverty are most likely to become impoverished adults who end up raising their children in poverty, thus creating an ongoing trait of poverty (Macassa et al., 2011). In contexts where children are deprived of decent shelter, health and education, their future and wellness become compromised (ILO, 2014b).

The negative impact of HIV/AIDS on economic development has been more significant in the developing world (UNAIDS, 2018). The HIV/AIDS pandemic is one of the major causes of increased numbers of OVC's in Africa (Masando, 2004; Pillay, 2012; Ramsden, 2002). The spread of HIV/AIDS within the African context is the greatest threat to achieving economic growth and social development (UN, 2002).

During the 1990s, economic development in Africa was reduced by 0.8% due to high rates of HIV/AIDS infection (UNICEF & UNAIDS, 2006). The rapid increase of HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa reversed the progress that had been made towards achieving economic development, leaving individuals more susceptible to poverty, ill-health and high mortality (UNICEF & UNAIDS, 2006).

The spread of HIV/AIDS has crippled the role of the extended family of providing care for OVCs (Ayala, 2007). In South Africa, high mortality rates, as a result of HIV/AIDS, led to increased numbers of destitute children who are often left under the care of siblings or old aged grandparents (UNAIDS, 2020). OVCs who are under the care of old aged individuals who have no means of income are more susceptible to lacking access to education and other social services (Eberson & Eloff, 2002; Mishra & Bignami-Van, 2008; Ssengonzi 2007).

The continued spread of HIV/AIDS in Africa is intensifying child poverty and compromising the cognitive development of children (European Union [EU], 2014). Children who do not get

a second chance to attain education and maintain healthy lifestyles lag in cognitive and physical development and are susceptible to life threatening illnesses (UN, 2014). Bicego et al. (2003) are of the opinion that orphans are more likely to be over age for their levels of education in primary schools due to late school enrolments caused by financial constraints faced within the households in which the reside in.

In situations whereby children lose their parents/ guardians/caregivers, their responsibilities within the household increase, they are forced to take part in activities including subsistence farming and domestic duties, which may be hazardous to their health and wellbeing (Ministry of Labour and Social Services [MoLSS], 2015). The rapid spread of HIV/AIDS leads to increased school dropouts, as children are forced to stop attending school and provide care for sick parents or relatives (Chingono et al., 2006; Kinghorn et al., 2002; UNICEF, 2008).

Gutsa (2012) states that the loss of one or both parents compromises the wellness of children as they are left without adults who provide them with support, and this lack of parental supervision often results in children dropping out of school. Children from households affected by HIV/AIDS are often forced to drop out of school as they are faced with many responsibilities which include providing care for the sick and elderly (UNICEF, 2016).

The money that is supposed to be spent on their education ends up being channelled towards health and medication expenses (Pufall et al., 2014). One of the negative consequences of losing parents/guardians/caregivers is the major changes in lifestyles that children face as they are transferred to new carers; this makes them prone to inadequate care, health and education (Chingono et al., 2006). In most cases, HIV/AIDS orphans are split in different households rendering them more vulnerable to emotional distress as they are separated from each other (Mahat et al., 2008).

The Rapid increase of HIV/AIDS in Zimbabwe is threatening the post-independence developments that were made by the GOZ (Crampin et al., 2003; Newell et al., 2004; Nyawasha & Chipunza, 2012). The emergency of child headed households in Zimbabwe is linked to the expansion of HIV/AIDS, as children are left helpless after losing parents/guardians/caregivers to the epidemic (Thirumurthy, 2012). Child headed households are largely dependent on members of the extended family, who are in most cases, the elderly and unemployed. Consequently, they lack basic needs (Chitiyo et al., 2008; UNICEF, 2004). In addition, girl children who stay in child headed households lack emotional support and parental care. They are prone to indulging in early sexual activities, which puts them at risk of getting infected by

HIV/AIDS (Engel, 2008; Gregson et al., 2005; Thurman, 2006b). Thurman (2006b) observed that children who stay in child headed households in South Africa were more likely to be involved in sexual encounters, compared to those children who stay in households in which they have parental guidance. As a result, child poverty is a vicious circle in South Africa. HIV/AIDS orphans suffer poverty and are living in situations in which they lack access to basic needs including health facilities and education.

4.11 SOCIAL PROTECTION AS A STRATEGY AGAINST HIV/AIDS AND CHILD POVERTY

Social protection is increasingly gaining momentum worldwide, as several governments continue to pursue developmental initiatives with the overall goal of eradicating poverty (Ortiz et al., 2010). Midgley (2014) is of the view that social protection is a fundamental element of social development that is increasingly being employed by the national community to alleviate poverty. Social protection programmes seek to alleviate poverty through enabling disadvantaged members of society to access basic services which include education and health care, which are some of the essential elements of breaking the intergenerational cycle of poverty (UN, 2014). Similarly, Devereux (2015) states that social protection interventions are aimed at addressing high levels of poverty, vulnerability, and social exclusion, with the goal of enhancing social and economic development (Hautala, 2012; Murisa, 2010; Norton et al., 2001).

The International Labour Organisation (2015) states that social protection is a human right and an economic policy that is focused on narrowing the existing gaps in which access to education and healthcare is differentiated by social class. The benefits of social protection continue to expand in Sub Saharan Africa, and this points towards reductions in extreme poverty and improved health, nutrition and educational outcomes (Department of International Development [DFID], 2011; Hanlon et al., 2010). In addition, social protection interventions play a vital role of preventing family disintegration in Africa's rural areas, through providing income for disadvantaged households, thereby preventing parents/guardians from migrating to urban areas to seek for employment (Csaky, 2014). Social protection programmes enhance economic development (ILO, 2012a; WB, 2012). For instance, social protection initiatives led to more than 50% poverty reduction in Mauritius (Honorati et al., 2015). The Safety net

Programme of Ethiopia provided aid to low-income families during the East African drought of 2011 (WB, 2012).

Given the ever-increasing numbers of OVCs, African states are faced with the responsibility of providing financial, health and education support to children who fall into destitution (Mhaka-Mutepha, 2010; Serey et al., 2011; Stover et al., 2006). Recent decades have witnessed a move towards social protection initiatives that are sensitive to the needs of children, with the main aim of implementing programmes that address the vulnerabilities of children, thereby maximizing their potential of growing out of poverty (Roelin & Sabates-Wheeler, 2012).

Every child has the right to a safe environment that is free from violence, abuse and neglect. Social protection plays an important role in upholding children's rights and in enhancing their wellness (Devereux et al., 2015; UN, 2014; UNICEF, 2007). Mortality rates in Sub-Saharan Africa have decreased by 43% and maternal deaths have also been reduced to 47% since 1990, these improvements are attributed to social protection programmes that are sensitive to the challenges being faced by children (SC, 2013). Social protection schemes are essential in reducing child poverty and in addressing issues that affect the health and wellbeing of children (ILO, 2015).

4.12 CHALLENGES IN THE PROVISION OF SOCIAL PROTECTION

As noted by Kaseke (2008), the coverage of social protection programmes in Africa is low due to insufficient monetary support. Consequently, not all deserving individuals are benefiting from social protection programmes. Those who are receiving benefits are provided with limited resources, which makes it difficult to meet a minimum standard of living (Garcia & Moore, 2012). The lack of adequate social protection services is one of the major obstacles to achieving the goals of social development (ILO, 2012a; UN, 2012b). Inadequate social protection benefits lead to high levels of poverty and inequalities (UN, 2013d; UNDP, 2014). In countries where programmes have been implemented to address the needs of children, benefits remain minimal, and this has compromised the effectiveness of these programmes (ILO, 2014). In Western Europe, around 2.2% of a country's GDP is directed towards child benefits, whereas 0.2% is allocated in Africa, Asia and the Pacific, even though OVCs constitute a significant proportion of the total population in those regions, particularly in Africa where 42% of the total population are children (ILO, 2015).

The United Nations (2015) state that the underinvestment on the wellbeing of children further impedes efforts towards achieving economic development. The most effective way of addressing child poverty in Africa is to increase investments in social protection, particularly those programmes that provide nutrition, health, education and skills development services for children (UNICEF, 2009; World Bank, 2014).

The underinvestment in education in the majority of African countries is one of the main reasons behind high levels of illiteracy and poverty within the continent (UN, 2018). The global enrolment rates in child education stood at 63% in 2010 and increased to 70% in 2016, the lowest enrolments rates of 41% were recorded in Sub-Saharan Africa. In 2016, an estimated 66% of all primary schools in Africa had no electricity and 60% were lacking basic sanitation services (UN, 2018). The large gaps between poor and non-poor enrolments within schools suggest that there is a greater need for policies that are responsive to the educational needs of disadvantaged children (Ainsworth & Fiemer, 2002).

The impact of social protection on poverty and inequality is limited in countries in which the benefits are low and accessible to a small portion of individuals who require such benefits (Devereux, 2015). Priority has not been given to social protection by many African states and this is largely due to financial constraints. The coverage of social protection in Africa remains low. The International Labour Organisation (2014) states that 73% of the global population does not have access to comprehensive social protection. Despite the expansion of social protection schemes, existing policies on social protection do not adequately address the needs of impoverished children and their families. Millions of children continue to live in poverty; as they are deprived of their basic rights to education and health (UNICEF, 2014; WB, 2014).

Taylor (2010) states that funds that are allocated to social protection programmes are inadequate; and this compromises the effectiveness of these programmes. For instance, in 2009, the Nigerian government allocated 1.4% of the national budget to social protection and 6.2% was allocated in Kenya for the 2007-2008 national budget (Kararch & Otieno, 2016). In Zimbabwe, the government lost its ability to respond to the needs of OVC due to longstanding economic challenges that have prevailed within the country (MoLSS, 2015). Social protection schemes remain low. The International Labour Organisation (2014) states that 73% of the global population does not have access to comprehensive social protection.

Exclusion from social development services such as health and education directly contribute to extreme poverty, which is being experienced by more than half of the African population

(Pillay, 2011). The United Nations (2015) noted that most children do not get the opportunity to finish or advance from primary school due to inconsistent payments from social protection schemes. The lack of adequate social protection services is one of the major obstacles to achieving the goals of social development (ILO, 2012a; UN, 2012b). Inadequate social protection benefits lead to high levels of poverty and inequalities (UN, 2013d; UNDP; 2014, WB, 2014). Thus, more interventions need to be set up to ensure the provision of adequate services for children whose families fall below the poverty line.

The lack of adequate social protection benefits for children jeopardises their rights and has negative connotations on their health, wellbeing and educational attainment (Chitiyo et al., 2008; ILO, 2015). Despite the global achievements in addressing the needs of children, many children, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa, continue to suffer ill-health and lack of education (UNICEF, 2014a).

The African continent continues to suffer vulnerability, with increasing rates of poverty, unemployment, child mortality, school dropouts and HIV/AIDS (Beegle et al., 2016; Schaeffer et al., 2015). Thus, there is need for African governments to increase investment in social protection, to ensure that deserving individuals who are excluded from receiving the benefits are covered (ASSAF, 2016). A large fraction of around 18 000 children who die on daily basis could be saved thorough ensuring that the needs of these children are met in an adequate manner (UNICEF, 2014a).

4.13 SUMMARY

The future prospects of the social and economic development of the world are in the hands of children, as they are the leaders of the next generation. Thus, it is vital for all states to prioritise the mental, physical and emotional wellness of children, especially those who are vulnerable to social exclusion and marginalisation. OVCs continue to suffer the negative impacts of HIV/AIDS which includes loss of parental supervision, emotional distress and lack of access to education. The lives of these children would be improved through increased investments on social protection programmes that focus on safeguarding the wellness of children. The improved provision health, education and nutritional services for OVC's would enable them to grow into health and educated adults and this would enable to escape poverty. The next chapter provides a discussion on social protection and education.

CHAPTER 5

SOCIAL PROTECTION AND EDUCATION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews literature about and provides a discussion on social protection and education as enablers to alleviate poverty at global, regional and national levels and the contributions thereof in fostering child development. Cash transfers, as social protection initiatives that are employed by various governments to enhance access to education for OVCs, are elaborated on in this chapter. Social protection programmes in countries such as Brazil, India, China and South Africa that enhance access to education are explored. BEAM, a major social protection programme in Zimbabwe, is explained in detail.

5.2. THE ROLE OF EDUCATION IN ENHANCING CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Education is globally recognised as an essential tool of achieving human, economic and social development. Education is "fundamental to the broader notion of expanded human capabilities that lie at the heart of the meaning of development" (Todaro & Smith, 2011, p. 359). The contribution of education in the development of children is paramount; education equips children with knowledge and skills that enable them to contribute towards economic growth, through increasing productivity within the labour force (Himaz & Aturupane, 2015).

Education enables children to develop their cognitive, emotional and social competencies which enable them to better respond to challenges which they face in life (Darling-Hammond, 2020). It is effective in fostering child development and in creating a sense of competence among children (Kenayathulla, 2013; PEPFAR, 2006).

Education grooms the intellectual abilities of children and provides them with knowledge and skills that are vital in enabling them to process information in an efficient manner (Nucci, 2001; WB, 2013). One of the key features of enhancing development is maximising human capabilities, by virtue of being educated, individuals become better equipped in making informed political, social and economic decisions. (Scott & Marshall, 2005; Todaro & Smith, 2011).

There are approximately 400 million children Africa (UNICEF, 2019). Given large numbers of children in Africa, it is vital to invest in their education because it will enable them to become productive adults who will participate and contribute to the development of their countries (ILO, 2015).

Education does not only benefit the individual, as it is one of the major instruments for enhancing sustainable economic and social development of nations (Mwoma & Pillay, 2016). Given high rates of illiteracy among parents/guardians/caregivers of OVCs, the provision of education benefits for OVCs is essential in alleviating unemployment and poverty among low-income families (Ainsworth & Filmier, 2002; ILO, 2015; UNICEF, 2009). The provision of primary and secondary education in societies that are overwhelmed by HIV/AIDS and chronic poverty is the most powerful strategy of alleviating poverty (Dumauli, 2015).

Juvenile delinquency is closely associated with poverty, lack of access to education and unemployment (UNDP, 2014; WB, 2013). Education allows children to have a greater understanding of religious, social and cultural practices in societies they live in, as they learn about values and ethics which inform what constitutes acceptable human behaviours (Baxen et al., 2014).

Education is critical in enhancing human development through instilling good morals and positive attitudes on children (Veugelers & Vedder, 2003). Hence, providing children with opportunities to go to school assists them in shaping and defining societal values and ethics (UNDP, 2010; WB, 2013). The main reason behind OVCs dropping out of school in Africa is the lack of school fees (Chitiyo et al., 2008; Gabel, 2012; Serey et al., 2011). Therefore, it is crucial to ensure that children from low income backgrounds are provided with the financial support needed to attain primary and secondary education (Chandiwana et al., 2005; UNICEF, 2010).

5.3. THE ROLE OF SOCIAL PROTECTION IN ENHANCING ACCESS TO EDUCATION FOR OVCs

Worldwide, social protection schemes have led to notable improvements in the education of OVCs (ILO, 2010a; SC, 2012a; UNICEF, 2012). Educational benefits provided under social protection, in cash and or in kind play a significant role in ensuring the right to education is fulfilled (Sanfilipo & Martorano, 2012, UNESCO, 2014; UNICEF, 2012; Wetzel, 2013). The

provision of education benefits for OVCs has measurable positive outcomes as it leads to an increase in school enrolments, particularly in Africa where there are high rates of school dropouts (Sanchez et al., 2015b). Social protection programmes have been effective in both addressing educational needs of OVCs and in alleviating poverty (Barrientos et al., 2003).

Over the past decades, African states have witnessed a prompt increase in school enrolments and a remarkable decline in poverty in countries such as Ghana and South Africa (Bhalotra et al., 2014; UNESCO, 2008). Access to education has largely become dependent on the ability of parents to pay for school fees. Children from low-income households remain susceptible to dropping out of school, as they lack fiscal support for their education (UNICEF, 2011).

Social protection schemes lessen the financial burden carried by low-income families through addressing the educational needs of their children (Handa et al., 2015; Julca & Winkel, 2015b). Social protection initiatives have led to considerable improvements in educational outcomes of children in Brazil, China and Mexico (UNESCO, 2014). In Ghana and India, steps are being taken towards increasing the availability of textbooks within schools (Majgaard & Mingat, 2012; UNDP, 2010b). The improved provision of stationery and textbooks within schools in Chile enabled the country to attain the best educational outcomes in Latin America (Hanemann, 2015; ODI, 2014). Social protection continues to safeguard the wellness of OVCs and their families; each country in the world has some form cash or in-kind benefits that are directed towards addressing the health, education and income needs of OVCs and their families.

5.4. SOCIAL PROTECTION AS AN INITIATIVE OF ENHANCING ACCESS TO EDUCATION FOR OVCs

Cash transfers

Cash transfers refer to non-contributory funds provided to low-income families, either by the government or NGOs, with the aim of reducing social and economic vulnerability (Honorati et al., 2016; Mushunje & Mafico, 2010). Cash transfers are means tested, thus they are only provided to individuals who meet the eligibility requirements (Budlender, 2014). The provision of cash transfers was motivated by the MDGs call for reducing extreme poverty and hunger (Shibuya & Taylor, 2013). There are two types of cash transfers, namely, conditional cash transfers (CCTs) and unconditional cash transfers (UCTs).

CCTs refer to cash benefits which are rendered to families which suffer chronic poverty. The benefits are provided on the basis that beneficiaries should adhere to conditions that are attached to receiving such benefits. UCTs refer to monetary benefits that are provided for low income families with no conditions on how beneficiaries should spend the money (Baird et al., 2013) Cash transfers may be complimented by in-kind benefits which include agricultural inputs, food and clothing (Devereux et al, 2005; Fiszbein & Shady, 2009).

The provision of cash transfers has become the blueprint of social protection as they rapidly continue to expand throughout the world (Garcial & Moore, 2012; Gentilini et al., 2014; Kararch & Otieno, 2016). In 1997, cash transfers existed in two countries, namely, Brazil and Mexico. However, by 2016, the programmes had expanded to 63 countries globally (Bastagli et al., 2016).

The United Nations (2018) noted that 45% of the global population are receiving cash benefits through social protection. Cash transfer programmes are increasingly becoming key elements of social protection in developing countries; the impact of such programmes in poverty alleviation is substantial and continues to better the lives of individuals living in poverty (Angelucci et al., 2009; Davies et al., 2016).

The Economic Policy Research Institute (2006) states that intergenerational poverty has challenged African governments to establish social protection schemes that are responsive to the needs of low-income families and OVCs. The United Nations Children's Fund (2014) indicate that the strengthening household income is key in enabling children to access health and education services. Cash transfers are the most effective measure of increasing household income (Adato & Bassett, 2012; Saville et al., 2018).

Cash transfers have led to significant improvements in reducing global poverty, improving the wellness of beneficiaries and in facilitating progress within the education sector (Barrientos, 2015; Fiszbein & Schady, 2009; Sciavedra & Garcia, 2012). Through the provision of cash transfers, social protection is covering the income gap that exist between the privileged and less privileged. The reduction of income inequalities that had been experienced in Latin America and Asia for decades is attributed to cash transfers (Gasparini & Lustig, 2011; Mwoma & Pillay, 2016). Cash transfers present an opportunity of addressing the unmet needs of children (Barrientos & Dejong, 2006; Mushunje & Mafico, 2010; Vandemoortele, 2012). They play a crucial role in reducing poverty and vulnerability amongst children (Bastagli et al., 2016; Honorati et al., 2015; Samson et al., 2006). On a similar note the World Bank (2007) state that

cash transfers are more sustainable in responding to child poverty and it is an important drive towards achieving economic development.

Cash transfer programmes cover around 12% of the total population in Latin America and have led to improved lives for OVCs (ILO, 2013a). They have led to notable improvements in school enrolments, school attendance and educational outcomes of the beneficiaries in countries such as Nigeria, Malawi and Kenya (Garcia & Saavedra, 2017; ILO, 2013a; UNICEF, 2012).

In 2013, 37 African countries were implementing cash transfers whereas two decades prior, only South Africa, Botswana, and Mauritius were engaged in the provision of cash transfers. Unfortunately, the expansion of cash transfers coincides with an increase in poverty, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa, where the number of individuals living in extreme poverty escalated from 290 million people to 408 million between 1990 and 2014 (World Bank, 2014a). Reasons behind high levels of poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa include the depletion of natural resources, the continued spread of HIV/AIDS and rapid population growth (Chandy, 2015; WB, 2019).

Conditional cash transfers

CCTs refer to cash benefits that are provided for low-income families, on the condition that they abide to certain conditions which include regular health check-ups and continued school attendance for children (Budlender, 2014; ILO, 2014; Sewall, 2008). CCTs were first pioneered during the 1990s in Latin America, with Progressa of Mexico being the first conditional cash transfer programme in the world (Kararch & Otieno, 2016).

CCTs are aimed at mitigating poverty through providing financial support for individuals who suffer deprivation (Akresh et al., 2013). Conditions linked to cash transfers are employed to ensure positive outcomes on the health and education status of OVCs (De Brauw & Sadoulet, 2008; De Janvry & Sadoulet, 2004; Reimers et al., 2006). Baird et al. (2014) are of the view that the conditions placed on CCTs are effective in ensuring that the beneficiaries make use of the benefits in ways that are supporting/promoting the best interests of children. CCTs have gained increased acclaim by policy makers due to the fact that the conditions placed on such benefits are effective in alleviating poverty (Handa & Davis, 2006; World Bank, 2018).

According to Verbist (2012), cash transfers that are directed towards improving the education and health of OVCs are effective in reducing income inequalities that exist between the rich

and the poor. Similarly, Soares et al. (2010) state that the provision of cash transfers for target groups is an effective way of empowering beneficiaries as it reduces inequalities that exist between the privileged and less privileged.

CCTs are globally recognised for their effectiveness in reducing poverty, improving nutritional status of beneficiary families, reducing child labour and increasing school attendance rates among OVCs (Browne, 2013). Studies completed in Indonesia and Mexico indicate that CCTs are effective in enhancing the enrolment of marginalised children in schools (Robertson et al., 2013).

Given high rates of orphan hood and child vulnerability in Africa, the use of conditional cash transfers is increasingly getting credit as the most effective social protection initiative of addressing challenges faced by OVCs in accessing education (Roelen & Delap, 2012). In third world countries such as Ghana and Nigeria, CCTs have been significant in the reduction of poverty and inequality (ILO, 2013; Seekings, 2012).

In addition, the programmes have led to improved health and education outcomes among OVCs (Attanasio et al., 2005; UNICEF, 2012). CCTs continue to grow and spread, and this has been evident in Latin America when 19 out of 23 states implemented CCTs in 2013 (Baird et al., 2014). CCTs continue to expand in Sub-Saharan Africa, as their adoption increased from 21 countries to 37 countries between 2010 and 2013 (The Economist, 2015a).

Through mandating beneficiary households to invest on the health and education of OVCs, CCTs enable children to develop into self-sufficient individuals who have the capacity to provide for their families, thus eliminating the need for social protection (Budlender, 2014). In support of this argument Lomeli (2008) states that investing on the health and education of children is the most effective way of reducing the transition of vulnerability from one generation to another. The imposition of conditions on cash transfers enhances women empowerment, specifically in societies in which women are traditionally recognised as male subordinates. Furthermore, the practice of sending children to school protects girl children from dropping out of school due to traditional beliefs, which do not prioritise their education (Budlender, 2014).

In contrast, Zimmerman (2006) alludes to the fact that the conditions placed on cash transfers reinforce lack of self-governing among beneficiaries, as they are not given the liberty to spend the monetary benefits in ways they would prefer. Sabates-Wheeler and Roelen (2011) are of

the opinion that cash transfers that are provided on the condition that the direct beneficiaries should be the mother or female head of the family have often resulted in gender-based violence in Mexico, as beneficiaries often have arguments with spouses or family members, regarding how the money should be spent. In some instances, conditions placed on CCTs have detrimental effects on beneficiaries, as they tend to reinforce their vulnerabilities instead of enhancing their wellbeing. Hailu and Soares (2008) observe that the conditions imposed on CCTs leads to the exclusion of individuals who stay in areas in which health and education services may be difficult to access, consequently those who are in desperate need of such benefits end up being excluded because they would not be able to meet the behavioural requirements of CCTs.

Unconditional cash transfers

Unconditional cash transfers (UCTs) are cash benefits that are provided by the government, donors or NGOs, to families that are identified as being extremely impoverished (UNDP & ILO, 2011; Zobel et al., 2016). UCTs exist in countries such as Malawi, Zambia, Lesotho and South Africa (Davies & Davy, 2008; Patel, 2012). UCTs are provided with no conditions or requirements of how beneficiaries should spend the allowances (Devereux, 2013; Haushofer & Shapiro, 2016).

UCTs promote empowerment by giving beneficiaries the autonomy of how to spend the allowances (Blattman & Niehaus, 2014; Gentilini, 2016). UCTs are aimed at reducing poverty, thus enhancing the wellbeing of beneficiaries (Baird et al., 2013; Blattman et al., 2014). UCTs include disability grants, old age pensions and child support grants (Taylor et al., 2013). Benefits of UCTs include decreased levels of poverty, improved nutritional outcomes, increased enrolments in schools, and decreased child labour (Molyneux & Thomson, 2011).

One of the most established UCT programmes is the Dibao of China, which provides cash benefits for families that are living in extreme poverty (Benerjee et al., 2017). UCTs are common in Sub-Saharan Africa. In 2010, 21 countries within the region had UCTs, by the end of 2014, the number had increased to 40 (World Bank, 2015). As stated by The Economist (2015a), UCTs are common in less developed countries that do not have the financial capacity to meet the administrative costs such as the frequent monitoring and evaluation of programmes that characterise CCTs (Bastagli et al., 2016; Caldés et al., 2006).

Patel et al. (2015) state that old age pensions of South Africa are largely beneficial on the educational attainment of children as a significant portion of beneficiaries channel the cash benefits towards the education of children. However, UCTs are often regarded as disincentives for beneficiaries to seek employment due to the fact that beneficiaries are given free cash benefits with no guidelines of how the money should be spent (Evans & Popova, 2014). Baird et al. (2014) suggest that CCTs better facilitate human development when compared to UCTs. This view stems from the fact that CCTs mandate beneficiaries to invest in long term development such as the health and education of OVCs. More so, UCTs have been criticised for failing to bring about more sustainable changes on the lives of beneficiaries, and this is because beneficiaries are not conditioned to invest the money on indicators of development which include health, education and nutrition (Cotto, 2018).

5.5. SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES THAT PROVIDE EDUCATIONAL SUPPORT FOR OVCs

This section discusses global and regional social protection programmes that enhance access to education in developing countries. BEAM is discussed as a social protection programme which enhances access to education for OVCs in Zimbabwe.

5.5.1 OPORTUNIDADES OF MEXICO

Oportunidades (initially known as Progresa) is a CCT programme that was established by the Mexican government in 1997 (UNICEF, 2014). The programme provides cash benefits for impoverished households, as the benefits are aimed at enabling beneficiaries to meet their health, education and nutritional needs (Kararch & Otieno, 2016).

Educational benefits provided on *Oportunidades* range from US$ 10 to US$ 66 depending on the educational level of the child or children within a beneficiary household (Baird et al., 2013). In secondary schools, girls receive larger amounts than boys in order to encourage them to stay in school until completion of secondary education (Sudhanshu & Josh, 2012).

In addition to the cash benefits, beneficiaries are entitled to receiving free basic health care services from public clinics and hospitals and a monthly allowance of US$ 15 to cover their nutritional needs (UNESCO, 2012). Conditionalities that are attached to receiving benefits include full immunisation of children, regular school attendance and consistent health check-

ups for all members of the family (Kararch & Otieno, 2016; Latapi & De la Rocha, 2008). The responsibility of ensuring that these conditions are met is placed on the mother or the female head of the household (UNICEF, 2014).

Oportunidades started by assisting poverty-stricken families in rural areas, and the benefits were later extended to semi-urban areas in 2001. This programme also provides skills development training, in which beneficiaries are provided with knowledge on how to develop small enterprises (Barrientos et al., 2009).

Beneficiaries of *Oportunidades* are benefiting from this comprehensive programme which is effective in eradicating poverty, enhancing women empowerment and improving educational outputs among OVCs (Fernald et al, 2008; Morley & Cody, 2003). In 2014, the programme provided aid for 6.5 million households (UNICEF,2014). *Oportunidades* seeks to enhance women empowerment and to address gender disparities that exist in accessing social services, and priority is given to girl children since they are more likely to drop out of school than boys due to early marriages (Baird et al., 2013). The programme proved to be effective in increasing the enrolment rates of girls in schools. For example, in 2014, the enrolment of girls in secondary schools increased by 20% (UNICEF, 2014).

However, it remains questionable as to whether direct transfers of cash to women empowers them or reinforces gender inequalities. This observation stems from the fact that women are targeted due to their gender-based roles of being primary carer givers of children (Jones & Holmes, 2011; Molyneux 2006). In Mexico, direct transfers to women were found to be perpetuating domestic violence as some men sought after taking charge of the financial benefits provided under *Oportunidades* (Morley & Cody, 2003). The programme was later complemented by social work services and awareness campaigns on violence against women and children. This came from the realisation that cash alone was not sufficient in enhancing the wellness of women and children (Holmes and Jones 2013).

5.5.2 BOLSA FAMILIA OF BRAZIL

Bolsa Familia of Brazil is the world's most established CCT programme (Camargo et al., 2013). The programme was implemented by the government of Brazil in 2003, with the aim of improving the nutritional, health and educational status of low-income families, thereby reducing poverty (DFID, 2005; Hall, 2006; Wetzel, 2013). *Bolsa Familia* provides monthly

cash benefits equivalent to US$ 8 per household. In addition, the programme provides US$ 5 per child, a maximum of three children are covered per household (UNICEF, 2014). The benefits are provided on the condition that children aged 6 and below are immunised, pregnant women are required to have health check-ups and children between the ages 6 and 15 are mandated to attend school regularly (UNICEF, 2014). The benefits are directly transferred to women, and this stems from the assumption that women are more likely to use monetary benefits in a manner that benefits children than men (Holmes et al., 2011; Shei, 2013).

Bolsa Familia reaches the poorest in Brazil and has led to significant improvements on the health and education status of children (Granziano Da Silva et al., 2011; The Economist, 2005). Between 2003 and 2008, the programme reduced poverty by 7.2% in Brazil (Ranganathan & Lagarde, 2012). By 2011, *Bolsa Familia* had reached 12 500 000 households, which about 25% of Brazil's total population (Levy & Shady, 2013; UNICEF, 2014).

Bolsa Familia also led to improvements on the nutrition and health status of children, a notable decrease was noted on child mortality rates, this was attributed to improved access of health services and improved diets (Glewwe & Kassouf, 2012). The United Nations Children's Fund (2014) states that *Bolsa Familia* has been effective in increasing school attendance rates among children between the ages of 6 and 17 and led to a decrease in absenteeism and school dropouts. However, the programme has been less effective in ensuring that beneficiaries stay in school, as some of the beneficiaries tend to drop out of school before completing high school (Rasella et al., 2013; UNICEF, 2014).

5.5.3 THE CASH TRANSFER FOR ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN PROGRAMME OF KENYA

The Cash Transfer for Orphans and Vulnerable Children Programme (CT-OVC) of Kenya was established in 2004 to address high levels of child poverty and vulnerability (Republic of Kenya, 2012). CT-OVCS provides monthly cash benefits of KES 2000 for impoverished families that provide care for OVCs (WB, 2019). Key holders involved in the implementation of the programme involve the government of Kenya, the Department for International Development (DFID), UNICEF and WB (Davies et al, 2012).

High rates of child poverty in Kenya are attributed to the rapid spread of HIV/AIDS. In 2009, around 180 000 children in Kenya were HIV positive (World Bank, 2009). According to the

Kenya AIDS Indicator Survey (2014), it is estimated that 90% of children from impoverished households do not get opportunities to complete basic education. Children constitute around 23 million in Kenya, and more than half of these children are living in extreme poverty (UNDESA, 2015). The National Aids Control Council (2017) estimated that 7% of all individuals living with HIV/AIDS in Kenya were children. In 2018, they were around 200 million OVCs in Kenya (World Bank, 2019).

The goal of CT-OVC is to invest in the health and education of OVCs by way of enhancing their health outcomes and promoting school enrolments (Asfaw et al., 2012). In 2011, CT-OVCs provided relief to 236 880 beneficiaries (World Bank, 2011a). In 2015, CT-OVCs covered 255 643 households. Currently, the programme reaches 340 000 extremely poor families that are taking care of OVCs (World Bank, 2019).

CT-OVCs led to enhanced living conditions for beneficiaries and enabled parents/guardians/caregivers to provide improved care for OVCs (Jackson et al., 2011; Garcia & Moore, 2012). The programme proved to have a significant impact in reducing child vulnerability, as it led to an increase in primary and secondary education enrolments (Jackson et al, 2011). However, the CT-OVCs provides assistance for only 17% of OVCs in Kenya, so there is need for the government of Kenya to expand the coverage of the programme to cover eligible children that are currently excluded from the programme. (World Bank, 2019).

5.5.4 THE SARVA SHIKSHA ABHIYAN AND THE RASHTRIYA MADHYAMIK SHIKSHA ABHIYAN OF INDIA

The two main programmes that were implemented by the Government of India (GOI) to enhance access to education for OVCs in government schools are Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (hereafter SSA) for children in elementary schools and Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) for children in secondary schools (Lewin, 2011). SSA was introduced to address the need of quality elementary education in all states within the country (Yadav et al., 2018). The aim of the programme is to provide universal elementary education as a right for all children between the ages 6 and 14 (Singh & Revollo, 2016).

SSA seeks to address gender and social class disparities that exist in accessing education and to increase school enrolments among children with physical and learning disabilities (UNESCO, 2015). SSA is implemented countrywide and is funded by the GOI. The

programme seeks to establish new schools in states which lack adequate access to educational facilities and to improve the infrastructure within underdeveloped schools (GOI, 2016a).

In addition, SSA provides training services for educators to strengthen their ability to provide good quality education (UNESCO, 2015). Other benefits provided under SSA include textbooks, school uniforms and bicycles for students to use as a mode of transport to school (Agrawal, 2013). SSA provides an education system that is community based through involving parents, community members, school management committees and village education committees in the operation of elementary schools (GOI, 2016b).

SSA sought to universalise elementary education by 2010. However, the initially stipulated time frame has been extended indefinitely, as the GOI has not managed to meet this goal (UNICEF, 2012). Within the first year of the implementation of SSA, around 113. 6 million children enrolled in government elementary schools (GOI, 2016a). In 2017, SSA aided 192 million children (Yadav et al., 2018).

RMSA was implemented in 2009 and seeks to improve the quality of education provided in secondary schools and to eliminate gender and social inequalities that exist in accessing secondary education (Deb et al., 2015). RMSA also seeks to enhance infrastructure development within secondary schools through the construction of science laboratories, drinking water facilities, classrooms and toilets (Jain, 2017).

Additional interventions provided under RMSA include the Girls Hostel Scheme (GHS), which is aimed at improving access to secondary schools for girl children who face challenges including having to travel long distances to school and chronic poverty, and the Inclusive Education for the Disabled at Secondary Stage (IEDSS) which seeks to provide an enabling school environment for children living with disabilities (Singh & Gupta, 2013; Drèze & Khera, 2017). Between 2009 and 2015, RMSA upgraded 304 secondary schools and developed infrastructure in 2949 schools (GOI, 2016a). Between 2015 and 2016, RMSA built 20 834 classrooms, 7 096 facilities of drinking water and 10 133 libraries across all government secondary schools in India (GOI, 2016b).

However, despite efforts made by the GOI in providing educational support for OVCs, school attendance rates in rural areas remain extremely low (Mukhopadhyay & Sahoo, 2012). Despite the infrastructure development that has been achieved through SSA, amenities such as toilets and water supply remain dysfunctional in most schools in rural areas (Singh & Gera, 2015).

Yadav et al. (2018) state that most of the funds directed towards SSA are used to finance teachers' salaries, while limited funds are directed towards addressing the educational needs of OVCs.

Ongoing conflicts that have been experienced in states including Jammu and Kashmir have exposed children to sexual abuse and neglect. This hinders affected children from attending school as they miss school for longer periods or end up dropping out of school (Singh, 2020). Gender disparities that exist in accessing education in India are rooted in the patriarchal norms that result in some families being reluctant to send their girl children to school, as it is believed that sending girls to school does not benefit them nor their families since their traditional roles of child rearing and performing household chores do not require formal education (Sharma, 2016; UN, 2014). Social inequalities that exist in accessing education remain prevalent in rural areas (Agarwal, 2010). Children who lack access to education are from the most impoverished states which are largely rural, while children in urban areas have access to well developed and resourced schools (Pajankar, 2012). Due to the prevalence of inequalities in accessing education within the country, India remains as one of the most unequal countries in the world (Singh, 2020). Thus, for SSA and RMSA to reach their goal of achieving universal elementary and secondary education, there is need for the GOI to further develop infrastructure within schools and to address gender and social inequalities that hinder OVCs from attaining elementary and secondary education.

5.5.5 THE BANTUAN OPERASIONAL SEKOLAH AND THE BANTUAN SISWA MISKIN OF INDONESIA

Indonesia is one of the world's most populous countries, with a total population of 255 000 000 people. However, the country's demographic state is a major challenge towards providing a well-established system of education for OVCs (Fatah, 2016). The situation was further worsened by the 1997-1998 Asian crisis which led to the increased costs on education and forced 85% of school going children to drop out of school as they joined the work force in attempts to support themselves and their families (Suprastowo, 2015). To address the educational needs of deprived children, the government of Indonesia established the Bantuan Operasional Sekolah (BOS) in 2005. This programme was aimed at facilitating access to primary and high school education for OVCs (Kwon & Kim, 2015). Within the first two years of its implementation, BOS covered approximately 37 million beneficiaries (WB, 2014).

However, the effectiveness of the programme was hindered by exclusion and inclusion errors that exist within the programme. For example, over 50% of the beneficiaries of BOS were ineligible for the programme benefits (WB, 2014).

Upon recognising the shortfalls of BOS, the government of Indonesia introduced a cash transfer called Bantuan Siswa Miskin (BSM) in 2008, which was aimed at complimenting BOS in addressing the educational needs of OVCs (Arif et al., 2013). While BOS pays schools fees for beneficiaries, BSM focuses on providing supporting benefits, which include school uniforms, shoes and transportation expenses (Fatah, 2016). The overall aim of the two programmes is to ensure that OVCs enrol and stay in school up to completion of senior high school. To achieve this, the government of Indonesia commits 20% of the country's budget to the education sector (Howell & Dyah, 2014). Between 2008 and 2013, BSM covered 8 million students within 33 provinces. This programme resulted in increased school enrolment rates of OVCs (WB, 2014). However, BMS has low coverage; the programme only covers 15% of students who are eligible for educational assistance (Ulfah & Astuti, 2013; World Bank, 2012a). Additional challenges faced on the implementation of BSM are lack of programme monitoring and the inclusion of underserving students on the programme (Baker et al, 2013).

5.5.6 THE CHILD SUPPORT GRANT OF SOUTH AFRICA

The government of South Africa is strongly committed to alleviating poverty through the provision social protection benefits to vulnerable members of society. The Child Support Grant (CSG) is one of the major initiatives that were implemented to enhance the wellness of poverty stricken households, more specifically OVCs (Republic of South Africa [RSA], 2003; Patel et al., 2012, Wright et al., 2014). The CSG was established in 1998, and the benefits of the programme change on annually. As of 2020, CSG provided monthly cash benefits of R 440 per family for families that suffer income poverty (South African Social Security Agency [SASSA], 2020). The objective of the programme is to provide educational and nutritional support for children who are living in poverty (Hall & Nannan, 2015; Patel, 2013; Santana, 2008).

Eligibility requirements are that the applicant should be a South African citizen, a permanent resident or a refugee whose income falls below the threshold of means testing (Wright et al., 2014). The conditions of receiving the CSG is that parents/guardians/caregivers should ensure

that children attend school. Furthermore, beneficiaries are required to register with SASSA and to reside in South Africa (Fanta et al., 2017).

The CSG led to improvements on the intellectual development of children, and improved school attendance among children within beneficiary families (Budlender, 2014). Between 2003 and 2004, the CSG led to an increase of 8.1% in school enrolments among children aged 7 (Case et al., 2005, Samson, 2004). In 2009, the CSG provided support for 8.7 million children (Nino-Zarazua et al., 2010). In 2014, 11 million children benefited from the CSG (Wright et al., 2014).

The CSG further reduced inequalities that exist in accessing education and has had a significant impact in improving child nutrition and in decreasing child mortality (Department of Social Development [DSD], SASSA & UNICEF, 2012; Nino-Zarazua et al., 2010; Woolard et al., 2011). Mayrand (2010) states that the CSG led to the increased likelihood of children staying with their biological mothers, as it reduces the probability of parents leaving their children under the care of grandparents, as they migrate to towns and cities to seek for employment. An estimated 98% of the beneficiaries of the CSG are women. Therefore, this programme promotes women empowerment (Wright et al., 2014).

An evaluative study conducted on the CSG revealed that as much as cash transfers contribute towards empowering women, they reinforce and perpetuate the longstanding traditionally defined role of women as sole caregivers for children, and prevent them from coming up with income generating initiatives that are outside their homes (Patel et al., 2013; Plagerson & Ulriksen, 2013).

5.5.7 THE CARE OF PEOPLE OF NIGERIA

The Care of People (COPE) of Nigeria is a conditional cash transfer programme, which was established by the government of Nigeria in 2007 (Trousseau, 2014). The objective of COPE is to reduce poverty and vulnerability among the poor. The programme targets extremely impoverished households that are headed by females, the elderly and individuals that maybe disabled or living with HIV/AIDS (Salman, 2013).

COPE benefits are provided on the condition that children remain in school and make use of health care facilities and programmes (WB, 2012). Beneficiaries receive monthly payments ranging from US$10 to US$33, depending on the number of children within a household (WB,

2017). In addition, the programme provides a Poverty Reduction Accelerator Investment (PRAI) which is provided for beneficiaries once per annum. PRAI payments can be up to US$56 and are given to the head of the family (WB, 2017). PRAI benefits are provided to enable beneficiaries to start up income generating activities that would sustain them upon graduating from COPE (Hagen-Zanker & Holmes, 2012). Adding to monetary support, beneficiaries are provided with life skills and entrepreneurial trainings to maximize their ability to become self-sufficient (Holmes et al., 2012b).

However, the extent of COPE is extremely low. In 2011, the programme reached 22 000 beneficiaries, which is less than 0.002% of the chronically poor in Nigeria (Trousseau, 2014). Given the fact that children constitute around 60% of Nigeria's population, there is need for more broad social protection systems which prioritise the needs of OVCs (Holmes et al., 2011). More so, there is little evidence to suggest that COPE has discernible outcomes on poverty reduction on a national level. Its impact is more visible on a local level (Gavilovic et al., 2011; Dijkstra et al 2011b). Akinola (2014) reported that some beneficiary households did not receive training on how to invest in income generating activities with their PRAI payments, thus there is need to ensure that all beneficiaries receive guidelines on how to spend the cash benefits in sustainable ways (Akinola, 2014).

5.5.8 THE LIVELIHOOD EMPOWERMENT AGAINST POVERTY PROGRAMME OF GHANA

The Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme of Ghana is a CCT that was established by the government of Ghana in 2008 and is implemented in around 50% of all districts in Ghana (Jones et al., 2009; Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection [MoGCSP], 2018). The objective of LEAP is to develop local economies, through financially empowering the chronically poor (Niyuni, 2010). LEAP seeks to increase school enrolments for OVCs and to enhance their health and nutritional status (ILO, 2015). LEAP provides cash benefits to households in which there are OVCs, disabled children and individuals over the age of 65, and 48% of the beneficiaries are children (Handa et al., 2013). Benefits of LEAP range between US$ 7 and US$ 12, depending on the number of beneficiaries per household (Angeles, 2017).

Beneficiaries of LEAP are mandated to commit to certain conditions which include regular school attendance. Parents/guardians/caregivers are expected to ensure that children below the

age of 5 have regular health check-ups, vaccinations and post-natal services which are provided as part of programme benefits (ILO, 2015; Overseas Development Institute [ODI] & UNICEF, 2009).

LEAP promotes child protection initiatives such as the registration of new-borns at birth and upholds their right to identity (Dapatem, 2011). More so, programme benefits are provided on the condition that children should be protected against child labour or any practices that are harmful to their wellbeing (ODI & UNICEF, 2009; Jones et al., 2010).

LEAP has made significant contributions towards poverty alleviation, through increased school enrolments, improved access to secondary education and health services (Miller et al., 2010; Handa et al., 2013). In 2008, the programme reached around 53 000 households, and in 2010, it covered, approximately, 35 000 beneficiaries, while by 2017, the programme had extended its coverage to 213 000 families (Centre for Policy Analysis, [CEPA] 2010; Angeles et al, 2017). However, the sporadic nature of LEAP benefits has largely compromised the effectiveness of the programme in reaching its goals, as cash benefits are often inconsistent (Handa et al., 2013).

5.5.9 THE SOCIAL CASH TRANSFER PROGRAMME OF MALAWI

The Social Cash Transfer Programme (SCTP) of 2006 was established by the government of Malawi, with aid from international organisations such as WB, EU and UNICEF (Oxford Policy Management, 2014). The objective of SCTP is to improve the living standards of extremely poor households, which constitute 10% of the total population in Malawi (UNICEF, 2018).

SCTP seeks to enhance access to health care services and to facilitate enrolments and attendance in primary and secondary schools (Miller, 2008). Beneficiaries of SCTP receive an equivalent of US$10 per month (UNICEF, 2018). The programme employs a community based targeting approach, in which the community takes the responsibility of selecting programme beneficiaries (Covarrubias et al., 2012). Davis et al. (2016) note that community-based selection is efficient in enhancing social inclusion and in giving beneficiaries a sense of ownership of the programme.

Within the first four years of its implementation, SCTP reached about 83 000 households within seven districts (Handa et al., 2011). In addition, SCTP led to a 4% poverty reduction between

2010 and 2017 (UNICEF, 2018). The programme proved to be successful in encouraging beneficiaries to increase spending on health check-ups and education related costs such as books and school uniforms (Aguero et al., 2006; Schubert, 2005).

SCTP led to improved food security among beneficiaries, thereby improving their nutritional status (Miller et al., 2010). More so, SCTP brought about positive changes regarding the sexual behaviours of children of school going age (Devereux, 2013). Young women who were beneficiaries of SCTP reported that SCTP enabled them to invest most of their time in school and to focus less on engaging in sexual relationships, which resulted in reduced child marriages, HIV prevalence and teenage pregnancies (Baird et al., 2009; Omilola & Kaniki, 2014; UNICEF, 2018).

Similarly, Baird, McIntosh and Özler (2011) revealed that SCTP led to improved behavioural and school outcomes among the beneficiaries. SCTP also enabled children who had dropped out of school due to financial challenges to re-enrol in school (UNICEF, 2018). Although progress has been made to ensure safe environments for disadvantaged children in Malawi, 60% of children in rural areas are still suffering extreme poverty, with limited access to health and education services (UNICEF, 2018). Thus, there is need to broaden CSTP to cover economically disadvantaged children that are not benefiting from the programme.

5.5.10 THE MINIMUM LIVELIHOOD GUARANTEE PROGRAMME OF CHINA

Despite the rapid economic growth that has been witnessed in China for the past three decades, poverty continues to escalate, more especially in the rural areas (Li & Sicular, 2014; Wu, 2011; Zhang, 2009). Rural poverty has left most children out of school and without access to health care services (World Bank, 2017). Mo et al. (2013) revealed that nearly 27% of school going children in China's rural areas drop out of school before completing junior high school. Most disadvantaged children who graduate from junior high school do not proceed to senior high school due to financial difficulties faced by their parents/guardians/caregivers (Banerjee et al., 2001; Fieszbein et al., 2009).

To cushion low income households from poverty, the government of China introduced an UCT programme known as the Minimum Livelihood Guarantee Programme (*Dibao*) which was introduced in 1993. This programme was aimed at supporting extremely poor families in

China's rural areas. By 1999, the programme had expanded to cover urban areas (Wang et al., 2019). The goal of the *Dibao* is to enable individuals living in extreme poverty to attain a socially acceptable level of income (Kakwani et al., 2017). The World Bank (2017) states that *Dibao* is one of the most established social assistance programmes in the world. Benefits of the programme are provided for households who are living below the minimum standard of living, as set by the government of China (Gao, 2017).

Monthly benefits of *Dibao* are equivalent to US$ 165.50 for urban residents and US$ 123.64 for rural residents (World Bank, 2017). The programme extends its benefits to providing healthcare services and free education for the first nine years of schooling (Qiu & He, 2017). Benefits of *Dibao* are means tested, and the programme is characterised by an intense screening process which involves home visits and an investigation on the financial status of prospective beneficiaries (Kakwani et al., 2017).

Dibao has been effective in reducing income poverty; its coverage continues to rapidly expand since its implementation (Golan et al., 2017). In 2007, *Dibao* covered approximately 58 million individuals, and by 2012; coverage had increased to 74 million, representing 3% of urban residents and 7% or rural residents (WB, 2013). In 2013, *Dibao* covered approximately 12 million individuals in rural areas (Kakwani et al., 2017). On the other hand, the programme has often been criticised for discouraging beneficiaries to seek employment, thus creating dependency on social assistance (Liu & Lin, 2015; Moreira, 2008). Beneficiaries of *Dibao* are expected to graduate from the programme after six years. However, the programme keeps aiding beneficiaries after six years, hence giving them less incentive to look for employment (Gao, 2017).

5.5.11 THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE (BEAM) OF ZIMBABWE

BEAM is a social protection programme which is being implemented in all districts in Zimbabwe (Mutasa, 2015). The programme provides educational assistance for OVCs who have never attended school, who have dropped out of school and those likely to drop out of school due to poverty (GOZ, 2001; Shizha & Makuvaza, 2017).

The assistance provided under BEAM covers school and exam fees, eligible children receive continued support provided that they continue to attend school (Mtapuri, 2012). MoPSLSW

and the Ministry of Education, Sports, Arts and Culture are responsible for the implementation of BEAM at a national level, at a local level, implementation involves several stakeholders including Social Development Associations, Child Protection Committees, District Schools Inspectors, District Remedial Tutors, Community Selection Committees, Social Welfare Departments and NGOs (Chingono et al., 2006; WB, 2018).

BEAM forms part of the major components of the Enhanced Social Protection Project (ESPP), which was introduced by the GOZ with the aim of providing short term relief for individuals who suffer income poverty and inadequate access to health and education services (Gandure, 2009; GOZ, 2005; Gray, 2016). ESPP consist of five components, namely, Public Works Component (PWC), Children in Extremely Difficulty Circumstances (CEDC), Social Protection Strategy (SPS), Essential Drugs and Medical Supplies Component (EDMS) and BEAM (Ingstand & Eide, 2011; Karararch & Otieno, 2016).

PWC provides temporal employment for adults who suffer income poverty and CEDC focuses on addressing various challenges faced by OVCs which include child abuse, neglect and ill-health. SPS ensures the effective implementation of social policies and BEAM enhances access to education for OVCs (Devereux, 2006; Kararach & Otieno, 2016). All components of the ESPP are managed by the Project Management Unit (PMU), and each component is coordinated by a coordinator whose tasks include the training of BEAM implementers, preparation of annual reports and authorisation of payments (Masuka et al., 2012).

The selection process of BEAM beneficiaries takes place after the completion of applications. Parents/ guardians/ caregivers who require BEAM assistance collect the application forms from the schools which their children attend. After filling in the forms, they submit them to the schools for consideration during the selection process (USAID, 2009). The selection of BEAM beneficiaries is done at community level and it is mainly the responsibility of community members and the Community Selection Committee (CSC) (UNICEF & GOZ, 2005).

Members of the CSC are elected by the community members through meetings that are conveyed by Ward Councillors for the purposes of forming the CSC (Dhlembeu, 2004). Members of the CSC have the responsibility of electing the Secretary and Chairperson of their committee (GOZ, 2016). Traditional leaders and Ward Councillors are not permitted to form membership of the CSC, as they are mandated to take up the roles of mediators when arguments arise during the selection process (GOZ, 2015).

The CSC is deemed to be knowledgeable about the living conditions of applicants (Mwona & Pillay, 2016). Members of the CSC are well informed about the challenges that are faced by the most vulnerable individuals within their communities, hence they are in a better position to nominate the most needy children and to better respond to any given questions or concerns that may arise during the selection process (Roelen et al., 2011).

The selection of BEAM beneficiaries takes place in meetings, in which all applicants and members of the community are invited to actively participate throughout the whole process (GOZ, 2015). The meetings take place at selected schools and are chaired by the CSC. However, the selection of beneficiaries is achieved through joint efforts between members of the community and the CSC (GOZ, 2016). Potential beneficiaries of BEAM are nominated based on the Orphans and Vulnerable Children Village Register (OVC-VR). Some of the main factors considered during the selection process include the health and employment status of the parents/guardians/caregivers of applicants, assets owned within the household and school records which show inconsistences in paying school fees (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). First priority is given to double orphans, children from child headed families, children who dropped out of school and disabled children (GOZ, 2015).

After the shortlisting of BEAM beneficiaries, the CSC submits the list of successful applicants to the school principal. The school principal or any educator who oversees BEAM has the responsibility of submitting the list to the District Schools Inspector (DSI) and the District Social Services Officer, where is it verified against the OVC-VR and the budgets of selected schools (Chingono et al., 2006; GOZ, 2015). After verifying the list, the DSI submits the list to PMU, which is responsible for the disbursement of BEAM funds to schools (GOZ, 2015) The list of successful applicants is then published to the community members through the village heads and the schools (Munati et al., 2009). The broadcasting of information regarding BEAM is further achieved through channels which include posters, newspapers, brochures, radio and television stations (GOZ, 2003; UNICEF, 2012).

The active participation of community members in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries is the hallmark of inclusive development, representing a shift from a top-down approach to a more participatory approach of alleviating poverty (USAID, 2009). Kajawu and Mwakiwa (2006) are of the view that effective implementation of social protection programmes can be best achieved through mobilising community members and affording them with opportunities to actively participate during the selection of beneficiaries. Devereux (2013) noted that the

involvement of community members in social protection initiatives contribute to the empowerment of communities (Ngwerume, 2010). The World Bank (2018) sates that the involvement of community members in the implementation of social protection programmes is critical for the evaluation of social protection programmes, as they often provide valuable information regarding the weaknesses and strengths of such programmes.

Furthermore, community involvement in the selection process of BEAM beneficiaries eliminates the exclusion of deserving beneficiaries and the inclusion of those who are not eligible for benefits of the programme (Paes-Sousa et al., 2013). The promotion of community participation in social protection programmes creates a strong interface between the civil society and the government and provides individuals with a platform to present their concerns and grievances and to suggest possible ways in which the faced challenges can be best addressed (Wessels, 2009).

Kaseke (2004) stresses that the involvement of community members in the design and implementation of social protection schemes allows them to define their own prioritised needs and to map ways in which their needs can be met. As such, BEAM puts community members at the forefront of selecting beneficiaries of the programme, hence promoting social inclusion and empowering the community members through giving them a platform to participate on the economic development of their societies and the country at large.

Shizha and Kariwo (2011) are of the view that BEAM has led to great improvements on the education outcomes of OVCs, as some beneficiaries proceed to acquire tertiary education after successfully completing primary and secondary education. Between 2001 and 2005, BEAM provided aid for 969 962 students (RHVP, 2006). BEAM enrolments in secondary schools increased from 47% to 50% between 2002 and 2004 (UNICEF, 2007).

A poverty assessment study conducted in 2003 revealed that the GOZ provided educational support for 12% of primary school pupils and 10% of secondary school students within the country (GOZ, 2003). According to UNICEF (2004), around 8% of all children in primary and secondary schools were BEAM beneficiaries in 2004. The Ministry of Public Services, Labour and Social Welfare (2006) estimated that 17% of OVCs in Zimbabwe were receiving educational support from BEAM. In 2008, BEAM financed 557 604 students in primary schools and 230 396 in secondary schools (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011).

In 2008, the GOZ and UNICEF reviewed BEAM with the objective of locating the shortfalls of the programme and potential strategies of improving its efficiency (Smith et al., 2012). The review was focused on assessing the design and implementation of the programme and its payment system (GOZ, 2015). After the evaluation, it was agreed that the lack of funds was a major reason behind the late disbursement of BEAM funds (GOZ, 2016). Thus, in 2009, UNICEF, the donor community and the GOZ collaborated to revitalise BEAM (WB, 2018). As a result, BEAM received US$ 20 million donor funding between 2009 and 2010 and the benefits covered the third school term of 2009 and the full academic year of 2010 (UNICEF, 2012). The GOZ provided $US 15 million for secondary schools in 2010 (GOZ, 2015). In 2011, the GOZ financed BEAM with US$ 13 million for secondary schools and US$ 5 million for primary schools, as a top up to the US$ 10 million provided by the donor community (GOZ, 2016).

The number of primary and secondary schools that were eligible for BEAM stood at 5 407 in 2009 and rose to 5 666 in 2012 (GOZ, 2016). In 2012, the GOZ committed around US$ 16 million to BEAM (Smith et al., 2012). After 2012, donor funding became uncertain, and in 2018, the GOZ had an outstanding figure of US$ 82 million of BEAM funds which accumulated since 2014 and required US$ 33 million for the year 2018 (WB, 2018).

There are several factors that militate against the sustainability of BEAM. The programme is insufficient in aiding large numbers of OVCs that need educational assistance (Manyonganise, 2013; Mutenga, 2014). The funds allocated for BEAM in 2004 only covered one out of three terms of the school year (Integrated Regional Information Networks [IRIN], 2004).

One of the factors that compromise the effectiveness of BEAM is that the programme does not cover other educational expenses which include transport costs, stationery, school uniforms and books. As a result, BEAM benefits are inadequate in meeting the needs of OVCs (Smith et al., 2012). As demonstrated by Murenha (2006) the major weakness of BEAM is that the programme only focuses on costs that are related to school fees, while placing the responsibility of purchasing school uniforms, books and stationery on parents/guardians/caregivers. The inconsistences in the disbursement of BEAM funds have forced some parents/guardians/caregivers of the beneficiaries to occasionally pay for their children's schools fees (Kaseke, 2012; Maushe, 2014). In most rural areas, children who stay far from the school are discouraged from attending school on a regular basis (WB, 2018). The Government

of Zimbabwe (2010) noted that 14 % of BEAM beneficiaries walked long distances to and from school which resulted in some of them dropping out of school.

5.6. SUMMARY

Worldwide, governments continue to make efforts towards addressing the educational needs of OVCs. As noted earlier, the nature of benefits differs from country to country. While some countries provide educational benefits in form of cash transfers which may be conditional or unconditional, some provide aid in terms of school fees, stationery and examination fees. Countries such as Brazil, Mexico and China provide comprehensive systems of supporting the education of OVCs.

In Africa, education programmes for OVCs are less comprehensive and underfunded than other parts of the world. Social protection programmes that are focused on the education of OVCs have resulted in the improved educational outcomes of OVCs. However, millions of children remain out of school, particularly in Africa, where governments have been struggling to adequately fund social protection programmes. Traditional practices that impede girl children from completing primary and secondary education remain one of the major factors that have left children out of school. Thus, there is need to strengthen global commitments towards addressing the educational needs of OVCs, and this can be achieved through ensuring that social protection programmes are adequately funded and resourceful enough to provided assistance for all children who suffer lack of access to education. There is need for increased efforts towards protecting the rights of girl children in accessing education, to ensure that they get an equal chance to complete education. The next chapter examines the conventions and declarations that were adopted internationally, regionally and locally to enable all children to have access to education.

CHAPTER 6

INTERNATIONAL, REGIONAL AND LOCAL FRAMEWORKS UPHOLDING CHILDREN'S RIGHTS TO EDUCATION

6.1. INTRODUCTION

Globally, in developed and developing countries, a lot of attention has been given to children's rights and the wellness of OVCs. There is global recognition for a greater need to protect the rights of children and safeguard their physical and mental wellness (Forbes et al., 2011).

There are several policy frameworks that were adopted at international, regional and local levels to lay a strong foundation for the provision of sustainable and good quality education for children. One of the key elements of these policy frameworks is to enable children to access social services, which include health and education (United Nations, 2014).

In this chapter, various conventions and declarations that were adopted internationally, regionally and locally to enable all children to have access to education, are discussed. This discussion also looks at progress made and challenges faced by different nations in meeting the global goal of enabling and enhancing access to education for children.

6.2. THE CONVENTION AGAINST DISCRIMINATION IN EDUCATION

The first international policy framework on the right to education is the Convention Against Discrimination in Education (CADE) which was adopted by UNESCO in 1960 (O'Nions, 2016). Article 4 of CADE states that signatories should formulate national policies and laws which eliminate discrimination on the basis of gender, race and religion, in all fields of education (UNESCO, 2003). It also states that all individuals who have not had an opportunity to attain primary education should be given an opportunity to do so. Furthermore, Article 4 promotes access to free primary education, and accessibility of secondary and tertiary education for all (Desai, 2018). The significance of CADE in promoting access to education is indicated in the reiteration of its principles in all legal instruments on education that were established after the convention (UNESCO, 2002; Birech, 2013). To date, CADE has been ratified by 104 countries, including Tanzania, Senegal and South Africa (WB, 2018).

Despite a significant increase in the enrolment of girls in primary schools recorded in Botswana, Tanzania and Namibia (UNESCO, 2015), most African countries have not been able to fully realise the right of the girl child in accessing education (Save the Children [SC], 2015). Gender disparities in accessing education still exist in countries such as Nigeria, Ethiopia and Ghana (Buss & Burril, 2016; UNESCO, 2006a).

Harmful social and cultural practices such as child labour and forced child marriages have left millions of girl children out of school (Petroni et al., 2017). In Ethiopia, children who become parents are overwhelmed with responsibilities of providing care for their children and family members who may be old aged or chronically sick (UN, 2014).

Girl children who reside in conflict prone areas have suffered lack of access to education, sexual violence and childhood pregnancies, and the worst affected being children in Southern Sudan, where civil wars have been witnessed for around two decades (UNICEF & WB, 2016). Despite the provision of free primary education in Kenya, accessing primary education remains a huge challenge for many children, particularly girls who reside in rural areas, as some of them are forced into early marriages (WB, 2018). An estimated 30 million children are out of school in Africa and approximately 54% of them are girls (UNICEF, 2019). Given the high statistics of girl children who are out of school in Africa, there is greater need for African states to address gender disparities that have left alarming numbers of girls out of school (Wang, 2016).

6.3. THE INTERNATIONAL COVENANT ON ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS

The 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) and is the foundation for the international recognition of human rights (United Nations Human Rights Council [UNHRC], 2019). The Covenant safeguards the economic, cultural and political rights of all individuals.

State parties of ICESCR include Brazil, Russia, Angola, China, India, Belgium, Cameroon, South Africa, Kenya, Ghana, Namibia, Zimbabwe, Uganda and Senegal (UNHRC, 2019). Articles 13 and 14 of ICESCR provide comprehensive content on the right to education (Crawford, 2012; Shaw, 2014). Article 13, for example, states that education should be accessible to all individuals despite their race, ethnicity, gender and economic status, and

should be acknowledged by teachers, parents/guardians/caregivers and children (Chirwa, 2018).

As mentioned in Article 13, primary education should be compulsory, free and accessible for all individuals, secondary education should be accessible for all, and accessibility to tertiary education should be equal and ought to be based on individual capacity (Richardson, 2015). In addition, Article 13 gives parents/guardians/caregivers the right to choose education systems that are aligned with their ethical and religious beliefs, and the right to launch private schools (Saul et al., 2014).

Article 14 urges state parties who fail to realise the right to education within 2 years of consenting to the Covenant, to draft a plan of action that ensures the full realisation of the right to education (Hathaway, 2002; Programme on Women's Economic, Social and Cultural Rights [PWESCR], 2015). More so, Article 14 states that education should ensure easy adaptability for children with special needs and should ensure availability of learning materials and facilities needed to support such children (Chirwa, 2018; Ssenyonjo, 2010).

The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR) takes the responsibility of monitoring the implementation of ICESCR by its member states (Uprimny, 2018). The committee obliges member states to uphold essential elements of education which are adaptability, accessibility, availability and acceptability (Salomon, 2005; Saul, 2016). The availability aspect of the Covenant grants state and non-state actors the permission to establish educational systems (Harris & Sivakumaran, 2015). Availability entails that access to education should be free of charge and educational facilities should be equipped with adequate infrastructure, qualified teachers and sanitation (UNHRC, 2019). Accessibility means education should be available to everyone, and state parties are encouraged to ensure all children have access to education on non-discriminatory grounds and should be provided with schools that are within their proximity (Uprimny, 2018).

Accessibility also denotes that secondary and tertiary education should be affordable, as state parties progress towards introducing free education in all institutions (Harris & Sivakumaran, 2015). Acceptability means that the education curricula should be of good quality, culturally acceptable and should protect the best interests of children. Adaptability requires education to adapt to and respond to different needs of learners within their cultural and social contexts (UNHRC, 2019).

The ICESCR gained global recognition, particularly in Africa where 90% of countries within the region have ratified the Convention. However, very little progress has been made by member states in implementing the principles of ICESCR (Gilbert, 2017; Olaniyan, 2014). To date, access to primary and secondary education remains a major challenge in Africa, where economic status is a major determinant of children's access to good quality education (Hathaway, 2002; Murray & Long, 2015).

Africa's OVCs continue to suffer lack of access to basic education, and the most affected are those in rural areas, where schools are often underdeveloped and have no means to cater for the needs of children with disabilities (Goodman & Jinks, 2003; Harris & Sivakumaran, 2015). Schools in rural areas in many countries including Kenya, South Africa, Zimbabwe and Nigeria do not have adequate infrastructure and sanitation services, thus compromising their capacity for providing good quality education (Gilbert, 2017; Maushe, 2014; Trousseau, 2014). Thus, access to education for children in general and, specifically OVCs, remains a global challenge, as most countries have not achieved the principle of universal and free access to primary education.

6.4. THE CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) was established by the United Nations in 1989 (UNICEF, 2020). CRC is the first legal instrument that is specific to social, political and economic rights of children (Harper et al., 2010; Lundy & McEvoy, 2012). The right to education is affirmed in Articles 28 and 29 of CRC (Liefaard & Sloth-Nielsen, 2017). Article 28 states that primary school education should be obligatory and free of charge, and secondary education should be accessible for all children, and should be accompanied by vocational training which enables children to progress throughout their professional lives (Cooper, 2012).

Article 28 further encourages all signatories to ensure regular attendance in schools and to minimise school dropouts (UNICEF, 2011). Article 29 states that education should be focused on developing the child's cognitive and physical capabilities and should promote all human rights and freedoms (UNESCO, 2015). In addition, the article notes that all measures taken within the education sector should be non-discriminatory and should be informed by the best interests of the child (Mulinge, 2010; UNICEF, 2016). The article notes that children who lack the financial means to access education have the right to receive social protection benefits from their governments (UNICEF, 2012).

Of the first signatories of CRC, 50% were African leaders, with Ghana being the first African country to endorse the Convention. Almost all countries, with the exception of the United States of America (USA) endorsed the CRC and continued to employ it as a framework of realising children's rights (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights [OHCHR], 2019).

The CRC is informed by four principles, namely, Children's right to fully express their opinions on issues that affect them, best interests of children, the child's right to life and non-discrimination (Franklin, 2002; Gilbert et al., 2011). These principles show a solid commitment on the part of CRC in promoting and respecting children's right to education (Hansson, 2012; UNICEF, 2016). The United Nations formed the Committee on the Rights of the Child to ensure accountability from member states, and the committee is responsible for monitoring progress made by member states in adhering to the guidelines stated in the CRC (OHCHR, 2019; Thomas, 2007).

Despite the guiding principles provided by the CRC, many countries are still lagging behind in terms of realising the right of children to education. By the end of 2017, approximately 262 million children in the world were still out of school (UNICEF, 2020). A year after the CRC was passed, African governments began to show discontent through the Organisation of Africa Unity (OAU), about the limited involvement of African Leaders in drafting the CRC and the under representation of the African child in the Convention (Save the Children, 2010; Spitzer & Twikirize, 2013). Consequently, The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of a Child was adopted to address the short falls of the CRC and to implement a legal framework that is specific to the challenges faced by Africa's OVCs in accessing education (Viljoen, 2013).

6.5. THE AFRICAN CHARTER ON THE RIGHTS AND WELFARE OF THE CHILD

The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) was adopted by the African Union in 1990 and came into effect in 1999 (UNICEF, 2014). ACRWC is the first regional treaty to focus on the rights of children in Africa (Kaime, 2009a; Viljoen, 2013). Member states of ACRWC include Kenya, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Nigeria and South Africa (UNHCR, 2018).

The foreword of the ACRWC begins with recognising the uniqueness of the African child and the privileges that are entitled to African children, 31 of 48 articles within the charter are focused on safeguarding the wellness of children (UNICEF, 2020; Wabwile, 2010). Njungwe (2009) states that the ACRWC is a document that was designed by Africans, for Africans, and is aimed at advancing practices that protect African children from physical and emotional harm.

Article 11 of ACRCW state that every child has the right to access primary, secondary and tertiary education, and further obliges member states to ensure that children who fall pregnant before completing school are given an opportunity to attain education, on the basis of their individual capabilities (Abass, 2014). Article 11 states that education should be directed towards enabling children to reach their full potentials in developing their personalities and in building their skills (UNHCR, 2018). Furthermore, the article states that education should be directed towards promoting peace and should preserve the African culture (UNHCR, 2018).

The African Committee of Experts on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACERWC) is responsible for overseeing progress made by member states in promoting the wellness of children and to address cases in which the rights of children are violated (Ochen et al., 2012). The committee places the responsibility of safeguarding the wellness of children on governments, parents/guardians/caregivers and communities (Wabwile, 2010).

The ACERWC is mandated to submit regular reports detailing information regarding the state of children in Africa and steps taken to protect their wellness (Kaime, 2009b; Shabaya & Konadu-Agyemang, 2004). Article 33 of the ACRCW states that eleven representatives from different African states meet twice a year, at its office in Addis Ababba in Ethiopia, to discuss various issues that affect the wellness of children, as well as possible solutions to such challenges (Aitken, 2010; UNESCO, 2015).

The ACERWC also plays the role of communicating with individuals or groups from various African countries, regarding incidents in which the rights of children are violated, and takes necessary steps needed to protect children that are in unsafe environments (Menzur, 2008).

The ACRWC has made significant contributions in protecting the rights and wellness of children in countries including Senegal, Kenya, Malawi and Uganda (Viljoen, 2013). However, most African leaders showed less enthusiasm about endorsing the ACRWC. The Charter is hardly referred to in African policy forums (SC, 2010). Evidence to suggest that the ACRWC is being implemented in Africa is very low, and the majority of African states are still lagging

behind in terms of protecting children's right to education (The African Child Policy Forum (ACPF), 2011; UNICEF, 2020).

6.6. SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are international goals from 2015 to 2030, that were adopted by UNGA to build on MDG's of 2000 to 2015 (UN, 2017a). SDGs are informed by the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda, which is aimed at facilitating global commitments towards achieving sustainable development, social justice and economic growth globally (UNRISD, 2016).

SDGs represent partnerships between first and third world nations, in creating an environment conducive for development and poverty elimination at global, regional and national levels (UN, 2016b). SDGs provide a platform of increasing governments' spending on social protection, thus strengthening the ongoing global efforts of enhancing the access to education for all children particularly OVCs (Barbier, 2016).

Education plays a fundamental role in promoting SDGs, through contributing towards promoting social inclusion, poverty alleviation and the realisation of human rights (Kaltenborn, 2015). The United Nations Development Programme (2015) states that SDGs are guiding principles of achieving economic and social development at a global level. SDGs are aimed at improving the wellness of all individuals and promoting peaceful and democratic societies, with a lot of emphasis on the less privileged and vulnerable members (Costanza et al., 2016).

The first SDG is aimed at eradicating all forms of poverty. This goal is directly linked to education, as education attainment has the potential to alleviate poverty, through enabling individuals to seek employment and generate income (Xlao et al., 2017). In addition, education plays an important role towards promoting the second SDG which seeks to eliminate hunger through promoting food security and improving the nutritional status of individuals. Education is a crucial element of eradicating hunger and malnourishment (FAO, 2015). Educational training on agriculture increases productivity, which in turn leads to increased agricultural outputs, thus addressing hunger and food shortages (WHO, 2017).

The third SDG is aimed at promoting the health and wellbeing of all individuals (FAO, 2016b). Education has a positive impact on the overall wellness of all individuals. Learned individuals

are better capacitated in identifying symptoms of illnesses at early stages and have knowledge on preventive precautions that are to be taken to stay healthy (UNICEF & WB, 2016).

The World Health Organisation (2017) states that education and health are closely linked development goals that determine the holistic wellness of individuals. Education ensures improved health outcomes for women and children. Educated women are more likely to take care of their health and that of their children (UN, 2015a). Education also plays a crucial role in educating school going children and adults on reproductive and sexual health and ways of preventing HIV/AIDS and other STIs (Sexually Transmitted Infections) (UN, 2015d).

Social protection programmes provide support for OVCs through providing them with education benefits including payment of school and examination fees, provision of school uniforms and school feeding services, thus promoting the fourth SDG which is aimed at promoting access to education (UNICEF, 2016a). Social protection services that are child sensitive have been effective towards the achievement of SDGs, and cash transfers that are targeted at the education of OVCs have been effective in enhancing access to education in countries such as Mexico and Brazil, Kenya and Ghana (Asfaw et al., 2012; Bastagli et al., 2016; Handa et al., 2013).

The United Nations (2015) is of the view that education is a major driving force towards achieving the fifth SDG, which is focused on empowering women and girls and to achieve gender equality. Education gives girl children and women opportunities to expand their intellectual capacities and aspire for better employment opportunities and livelihoods (UN, 2015d). Educating girls breaks the cycle of poverty through preventing the possibilities of childhood marriages, early sexual activities and health risks that are associated with such practices (UN, 2016a). Education enables women to escape patriarchy and traditional roles that makes them stay at home (Singh & Revollo, 2016). Education empowers women and enables both men and women to work collaboratively towards attaining gender equality (WB, 2017). In the same vein, Barbier (2016) states that the knowledge that is transferred to women and girls in school strengthens their capacity of advocating for their rights (WB, 2016b). Education enhances the social status of women and enables them to participate in spheres that had been historically defined as male professions (UN, 2017).

The eighth goal of SDGs is to achieve sustainable economic development and decent employment for all individuals (Xlao et al, 2017). Education plays an important role in achieving this goal because it facilitates economic development through increasing the number

of people who join the labour force and contribute to the development of their countries (UNESCO, 2015).

The rapid economic development that has been witnessed in China is closely linked to the strides that are taken by the Chinese government in improving access to education and employment opportunities (UNICEF, 2019). Education is globally perceived as a tool of promoting equality and social justice, and thus plays an essential role in promoting the tenth SGD which is to reduce inequalities that exist within and amongst different countries (UN, 2015d). Attaining education reduces income inequalities that exist between the rich and the poor, as it enables individuals to escape poverty and attain better lives (WB, 2018). Education also increases development in social and economic spheres of Less Economically Developed Countries (LEDCs). As a result, the income gap between rich and poor countries is lessened as more people attain education (UNICEF, 2016).

However, despite the global expansion of social protection programmes that are focused on enhancing access to education for OVCs, progress in reaching SDGs and achieving universal access to education in Africa remains low (UN, 2017b). Efforts towards achieving universal access to education in Africa are hindered by the underfunding of social protection programmes that provide education benefits for OVCs (WB, 2015). In developing countries including Zimbabwe, Malawi, Nigeria and India, children continue to suffer harmful practices such as child marriages, arranged marriages and female genital mutilation (FAO, 2016b). The goal of enhancing access to education has not been fully met as children continue to stay illiterate, especially in Africa (UN, 2017a). For SDGs to be met, the role of social protection in enhancing livelihoods and in promoting access to primary and secondary education should be fully acknowledged and implemented at global, regional and national levels (UNRISD, 2016).

Progress made by various countries in adhering to the above mentioned SDG's, particularly the goal of promoting access to education, is not included in this section due to the fact that countries do not submit progress reports on SDGs on a regular basis.

6.7. THE UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

After WW II, UNESCO came to the realisation that the only way to restore global peace was to uphold solidarity, social justice and human rights (UN, 2016). Thus, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) of 1948 was adopted in Paris, France. The UDHR has

30 articles which commits all member states to observe all human rights stated within the declaration, despite of one's race, religion, language, social class and gender (UN, 2017).

The UDHR was drafted by delegates from all regions in the world. To date, the declaration has been translated into over 500 languages (UNESCO, 2015). Countries that adopted the UDHR include Mexico, China, Ethiopia, Australia, Egypt, Liberia (UN, 2017b). Upon the adoption of UDHR, the majority of the world's children had no access to education, and around 50% of the world's adult population could not read and write (UNESCO, 2015; UNICEF, 2019). Therefore, it was critical for all states to take legal and administrative measures to ensure universal and free primary education for all, OVCs who had been affected by the WW II (UN, 2013).

Article 26(1) of the UDHR states that everyone is entitled to education. The article further states that primary education should be compulsory and free (UNDP, 2013). Article 26(2) states that education should be focused on the cognitive development of individuals and should fully recognise all human rights and freedoms. In addition, the article indicates that education should promote all activities made by the UN in promoting world peace (UNDP, 2013).

Despite the existence of the UDHR for the past seven decades, and its adoption by 150 countries worldwide, millions of children continue to suffer deprivation due to economic, cultural and social factors that leave them out of school (UNICEF, 2019). The United Nations Children's Fund (2018) states that an estimated 2.6 million children in Ethiopia are out of school. Around 118 000 children in Liberia had no access to primary education (UNICEF, 2018). Between 2015 and 2017, an estimated 55 000 children dropped out of school in Egypt (Emam, 2017). In Zimbabwe, Tanzania and Malawi, children continue to suffer lack of access to basic education, particularly in rural areas, which are characterised by extreme poverty (UNICEF, 2018).

Lack of access to education is largely due to the fact that most OVCs are not benefiting from social protection programmes which are often less comprehensive and underfunded (Barrientos et al, 2013: Kararch & Otieno, 2016); WB, 2018). The gaps that exist in accessing education can be mitigated through the provision of universal, good quality education for all children (UNICEF, 2020). Thus, there is need for increased efforts by governments to ensure the provision of education for all children and to monitor the progress made by various social protection initiatives in responding to the education needs of OVCs (AU; 2015; UNDP, 2014; UN, 2015d).

6.8. CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) in 1979, with the objective of safeguarding the educational, political, social and economic rights of women (Simmons, 2009; UN Women, 2018). The adoption of CEDAW is informed by the UN's fundamental principle of promoting women's rights. The Convention seeks to enhance global cooperation in protecting all human rights and freedoms (Keller, 2014).

Currently, there are 187 member states of CEDAW, which include Switzerland, United Kingdom, Saudi Arabia, Sri Lanka, Burundi, Afghanistan , Botswana and Nigeria (WB, 2017). CEDAW encourages member states to take all possible measures to eliminate gender-based discrimination in all educational institutions, and to ensure equal rights in accessing education (Nussbaum, 2016).

Article 10 of CEDAW encourages all member states to take legal measures to abolish discrimination of women in the education sector and is based on five principles which promote gender equality in accessing education (UN Women, 2018). The first principle of CEDAW states that all forms of discrimination in accessing education should be eliminated to ensure that women have equal chances with men in accessing education (Duflo, 2012; Paxton & Hughes, 2017).

The second principle of CEDAW states that the provision of educational opportunities should not be limited to primary and secondary education but should include pre-school education, tertiary education and vocational training (Cole, 2013; UN Women, 2018). The third principle states that education should be accessible to all women, in both rural and urban areas (Evatt, 2002).The fourth principle states that member states should take legal measures to eliminate all stereotypical perceptions of the roles and responsibilities of women and men within the family and in society, and to ensure that women have the right to pursue study fields of their choices (Cole, 2013). The fifth principle stresses that promoting the right of women to education is valuable as it facilitates the realisation of all other rights in different spheres of life which include family, society and the workplace (Cole, 2012; WB, 2017).

CEDAW led to the global promotion of women's rights and enabled women and girls to enjoy higher literacy rates and greater representation within the education sector (Frezzo, 2015;

UNESCO, 2000; Neumayer, 2007). Countries including Austria, Columbia, Botswana, Bangladesh, Lesotho and Gambia enacted CEDAW principles into their legislative frameworks and have made notable strides in enhancing gender equality within all sectors of education (UNICEF, 2011; UN Woman, 2018). Upon ratifying CEDAW, Switzerland and Slovenia adjusted admission policies within primary and secondary schools, to facilitate the enrolment of girls in school (UNICEF, 2019). However, accessing education is still a challenge for women in countries such as India, Pakistan, Zimbabwe and Tanzania and this is attributed to long-lasting patriarchal societies that prioritise the education of males over that of females (Ndlovu-Bhebhe, 2012; Nussbaum, 2016; UNESCO, 2005; WB, 2019). Thus, there is need for strengthening global efforts towards addressing traditionally defined beliefs that hinder women and girls from attaining education, as this has been a major setback in safeguarding the right to education for girl children.

6.9. THE NATIONAL ACTION PLAN FOR ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN OF ZIMBABWE

After recognising the importance of providing social protection benefits for OVCs as a basic human right, various countries, including Zimbabwe developed National Plans of Action for Orphans and Vulnerable Children (NPA for OVCs), that are focused on addressing the needs and challenges faced by OVCs (WB, 2018). Zimbabwe's policy framework is designed to ensure the provision of good quality education for all children, particularly OVCs (Chitambara, 2010; GOZ, 2015; Ringson, 2019). The country is committed to fulfilling the rights of OVCs and their families, in line with the global, regional and national frameworks of which the state is devoted to (GOZ, 2014; Nyamukapa, 2016). In 2003, an estimated 761 000 children were orphaned to HIV/AIDS in Zimbabwe (UNICEF, 2018a). The GOZ responded to the crisis through holding a National Stakeholders Conference in June 2003, in collaboration with various stakeholders including MoPSLSW, NGOs and UN representatives to identify ways to best address challenges faced by OVCs and their families (GOZ, 2015).

A total of 50 children attended the conference, and these included OVCs and junior members of the parliament, which were regarded as the most important stakeholders during the conference, as they helped in identifying the challenges that were faced by OVCs, and the ways of mitigating them (WB, 2015). Recommendations made during the conference culminated into the development of Zimbabwe's National Action Plan for OVCs (NAP for OVCs). Three

child representatives were elected to be part of the NAP Working Party of Officials (WPO), which had the responsibility of developing the final draft of NAP for OVCs (USAID, 2012; WB, 2015). NAP for OVCs was officially launched by GOZ in 2005, and children actively participated during the launch in various ways including reciting poems, plays and songs that expressed the need to address the needs of OVCs (UNICEF, 2018a).

Social protection benefits provided by the NAP for OVCs include cash transfers, BEAM and child protection services for children who survive violence, exploitation and abuse (Kang & UNICEF, 2017). Legislative laws that govern the implementation of NAP for OVCs in Zimbabwe include Article 27(1) of the Constitution of Zimbabwe, which states that basic education is compulsory and free for all (GOZ, 2013).

In addition, the National Orphan Care Policy of 1999 provides guidelines on the care and protection of OVCs and further states that OVCs are entitled to accessing health care, education and family support (Shangwa & Mathende, 2019). More so, the Children's Act [Chapter 5: 06] of 2001 was implemented to fulfil the commitment of GOZ in protecting children's rights and provides guidelines of protecting children from neglect and abuse (Bhaiseni, 2016).

Since the establishment of NAP for OVCs, the policy framework has been employed by GOZ to fulfil the country's commitments in safeguarding the wellness of OVCs (Gutsa, 2012). The first phase of NAP for OVCs, referred to as the NAPI, was implemented from 2005 to 2010 (Mushunje & Mafico, 2010; UNICEF, 2018a). The goal of NAPI was to positively impact the lives of at least 25% of all OVCs through the provision of health, education, nutrition and birth registration services (GOZ, 2015). The financial resources used to implement NAPI were acquired through the Programme of Support (PoS) in which various development partners from countries such as New Zealand, United Kingdom and Germany donated funds (UNICEF 2018a). The regulation of PoS funds was the responsibility of UNICEF and GOZ (Kang & UNICEF, 2017).

NAP1 was successful in reaching 410 000 OVCs. However, the policy framework was not comprehensive enough to meet the wide range of needs of OVCs and their families (UNICEF, 2011). In 2010, all programmes funded under NAPI were evaluated by the GOZ, and key participants during the evaluation were OVCs and their families (GOZ, 2015). The majority of parents/guardians/caregivers and OVCs who were interviewed emphasised the need for addressing high rates of child abuse and increasing access to health and educational services (GOZ, 2015; WB, 2018). Some of the participants noted that there is need to increase

household incomes for families providing care for OVCs, and to strengthen their capacity in providing adequate nutrition for children (UNICEF, 2018a). Subsequently, the second phase of NAP for OVCs (NAPII) was established to better respond to the needs and challenges presented by beneficiaries during the evaluation of NAP1 (Long &Bunkers, 2013).

The implementation of NAPII was from 2011 to 2015 and was part of the Zimbabwe National Strategic Plan on HIV and AIDS (ZNASP) which is the guiding strategy in addressing the effects of HIV/AIDS on OVCs, their families and the country at large (UNICEF, 2012). Various institutions were established to facilitate the implementation of the NAPII, and they include national and provincial secretariats of MoPSLSW (GOZ, 2016). NAPII is acquainted with the involvement of parents, guardians/caregivers in identifying the needs and challenges faced by OVCs and in crafting possible ways of addressing such issues (UNICEF, 2018a). NAPII acknowledges three key areas which need full attention for the effective implementation of social protection policies and programmes (GOZ & WB, 2016). Firstly, the full implementation of programmes which provide benefits for OVCs, secondly, the need to review existing laws to accommodate the increasing numbers of child headed households and HIV/AIDS orphans, which had not been anticipated when the laws were drafted (GOZ, 2016).Thirdly, to ensure that all matters affecting the wellbeing of children are addressed through the application of legislative laws (GOZ, 2016). NAPII sought to ensure that OVCs stay in safe environments that enhance their emotional and physical wellbeing and to increase household incomes of at least 250 000 chronically poor families (WB, 2018). However, this goal was not achieved in 2015 due to the underfunding of programmes that provide social protection services for OVCs (UNICEF 2018a).

The third phase of NAP for OVCs (NAPIII) was implemented from 2016 to 2020. The focus was on strengthening the ongoing commitments of the GOZ in providing a conducive environment for OVCs (GOZ, 2016). NAPIII serves as an operating guideline for all institutions which provide childcare services in Zimbabwe (UNICEF, 2018a).

NAPIII consists of five chapters and three appendices which provide comprehensive practice guidelines on child protection and the provision of social services for low income households (GOZ & WB, 2016). NAPIII was developed through collaborative engagements of stakeholders including MoPSLSW, the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) and UNICEF (UNICEF, 2018a). NAPIII is utilised in fulfilling the needs of OVCs

and is informed by lessons learnt from the implementation of NAPI and NAPII (Kang & UNICEF, 2017).

Stakeholders involved in the implementation of NAP 111 at community level include Child Protection Committees (CPCs) and Community Case Workers (CCWs) and child welfare officers. Civil society organisations have the responsibility of implementing NAPIII at a provincial level, while MoPSLSW and UNICEF have the role of implementing NAPIII at a national level (GOZ, 2016; WB, 2018).

Despite the existence of a well-crafted NAP for OVCs, lack of financial resources has impaired the full implementation of programmes that uphold children's rights (Chitambara, 2010; Nyamukapa, 2016; WB, 2018). Fanzo et al. (2018) state that around 263 million children were out of school due to poverty.

Child vulnerability continues to increase and is perpetuated by high rates of HIV/AIDS, leaving Zimbabwe's OVCs illiterate, malnourished and without adult care and support (Karim & Maingi, 2019). Parents/guardians/care givers are continually losing their capacity to provide for OVCs due to circumstances which include chronic illnesses, old age, disability and unemployment (WB, 2018). Furthermore, family disintegration as a result of urbanisation has ripped off the extended family's role of providing care for OVCs (Kaseke, 2012; World Bank, 2015, UNICEF, 2018a). Henceforth, there is greater need for the GOZ to strengthen its efforts in addressing the social ills that have left OVCs without adequate access to health, education, and basic nutrition.

6.10. SUMMARY

Commitments towards safeguarding the right to education are evident in international, regional and local frameworks that were implemented to safeguard the wellness of children. However, countries such as Ethiopia, Liberia, Nigeria, Egypt and Zimbabwe have not realised the goal of providing universal access to basic education for children, as OVCs continue to suffer lack of access to basic education.

The financial constraints that are faced by governments in such countries have resulted in the underfunding of educational programmes that are directed at enhancing access to education. Historically, much emphasis has been placed on OVCs as they are more susceptible to dropping out of school due to poverty. Unlike children who reside in upper and middle class families,

OVCs are more vulnerable to dropping out of school due to chronic poverty and lack of parental support.

The successful implementation of various declarations and conventions at global, regional and national levels strengthened the promotion of children's rights to basic education and they enabled children from low income families to attain education. However, millions of OVCs are still in abject poverty. In addition, traditional practices which support childhood marriages and the rapid increase of HIV/AIDS are some of the major setbacks towards the realisation of universal access to education in Africa. Lastly, it is evident that the full implementation of child protection services is further hindered by inconsistencies that exist in the funding of such programmes. The next chapter discusses the research methodology employed in this study.

CHAPTER 7

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

7.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a presentation of the research methodology employed in this study. The research methodology used in this study sought to answer the following research question:

- How does the Zimbabwean Basic Education Assistance Module enable orphans and vulnerable children to access and achieve education?

The chapter begins by discussing the research paradigm the research is embedded in, the research approach that was adopted and the research design employed in the study. The study population, sample and sampling procedures employed in the study are discussed too. The research instrument used in the study is explained. Reasons behind the inclusion of various issues in interview guides are discussed. The data analysis procedures that were followed in this study are discussed in this chapter too. Other issues that are explained in this chapter include the steps taken to ensure the trustworthiness of findings, the ethical principles followed, possible limitations of the study and the delimitation of the research design adopted in this investigation.

7.2. RESEARCH PARADIGM

This study is embedded in the interpretive research paradigm. According to Terre- Blanche et al. (2006, p. 6), research paradigms refer to "all-encompassing systems of interrelated practice and thinking that define for researchers the nature of their inquiry along three dimensions: ontology, epistemology and methodology". Ontology denotes assumptions made by researchers to accept phenomena under study as being realistic and noteworthy (Scotland, 2012). Epistemology refers to the acquisition of knowledge with the aim of broadening the understanding of the area under study (Cookey & Mcdonald, 2011). Methodology refers to systematic procedures that are followed in conducting research, to enable the researcher to gain knowledge on the area under study (Scott & Usher, 2004).

The interpretive paradigm refers to a philosophical approach of thinking, in which researchers seek to understand human experiences within a subjective world (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). In

interpretive research, social action is explained through the use of subjective perceptions and views that inform it (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). The interpretive paradigm is based on the notion that realities are socially constructed, that is, reality is discovered through human interaction (Al Riyami, 2015; Flick, 2014).

The Interpretive paradigm involves the study of individuals, programmes and events to drive meaning from the phenomena under study (Richardson, 2012; Silverman, 2010; Willis 2007). Against this background, this study sought to establish how BEAM enables OVCs to access education in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. The researcher adopted the interpretive paradigm in this study in order to gain comprehensive knowledge on BEAM.

The interpretive paradigm places considerable emphasis on gaining an adequate understating of individuals and how they interpret the world (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). The adoption of the interpretive paradigm in this study enabled the researcher to gain an understanding of participants' views and perceptions regarding the contribution of BEAM in enabling OVCs to access education.

Interpretive researchers make use of naturalistic approaches of collecting data with the aim of building theories, which include observations and interviews. The main advantage of using these approaches is that it enables the researcher to gain a holistic understanding of experiences of individuals in a specific setting (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007). The use of face-to-face interviews in this study allowed for active interaction between the researcher and research participants and enabled the researcher to gain an in-depth understand of the participants' subjective experiences and viewpoints regarding BEAM.

7.3. RESEARCH APPROACH

This study adopted a qualitative research approach which is exploratory in nature (Berg, 2012; Creswell, 2014). The adoption of a qualitative research approach enabled the researcher to explore and understand the experiences, perceptions and backgrounds of research participants. The interpretation of research findings is based on the meanings and interpretations given by research participants (Creswell, 2007: 2016; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011). In this regard, the researcher insured that the collected data is primarily based on the lived experiences and views of research participants not her own interests regarding BEAM.

According to Auerbach and Silverstein (2003, p. 1) qualitative research "involves analysing and interpreting text and interviews in order to discover meaningful patterns descriptive of a particular phenomenon." Qualitative research enables the researcher to acquire complex descriptions on the experiences, perceptions and values of specific populations (Bryman, 2016; Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

The advantage of using qualitative research is that it enables researchers to fully understand how people make sense of their experiences, it also helps researchers to understand phenomenon from the participants' viewpoints (Choy, 2014; Creswell, 2012). The qualitative research approach was appropriate for this study because it is exploratory in nature, and this enabled the researcher to gather comprehensive information on and in depth understanding of participants' perceptions regarding the contribution of BEAM in enabling OVCs to access education.

The flexibility of qualitative research approach allowed for interaction between the researcher and the research participants. The use of open-ended questions enabled the researcher to get multifaceted responses which enabled her to gather detailed information on BEAM. However, the use of qualitative methods in conducting research makes it difficult to generalise findings to a larger population, as researchers largely focus on gaining an understanding on a particular phenomenon, while losing a broader perspective of the area under study (Thompson, 2011; Houser, 2015). In addition, the process of collecting and analysing data in qualitative research can be cumbersome as it is time consuming and involves a lot of expenses as researchers are required to be mobile on a frequent basis (Flick, 2011; Punch, 2013).

7.4. RESEARCH DESIGN

A case study design was employed in this study. A case study is a pragmatic analysis that systematically examines specific phenomenon in a bid to adequately understand an area under study (Dul & Hak, 2008; Gilham, 2000; Woodside, 2010). The use of a case study design in qualitative research allows for comprehensive data collection which involves the use of several sources of data which include interviews, participant and non-participant observation and surveys (Creswell, 2013; Morse 2003; Tight, 2017). It allows the researcher to thoroughly examine the data within a specific context, and to investigate and explore real life experiences through a comprehensive contextual analysis of a limited number of events and their relationships (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Zainal, 2007).

Case study research involves a comprehensive examination of an issue through a single or several cases within a specific context (Creswell, 2012; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Yin, 2003). A case may be an individual, group or a community, event, policy, activity, programme, organisation, or any case that is bounded for learning purposes (Creswell 2016; Trainor & Graue, 2013; Yin, 2014). The advantage of using a case study in qualitative research is that it enables the researcher to get insights on the complexity of various policies and programmes under study (Creswell, 2009; Starman, 2013). Increasingly, scholars argue that case study research is an excellent source of gathering information on human behaviour and their lived experiences (Creswell, 2012: Denzin & Lincoln, 2005: Remenyi, 2013).

The use of a case study design enabled the researcher to establish the profiles of the research participants, and their perceptions with regards to BEAM. However, there is a high possibility of biases in the collection and interpretation of data in case study research, since it is only the researcher who is responsible for the collection and analysis of data (Green, 2011; Remenyi, 2013; Ritchie et al., 2005). More so, case study research lacks generalisation as it may be impossible to generalise the findings of the study on a single case basis (Gomm, et al., 2000; Yin, 2014). However, it allows for contextualisation of the issue under research which is the purpose of qualitative research.

According to Stake (2000), there are three categories of case study designs, namely; instrumental case study, multiple or collective case study and intrinsic case study. This study employed an intrinsic case study design. An intrinsic case study refers to exploratory research in which the researcher seeks to evaluate, describe and analyse a specific case with a goal of understanding the relationship between the case and its various parts (Creswell, 2016). Qualitative researchers do not employ intrinsic case studies because they are representative of a larger sample, nor for the purposes of formulating a theory, rather the researcher focus on a particular case because of having vested interest in the study area (George & Bennett, 2005; Simons, 2009). The use of an intrinsic case study enabled the researcher to gather convincing information with regards to BEAM, which enabled the researcher to address the aim and objectives of the study in an effective manner (Trainor & Graue, 2013; Yin, 2011).

7.5. STUDY POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

The study was conducted in Gutu District, situated in Masvingo Province, South of Zimbabwe (Wekwete, 2010). Gutu District is largely rural and is characterised by high rates of HIV/AIDS

and poverty (UNICEF, 2015). This suggests that large numbers of OVCs in Gutu District are mainly a result of HIV/AIDS deaths coupled with the lack of access to basic services.

The researcher selected Gutu District because it is characterised by high rates of poverty, school dropouts and increasing numbers of OVCs. Thus, Gutu is an appropriate district to conduct a study of this nature in order to gain a holistic understanding of the contribution of BEAM in enabling OVCs to access education. In addition, the Gutu District was chosen for the study because the researcher resides in the District, thus it was more convenient and cost effective for the researcher to conduct research within her proximity. There are 240 schools in Gutu District; 168 primary schools (grade one to seven), 46 secondary schools (form one to four) and 26 high schools (form one to six). The researcher selected three primary schools, two secondary schools, and one high school which are located in the area where the researcher resides.

The population for this study consisted of parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM in selected schools in Gutu District. A sample of 10 parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM was selected from each of the six schools. The researcher approached educators who were responsible for overseeing BEAM within the selected schools, that is, three Primary Schools and two Secondary Schools and one High School, to request assistance in sampling participants who were deemed to be knowledgeable about BEAM.

The educators provided the researcher with the lists of children who were on BEAM and assisted the researcher in selecting participants whose children had been on BEAM for at least two years as they were regarded as being well informed on the implementation of BEAM in Gutu District. In addition, the researcher ensured that some of the sampled participants were members of CSC, and this was done to ensure that the chosen participants were well informed with regards to the selection process of BEAM and its implementation at a local level.

The assistance from educators enabled the researcher to select participants whose children came from varying backgrounds some of which included single orphans, double orphans and children who were under the care of old aged or disabled parents/guardians/caregivers.

The selection of parents/guardians/caregivers of OVCs benefitting from BEAM for two years or more, enabled the researcher to have a thick description of lived experiences of BEAM beneficiaries. The researcher ensured that at least 50% of the sample consisted of girl children, 45 girls and 37 boys were included in the study, this was done to promote gender equity.

The key informants were educators, principals and deputy principals who managed BEAM in the selected schools, the District Remedial Tutor and the Head of the Department of Social Welfare in Gutu District. The researcher selected educators who were responsible for managing BEAM, as they were well informed about the implementation of BEAM. The Head of the Department of Social Welfare and the District Remedial Tutor were selected as key informants because they managed BEAM at district level for many years, thus, they had valuable information on BEAM. The key informants were those with an in-depth knowledge and understanding of BEAM. Hence, the researcher managed to get insights regarding BEAM from key informants. This enabled the researcher to explore the contribution of BEAM in enabling OVCs to access education in a comprehensive manner. Prior to data collection, the researcher approached key informants and presented on the research area that she wished to embark on, by clearly communicating the research aim and objectives as well as the anticipated contributions of the study to the social work practice.

Purposive sampling was used to select the study population and key informants. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling technique which is employed in qualitative research to identify and select cases which enable researchers to acquire in-depth information related to the phenomenon under study (Bernard, 2002; Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2002), and who are well informed about the study area (Creswell & Clark, 2011).

The use of purposive sampling enabled the researcher to select participants who provided detailed information regarding BEAM. The advantage of using purposive sampling in this study was that it is expedient and economical (Bernard, 2002; Walliman, 2011). The researcher selected individuals who were most appropriate for the study; the knowledge and experience of research participants enabled the researcher to address the aim of the study. In addition, the use of purposive sampling enabled the researcher to minimise the time spent on data collection (Gentles et al., 2015; Suri, 2011).

7.6. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Two different semi-structured interview guides were used as instruments for collecting data. The one was for parents/guardian/caregiver participants and another for key informants. The semi-structured interview guides had mainly open-ended questions. The advantage of using open ended questions is that they allow participants to fully express their perceptions (Ary et al., 2009; Yin, 2014). Open-ended questions enabled the researcher to acquire more complete,

accurate and factual information from the research participants (Creswell, 2012; Janice, 2008). The research questions were developed by the researcher and they are directly linked to the objectives of the study.

TABLE 7.1. REASONS FOR INCLUDING VARIOUS ISSUES IN THE INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

Question	***Reason for inclusion***
In your understanding, explain BEAM?	The question was aimed at gaining insights into how participants understood BEAM.
How would you describe the objective of BEAM?	This question was expected to enable the researcher to gain an understanding of how beneficiaries understood the objective of BEAM and their views on why the GOZ established the programme.
Share with me your reasons for applying for BEAM for your child\children?	The researcher asked this question to gain information regarding the backgrounds and the socio-economic status of participants.
What are the selection criteria for beneficiaries of BEAM?	This question sought to enable the researcher to gain clarity from participants, on the procedures taken during the selection of BEAM beneficiaries. This question was aimed at getting a full understanding of procedures taken during the selection process of BEAM beneficiaries and the nature of children who are eligible for BEAM.
Take me through your experiences in applying for benefits of BEAM?	The research asked this question to gain an adequate understanding of the procedures taken during the application of BEAM benefits and how participants experienced the process.
Were there any challenges faced in applying for benefits of BEAM? If yes what were the	This question was aimed at enabling the researcher to acquire information on

challenges and what are your suggestions on addressing these challenges?	challenges faced by beneficiaries in applying for BEAM benefits. The researcher also sought to understand participants' views regarding possible ways of addressing challenges which they may have faced when they applied for BEAM.
In what ways were you involved in the selection process of beneficiaries of BEAM? (Probe understanding of the challenges faced during the selection process of beneficiaries of BEAM)?	The researcher sought to understand the role of community members in selecting beneficiaries of BEAM. Additionally, the researcher asked this question to understand if there were challenges faced during the selection process, and ways in which participants wanted such challenges to be addressed.
For how long has your child/children been beneficiaries of BEAM?	The researcher asked this question to confirm if participants' children had been on BEAM for at least two years, this was done to ensure that the chosen participants had adequate knowledge on BEAM.
Explain your opinions on whether the benefits of BEAM are adequate in meeting the educational needs of beneficiaries until completion of secondary education?	The researcher asked this question to get participants' perceptions on whether BEAM benefits were addressing all educational needs of beneficiaries. The researcher also sought to understand whether BEAM beneficiaries stayed on the programme up to the completion of Secondary School or High School education.
Describe the experiences of your child/children in accessing educational benefits through BEAM?	This question was aimed at acquiring information on beneficiaries experiences in receiving BEAM benefits. On addition, the researcher asked this question to understand the challenges that children may have faced as BEAM beneficiaries.

In what ways has BEAM made a positive impact on your child/children?	The researcher asked this question to understand ways in which BEAM enhances the lives of beneficiaries.
Is there anything else you wish to inform me regarding BEAM?	The researcher asked this question to give participants a platform to share information which they might have left out in answering prior questions.

TABLE 7.2. REASONS FOR INCLUDING VARIOUS ISSUES IN THE INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR KEY INFORMANTS

Question	***Reason for inclusion***
Share with me your understanding of BEAM and its objectives?	This question was asked to gather information on how key informants understood BEAM and its rationale behind providing education benefits for OVCs.
To what extend are women involved during the formation of various committees responsible for the selection of beneficiaries?	The researcher asked this question to understand whether issues of gender equity were taken into consideration when forming various committees that had the responsibility of managing various issues regarding BEAM.
How would you describe the procedures taken during the selection process for beneficiaries of BEAM?	This question was aimed at gaining insights regarding the selection criteria of beneficiaries of BEAM.
How is gender equity taken into consideration when selecting beneficiaries?	The researcher asked this question to gather information on whether gender equity issues informed the selection of BEAM beneficiaries.
What are other selection criteria for beneficiaries of BEAM?	This question was asked to find out if there any other issues considered in selecting BEAM beneficiaries besides gender equity.

Which stakeholders are involved in the selection process of beneficiaries of BEAM?	This question was aimed at enabling the researcher to gain knowledge on the roles and responsibilities of various stakeholders involved in the operation of BEAM.
To what extend are prospective beneficiaries involved in the selection process?	The researcher asked this question to understand whether BEAM beneficiaries were involved in their selection.
How would you explain the importance of parents/guardians/caregivers/communities in selecting the deserving beneficiaries?	This question was asked to gain an understanding of community members' roles and responsibilities in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries.
Describe benefits provided under BEAM, and the categories of individuals who qualify for these benefits?	The researcher asked this question to gain key informants' views regarding the nature of BEAM benefits and the eligibility criteria followed in selecting BEAM beneficiaries.
Tell me how BEAM contributes to poverty alleviation in Gutu District ?	This question was asked to gain an understanding of whether BEAM was meeting its objective of alleviating poverty.
When reflecting on the selection process of BEAM, what aspects are easy to implement?	The researcher asked this question to understand the effectiveness of measures that gov the selection process of BEAM.
If you were in charge of BEAM, what areas would you improve and why?	This question was asked to understand challenges faced in implementing BEAM, and possible ways of addressing them.

7.7. PRETESTING OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Despite care being taken in the design of a research tool, Babbie and Mouton (2004) argue that there will always be a possibility of flaws in the design of the tool. Therefore, pre-testing the research instruments is a possible way of reducing the flaws (Creswell, 2014). Pre-testing the research instrument enabled the researcher to check the completeness and appropriateness of the research instrument (Cohen et al., 2007; Lindlof &Taylor, 2010).

The researcher pre-tested the research instrument with people from the study population by using two parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM and one key informant from one of the three areas where key informants were sampled from. After the pre-test, the researcher made necessary adjustments on interview guides for parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM. The researcher added a question in which she asked participants if there was anything else they wished to inform the researcher regarding BEAM, and this question was added upon realising that participants revisited the previously asked questions to add on information which they felt they had left out in answering those questions. The researcher added this question to give participants a platform to share information which they might have left out in answering research questions. The researcher ensured that data collected during pretesting of the research instrument did not form part of the data collected during the study.

7.8. METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

The researcher made use of secondary data as a means of preliminary data collection. The researcher approached the Head of the Department of Social Welfare in Gutu District, and obtained documents containing information regarding BEAM, that is, two BEAM operational manuals, a pamphlet on BEAM and an application form for BEAM. These documents enabled the researcher to gain an in-depth understanding of the implementation of BEAM at both local and national level.

The researcher collected data using face to face interviews. An interview is the most common source of data collection in qualitative studies (Bell, 2014; Frances et al., 2009). Face to face interviews enable the researcher to clarify doubt and ensure that questions are properly understood by repeating and rephrasing them (Meriam, 2009; Oltmann, 2016). The advantage of using face to face interviews is that they give the researcher a platform to establish a good rapport with the research participants, which facilitates cooperation during the process of collecting data (Berg, 2007; Muratovski, 2016). More so, face to face interviews enable researchers to clarify unclear issues and probe more information if they feel that the participant is not fully addressing the questions (Bernard, 2013; Ryan et al., 2009). The use of open-ended questions in face to face interviews also enable researchers to gather more detailed information on the area under study (Klenke, 2016; Knox et al., 2009).

However, conducting face to face interviews is time consuming and expensive in situations where the researcher is required to travel to different places to conduct the interviews with the participants (Roller & Lavrakas, 2015; Wilson, 2012). Data collected using face to face interviews may not be reliable in situations whereby participants give expected responses that may not reflect the actual situation (Bryman, 2015; Patton, 2002).

Initially, interviews for the parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM took place at the selected schools. The researcher liaised with the educators and arranged for offices that were used to conduct interviews. The researcher had 2 interview sessions per day, one in the morning and one in the afternoon. After conducting interviews within three schools, the researcher interviewed some participants who experienced disability, chronic illnesses and old age which challenged them to come for interviews to the school at their homes. The researcher was provided with village names and contact details for remaining participants by educators and then contacted the participants to arrange for interview sessions.

Interviews for the key informants took place at their workplaces. The interviews took between 30 minutes to 1 hour. The researcher audio recorded the interviews with the consent of the research participants and key informants (See appendix E). The researcher also explained the purposes and procedures of the study, and participants' rights were discussed before the interview (See appendices A and B). The time spent on data collection was six months. The language that was used in conducting interviews with the beneficiaries of BEAM was Shona which is the vernacular language in Gutu District. The reason behind using Shona was that most of the participants were illiterate since they came from disadvantaged backgrounds, and they would not have been able to fully express themselves comfortably in English. The researcher used both English and Shona in conducting interviews with the key informants since they were literate.

Challenges faced by the researcher during the process of collecting data include difficulties in communicating with participants as some of them had no cell phones while some participants' phones were often unreachable. The researcher also faced challenges in locating participants' homes as they had no physical addresses. In March 2019, the researcher found it difficult to travel and conduct interviews, Zimbabwe had been hit by cyclone Idai which made it difficult for the researcher to conduct interviews as roads within rural areas had been severely damaged by heavy rains. Fuel shortages made it difficult to travel in Zimbabwe which further delayed the process of collecting data.

7.9. RESEACHER'S DATA COLLECTION EXPERIENCES

The researcher started collecting data in February 2019. Although the initial plans were to commence in January, the schools were closed due to the political unrest that was experienced in Zimbabwe from January to early February 2019. The researcher started by visiting the selected schools to meet with the School Principals to request permission letters to conduct the study. The researcher had already gained permission to conduct research within the selected schools from the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education in Harare and in Masvingo. However, she thought that it was necessary to request permission letters to conduct research within these schools from the principals themselves.

Through engaging with the school principals, the researcher discovered that in some of the selected schools, Principals took responsibility of managing BEAM, while in some it was the responsibility of Deputy Principals or educators. In two schools, one Primary School and one Secondary School, it was the responsibility of Principals to manage BEAM. In one secondary school and one Primary School, Deputy Principals had the responsibility of managing BEAM, and educators had the responsibility of managing BEAM in one High School and one Primary School.

The researcher had individual meetings with all key informants (principals, deputy principals and educators managing BEAM) within schools, and gave an adequate description of her study and its aim. With the help of educators, the researcher managed to obtain a list of BEAM beneficiaries and to choose parents/guardians/caregivers whose children had been on BEAM for at least two years. The researcher also met with the District Schools Inspector whom she had planned to interview as a key informant. However, she was informed that the District Remedial Tutor was the best individual to be interviewed as she was managing BEAM at that time. Thus, the researcher adjusted her initial plans and liaised with the District Remedial Tutor for an interview. The researcher also had a meeting with the Head of Department at the Department of Social welfare to plan for an interview, she was also assisted with secondary data on BEAM.

The researcher began her data collection by pretesting the research instrument. She conducted interviews with 2 parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM and 1 educator from 1 of the selected schools. The researcher then made minor adjustments on interview guides and started the process of collecting data. The interviews initially took place at the selected schools

in offices that were arranged by educators responsible for the management of BEAM. After conducting interviews within the first three schools, the researcher was given contact numbers of participants who did not manage to come for interviews, and then contacted them and arranged to interview them from their homes.

The researcher changed her initial plans of interviewing participants from the selected schools and arranged to interview them at their homes. The researcher discovered that some of the research participants were not able to come to the selected schools due to chronic illnesses, old age and disabilities. Thus, the most appropriate way of conducting interviews was to travel to villages in which participants resided and have interviews at their homes. The researcher was given contact details and village names of participants from around the three schools which she had not interviewed. The researcher then contacted participants and planned for interviews. Most of interviews were conducted inside participants' houses, especially in traditional kitchens which are built in the form of huts, while some interviews were conducted within their yards.

The researcher faced numerous challenges when contacting some participants as their phone numbers were unreachable while some of the participants had no cell phones. Even though the researcher was provided with village names of where participants resided, it was very difficult to locate participants due to the fact that houses within rural villages have no physical addresses. In some cases, the researcher had to ask villagers which she came across about where the participants stayed. In some instances, the researcher was able to locate the participants' houses but would not be able to meet with them because participants would have travelled somewhere or had left the house to take care of other issues. In situations like these, the researcher had to plan on visiting the participants on another date to make plans for interviews. Even though the researcher had a difficult time contacting participants with no cell phones, she eventually managed to conduct interviews with them.

The process of data collection was expensive for the researcher due to various visits she made to participants who stayed in different villages. In addition, one major challenge faced by the researcher was severe fuel shortages in Zimbabwe, this further delayed the process of data collection. Also fuel costs were very high during that time as most fuel stations only accepted United States dollars in fuels purchases, this made the process of data collection highly expensive for the researcher.

The researcher further faced mobility challenges when Zimbabwe was hit by cyclone Idai in March 2019. Cyclone Idai was characterised by heavy rains and winds which made it difficult to travel. The researcher then took a break from collecting data for two weeks. Due to heavy rains during this time, it became difficult to travel as underdeveloped roads within rural areas were very slippery, and some of them were blocked with water. When the researcher resumed data collection, the roads were still in bad shape but manageable. She realised that it was best to resume with the process as she had limited time to collect data. The researcher started by interviewing all research participants and then went on to interview key informants. The researcher finished collecting data in June and managed to finish the process within the stipulated timeframe.

7.10. METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Data was analysed using thematic analysis. According to Hancock (2002, p. 8), "analysis of data in a research project involves summarizing the mass amount of collected data and presenting the findings in a way that communicates the most important features." According to Braun and Clarke (2006) thematic analyses consist of the following six steps which were used by the researcher to analyse data.

Familiarising yourself with data

As part of data analyses, the researcher familiarised herself with the collected data. Braun and Clarke (2006) noted that it is essential for researchers to immensely familiarise themselves with the collected data, and this process involved repetitive reading and listening to tape-recorded interviews. As indicated by Clarke and Braun (2013), an extensive examination of collected data provokes analytical thinking, which enables the researcher to gather new insights on the content of the study.

The most effective way of familiarising oneself with collected data is to transcribe the audio recorded interviews (Bryman, 2008; Javadi & Zarea, 2016). Therefore, the researcher familiarised herself with data through audio-recording the interviews and noting down more interesting facts after the interview. The researcher then transcribed all 68 interviews verbatim and had finished the process by December 2019. Despite the fact that the transcription of data was time consuming, this process enabled the researcher to familiarise herself with data and to pinpoint important aspects which informed data analysis.

Generating initial codes

During the second phase of data analyses, researchers are required to generate initial codes from the collected data (Alholjailan, 2012; Clark et al., 2015a; Nowell et al., 2017). Coding involves arranging the collected data into categories and to identify more valuable data which informs data analysis (Kiger & Varpio, 2020; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Coding enables the researcher to identify basic sections of data that are relevant to the research questions, and makes it easier for the researcher to interpret data (Braun & Clark, 2006, 2012; Kiger & Varpio, 2020). Coding was done based on the basic features that were assessed regarding the contributions of BEAM in enabling OVCs to access education in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. Generated codes included *lack of access to other educational needs which were excluded from BEAM* and t*he active involvement of community members in the implementation of BEAM at a local level.* Such codes facilitated the development of themes such as *unmet needs* and *community involvement*. In addition, the researcher held meetings with the supervisor to receive guidance regarding data analysis.

Searching for themes

According to Gibson and Brown (2009.p.128), searching for themes comprises "working out relationships between code categories, and the significance of such relationships for the development of theoretical conceptions and statements." Searching for themes involves gathering data into probable themes while continuously reviewing such themes and their correlation with the research question (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013; Braun & Clarke, 2012). After organizing data into basic sections, the researcher searched for themes and established the relationships that existed between different themes (Howitt & Cramer, 2008: Tuckett, 2005). Interrelated themes were organised and presented under one theme, for instance, under *the perceptions of government officials about the implementation of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe*, themes, namely, *the promotion of women participation in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries* and *the selection of at least 50% girls for BEAM* were discussed under the theme *gender equity*. The researcher discussed emerging themes in relation to the research question and sub questions.

Reviewing themes

This process involves reviewing existing data to determine if the themes are representative of the whole data (Braun & Clark, 2006, 2013). Reviewing themes involves the refinement of identified themes. It becomes apparent to the researcher that some of the themes would not be having enough data to inform them. As a result, some themes are joined to form one theme, while other themes are rearranged into separate themes (Braun & Clark, 2013). At this stage, researchers should ensure data presented under themes should be meaningful and easy to grasp (Javadi & Zarea, 2016).

The first phase of reviewing and refining themes consists of revisiting all collated data under themes to determine if it is presented in a logical and coherent manner (Braun & Clarke, 2012). In situations whereby themes are not presented in a coherent manner, researchers are obliged to reorganise themes into meaningful patterns (Braun & Clarke, 2012). Once themes are well organised, the next step is to review the whole data to determine whether the themes are coherent with the data and to code any additional data that might have been missed during the first phase (Braun & Clark, 2013). The researcher revised all identified themes to make sure data presented under themes was presented in a logical manner which was easy to comprehend. Also, the researcher determined the relevance of all themes to the aim of the study.

Defining and naming themes

This phase begins when researchers are satisfied by the identified themes, as they define and further refine themes and analyse the data which informs such themes in an in-depth manner (Braun & Wilkinson; 2003; Cassel & Symon, 2004). Braun and Clark (2006) state that themes should be named and defined in a clear and concise manner to enable the reader to understand what the themes entail. During this phase, the researcher named and defined the presented themes for data analyses (Alholjailan, 2012; Braun & Clark, 2013; Vaismoradi et al., 2013). As illustrated by Nowel at al. (2017) direct quotations should correspond with themes, and in this regard, the researcher presented analysed data in accordance with themes, additionally identified themes were supported by literature. In this regard, certain themes originated from participants' direct quotations, for instance themes namely *poverty, unemployment, disability* and *old age*. The researcher had regular supervision from her supervisor, this enabled her to present themes in a consistent manner.

Producing the report

This phase commences when themes are fully developed and involves the ultimate analysis and write up of a detailed report (Braun & Clark, 2013). The write up should be presented in a coherent and non-repetitive manner, which provides a clear account of the study (Braun & Clark, 2006, 2012). The researcher provided an in-depth account of the literature and theoretical frameworks which informed the study, the research methodology employed in the study and steps taken in analysing data. The researcher presented the report in a manner which addressed the research aim, objectives, and questions. The researcher made recommendations made by Braun and Clark (2006) to produce a comprehensive report that provides satisfactory evidence of the themes that emerged from the data. This way the researcher is able to convince readers of the merit of data analysis (Gibson & Brown, 2009; Langridge, 2004).

7.11. TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness or rigor in qualitative research refers to several approaches used by the researcher to ensure credibility, objectivity and dependability of a study as assessed by participants, the community and the academia (Bryman 2008; Williams & Morrow, 2005). Trustworthiness of a study is enhanced through the use of a concrete research design, and appropriate research methods in addressing suggested questions (Morse, 2003; Ryan-Nicholls &Will, 2009). Notably, Davies and Dodd (2002) are of the view that researchers should adhere to high standards during the process of conducting research, which enables them to have research results that are reliable and valid. Morse (2002) states that research without trustworthiness is insignificant. The trustworthiness of the study was established by ensuring that the four constructs, namely, credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability as proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) were incorporated.

Credibility

Credibility is concerned with enhancing internal validity of the study, which is the extent to which study findings correspond with reality (Bryman, 2008; Gasson, 2004; Shenton, 2004; Merriam, 2009). According to Lincoln and Guba (2004), the most effective way to establish trustworthiness in a study is to ensure its credibility. Yin (2014) maintains that it is essential to employ the most suitable approaches for the area to be studied as this increases the credibility

of a study. Accordingly, the researcher enhanced the credibility of the study by employing well established research methods that have been successfully used in previous qualitative studies. Shenton (2004) suggests the use of iterative questions as a way of assuring credibility of a study. The researcher revisited issues previously raised by the participant through rephrasing questions to ensure there were no contradictions in responses given by participants.

Data triangulation, which is the use of diverse sources of information was employed in the study to enhance the validity of the study in obtaining various views on the contribution of BEAM in enhancing access to education in Gutu District (Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Shenton (2004). Data triangulation was achieved through involving participants who suffered varying vulnerabilities, which included old age, disability and chronic illnesses in the study. Eight key informants who played different roles towards the implementation of BEAM at District level were involved in the study. The researcher familiarised herself with comprehensive information regarding BEAM before data collection, and this was achieved through consulting relevant documents (two BEAM operational manuals, a BEAM pamphlet and an application form for BEAM) which she received from the Head of the Department of Social Welfare.

The researcher conducted preliminary visits to the selected schools, the District Education Office and the Department of Social Welfare in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. The visits enabled the researcher to get more insights from individuals who are responsible for overseeing the BEAM. The triangulation of data enabled the researcher to accumulate in-depth information on BEAM. The researcher also met with the supervisor to discuss and identify existing flaws and alternate approaches to address them, and this enabled the researcher to develop a more comprehensive explanation of the study findings.

Dependability

Dependability refers to the extent to which a study can be repeated with the same research procedures and same research participants and obtain comparable results (Bryman, 2008; Shenton, 2004). Dependability can be enhanced through an enquiry audit, in which the researcher compiles a summary of all procedures taken during conducting a study, and this makes the research process more transparent and open for evaluation by reviewers (Davies & Dodd, 2002; Yin, 2014).

According to Shenton (2004), an enquiry audit enables readers to fully understand the research methods used in the study and their effectiveness. To ensure dependability, the researcher provided a detailed description of the research methods and design employed in the study and how they were implemented. The researcher compiled records of how research was conducted, these will include field notes, emerged themes and how they were interpreted. The researcher also provided the minutiae of all procedures taken during the collection and analyses of data. Steps taken in defining the research problem and various measures taken to construct the report are stated.

Dependability of a study can be improved though audits, in which a well-informed individual review and verify available data to determine the extent to which the research findings are reliable (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). The researcher made arrangements to ensure that the study is reviewed by an individual who is well knowledgeable on the area under study. This enabled the researcher to rectify areas that needed to be modified. Dependability of a qualitative study can be enhanced through comparing responses given by participants to similar questions (Korstjens & Moser, 2018).

To enhance dependability of the study, the researcher compared responses given by all research participants to check if they are congruent to each other. If participants give similar responses, it means that the study is reliable and the same results can be obtained if the study is repeated. If participants give different responses to similar questions, the researcher explained the inconsistences in responses in presenting the findings of the study.

Transferability

According to Shenton (2004, p. 69), transferability or external validity is "the extent to which findings of one study can be applied in other situations." External validity can be achieved if the findings of a study are applicable to other contexts (Freeman et al., 2007). External validity can be achieved if the researcher provides in-depth information about the context of the study (Malterud, 2001). Morrow (2005) states that external validity can be enhanced if researchers clearly state the methodology used in the study and the nature of relationships between the researcher and the participants, and this enable the readers to determine the extent to which the findings of the study can be generalised to other situations.

In addition, researchers should provide a detailed description of the phenomenon under study, the number of research participants, the inclusion criteria for participants, methods of collecting data and the themes that emerged from the study (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Shenton, 2004). Increasingly, scholars argue that researchers should ensure that there is enough information to enable readers to decide whether the research results can be applicable to related contexts (Pitney & Parker, 2009). To ensure the external validity of the study, the researcher provided a detailed description of the situation in which the study was conducted. A thick description of research methods used in the study is provided by stating and explaining the number of research participants, and the nature of relationships formed between the researcher and the participants. Methods used to collect data were discussed and the themes that emerged from the data were explained in a clear manner.

Confirmability

Confirmability is the extent to which the findings of a study are shaped by the responses given by participants, not the researcher's interests (Gasson, 2004; Shenton, 2004). Confirmability is based on the notion that the truthfulness of research findings lies in the collected data, thus researchers should present research findings in a manner which confirms that the findings of a study are parallel to the responses given by participants (Moon & Blackman, 2014; Morrow, 2005). Shenton (2004) is of the view that a comprehensive description of the research methodology used in the study enables readers to determine the extent to which the data that emerges from it is acceptable. The researcher enhanced confirmability of the study through documenting all the research procedures, and an adequate description of the strengths and weaknesses of various approaches used was stated. Recommendations and conclusions made on the study were drawn from the collected data. Upon completing the study, a data audit was conducted to check for potential bias and to provide a basis for all decisions made within the study.

7.12. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics refer to guidelines and principles followed by researchers when conducting research (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The use of ethical principles when conducting research creates an atmosphere of trust and accountability (Berg & Lune, 2017; Grady, 2010). Qualitative research requires cooperation and support from the society; thus, it is important for researchers to gain

trust from the public before conducting research (Dade et al., 2016). Researchers should ensure that the public has trust in the research methods and guiding principles used when conducting research (Denzin & Giardina, 2007; Schaller -Demers, 2006). The use of guiding principles when conducting research promotes good working relations between researchers and research participants (Resnik & Elliot, 2016; Smyth & Williamson 2004). If participants are assured that all procedures taken in conducting research are guided by principles which protect their safety and wellbeing, they become free in expressing themselves and in giving honest opinions regarding the area under study (Long & Jonson, 2007). This study adhered to the following research ethics procedures:

Submission and Approval of proposal to ethics review boards

Clearance from the Wits Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical) was sought prior to undertaking the research (see appendix F, Protocol Number H18/O2/16). The researcher wrote letters of request to the Ministry of Labour and Social Services, Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, Department of Social Welfare and educators from selected schools, asking for permission to conduct research on BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. The researcher managed to obtain permission to conduct research from the above listed organisations (see appendices I to Q).

Informed consent

Informed consent entails a situation whereby the research participants agree to participate in a study, with the full knowledge about the advantages and risks associated with participating in the study (Babbie, 2007; Hess-Biber, 2016; Shahnazarian et al., 2013). Researchers are obliged to give all details of research to participants to enable them to weigh the advantages and disadvantages of participating in a study (Patton, 2002; Supine & Borer, 2012). For research participants to be regarded as informed participants, they should be provided with adequate information regarding the aim of the study, benefits and risks that are associated with participating in the study and participants' rights to withdraw from the study if need be (Davies, 2013; Shahnazarian et al., 2013). The researcher provided the participants with a comprehensive explanation of the purpose of the research and all procedures to be taken when conducting the study. The researcher informed participants that they were free to refuse to respond to questions, which they felt uncomfortable with. The researcher asked participants to

sign consent forms for participation and tape-recording of the interview in the study (see appendix G), the documents are kept as evidence of their consent to participate in the study.

Voluntary Participation

Voluntary Participation denotes that participants are at liberty to decide whether they should take part or not in a research study (Hogan, 2008; Vanclay et al., 2013). According to Babbie and Mouton (2004), participation in research is voluntary and participants are free to withdraw from the research at any time. Seidman (2013) argues that the most essential right of prospective research participants in qualitative research is the right to choose whether to participate or not to participate in a study. In a bid to abide by the principle of voluntary participation, the researcher informed participants that participation was voluntary and refusal to participate or withdraw from the study was not going to have any negative consequences. The researcher handed out participant information sheets (see appendix A to D) which reassured the research participants that participation was voluntary.

Anonymity

Taylor (2015) states that researchers are obligated to safeguard the anonymity of participants unless they are given permission to publish identities by the participants themselves. Anonymity entails a situation whereby researchers are obliged to take all necessary measures to safeguard the identities of participants through keeping their personal information in privacy at all times (Engel & Schutt, 2013; King & Horrock, 2010). All data should be obtained anonymously, and if participants state their names, they should be substituted by pseudonyms (Becker & Bryman, 2004). Researchers should ensure that all documents are placed in a secure place, as information that may lead to the identification of research participants should be removed (Annukka, 2013; Pranee, 2007). The researcher ensured anonymity of participants by making use of pseudonyms. The researcher informed the research participants that data will only be accessed by the researcher and her supervisor. Moreover, the researcher placed consent forms (see appendix G) in a safe place, to safeguard the identities of the participants.

Confidentiality

The principle of confidentiality is viewed as being analogous to privacy, hence researchers are required to protect the privacy of participants' personal information (Gregory 2003; Oliver, 2003; Seidman, 2013). To ensure confidentiality of participants, the researcher did not reveal information which may lead to the identification of participants' ethnicity, family backgrounds and occupations. The researcher also discussed the importance of confidentiality with the key informants. Upholding confidentiality enables the researcher to protect the privacy of research participants, and to maintain the integrity of the study (Baez, 2002; Kaiser, 2009). Researchers should discuss confidentiality with the participants before data collection, this is essential as it creates trust and good relations between the researcher and participants (Crow et al., 2006). Prior to data collection, the researcher informed participants that all possible measures were going to be taken to ensure their personal information is protected.

Avoidance of harm/ non-maleficence

Avoidance of harm entails that researchers should ensure that participants are protected from physical or emotional harm (Rose et al., 2015; UNAIDS, 2004). According to Bryman (2008) it is important for researchers to make sure that participants are protected from unforeseen risks that may arise during the study. The researcher ensured that research participants were free from harm or unforeseen risks by conducting research at sites that were safe and free from isolation, the interviews were collected at the selected schools and participants' homes. The researcher informed participants that referrals for counselling, to be done by a social work practitioner at Gutu District Social Welfare Office were arranged for participants who may be negatively affected by issues related to the study.

7.13. POTENTIAL LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A possible limitation of the study is that participants may have given socially desirable responses which may not reflect the actual situation. The researcher primarily decided on how data was collected and interpreted, this leaves a possibility of bias in the collection and analyses of data. Data was interpreted based on the researcher's perceptions of the area under study, and this maybe a possible limitation of the study. Another possible limitation to the study is that

some participants might not have given honest responses if they suspected that their identities would be exposed, this may affect the trustworthiness of the study.

7.14. DELIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

The World Health Organisation (2015) acknowledges the pervasiveness of vulnerability of children in Gutu district. Gutu is found to be one of the most poverty-stricken districts in Zimbabwe, characterised by high rates of HIV/AIDS, lack of access to social services and increasing numbers in school dropouts. Thus, Gutu is the most appropriate district in Zimbabwe to conduct a study in the district provided the researcher with a platform to have comprehensive understanding of how BEAM contributes to enabling OVCs to access education. There are many OVCs in Gutu, however the researcher will only focus on those who are beneficiaries of BEAM two years and more for the reason that they will enable the researcher to gain valuable information with regards to BEAM.

In selecting the study sample, the researcher excluded parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries who were receiving BEAM benefits for less than two years. In doing so, the researcher was able to select participants who had been beneficiaries for a longer period. This enabled the researcher to select participants who are well informed about the selection process and implementation of BEAM. The study did not adopt quantitative research methods of data collection, this is because quantitative research methods are not exploratory, and thus the use of quantitative methods of collecting data in this study would have made it virtually impossible to reach the aim and objectives of this study as it was exploratory in nature.

7.15. SUMMARY

This chapter provided a discussion of the research methodology used in this study. The chapter discussed the research approach and the research design employed in the study. The researcher elaborated on the study population and sampling procedures employed in the study. Furthermore, the research instrument used in the study was discussed. Reasons behind inclusion of various issues in interview guides were stated in form of tables.

The chapter explained how the researcher pretested the research instrument. The researcher explained the methods used in collecting data. In addition, the researcher's experiences during data collection were presented. Steps taken by the researcher in analysing data were stated. A

discussion of trustworthiness and ethical considerations used in the study was given. Limitations of the research design and methodology used in the study were stated, the chapter ends with a discussion of delimitations of the study. The following chapter is on the presentation and discussion of research findings.

CHAPTER 8

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This study sought to establish how BEAM enables OVCs to access education in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. In this chapter, the findings of the study are presented and emerging themes are discussed in relation to the objectives of the study. The chapter commences by providing the profiles of parents/guardians/caregivers and BEAM beneficiaries and concludes by stating the proposed guidelines to enhance the usefulness of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

8.2THE PROFILES AND CONTEXT OF PARENTS/GUARDIANS/CAREGIVERS OF BENEFICIARIES OF THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE.

The first objective of the study was to establish the profiles of parents/guardians/caregivers and beneficiaries of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. This objective was aimed at discovering the living conditions of the participants and beneficiaries of BEAM.

TABLE 8.1: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS (N= 60)

AGE	GENDER	MARITAL STATUS	EDUCATIONAL STATUS	OCCUPATION	HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISITICS	GENDER OF BEAM BENEFICIARIES
36	Female	Married	Did not proceed to secondary school after finishing grade seven	Unemployed	Ten people in the household- eight children and her husband. Four biological children, two are nephews and two are nieces	Male
44	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form two	Unemployed	Seven people in the household- six children, five of her	Female

					own and her orphaned younger sister	
40	Female	Married	Dropped out of school in grade five	Unemployed	Seven people in the household- six children, three biological, three stepchildren	Two females and two males
65	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in grade seven	Unemployed	Three people in the household- two grandchildren	Male
47	Female	Married	Attended primary and secondary school but did not meet the minimum requirements of passing in secondary school	Unemployed	Fifteen people in the household- thirteen children and her husband. Nine biological children and four nephews	Male
41	Male	Married	Dropped out of school in form two	Unemployed	Nine people in the household- seven children and his wife. Five biological children and two nephews	Male
28	Female	Married	Dropped out of school in form three	Unemployed	Five people in the household- one biological child and her husband, grandmother and cousin sister	Female
39	Male	Married	Dropped out of school in form one	Unemployed	Eight people in the household- five biological children, wife and nephew	Male

52	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Ten people in the household- four grandchildren and five nephews	Female
70	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Six people in the household- her five grandchildren	Female
43	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form two	Unemployed	Six people in the household- four biological children and one nephew	Male
71	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Four people in the household- her mother and two grandchildren	Female
48	Male	Widowed	Attended primary and secondary school but did not meet the minimum requirements of passing in secondary school	Unemployed	Three people in the household- two biological children	Two males
43	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form 3	Unemployed	Four people in the household- three biological children	2 males
38	Female	Single	Attended primary and secondary school but did not meet the minimum requirements of passing in secondary school	Unemployed	Five people in the household- three biological children and niece	Female

72	Female	Widowed	Attended primary and secondary school but did not meet the minimum requirements of passing in secondary school	Unemployed	Nine people in the household- two biological children, six grandchildren	One male and one female
46	Female	Married	Dropped out of school in form two	Unemployed	Three people in the household- two biological children	Female
38	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form three	Unemployed	Seven people in the household- four biological children and her husband, her niece	Two females
39	Female	Married	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Seven people in the household- four biological children, her husband and nephew	Male
78	Female	Widowed	Attended primary and secondary school but did not meet the minimum requirements of passing in secondary school	Unemployed	Six people in the household- five of her grandchildren	Three males
55	Female	Married	Dropped out of school in grade three	Unemployed	Seven people in the household- five biological children and her husband	1 female
66	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after	Unemployed	Six people in the household- five grandchildren	Female

			completing primary school			
43	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of secondary school in form two	Unemployed	Seven people in the household- three biological children, two nephews, one niece	One female and one male
58	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in grade six	Unemployed	Seven people in the household- her six grandchildren	Female
69	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in grade seven	Unemployed	Five people in the household- four grandchildren	One female and one male
70	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Six people in the household- five grandchildren	One male and one female
55	Male	Married	Did not continue with education after completing form four	Unemployed	Four people in the household- two biological children and his wife	One male and one female
43	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form 3	Unemployed	Five people in the household- four biological children	Male
39	Female	Single	Dropped out of school in form three	Unemployed	Five people in the household- three nieces and her mother	Female
40	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form two	Unemployed	Three people in the household- two biological children	Female
61	Female	Married	Did not continue with education after	Unemployed	Six people in the household- her husband, daughter in-	Female

			completing primary school		law and three grandchildren	
51	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in grade six	Unemployed	Four people in the household- three grandchildren	Male
48	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form three	Unemployed	Six people in the household- five biological children	One male and one female
42	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Four people in the household- three biological children	Male
62	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in grade three	Unemployed	Six people in the household- five grandchildren	Three females and two males
49	Male	Married	Attended primary and secondary school but did not meet the minimum requirements of passing in secondary school	Unemployed	Four people in the household- his wife, biological child and niece	Female
67	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Six people in the household- one biological child and four grandchildren	Female
32	Male	Single	Attended primary and secondary school but did not meet the minimum requirements of passing in secondary school	Unemployed	Nine people in the household- her mother, sister-in-law, three nieces and three nephews	Male

41	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Four people in the household- her mother and two biological children	Female
22	Female	Married	Dropped out of school in form three	Unemployed	Five people in the household- her husband, biological child, brother and sister	Female
48	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form two	Unemployed	Four people in the household- three biological children	Male
32	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form three	Unemployed	Four people in the household- three biological children	Male
76	Female	Married	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Eight people in the household- her husband, two biological children and four grandchildren	Female
77	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Three people in the household- two grandchildren	2 females
54	Female	Married	Attained primary and secondary education	The participant works as an Early Childhood Development (ECD) teacher at one of the	Four people in the household- her husband, biological child and niece	Female

				selected primary schools		
43	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form two	Unemployed	Four people in the household- her mother and two biological children	Male
25	Female	Married	Dropped out of school in grade six	Unemployed	Five people in the household- her husband, two biological children and niece	Female
32	Female	Single	Attended primary and secondary school but did not meet the minimum requirements of passing in secondary school	Bar tender	Four people in the household- three biological children	Female
48	Female	Single	Attended primary and secondary school but did not meet the minimum requirements of passing in secondary school	Unemployed	Four people in the household- three biological children	Female
52	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form three	Unemployed	Three people in the household- two grandchildren	Male
45	Female	Married	Dropped out of school in form two	Unemployed	Five people in the household- her husband and three biological children	Two females

49	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Five people in the household- four biological children	Two females
67	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Seven people in the household- two biological children and four grandchildren	Two females
43	Female	Married	Dropped out of school in form one	Unemployed	Five people in the household- her husband and three biological children	Male
69	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Six people in the household- her biological child and four grandchildren	Female
73	Female	Widowed	Did not continue with education after completing grade seven	Unemployed	Eight people in the household- two biological children and five grandchildren	One male and one female
52	Male	Married	Dropped out of school in form two	Unemployed	Seven people in the household- his wife, three biological children and two nephews	Two males
36	Female	Single	Attended primary and secondary school but did not meet the minimum requirements of passing in secondary school	Shop assistant	Five people in the household- three biological children and nephew	Male

44	Female	Single	Dropped out of school in form three	Unemployed	Five people in the household- four biological children	Two females
69	Female	Widowed	Dropped out of school in form two	Unemployed	Four people in the household- three grandchildren	One male and one female

The participants of this study consisted of 60 parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM. Of the 60 participants, seven were males and 53 females. The male participants were between the ages 32 and 55 and the female participants ranged between the ages 22 and 78. There were 8 key informants in this study, 2 school principals, 2 deputy principals and 2 educators from the selected schools, the Head of Department of Social Welfare in Gutu District and the District Remedial Tutor. Key informants were knowledgeable on BEAM as they managed the programme at a local level, and their involvement in the study was crucial in addressing the aim of the study. The following themes, also mentioned in Table 8.2, were relevant and emerged from the data obtained from all participants.

Table 8.2 Themes that emerged from the profile of the participants

Themes
Illiteracy
Unemployment
Ill health
Orphans
Poverty
Disability
Old Age

In this section, the findings in relation to each of the themes is discussed to contextualise the circumstances of the participants.

8.2.1 Theme 1: Illiteracy

One of the themes that emerged from the results of the study was that most participants were illiterate. Some participants indicated that they dropped out of school before they completed primary school. One participant noted that

> *My parents had no money for school fees, I dropped out of school in grade five.*

Another participant said

> *I stopped going to school before I finished grade seven.*

On the same note, another participant mentioned

> *I attended school up to grade three then I dropped out.*

Another participant noted that

> *I dropped out of school in grade six, my parents were struggling with paying my school fees.*

Some participants revealed that they were unable to attend secondary education after completing primary school. One participant said

> *I attended primary school, I did not continue with education after that, my parents could not afford to send me to school.*

Another participant noted

> *I did not continue with education after completing primary school, we had no money for my education.*

Similarly, another participant shared that

> *I only did grade one to seven , after that I did not go back to school, my family could not afford to pay for my school fees.*

One of the participants mentioned

> *I stopped attending school in standard three, which is now referred to as grade seven, after that I did not go back to school, my mother had no money for my school fees.*

Another noted that

> *I stopped attending school in what was called standard three during our time, I am from a poor family, my parents could not afford to send me to school.*

Some participants reported that they had dropped out of school in secondary school. One of the participants said

> *I stopped school in form two, my parents were struggling to pay my school fees, that is why I ended up dropping out of school.*

Another participant confirmed

> *I dropped out of school in form three, my parents could not afford to pay for my school fees.*

Another participant mentioned

> *I went to school up to form two then I dropped out of school because my parents could not afford to send me to school.*

One of the participants stated that

> *I attained primary school but did not manage to finish secondary school, I did not continue with school after I finished form two, my family had no money for school fees.*

On a similar note, another participant said

> *I stopped attending school in form three, my mother could not afford to pay for my school fees.*

Some participants revealed that they attended primary and secondary school. However, they did not meet the requirements for passing the secondary school certificate. One participant mentioned

> *I did both primary and secondary school, but I did not pass in secondary school, I did not go back to school because we had no money for me to repeat from four.*

Another participant said

> *….however, I did not perform well in O- level exams.*

On a similar note, another participant noted

> *I attended primary and secondary school, but I did not pass, I also didn't get a chance to repeat form four because my family could not afford to pay school fees.*

From the aforementioned responses, it can be noted that some research participants did not manage to attain basic education, which is primary and secondary education. Participants indicated that they dropped out of school or did not continue with primary or secondary education because their parents/guardians/caregivers could not afford to send them school. Some participants indicated that they had attended primary and secondary school, but they did not pass in secondary school.

Gutu District is characterised by high rates of illiteracy and this is mainly due to poverty (UNICEF, 2015). The World Bank (2012) states that poverty is the major reason behind high illiteracy rates among low-income families. Zimbabwe's rural areas are characterised by extreme poverty, such that most families in rural areas cannot afford to send their children to school (ZIMSTATS & UNICEF, 2019). Clearly, poverty is a major cause the high levels of illiteracy in Gutu District.

8.2.2 Theme 2: Unemployment

Another theme that emerged from the study was that Gutu District is characterised by high rates of unemployment. One participant said

> *The reason why I applied for BEAM is because I do not have the means to pay for his school fees, I am unemployed, so it is very difficult for me to pay for his school fees.*

Another noted that

> *I applied for BEAM because I was overwhelmed by the responsibility of providing care for 9 children. I am unemployed, and I have no one else to support me in proving care for these children.*

Another participant noted mentioned

> *I am unemployed, and I do not have the means of paying my children's school fees.*

Another participant stated

> *I applied for BEAM because I am unemployed, I cannot afford to pay school fees for my children and my niece.*

In correspondence, another participant said

> *I am unemployed, that is why I applied for BEAM, I do not have any means of generating income.*

Another participant gave a similar response and said

> *I applied for BEAM because I cannot afford to send my three children to school. I am unemployed.*

From the above-mentioned responses, it can be noted that unemployment was one of the reasons why participants applied for BEAM. Some participants revealed that they could not pay school fees because they had no means of generating income. The United Nations Children's Fund (2015) noted that Gutu is characterised by high rates of unemployment, which makes it difficult for some some parents/guardians/caregivers to meet the educational needs of children. The employment status of BEAM beneficiaries is one of the factors that are considered in selecting BEAM beneficiaries. Children from households in which the head of the family is unemployed meet the eligibility criteria for BEAM (GOZ, 2015).

8.2.3 Theme 3: Ill-health

Another theme that emerged from the results of the study was that one of the reasons why participants applied for BEAM was because they suffered ill-health and were unable to engage in income generating activities. One participant said

> *I applied for BEAM because my health is not in a good state, I had two operations that left me unable to engage in strenuous work, I am also asthmatic. It is difficult for me to work and provide for my family because my health does not allow me to do so.*

Another participant noted that

> *I am unable to provide financial assistance for my three children. I suffer ill health and because of that I cannot look for a permanent job.*

One of the participants mentioned

> *I applied for BEAM because I cannot afford to pay for my child's school fees, I cannot look for a job because my health is not in a good condition, I am always sick.*

Another participant said that

> *I have chronic health problems with my legs and my eyesight, I am unable to work.*

The above stated responses revealed that some parents/guardians/caregivers applied for BEAM because they suffered ill-health. The Government of Zimbabwe (2016) states that BEAM provides educational support for children from families in which parents/guardians/caregivers are unable to generate income due to chronic illnesses. BEAM provides educational assistance to children who are under the care of individuals who suffer chronic ill-health and are unable to secure full time employment (Karim & Maingi, 2019: World Bank, 2018).

8.2.4 Theme 4: Orphans

Another theme that emerged from the findings of the study was that some participants applied for BEAM because children under their guardianship were either double orphans, maternal orphans or paternal orphans. One participant noted that children under her care were double orphans and said

> *I cannot afford to pay for all my five grandchildren's school fees. Their parents died a few years back, they have no one else to take care of them. I did not want them to drop out of school hence I sought assistance from BEAM.*

Another participant stated

> *I applied for BEAM because I have no other means of paying school fees for my grandchildren. Both of their parents are late, I am the only person who provides care for them.*

Another participant noted that

> *I have no money to pay for my grandchild's school fees, his parents are both deceased, so he has no one to pay his school fees.*

One participant shared the same sentiment and said

> *….and an orphaned niece that I am living with. I have no means of providing for them, that's why I sort help from BEAM.*

Another participant shared the same views and said

> *I was overwhelmed with the responsibility of paying school fees, her parents are deceased.*

Some participants revealed that they applied for BEAM because the children that they cared for were paternal orphans. One participant noted that

> *My husband is late, I have no one to support me, that's why I applied for BEAM.*

Another participant said

> *My husband is deceased, he used to pay school fees when he was still alive, I was left in desperate need when he died.*

Some participants stated that they applied for BEAM because children under their guardianship were maternal orphans. One participant said that

> *My wife passed on and I was left with the overwhelming burden of providing for my children by myself. I have not been able to provide for all their needs, that is why I applied for BEAM.*

Another participant noted

> *The reason I applied for BEAM is that the mother of this child, who used to stay with her passed on when she was in Grade four.*

The above stated responses revealed that some of BEAM beneficiaries were single or double orphans. Responses given by participants indicated that they applied for BEAM because children under their care were orphaned and were unable to meet their education needs through their families as their parents/guardians/caregivers lacked the financial capacity to pay for school fees. Orphans from poverty-stricken families are vulnerable and do not have access to education due to lack of financial support. Consequently, they drop out of school (Gandure, 2009; UNICEF, 2018a). The Government of Zimbabwe (2015) states that BEAM places much emphasis on orphans as they are likely to drop out of school due to lack of parental support.

Thus, the prioritisation of orphans in selecting BEAM beneficiaries is informed by the programme's objective of ensuring that OVCs are able to access education.

8.2.5 Theme 5: Poverty

Another theme that emerged from the findings of the study was that poverty is one of the reasons why parents/guardians/caregivers applied for BEAM. One participant said

> *I am living in poverty; I do not have any means of paying for my children's school fees.*

Another participant mentioned

> *I applied for BEAM because of poverty, I have no one to support me and my four grandchildren.*

Another participant noted that

> *I applied for BEAM because I am living in poverty, I do not have money for school fees.*

Similarly, another participant said

> *The reason I applied for BEAM is that we are living in poverty as a family, I do not have the money to pay for the education of four orphans that I provide care for and my nine children.*

One participant noted that

> *I applied for BEAM because of poverty, my wife and I do not have the capacity to pay school fees for the two orphans that are under our care, I have five children and I also have to pay for their school fees, I would not have been able to pay school fees for seven of them.*

Another said

> *I applied for BEAM because I am suffering from poverty, I am taking care of six children on my own. I do not have the means to pay for their school fees.*

The above stated responses revealed that poverty was one of the reasons why parents/guardians/caregivers applied for BEAM. Participants revealed that they did not have

the financial capacity to meet the educational needs of children. BEAM targets children from families who are living in poverty and are prone to limited access to education (Gandure, 2009). In so doing, the programme gives beneficiaries an opportunity to access education. The World Bank (2018) states that children who reside in poverty-stricken families are prone to dropping out of school. BEAM is aimed at alleviating poverty, by enabling disadvantaged children to access education and eventually escape deprivation once they become self-sufficient (Shizha & Makuvaza, 2017). The Government of Zimbabwe (2016) states that the objective of BEAM is to alleviate poverty through enhancing access to education for children living in chronic poverty. Similarly, Dhlembeu (2004) stated that BEAM reduces the number of school dropouts among children from low-income families by giving them access to formal education.

8.2.6 Theme 6: Disability

Another theme that emerged from the findings of the study was that some parents/guardians/caregivers of BEAM beneficiaries were disabled and found it difficult to seek employment or engage in income generating activities. One participant elaborated on this and noted

> *I applied for BEAM because I don't have the financial capacity to pay school fees for my children. It is difficult for me to find employment because of my physicality, I am disabled, and wheelchair bound. My wife is unemployed, she also cannot afford to pay for our children's school fees.*

Another participant said

> *I applied for BEAM because my daughter, who is the mother of my four grandchildren is disabled, she cannot work and generate income to put her children to school.*

Similarly, another participant noted that

> *I applied for BEAM because I am disabled, as you can see my legs make it difficult for me to walk, it is difficult for me to get a job. Because of my disability, it has not been easy for me to work for my children, that's why I sought for government assistance.*

The above stated responses indicate that disability was one of the reasons why some parents/guardians/caregivers were unable to address the education needs of their children. BEAM provides educational assistance for OVCs who reside in families in which

parents/guardians/caregivers are disabled, and this is done to promote the social inclusion of individuals who cannot engage in income generating activities due to their disabilities (GOZ, 2016). Palmer (2013) indicated that social protection programmes are aimed at enhancing the lives of disabled individuals as they are vulnerable to poverty and marginalisation. BEAM promotes the social and economic inclusion of disabled individuals by facilitating education access for their dependants.

8.2.7 Theme 7: Old age

Another theme that emerged from the findings of the study was that old age was one of the reasons why participants were unable to meet the educational needs of children who were under their care. Thus, one participant said

> *I cannot provide for them because of my old age. I have no one else to support me in sending them to school.*

Another participant mentioned

> *I have no means of paying for my grandchildren's school fees. Because of my old age, I cannot work to provide for their needs. I realised that if I don't not apply for BEAM, they will end up out of school.*

On a similar note, another participant said

> *I am now too old to engage in any form of work, so there is no way I can generate money to send my grandchildren to school.*

Another participant noted

> *I applied for BEAM because I do not have the money to send my grandchildren to school. I am 66 years old, so I am not able to work and generate income.*

The above stated responses indicated that old aged participants had no means of paying school fees as they were unable to work and generate income to send children to school. OVCs who are under the care of old aged individuals often have track records of failing to attend school due to poverty (GOZ 2015; UNICEF, 2012). BEAM benefits are directed towards enabling OVCs whose care providers are old aged, and this is based on the view that such children are likely to drop out of school due to low household incomes (GOZ, 2016).

8.3 THE EXPERIENCES OF PARENTS/GUARDIANS/CAREGIVERS OF BENEFICIARIES ON THE SELECTION PROCESS AND THE PROVISION OF THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE

The second objective of the study was to explore the experiences of parents/guardians /caregivers of beneficiaries on the selection process and the provision of BEAM. This objective was important to the study as it enabled the researcher to have a broad understanding of participants' experiences on the selection process and provision of BEAM benefits. This objective enabled the researcher to fully understand the implementation of BEAM at a local level. Themes that emerged from the study are presented in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3 Themes that emerged from the experiences of parents/guardians /caregivers of beneficiaries on the selection process and the provision of BEAM.

Themes
Support for orphans and poor children
Disability, orphanhood and poverty
Poverty
Support in completing application forms
Eligibility criteria
Exclusion of eligible children
Community involvement in selecting BEAM beneficiaries
Educator nominations
School dropouts
Poverty alleviation
Self-sustaining

In this section, the findings of the study are discussed in relation to the experiences of parents/guardians /caregivers of beneficiaries on the selection process and the provision of BEAM.

8.3.1 Theme 1: Support for orphans and poor children

One of the themes that emerged from the study was that some participants understood BEAM as a programme that enhances access to education for children from poor families and orphans. One participant said

> *BEAM is a government programme that pays schools fees for orphans and children who are chronically poor.*

Another participant noted that

> *BEAM enhances the lives of orphans and poor children, by providing them with school fees in primary and secondary schools.*

One of the participants said

> *BEAM refers to government assistance which enables orphans and poor children to go to school.*

Another participant noted that

> *BEAM is a programme that was introduced by the government to pay school fees for poor children and orphans.*

Another participant confirmed

> *BEAM is a programme that pays school fees for children who are living in poor households, especially double orphans.*

The above stated responses indicated that participants regarded BEAM as a programme which enables orphans and children from impoverished families to access education. Children who are eligible for BEAM include orphans and children from low income households (Shizha & Makuvaza, 2017). Similarly, the Government of Zimbabwe (2015) noted that children who meet the eligibility criteria for BEAM are OVCs from chronically poor families.

8.3.2 Theme 2: Disability, orphanhood and poverty

Another theme that emerged from the results of the study is that participants regarded BEAM as a programme which provides assistance for orphans and disabled children who are from poor families. One participant said

> *BEAM is a programme that pays school fees for children who are living in extreme poverty, disabled children and orphans.*

Another participant stated that

> *BEAM is a government organisation which pays school fees for orphans and other children who may be living in poverty or maybe be disabled.*

On a similar note, another participant said

> *BEAM is a programme that was established by our government to pay school fees for children who are poor and disabled.*

Another participant shared the same insights and said

> *BEAM is a programme that was introduced by the government to help poor families with sending their children to school, some of these children are orphans and some are disabled children.*

The aforementioned responses indicated that participants' understood BEAM to be focused on providing education benefits for disabled and orphaned children who are from disadvantaged families. Chingono et al. (2006) indicated that beneficiaries of BEAM include disabled children who are from poverty-stricken families. As indicated by Mwona and Pillay (2016) BEAM aims to ensure that children who suffer vulnerabilities including disability and orphanhood are enabled to access basic education. In this regard, BEAM promotes a social development goal of enhancing access to education for OVCs (Midgley, 2014).

8.3.3 Theme 3: Poverty

Another theme that emerged from the results of the study is that some participants understood BEAM as a programme that was established to address poverty. One participant noted that

I understand BEAM as a programme that was established by the government to help people who are living in poverty.

Another participant said

My understanding of BEAM is that it is a programme that was established by our government to ensure that poor children have an opportunity to attain primary and secondary education.

Similarly, another participant said

BEAM is a government programme that assists poor families in sending children to school.

Another participant mentioned

BEAM is a programme that was established by the government to pay school fees for children who are living in poor families.

On a similar note, another participant stated

BEAM is a programme that provides education assistance for children who are poor.

The above stated responses revealed that participants understood BEAM as a programme that was implemented by GOZ to address poverty. Mutasa (2015) noted that BEAM alleviates poverty through enabling children from economically disadvantaged families to access basic education. The attainment of education is viewed as a way of enabling children from impoverished families to escape poverty as they become self-sustaining upon completing primary and secondary education (Mtapuri, 2012). More so, education attainment is viewed as a way of enhancing the social development of society (Drolet, 2016).

8.3.4 Theme 4: Support in completing application forms

One theme that emerged from the study was that participants received the needed support in completing application forms from the educators that were responsible for overseeing BEAM. The application process of BEAM involved the filling in and submission of application forms within the selected schools. Participants indicated that whenever they needed assistance with

filling in the application forms, they received the needed support from educators. One participant said that

> *The application process is well organised, it is just a matter of filling in the application form with the assistance of teachers who manage BEAM and the submission of the form to the school.*

On the same note, another participant noted that

> *I was given the application form by the school principal, to fill in and submit to the school, the application process was not difficult for me because I asked for her assistance on sections that I did not fully understand.*

One of the participants confirmed

> *I received support throughout the whole process, the school principal helped me with filling in the application form.*

Similarly, another participant said that

> *I did not face any challenges during this process , I received support from the school stuff.*

Another participant stated

> *I did not face any challenges in applying for BEAM, the school teachers assisted me with filling in the application form.*

From the above responses, it can be noted that the application process for BEAM was easy for participants as they received support in filling in application forms. Given that participants came from disadvantaged backgrounds, most of them were illiterate and thus faced challenges in filling in some sections on the application forms. However, participants did not struggle with this issue as educators were always available to offer assistance regarding this issue.

8.3.5 Theme 5: Eligibility criteria

One of the themes that emerged from the findings of the study is that categories of children who are eligible for BEAM include double orphans, maternal orphans, paternal orphans, disabled children, children from child headed households, children from impoverished families

and children under the care of old aged, disabled or chronically ill parents/guardians/caregivers. One participant noted that

> *I am the chairperson of the Community Selection Committee, when selecting BEAM beneficiaries, we first focus on children who have lost both parents, then we consider children who have lost their mothers, and children who lost their fathers. The reason why children with deceased mothers are prioritised over children with deceased fathers is that women are regarded as being more concerned about the wellness of children when compared to men, so a child without a mother is regarded as being at more risk of dropping out school or of not going to school at all. Children who have both parents but are unemployed or disabled are also selected for BEAM. We also consider children who have both parents but are living in poverty. Another category of children which we prioritise is disabled children.*

Another participant said

> *I am also a member of the Community Selection Committee. In selecting BEAM beneficiaries, we first select children who have lost both parents, then we move on to children who have lost their mothers and then children who have lost their fathers. We first select children who lost their mothers because lack of maternal care can lead to children dropping out of school. We also prioritise disabled children, children who have disabled parents and children who are living with old aged grandparents. Some of the children we select on BEAM have both parents, but these parents are living in extreme poverty.*

Another participant noted that

> *Children who lost both parents are the ones that are given first preference; however, we also consider the living conditions of these orphans before we put them on BEAM, there are orphans who are living better lives than children with poor parents or children with disabled parents. We also consider children who have lost 1 parent, especially children who have lost their mothers. As you know, mothers take active roles in providing parental support for children, without a mother a child would be left in a difficulty situation. Children who have lost their fathers are also considered but much emphasis remains on providing support for maternal orphans before focusing on paternal orphans. We also have children who are living with both parents but are facing*

financial challenges due to reasons which may include unemployment, ill health and disability, this group of children is also considered for BEAM.

Similarly, another participant mentioned

....the criteria that is used in selecting beneficiaries is like this, firstly they choose children who have lost both parents, then children who have lost their mothers and children who have lost their fathers. Disabled children and children who are living under the care of the old aged are also considered for BEAM.

One of the participants said

...children who lost both parents are the ones who receive first priority, then children who have lost their mothers, followed by children who have lost their fathers. Other categories of children who are considered for BEAM include disabled children, and children who have both parents but may be disabled, poor or ill health and children who are under the care of old aged individuals.

Likewise, another participant noted

In selecting BEAM beneficiaries, priority is given to children who lost both parents, children who are staying in child headed households, children who lost their mothers , children who lost their fathers, and children with both parents who are poor or disabled.

From the above responses, it can be noted that the selection of BEAM beneficiaries is characterised by an eligibility criteria which allows for the selection of most deserving beneficiaries. Shizha and Kariwo (2011) stated that the selection of BEAM beneficiaries is based on the employment status and health conditions of parents/guardians/caregivers of prospective beneficiaries. Categories of children who are eligible for BEAM include double orphans, single orphans, children from child headed families and disabled children (GOZ, 2015). Some participants noted that maternal orphans were given first preference over paternal orphans, this is based on the assumption that when compared to men, women are regarded as being more responsive to the educational needs of children, as their absence places children at a higher risk of dropping out of school (Jones & Holmes, 2011). Thus, maternal orphans more vulnerable to dropping out of school when compared to paternal orphans.

8.3.6 Theme 6: Exclusion of eligible children

Another theme that emerged from the results of the study was that not all children who met the eligibility criteria for BEAM were on the programme. Some participants indicated that there were limited numbers in selecting BEAM beneficiaries, thus not all eligible children were on BEAM. One participant said that

> *...however, we do not enlist all of them because we have limited numbers in selecting beneficiaries.*

Another participant said

> *Most of the times we select less than half of deserving applicants, because we have limited numbers that we have to stick to.*

Similarly, another participant noted

> *The problem is we don't select all children who deserve to be on BEAM because we have to select limited numbers of beneficiaries.*

Another participant noted confirmed

> *Not all eligible children end up being selected for BEAM, most of them are not on BEAM because the committee has to select a limited number of beneficiaries.*

These responses revealed that BEAM was not comprehensive as the programme does not provide educational support for OVCs who were eligible for BEAM. Kaseke (2012) states that social protection benefits in Zimbabwe were often not comprehensive due to the financial constrictions that are faced by the GOZ. Large numbers of OVCs are excluded from BEAM due to the underfunding of the programme (Manyonganise, 2013; Mutenga, 2014).

8.3.7 Theme 7: Community involvement in selecting BEAM beneficiaries

One of the themes that emerged in exploring the experiences of parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries on the selection process and the provision of the BEAM was that the selection of BEAM beneficiaries was community driven. Participants reported that community members had a leading role in selecting beneficiaries of BEAM. One participant elaborated on the role of community members in selecting BEAM beneficiaries and said

The selection of BEAM beneficiaries is in our hands as parents or members of the community. We are the ones who drive the process and our views are respected by the selection committee, I was actively involved in the selection process. We were called for a meeting in which we were given a chance to state our reasons for applying for BEAM and community members and neighbours were asked to testify on our backgrounds. The selection process is very fair and transparent.

Another participant noted that

All applicants are mandated to attend a meeting in which BEAM applicants are nominated, our role in this meeting is to present our reasons for applying for BEAM to the Committee and the community members. We are also given a chance to comment on whether other applicants require BEAM benefits or not, since we stay in the same surrounding, we know each other's living conditions, thus we are in the best position to provide such information.

Similarly, another participant said that

I am a member of the Community Selection Committee; I am very much involved in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries. The role of the committee is to oversee the selection process of BEAM beneficiaries. After the application forms are submitted, we convey a meeting in which all applicants and community members are invited. What happens in the meeting is that each applicant is asked to present their reasons for applying for BEAM to their fellow community members and the Committee. After that, community members and the Committee are then asked to give their views on whether the applicant's children deserve to be on BEAM or not. As members of the Community Selection Committee, we also give our views since we reside with the applicants in the same community, we are aware of their living conditions and the extent to which they are living in poverty. So, it is easy for us to choose the most deserving beneficiaries.

Another participant echoed the same sentiment and said that

Each applicant is actively involved in the selection process of BEAM. We are all given a chance to tell the Committee and the community members our reasons for applying for BEAM and the community members and other applicants are also given a chance to give comments on whether the applicant in question is living in poverty or not.

Similarly, another participant noted that

> *The whole community was called for a meeting in which parents were asked to nominate those families who require educational assistance. As applications, we were also asked to state the reasons why we applied for BEAM and to explain the financial challenges that we are facing within our households.*

One of the participants said that

> *....we were called for a meeting in which each and every parent was encouraged to participate during the selection process. During these meetings, parents are always given a chance to state their reasons of applying for BEAM and then community members also nominated individuals who are living in situations which are worse off than others.*

Another participant noted that

> *All applicants are mandated to attend a meeting in which BEAM applicants are nominated, our role in this meeting is to present our reasons for applying for BEAM to the Committee and community members. We are also given a chance to comment on whether other applicants are living in poverty or not.*

The above-mentioned responses indicated that community members were the main stakeholders in selecting BEAM beneficiaries. The reasoning behind putting community members at the forefront in selecting BEAM beneficiaries is that they are well informed about the living standards of BEAM applicants since they stayed within the same communities. The involvement of community members in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries is critical as it minimises exclusion and inclusion errors that may arise in selecting beneficiaries of BEAM (Kaseke, 2004; World Bank, 2018). In addition, involving community members in the implementation of social protection programmes is vital as it enhances the inclusion of marginalised members of the society in social development initiatives (Hasmath, 2014). More so, the involvement of community members in social protection initiatives contribute to the empowerment of communities (Devereux, 2013; Ngwerume, 2010).

8.3.8 Theme 8: Educator nominations

Another theme that emerged from the findings of the study was that another selection criteria used in nominating and selecting BEAM beneficiaries was through nominations by educators. One participant noted that

> *His teacher nominated him for BEAM, I received a call from the school principal and was asked to come and fill in the application form.*

Another participant said

> *My child was nominated for BEAM by his school teacher. He is disabled, I received a phone call from the school, and I was informed that BEAM provides support for disabled children so I should come to the school and fill in the application form for my child.*

On the same note, another participant said

> *The teachers also suggested that this child should continue with BEAM.*

The above stated responses revealed that educators took the responsibility of nominating BEAM beneficiaries. Educators ensured that parents/guardians/caregivers of children who were eligible for BEAM submitted applications.

8.3.9 Theme 9: School dropouts

Another theme that emerged from the results of the study was that participants understood the objective of BEAM as that of reducing the number of school dropouts. One participant noted that

> *The objective of BEAM is to ensure that children from poor households do not drop out of school and to prevent a situation whereby some children do not go to school at all because of poverty.*

Another participant said that

> *The objective of BEAM is to avoid a situation in which children from poor families drop out of school due to poverty.*

Similarly, another participant noted

> *...the other objective of the programme is also to avoid a situation in which children drop out of school and sit home and do nothing with their lives.*

Another participant said that

> *The objective of BEAM is to provide education for children who are at risk of dropping out of school or not going to school at all.*

Another participant mentioned

> *... and to avoid a situation in which poor children drop out of school and stay at home, doing nothing.*

In the same way, another participant said

> *....and to reduce the numbers of children who are dropping out of school*

These responses indicate that some participants understood the objective of BEAM as being that of reducing school dropouts. BEAM alleviates school dropouts among children from disadvantaged families through addressing their educational needs (GOZ 2016; Roelen et al., 2011). As postulated by Maushe (2014), BEAM reduces the number of school dropouts through ensuring that children from low-income families are provided with an opportunity to access education.

8.3.10 Theme 10: Poverty alleviation

Another theme that emerged from the results of the study is that participants understood the objective of BEAM as that of alleviating poverty. One participant explained the objective of BEAM and said

> *The objective of BEAM is to ensure that children who are living in extreme poverty are provided with opportunities to access education, so that they will succeed in life and escape poverty.*

Another participant noted that

> *The objective of BEAM is to ensure that no child stays at home due to lack of funds, BEAM is aimed at ensuring that all children from poor backgrounds can attain education.*

Another participant confirmed

> *The objective of BEAM is to offer assistance to those who are extremely poor. BEAM is aimed at paying school fees for children from poor backgrounds.*

On a similar note, another participant said

> *The objective of BEAM is to provide education opportunities for poor children, so that they get a chance to grow out of poverty.*

Another participant said

> *The objective of BEAM is to lessen poverty, that is to ensure that children from poor families are able to attend school, the education that they are acquiring will help them to get jobs and live better lives that are not impoverished.*

One of the participants noted that

> *The objective of BEAM is to enhance the wellness of children who are from poor families, BEAM provides educational support for these children so that in future they will be able to find decent jobs and grow out of poverty.*

These results show that some participants understood the objective of BEAM as that of alleviating poverty. BEAM alleviates poverty through enhancing access to education for OVCs (GOZ, 2016). According to the World Bank (2018), the successful completion of basic education enables OVCs to escape poverty. Education attainment is regarded as a way of alleviating poverty. As children attain basic education, they are expected to be able to seek employment and be in a better position to address their financial needs.

8.3.11 Theme 11: Self-sustaining

Another theme that emerged from the study is that participants regarded the objective of BEAM as that of enabling beneficiaries to become self-sustaining. One participant said

The objective of BEAM is to give poor children and orphans a better future, to provide them with education which will enable them to get jobs and become financially independent.

Another participant noted

The objective of BEAM is to ensure that children whose parents are unable to send them to school are given an opportunity to go to school so that when they grow up they will be able to look for jobs and become independent.

Similarly, another participant said

The objective of BEAM is to ensure that children whose parents are unable to send them to school are given an opportunity to go to school so that when they grow up they will be able to look for jobs and become independent.

Another participant confirmed

The objective of BEAM is to equip children who are living in poverty with knowledge which will enable them to seek jobs and become responsible adults who can address their needs.

Another participant shared the same view and said

The objective of BEAM is to ensure that children who are living in poverty are empowered through education, so that they can become self-sustaining.

Another participant said that

The objective of BEAM s to enhance the lives of the poor, to enable poor children to attend primary and secondary education, so that they will be able to get employment and become financially independent.

On a similar note, another participant noted

BEAM is enabling these children to become educated and independent individuals who will be able to provide for themselves and their families.

The aforementioned responses indicated that some participants understood the objective of BEAM as that of enabling OVCs to become self-sustaining. Participants regarded BEAM as a

programme which enables OVCs to become financially independent through securing employment upon attaining primary and secondary education. The World Bank (2018) states that BEAM provides educational benefits for OVCs as a way of ensuring that they would be able to secure employment and become self-contained. The Government of Zimbabwe (2015) noted that BEAM aims to enable its beneficiaries to become independent adults who can better address their needs.

8.4 THE PERCEPTIONS OF THE PARENTS/GUARDIANS/CAREGIVERS OF BENEFICIARIES OF THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE ABOUT THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE PROGRAMME IN ENABLING BENEFICIARIES TO ACCESS EDUCATION AND REMAIN IN SCHOOL.

The third objective of the study was to explore the perceptions of the parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM about the contributions of the programme in enabling beneficiaries to access education and remain in school. This objective was important to the study in that it enabled the researcher to get participants' insights on the contributions of BEAM in enabling OVCs to access education and to remain in school up to the completion of primary and secondary education. Themes that emerged from the study are presented in Table 8.4.

Table 8.4 Themes that emerged from the perceptions of the parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM about the contributions of the programme in enabling beneficiaries to access education and remain in school.

Themes
Education access
Education attainment
Collection of results

In this section, the findings of the study are discussed in relation to the perceptions of the parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM about the contributions of the programme in enabling beneficiaries to access education and remain in school.

8.4.1 Theme 1: Education access

One theme that emerged from the study was that BEAM enhanced access to education for OVCs, through enabling some beneficiaries to access both primary and secondary education. Some participants revealed that BEAM enhanced access to primary school education. One participant noted that

> *BEAM has really changed my grandchild's life for the better, she would not be in school if it was not for BEAM, she delayed enrolling for grade 1 with a year because I had no money to finance her education, she only started going to school when she became a BEAM beneficiary.*

Another participant said

> *BEAM made a positive impact in my grandchild's life by enabling him to have access to education, he is in grade five and has been on BEAM since grade one, I am very thankful for this support from the government.*

On a similar note, another participant noted

> *If it was not for BEAM, this child was not going to be able to finish her final year in primary school, she was placed on BEAM in grade seven and she managed to write her grade seven exams with assistance from BEAM.*

Some participants noted that BEAM enhanced access to secondary school education. One participant said

> *After my daughter completed her primary school, she had to stay home for a month after schools had opened, I had no means of paying her secondary school fees. Fortunately, she became a BEAM beneficiary, she managed to join other students in form one. I am very grateful for this assistance from the government.*

Another participant confirmed

> *BEAM has enabled my child to access education, if she was not on BEAM, she would not be going to school. When she started her secondary school, she spent two weeks without going to school because I could not afford to pay for her school fees. She only started going to school the third week of the school term, when we were informed through the school, that our BEAM application was successful.*

Similarly, another participant said

> *After completing primary school, my child stayed at home the first two weeks in which he was supposed to be attending form one. I had no school fees, fortunately my BEAM application was successful, and he managed to go to school. If he was not on BEAM he would have not had an opportunity to attend secondary school. BEAM enabled him to stay in school.*

Another participant noted that

> *...fortunately, she was put on BEAM in form three, she is now in Form four and is looking forward to writing her final exams.*

Some participants noted that BEAM enabled beneficiaries to attain primary and secondary education. One of the participants said

> *BEAM has been very helpful in ensuring my grandchildren stay in school, they have been receiving the benefits since grade one and one of them managed to complete his primary and secondary education with the help of BEAM, and this year, the other one is completing secondary school while the other two are still in primary school.*

Similarly, another participant noted

> *This child has been on BEAM since primary school, BEAM has enabled her to attend both primary and secondary education, she is in form four now and is writing her final exams this year, she would not be attending school if BEAM was not paying for her school fees.*

Another participant mentioned

> *If it was not for BEAM, this child was not going to be able to finish her final year in primary school and she would not be attending secondary school, because of this programme she is now progressing well in school.*

The above-mentioned responses revealed that BEAM facilitates access to both primary and secondary school education. Some participants revealed that BEAM enabled beneficiaries to attain primary and secondary education. Other participants revealed that BEAM enabled beneficiaries to transition from primary to secondary school. BEAM enhances access to education for OVCs who suffer extreme poverty and deprivation (Karararch & Otieno, 2016: Ngwerume, 2010). According to Mtapuri (2012) BEAM seeks to enable beneficiaries to attain both primary and secondary education, thus providing them with an opportunity to attain basic education.

8.4.2 Theme 2: Education attainment

Another theme that emerged from the study was that some BEAM beneficiaries were removed from BEAM before they attained basic education. One participants noted that

> *My older son used to be on BEAM, but he ended up dropping out of school after finishing form one, he has not been attending school for a year and half now. He dropped out when he was supposed to enrol for form two. One day he came home and informed us that he had been told that he is owing school fees, he had a receipt which showed that he was owing the school. I could not understand why he was informed that he was owing school fees when he was on BEAM. I could not afford to pay the money that was written on the receipt he got from school, that is how he ended up not going to school. I applied for him this year, I am hoping that my application will be successful, I want my child to go back to school.*

Another participant said

> *One of the orphans that I am providing care for was removed from BEAM, she was in form three, she had been on BEAM since grade four, she ended up dropping out of school because I had no money to pay for her school fees. I could not understand while*

she was not given a chance to finish her secondary education as she was only a year from writing her final exams.

Another participant said

My other child who was on BEAM finished his high school last year. He was removed from BEAM when he was in form six, that was the year when he was writing A level exams.

Another participant confirmed

I then applied for BEAM again, for him to proceed to secondary school, my application was not successful, he ended up spending the whole year at home because I could not afford to pay for his form one school fees. He only started his form one this year during the second school term, he missed the first school term because I had no money to pay for his school fees, I was waiting for the school to confirm whether my BEAM application for this year was successful or not. Again, my application was unsuccessful, he is not on BEAM now and I have not paid any school fees because I do not have the money, I can only hope that he will manage to be on BEAM.

Similarly, another participant said

He was removed from BEAM in grade seven, this disturbed him a lot, he was writing national exams at the end of that year, he suffered emotionally as he was not sure if he was going to be able to finish his grade seven. I had no money to pay for his school fees. He ended up going to school for the whole year without paying school fees.

It can be noted that some beneficiaries of BEAM dropped out of school due to the fact that they were removed from BEAM before they could attain primary and secondary education. According to The World Bank (2018) the uncertainties that characterise the provision of BEAM result in some children dropping out of school. As indicated by Kaseke (2012) the intermittent nature of social protection benefits in Zimbabwe is one of the major obstacles towards alleviating high rates of poverty within the country. Parents/guardians/caregivers indicated that they did not have the capacity to finance the education of children who had been removed from BEAM. As a result, the , children dropped out of school or delayed in enrolling in school.

8.4.3 Theme 3: Collection of results

Another theme that emerged from the study was that some BEAM beneficiaries were not able to collect their results due to the fact that BEAM had not paid their school fees. One participant said

> *This year we could not collect her O-Level results; the school principal informed us that I had to pay the outstanding fees that was not covered by BEAM so we can have the results. We have not been able to collect the results because I do not have the money to pay for the school fees.*

Another participant noted that

> *This year I could not collect O-Level results for one of the orphans that is under my care, the school principal informed me that I had to pay the outstanding fees first.*

On a similar note, another participant mentioned

> *Now the challenge is, he has not been able to collect his results, because of the school fees that he is owing. I do not have the money to clear the fees balance, I can only hope that one day I will have the money.*

Similarly, another participant said

> *After finishing grade seven, we could not collect his results because he was owing the school.*

These responses reveal that non-payment of school fees for children who were writing national exams resulted in failure to collect results. Some participants revealed that their children did not manage to collect their grade seven and O-Level results because they had outstanding fees which had not been cleared by BEAM.

8.5 EDUCATORS' EXPERIENCES WHEN OPERATIONALISING THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE TO BENEFICIARIES IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE

The fourth objective sought to explore educators' experiences when operationalising the Basic Education Assistance Module to beneficiaries in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. This objective was

important to the study as it enabled the researcher to gain an understanding of educators' perceptions regarding the operation of BEAM. Themes that emerged from the study are presented in Table 8.5.

Table 8.5 Themes that emerged from educators' experiences when operationalising the Basic Education Assistance Module to beneficiaries in Gutu District, Zimbabwe

Themes
Poverty alleviation
Social inclusion of women
Education of girl children
Fairness
Nominations by educators
Community involvement
Education attainment and poverty alleviation
Grievance Committees
Unmet needs
Community awareness on BEAM

In this section, the findings of the study are discussed in relation to educators' experiences when operationalising the Basic Education Assistance Module to beneficiaries in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

8.5.1 Theme 1: Poverty alleviation

One theme that emerged from the study was that educators viewed BEAM as a programme that is focused on alleviating poverty and enhancing access to education in Gutu District. One educator explained the objective of BEAM and said

> *The main objective of BEAM is to ensure that students from poor backgrounds can have access to education, in doing so the programme is also alleviating poverty in our District. Similarly, another educator said; The objectives of the programme include alleviating poverty and enhancing access to education.*

Another educator shared the same perception and said

> *The objectives of BEAM are as follows, to increase the literacy rates among children from poor families and to ensure that each and every child has access to primary and secondary education. The second objective of BEAM is to alleviate poverty through providing educational assistance for children from underprivileged backgrounds.*

The responses given by educators indicated that the main objectives of BEAM were to alleviate poverty and to enhance access to education. Educators indicated that the provision of educational benefits for BEAM beneficiaries was a way of alleviation poverty. The responses given by educators showed that BEAM alleviates both child and adult poverty. Enabling impoverished children to access education reduces child poverty as it enables the education attainment of children whose parents/ guardians /caregivers cannot afford to send them to school due to poverty. The major goal of social protection programmes is to address poverty through enhancing access to services such as education (Barrientos et al, 2013). As stated by the World Bank (2020), Zimbabwe is characterised by high rates of child poverty and this presents a greater need for social protection initiatives that place much emphasis on addressing the challenges faced by OVCs in accessing education. BEAM is a major element of NAP for OVCs which was established by the GOZ to addresses high rates of child poverty by facilitating their access to education (GOZ, 2016).

8.5.2 Theme 2: Social inclusion of women

Another theme that emerged from the findings of the study is that women and men were equally involved in the selection of process. The reasoning behind the promotion of women participation was to enhance the social inclusion of women in decision making on issues related to the implementation of BEAM. One educator explained the involvement of women in the formation of the Community Selection Committee and said

> *Women are very much involved in the selection of members of the Community Selection Committee, the Chairperson of our CSC is a woman and we have 3 more women within the committee.*

Another educator shared similar views and said

> *Women are involved in the formation of these committees to a larger extend, this is evidenced by their active involvement during the selection process, there are also many of them in the Community Selection Committees.*

Some educators indicated that the involvement of women in the implementation of BEAM was crucial. The findings of this study shows that women prioritised the needs of children and were more concerned about the wellness of children. Their participation in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries was valuable as they made notable contributions in selecting children who were eligible for BEAM. One educator explained the importance of women in the nomination and selection of BEAM beneficiaries and mentioned that

> *Women are highly involved during this process, they are regarded as the primary caregivers of these children and are believed to have a strong passion for OVC's as well as children in general, thus they are very helpful in selecting the beneficiaries of BEAM and in nominating the neediest families. We always make sure there are considerable numbers of women in each Community Selection Committee.*

Another educator said

> *We always make sure that 50 % of the CSC are women, we consider women as individuals who have children in their hearts, they are concerned about the wellness and education of children. Hence, it is important that they are involved in the whole selection process. In this school we have more women than men in the Community Selection Committee.*

Clearly, women are said to be more concerned about the education of children than men, and their involvement in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries facilitates the effective implementation of BEAM. Historically, women play the role of providing primary care for children and they are more involved in child protection programmes when compared to men (UNICEF, 2014). Thus, the involvement of women in the implementation and provision of social protection programmes is vital as this enhances the smooth operation of such programmes (Jones & Holmes, 2011).

8.5.3 Theme 3: Education of girl children

Another theme that emerged from the findings of the study was that BEAM operates on the basis of promoting the education attainment of girl children. One educator explained on this aspect and said

> *One of the main principles of BEAM is to empower the girl child, we always make sure that we take more girls than boys every year. As of this year, 64% of the children that were selected for BEAM are girl children.*

Another educator confirmed

> *With regards to BEAM, gender equity is taken seriously, there is great emphasis on ensuring that 50% of the beneficiaries are girls.*

Correspondingly, another educator noted

> *The promotion of gender equity is one of the principles that guide us in nominating and selecting BEAM beneficiaries. We always ensure that there is a balance between girls and boys. As of this year, we actually enrolled more girls than boys on BEAM .*

Responses given by educators indicated that BEAM seeks to promote the education of girl children. Zimbabwe is characterised by high levels of school dropouts among girl children, and reasons behind this state of affairs include poverty, arranged marriages, forced marriages and child marriages (UNICEF, 2006). BEAM reduces the probability of school dropouts among girl children by ensuring that at least 50% of BEAM beneficiaries are girls (GOZ, 2015). The expansion of educational opportunities throughout the African continent should be simultaneous with enhancing social justice and gender equality, there should be active involvement of girl children, disabled children and foreign children within programmes which provide educational benefits for less privileged children (UNDESA, 2014a).

8.5.4 Theme 4:Fairness

Another theme that emerged from the findings of the study was that the selection of BEAM beneficiaries was done in a fair manner which enabled the selection of most deserving beneficiaries. One educator noted that

The selection process is a very fair and transparent process; most decisions are made in the presence of applicants. Firstly, a meeting is held, with all stakeholders and the community members available, prospective beneficiaries are put in various categories in which they are ranked according to their level of need. First priority is given to those children who are living in extreme poverty, these include double orphans and children who are under the care of old aged individuals or chronically sick parents or caregivers. The community members are actively involved during the selection of beneficiaries and are given an opportunity to nominate children whom they think are more deserving to be on BEAM. Community members who nominate beneficiaries are also given a platform to state the reasons why they are nominating certain children.

Another educator shared the same perception and said

The selection process of BEAM is very transparent and fair. Firstly, children and parents are given application forms for BEAM, and then they fill in the application forms and submit the forms to the schools, and then several meetings take place as the community members together with the involved stakeholders, nominate children who should be given first preference.

Another educator revealed that

When it's time for yearly selections, the Communicate Selection Committee community convenes a meeting and the chairman encourages the committee members to spread the news within their communities and to encourage people who are facing financial difficulties to apply for BEAM. Application forms are then sent to the villages and to the schools, and then interested individuals fill in the forms and submit them to schools. After that, the committee convenes another meeting with the community members and decide on applicants who are more deserving of BEAM, and then the committee meets again to come up with the final list, which is then submitted to the Department of Social Welfare.

The above-mentioned responses indicate that the eligibility criteria used in selecting BEAM beneficiaries is fair as it allows for the nomination and selection of children who are eligible for BEAM. The Government of Zimbabwe (2016) states that the selection criteria of BEAM beneficiaries is designed in a way which eliminates the probability of including undeserving children on BEAM. Kaseke (2012) indicates that the social protection benefits are provided to

those individuals living in extreme poverty and are unable to access basic needs. The selection criteria used in selecting BEAM beneficiaries is fair and is of paramount importance as it enables children from extremely poor families to access education.

8.5.5 Theme 5: Nominations by educators

One theme that emerged from the study was that another selection criteria used in selecting BEAM beneficiaries was through their nomination by their educators. One educator explained this and said

> *Some of the beneficiaries of BEAM are nominated by teachers, the class teachers are the ones who spent most time with the children and it is easier for them to pinpoint students who come from impoverished households and to justify their inclusion on BEAM. In some cases, the teachers take responsibility of filling in application forms for children whom they consider needing educational assistance. The Community Selection Committee also goes on to establish the extent to which the child is in need, after it is fully established that the learner meets all requirements of benefiting from BEAM, the child is then enlisted as a BEAM beneficiary.*

Another educator who shared the same view said that

> *As teachers, we also nominate children whom we consider requiring educational assistance. I spend most my working hours teaching these children, so it is very easy for me to pick up children that are living in extreme poverty. By looking at the way in which children dress when they come to school, I can easily pick up that the child is need of assistance. Some children come to school without food to eat during the break, and they come and share their challenges with me, that is how I get to know about some of the challenges that these children are facing.*

Similarly, another educator noted

> *As teachers we also nominate children. In situations where their parents or care providers do not take an initiative to come and collect the application forms to apply for them. We then fill in the application form for these children and represent their parents.*

These responses indicate that educators took the responsibility of applying BEAM benefits for children whom they considered to need BEAM benefits. In instances where parents/ guardians/ caregivers did not take initiatives to apply for children who met the eligibility criteria for BEAM, educators apply for BEAM on behalf of such children. Educators indicated that in performing the day-to-day duties, it is easy for them to pick up children who need education benefits, and their close interaction with children enables them to point children who are from disadvantaged backgrounds and to nominate them for BEAM.

8.5.6 Theme 6: Community involvement

Another theme that emerged from the findings of the study was that community involvement in the nomination and selection of BEAM beneficiaries was of paramount importance as their input in selecting beneficiaries facilitated the realisation of BEAM objectives which were stated by educators as being poverty reduction and the improved access to education. One educator stated

> *It is important to involve the community in the selection process because they know each other's living conditions more than anyone else; they are in a better position to make decisions regarding children who are living in poverty and those who should be given priority when it comes to shortlisting the beneficiaries. More so, involving the community in the selection process is also a way of ensuring that the objectives of the programme are effectively met, BEAM is there to facilitate access to education, thereby reducing poverty, this objective can only be met if the community members and parents or carers of these children step forward and provide information regarding the families that require assistance in sending children to school.*

Another educator shared the same views and said

> *Parents or community members are very important in the selection of deserving beneficiaries because they help in the ranking of prospective beneficiaries and they rectify inclusion and exclusion errors. In instances where they feel like undeserving learners are selected, they voice their concerns and nominate the learners that are more deserving of BEAM benefits. The community members provide a true picture of the circumstances in which the prospective beneficiaries are living in and this makes the selection process very easy.*

Another educator noted that

> *The community members are the most important group in selecting BEAM beneficiaries, community members are the ones that are staying with these children, and they have adequate knowledge on the living conditions of their fellow community members hence they assist in making sure that the most deserving children are placed on BEAM. As teachers, we lack full knowledge regarding the extent to which children are living in poverty because we do not stay in their villages and we have never been at their homesteads to witness their living conditions. Thus, community members fill in this gap for us because they know each other's needs and challenges better than us. The Community Selection Committee also consist of community members and helps with selecting the students that are most vulnerable, this committee represents the community at large, we have 7 villages in this catchment area and from each village, and there is one representative in the Community Selection Committee. The community and members of the Community Selection Committee are the ones who are well informed about the situations in which these children are living in, that's why they take the lead in selecting beneficiaries, educators participate during this process but to a lesser extent.*

On the same notion, another educator mentioned

> *Community members and parents are the most important stakeholders during the whole process, this is because they know the backgrounds of these children, they know the families that need educational assistance and they know the families that are struggling more than other families within their villages. They have the important information that help us make informed decisions during the selection process. The community members are the ones that take the lead in nominating deserving children, they make the selection process very easy to implement.*

Another educator shared the similar views and said

> *Parents and community members are very helpful in the selection process of BEAM beneficiaries, they are the ones with full knowledge regarding the extent to which applicants are living in poverty, they assist us in ensuring that the most needy children are the ones that get first priority.*

Key informants were of the view that the knowledge possessed by members of the Community Selection Committee and parents/guardians/caregivers aided in insuring that children whose applications became successful where from families that required first priority. The involvement of community members in selecting BEAM beneficiaries enables the selection of eligible children, as community members are knowledgeable about the living conditions of applicants (GOZ, 2015: World Bank, 2018). Educators revealed that the selection and nomination of BEAM beneficiaries was placed in the hands of the community because they were in the best position to make decisions that facilitated the attainment of enhanced access to education and poverty alleviation.

8.5.7 Theme 7: Education attainment and poverty alleviation

Another theme that emerged from the results of the study was that attaining education is regarded as a way of escaping poverty. One educator elaborated on this and said

> *BEAM has helped in making sure that vulnerable children have access to education. This has opened doors of opportunities to many pupils who are living in poverty, the process of educating children is a way of eradicating poverty, if these children finish and pass their high school education, they will be ready to continue with tertiary education or to do any courses and trainings that will enable them to get jobs and become independent adults who will be able to address their financial needs and to support their families.*

Another educator stated

> *…poverty is eradicated when a learner that is on BEAM manages to excel in their studies. Some of the learners strive to attend tertiary education and end up being financially stable. In this way, BEAM is alleviating poverty through enabling beneficiaries to be self-sufficient. On the same note, another educator said; BEAM is alleviating poverty in our District through providing children from poor backgrounds with an opportunity to have access to basic education. We have countless success stories of BEAM beneficiaries who excel in national exams. Last year we had one BEAM beneficiary who had 6 A's on her Ordinary Level examinations, she is now doing her High School education and I believe after that she will proceed to attain tertiary education. If it was not for BEAM, I don't think she would not have managed to go this*

far with education because she had dropped out of school due to lack of funds. BEAM is going a long way in alleviating poverty, children who manage to complete their education are then able to seek for employment and financially support their families.

Another educator said

To a larger extend, BEAM is alleviating poverty in our District, if it wasn't for BEAM, we would be having hundreds of children out of school within our District. BEAM enables children from poor families to access education, these beneficiaries have been given an opportunity to grow out of poverty, by the time they finish their secondary education, they will be able to seek employment or to advance with education. In providing educational benefits for children from impoverished children, BEAM is empowering these children and strengthening their capacity of growing into independent adults who can provide for their families. Educators indicated that education attainment enables beneficiaries of BEAM to escape poverty.

The above stated responses indicated that the attainment of primary and secondary education enables BEAM beneficiaries to become self-sufficient. The provision of educational support for OVCs eradicates poverty through enabling children from disadvantaged backgrounds to attain education and to seek for employment opportunities (Dumauli, 2015). BEAM alleviates poverty through ensuring that children from impoverished backgrounds are given an opportunity to acquire knowledge and skills necessary to seek employment or to further their education (GOZ, 2016; Munati et al., 2009). Educators revealed that BEAM has largely contributed towards enhancing educational attainment in Gutu District.

8.5.8 Theme 8: Grievance Committees

Another theme that emerged from the results of the study was that there was a grievance committee, which had the responsibility of addressing grievances that arose during the selection of BEAM beneficiaries. One educator noted that

We have a grievance committee that is mainly concerned about addressing the queries that people may have regarding the selection process or any issues that people may have regarding the implementation of BEAM. This board consists of individuals including Church leaders, village heads, counsellors and at most 2 community

members. This helps us in managing conflicts and in maintaining transparency in the process of selecting beneficiaries.

Similarly, another educator said that

There are situations in which community members complain about the Community Selection Committee being biased in selecting beneficiaries. We have had many cases in which members of the Community Selection Committee are accused of abusing their power through selecting their children for BEAM benefits, even when they don't meet the requirements to be on BEAM, or rather, are not living in chronic poverty. The grievance committee is very helpful in assisting with resolving such issues.

Another educator shared the same perception and stated

It is very easy to deal with conflicts that arise during selection process because we have the grievance committee that is responsible for addressing the grievances presented by parents. We have had situations in which members of the Community Selection committee is accused of nominating and selecting their relatives who are not living in poverty, while leaving behind those children that are well deserved for BEAM benefits. Such challenges have been addressed through the grievance committee; this committee makes it easy for us to address the challenges faced by community members.

The responses given by educators in explaining the role of the grievance committees indicated that such committees enabled the easy implementation of BEAM. Grievance committees had the responsibility of addressing grievances which community members had regarding the selection of beneficiaries. The selection of ineligible children for BEAM was stated as one of major issues that lead to misunderstanding during the nomination and selection of beneficiaries. The general consensus was that grievances committees were helpful in ensuring that the selection process was done in a way that adheres to the selection criteria used in nominating and selecting beneficiaries of BEAM.

8.5.9 Theme 9: Unmet needs

Another theme that emerged from the study was that the exclusion of complimentary needs that facilitated access to education compromised the effective implementation of BEAM. One educator said

If I were in charge of BEAM, I would make sure that apart from paying school and examination fees, BEAM also provides the beneficiary families with groceries, we have had many incidences in which children come to school with empty stomachs, it is difficult for them to concentrate in class and to perform to their maximum abilities when they are hungry. I would also ensure that BEAM benefits are extended to providing a meals for its beneficiaries within their schools. The fact that some children are coming to school without eating is really affecting their wellbeing, apart from school and examination fees, I would also ensure that children under BEAM are provided with uniforms, school shoes and stationery.

Another educator confirmed

If I was responsible for the management of BEAM, I would ensure that apart from school fees and examination fees, BEAM beneficiaries are also provided with school uniforms, food packages, school stationery, exercises books and textbooks. We do not have enough textbooks for all children, some end up failing not because they are not hardworking, but because they lack the required books and stationery. I don't think a child can be emotionally and physically well enough to fully participate in class on an empty stomach. We have had countless cases in which children come to school without any food, and they report that they do not have any food at home. It would be very helpful if BEAM provided food packages for the families in which these children reside in; I believe the children will even perform better in school if they are provided with all these much-needed benefits that they are currently not receiving from BEAM. Most BEAM beneficiaries do not have adequate school uniforms some of them wear casual jerseys in winter since they don't have school jerseys, some do not have school shoes and some wear casual socks to school because they do not have school socks, if they were to be provided with a full package of school uniforms, I believe these will make them feel comfortable among other children.

The above-mentioned responses showed that the unmet needs of beneficiaries of BEAM negatively impacted on the physical and emotional wellbeing of beneficiaries of BEAM. The fact that BEAM did not meet needs which included school uniforms and books made it difficult for beneficiaries to attain education in a comfortable manner. BEAM does not meet other educational needs, which include books and school uniforms (Maushe, 2014; Murenha, 2006). The exclusion of educational needs including school meals, books and unforms on

BEAM is a hindrance towards achieving the goal of enhancing access to education for OVCs (UNICEF, 2012).

The exclusion of school meals or groceries on BEAM benefits resulted in some beneficiaries attending school on hungry stomachs, which affected their concentration and performance in school. Educators indicated that the unmet needs were also in the form eligible children who were excluded from benefiting from the programme due to extremely low budgetary allocation of BEAM funds. One educator explained this issue and noted that

> *If I were in charge of BEAM, I would ensure that BEAM allocations are increased, this would enable us to select larger numbers of children. Almost half of all learners on our school are either single or double orphans, most of them are under the care of old aged grandparents of parents that are either chronically sick or disabled. All these children need educational assistance. It is unfortunate that they cannot receive the assistance they require due to the financial challenges that are faced by the government. It is unfortunate that most deserving children are being left out and end up dropping out of school due of lack of funds. If BEAM funds were to be increased, the numbers of beneficiaries would also increase and the impact of BEAM in alleviating poverty will be felt more.*

Another educator stated that

> *I would improve on issues to do with increasing the number of children who are benefiting from BEAM, the number is very low and many children who qualify to benefit from BEAM are excluded from these benefits. At the present moment, BEAM is covering very few children and its objectives cannot be fully met if the majority of poverty-stricken children are not receiving the assistance which they require.*

Educators indicated that the exclusion of eligible children from BEAM was a major cause of schools dropouts. The stated responses indicated that funds that were directed at BEAM were too low and inadequate in addressing the educational needs of OVCs in the selected schools. Kaseke (2012) indicated that the financial constraints faced by GOZ renders social protection programmes less comprehensive. As a result, not all deserving individuals benefit from social protection. BEAM is less comprehensive as benefits are provided for a small fraction of OVCs who are eligible for the programme (Manyonganise, 2013; World Bank, 2018). Educators

indicated that that impact of BEAM in alleviating poverty and in enhancing access to education cannot be fully met if large numbers of eligible children were excluded from BEAM.

8.5.10 Theme 10: Community awareness on BEAM

Another theme that emerged from the findings of the study was that there is a greater need to raise community awareness on BEAM. One educator said

> *I would ensure that there is increased awareness of BEAM within communities. There is need to educate community members about the importance of BEAM and its benefits in our District. Over the years, we have had situations in which parents and guardians are not willing to come to the school and apply for their children or children who are under their care. There are many instances in which we have asked students who are eligible for BEAM to tell their parents or guardians to come to the school to collect application forms and apply on their behalf, some of these students indicated that their parents or guardians had no interest in BEAM. It then becomes our responsibility as teachers, to fill in application forms for these children and make sure the BEAM applications are successful. I believe that these parents will change their mind sets if they receive information that will help them understand the importance of educating children. This can be achieved through conducting community workshops in which various stakeholders which are involved with BEAM are given a platform to educate community members on the positive impact that BEAM has children and communities.*

Another educator noted that

> *I would also raise awareness on the BEAM, so that community members can have a full understanding how BEAM operates, some community members believe that every child is entitled to BEAM benefits, they are under the impression that BEAM is for everyone, regardless of their financial situations. I would be of great importance to arrange meetings in which communities are educated about BEAM and its goals, this would also be a way of empowering community members with knowledge regarding social protection initiatives that seek to alleviate poverty within their communities and the whole country at large.*

The responses given by educators indicated that there was a need for the conducting of workshops in which community members are provided with knowledge which enables them

to have an adequate understanding of BEAM and its impact in enhancing community wellness and in alleviating poverty . Educators revealed that such workshops would be beneficial in ensuring that communities are educated on the benefits associated with educating children and the categories of children who qualify for BEAM. Educating community members is important as a way of empowering communities with knowledge that would enhance their understanding of BEAM and its objectives. Community empowerment enhances the social inclusion of marginalised members of the community (Ngwerume, 2010). As stated by the World Bank (2018), community empowerment is vital in the provision of social protection programmes as it enables socially excluded individuals to participate in the social and economic development of their communities.

8.6 CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH THE PROVISION OF THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE

The fifth objective of the study was to determine the challenges associated with the provision of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. This objective enabled the researcher to gather insights regarding challenges that were faced by participants and beneficiaries regarding the provision of BEAM. Themes that emerged from the study are presented in Table 8.6.

Table 8.6 Themes that emerged from challenges associated with the provision of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

Themes
Yearly applications
Inconsistency
Inadequacy
Missing school

In this section, the findings of the study are discussed in relation to challenges associated with the provision of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

8.6.1 Theme 1: Yearly applications

One theme that emerged from the collected data was that participants found the yearly renewal of BEAM applications to be inconvenient for them. One participant noted that

> *It would be better if the government ensured that children who are benefiting from BEAM are provided with assistance from primary school up to completion of secondary school. As much as our children are receiving BEAM benefits, a parent can never be certain of whether the child will be on BEAM the following year or not, we submit applications on yearly basis, sometimes the applications are unsuccessful, and the school principal informs us that we need to pay fees for that year. This is affecting our children, we do not have the money to pay school fees, that's why we applied for BEAM in the first place, so being asked to pay school fees is like asking us to stop sending children to school .*

Similarly, another participant said

> *The main challenge in applying for BEAM is that we are required to apply every year, this is very strenuous, considering that we have to travel long distances to collect the application forms from the schools and to attend BEAM meetings. It would be better if we had to apply only once not to renew applicants every year. The yearly applications have also led to some children being dropped off BEAM. When my child was dropped off BEAM for a year , I was not prepared for that, I did not have the money to pay for her school fees, he ended up missing the first 3 weeks of school while I was looking for his school fees.*

On the same note, another participant mentioned

> *The fact that we have to apply for BEAM every year has led to some children being removed from BEAM and they end up dropping out of school. It would be better if children who are placed on BEAM in primary school are given an opportunity to stay on BEAM until they finish primary and secondary school.*

Another participant shared the same sentiment and said

> *We have to apply every year, if a child is on BEAM this year, it is not guaranteed that the child will be on BEAM next year because the application may not be successful.*

Imagine having your child being dropped from BEAM after only one or two years, that child will be forced to drop out of school.

One of the participants stated that

…however, I feel like the fact that we have to submit applications every year is hectic, it would be better if we were to apply once , because if you apply every year it means that your child is not guaranteed to be on BEAM until they complete their primary and secondary school. For instance, my child was once removed from BEAM when she was in primary school, she was a beneficiary for only one year, then she was removed on the basis of giving other applicants a chance to benefit from BEAM. She only managed to get back on BEAM in form two, now she is in form four.

Another participant noted confirmed

The main challenge in applying for BEAM is we have to apply every year. I would like to suggest that these applications must be done only once; then successful applicants stay on BEAM until they complete their primary and secondary education.

Participants were unanimous that the yearly renewal of BEAM applications was inconvenient as it made it difficult for beneficiaries to stay on the programme until the completion of primary and secondary education. Participants indicated that a successful application of BEAM benefits was not a guarantee that beneficiaries would stay on BEAM until completing education. The yearly renewal of BEAM applications led to some children being removed from the programme when their applications became unsuccessful. More so, the submission of yearly applications is difficult for applicants who travel long distances to submit the applications and to attend meetings within the selected schools.

8.6.2 Theme 2: Inconsistency

Another theme that emerged from the study was that benefits provided under BEAM were often inconsistent. One participant explained this and said

My grandchild was once removed from BEAM when she was in grade six, she had been on BEAM since grade one. The reason why she got dropped was that she had assistance for long and it was time to aid others who had never been on BEAM. I was then forced

to pay for her school fees for that whole year. She was put back on BEAM in Grade seven and she has been on BEAM since then.

Another participant noted that

My grandchild was not on BEAM the first two years of secondary school, I applied for her during those first two years, but the applications were not successful, she only managed to be on BEAM in form three and she is currently in form four. When she was in primary school, she was once removed from BEAM the whole year in grade four, and then she was put back in grade five up to grade seven.

Another participant mentioned

This child has been on BEAM since she was in Grade 4 and she is now in form 3, in between these years, I had to pay her school fees because there were years in which she was removed from BEAM, the principal told me that she was taken off BEAM because they had to give other children a chance. The programme would be more effective if they made sure that a child who is on BEAM stays on BEAM till the child completes school.

These responses show that benefits of BEAM were inconsistent as beneficiaries are often removed from the programme. Some participants noted that the inconsistences in the provision of BEAM benefits were in form of the exclusion of the first school term fees for newly enrolled beneficiaries. One participant explained this aspect and said

The other challenge is that when a child is enrolled on BEAM for the first time, the programme only pays school fees for the second and third school term, parents are asked to pay fees during the first school term, which is a huge challenge for us because we cannot afford to pay the school fees.

Similarly, another participant said

The other challenge faced with BEAM is we are asked to pay school fees during the first school term in which a child is enrolled on BEAM for the first time. When a child enrols for form one or grade one, the school principals requires us to bring school fees, regardless of whether the child is on BEAM or not, they need an upfront payment before a child secures a place on the school. This is a huge challenge because we do not have the money to pay for school fees.

Another participant noted

> *We were asked to pay school fees during the first school term when she was in form one, BEAM did not pay. I think the programme should pay for beneficiaries' school fees for all school terms, not to ask parents to pay fees for the first school term.*

On a similar note, another participant said

> *Parents are always asked to pay school fees during the first school term in which a child is enrolled on BEAM for the first time. The school principal informed us that we had to pay the fees because BEAM funds had not been distributed in schools.*

Another participant shared the same experiences and said

> *The other challenge is that when a child is enrolled on BEAM for the first time, the programme only pays school fees for the second and third school term, parents are required to pay fees during the first school term, we cannot afford to pay the school fees.*

BEAM benefits did not cover school fees for the first school term and the responsibility of paying school fees was placed on parents/guardians/caregivers. BEAM benefits are irregular due to the underfunding of the programme (Maushe, 2014). As indicated by Kaseke (2012) social protection benefits in Zimbabwe are often inconsistent and this is due to the financial constraints faced by GOZ.

8.6.3 Theme 3: Inadequacy

Another theme that emerged from the study was that BEAM benefits were inadequate in meeting the educational needs of beneficiaries. One participant stressed this point and said

> *…the benefits that are provided under BEAM are not adequate in satisfying the educational needs of children. For children to go to school, they do not only need the school fees, they need school uniforms, stationery, school shoes and books. All these needs are not covered on BEAM. I do not have the capacity to pay for these expenses.*

Another participant noted that

> *The benefits of BEAM are not adequate, the programme does not provide books and school uniforms for beneficiaries. Paying school fees only is not enough to ensure that children are provided with a conducive environment which enables them to successfully complete their primary and secondary education.*

On a similar note, another participant stated

> *The benefits of BEAM are not enough to ensure that children are provided with the support required for a child to perform well in school. BEAM only pays for school fees, children who are on BEAM are still struggling because they go to school without textbooks and school uniforms. Sometimes my children go to school on empty stomachs, because there would be no food at home. I think BEAM benefits should be supplemented by other benefits that include books, school uniforms and a meal during lunch time.*

Another participant said that

> *The other challenge is that BEAM does not provide books and school uniforms for children, I am struggling to provide enough uniforms and books for the child and he currently does not have enough books and school uniforms. It would be better if BEAM was providing beneficiaries with school uniforms, books and pens.*

Similarly, another participant noted that

> *… the programme does not cover books and school uniforms. We struggle in buying books and school uniforms for children, there have been times when my child was asked to bring textbooks to school, I have not bought the textbooks because I do not have the money.*

Another participant confirmed

> *School fees alone is not enough to cover the needs of beneficiaries, the programme should extend its benefits to providing at least one meal for these children, sometimes my grandchildren come to school without any food because it is not all the time that I have food to pack for them. BEAM should also provide school uniforms, books and stationery for beneficiaries, my grandchildren are going to school without books and*

stationery because I do not have the money to buy those things, the benefits will only be adequate if they include books, uniforms, stationery and a meal at school.

Another participant said that

I will be very grateful if the children are also provided with food during lunch time, there are times when the child comes to school with little or no food because there would not be enough food for the whole family at home.

Similarly, another participant noted that

…benefits of BEAM are not adequate in ensuring that a child's needs are met , the fact that BEAM does not provide books and stationery for beneficiaries makes this programme less effective. I have been struggling to provide books for my child, there was a time when her class teacher bought her books and pencils from her own pocket because I had no money. It would be very helpful if BEAM was providing our children with school stationary, so that they have the supporting materials that are needed for them to pass.

Another participant said that

Benefits are not enough because they do not cover all educational needs of beneficiaries. As much as my niece is going to school, sometimes she goes to school without packed food for her to eat during the lunch break. Also, she does not have enough books to use at school.

Some participants revealed that benefits of BEAM were inadequate in the context that the programme did not pay the full amount of examination fees for beneficiaries. One participant explained this and noted

Even with exam fees, BEAM pays half of the subjects that the child would be registered for and the other half is the responsibility of parents. Last year one of the four children that I am taking care of was writing his final secondary school exams, I was informed that of the eight exams that he was going to write, four of them were to be paid by my husband and myself and four were to be paid by BEAM. Given my experience, I would say the benefits that are provided under BEAM are not adequate in enabling beneficiaries to attain secondary school education.

Another participant mentioned

> *…and also, BEAM does pay the full amount for exam fees for all ordinary level exams, it only covers half of the subjects.*

On a similar note, another participant said

> *Additionally, when it comes to paying exams fees, BEAM only pays for half of the subjects, as a parent who is facing financial struggles, it is impossible for me to pay for the remaining subjects, it would be better if the programme was paying for all exams.*

With respect to the findings above, it can be noted that BEAM benefits were inadequate in meeting the educational needs of beneficiaries. Participants indicated that BEAM would have been effective in meeting the education needs of beneficiaries if other complimentary needs including school uniforms, stationery and school meals were provided on this programme. The responses given by participants indicated that the provision of BEAM is informed by a minimalist approach in which basic support in form of school fees is provided to enable beneficiaries to attain basic education (Massey, 2015). The provision of BEAM benefits is informed by the neoliberal theory, which is based on the premise that state intervention in providing social protection services for the less privileged should be minimal, to avoid a situation in which beneficiaries become overly independent on social protection programmes (Hodge, 2017; Peck, 2013).

8.6.4 Theme 4: Missing school

Another theme that emerged from the findings of the study was that BEAM beneficiaries faced a challenge of being send back home to collect school fees in situations when BEAM payments were not disbursed in schools on time. One participant explained this challenge and said

> *The child that is on this school faced challenges in situations where there were delays in the payment of school fees. If BEAM does not pay school fees on time, he is always sent home to collect school fees. This disturbs his school attendance a lot because he always miss school during this period, he was only able to go back to school after I pleaded with the school principal so that she allows him to come back to school.*

Another participant mentioned

> *....at the beginning of this year my child was sent home from school to collect school fees since BEAM had not paid her school fees. I had to go to the school and plead with the school principal for my child to come back to school, she understood my situation and my child got back to school a week after she had been sent back home to collect the school fees.*

One participant stated

> *... there were times when he was sent back home from school because BEAM had not paid his school fees, he was disturbed because he could not attend classes that time. However, he was later on allowed to come back to school after I went to the school to talk with the school principal and to request her to allow my child to come back to school.*

Another participant said

> *....he was sent back home from school because BEAM had not paid his school fees, he was disturbed a bit because he could not attend classes that time. However, he was later allowed to come back to school.*

One of the participants noted that

> *On two occasions, he was sent back home because his school fees had not been paid, this disturbed him as he was missing out on attending lessons during that period.*

In situations whereby BEAM funds were not allocated in schools on time, some of the BEAM beneficiaries missed school as they were sent back home to collect school fees. Some of the beneficiaries missed school for several days. Beneficiaries were allowed to go back to school after parents/guardians/caregivers went to schools which they attended to negotiate with school principals to allow the beneficiaries to come back to school.

8.7 THE PERCEPTIONS OF GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS ABOUT THE IMPLEMENTATION OF BEAM IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE.

The sixth objective sought to explore the perceptions of government officials about the implementation of BEAM. This objective enabled the researcher to gain insights regarding the

procedures and principles that inform the implementation of BEAM. Themes that emerged from the study are presented in Table 8.7.

Table 8.7 Themes that emerged from the perceptions of government officials about the implementation of BEAM.

Themes
Stakeholders involved in the selection process of beneficiaries of BEAM
Well-structured and transparent selection process of beneficiaries of BEAM
Community participation
Gender equity
BEAM benefits and categories of eligible children
Nominations
Poverty alleviation
Aspects that are easy to implement during the selection process of BEAM beneficiaries
Inconsistency and inadequacy

In this section, the findings of the study are discussed in relation to perceptions of government officials about the implementation of BEAM.

8.7.1 Theme 1: Stakeholders involved in the selection process of beneficiaries of BEAM

One of the themes that emerged from this study was that stakeholders mainly involved the selection process of BEAM beneficiaries are community members and the Community Selection Committee. One government official noted that

> *The major stakeholder during the selection process is the community, BEAM is a community based social safety net which has got a community-based targeting mechanism; we are saying the community knows its self-better than those who do not reside in that community. So, we leave the honour of driving the selection process on the community, and we give the community an opportunity to be fair upon itself, they are best informed about individuals who deserve to be on BEAM and those who do not deserve the benefits. The ward counsellor is also involved in the selection process and*

stands as the local authority representative at ward level, the role of the counsellor is to attend to grievances that may arise during the selection process and to oversee the smooth movement of the whole process. Local NGOs are also involved in the selection process, they attend the meetings and are involved in the whole process. As social workers, we are also involved in the selection process, however our role is more of ensuring that the correct procedures are being followed in selecting beneficiaries. Villages Heads and Chiefs are also involved in the selection process.

Similarly, another government official stated

The stakeholders that are involved in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries include community members, the village heads, social workers and the ward councillors.

The above stated responses indicated that while various stakeholders participated in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries, community members played main roles in the selection and nomination of eligible children. Stakeholders including ward counsellors, NGO's, social workers, ward counsellors and Village Heads and Chiefs are invited throughout the selection process, however their role is to oversee if the correct procedures are being taken, they do not take up major roles in the selection process (Dhlembeu, 2004; GOZ, 2015).

8.7.2 Theme 2: Well-structured and transparent selection process of beneficiaries of BEAM

One of the themes that emerged from the study was that the selection process of BEAM beneficiaries was well structured and transparent. One government official explained procedures taken in selecting BEAM beneficiaries and said that

First and foremost, those parents or guardians who want their children to be considered for BEAM are given nomination forms, which are also called application forms for BEAM. The parents and guardians are required to fill in and submit the forms to the schools. After that, the Community Selection Committee convene a meeting with the community members and stakeholders, eligible students are nominated during the meeting. After the meeting, the Community Selection Committee then take up the role of ranking the applications, according to their family backgrounds and level of need. The ranking of applicants is done through the information that they provide on the application forms and during the meeting. After that, the Community Selection

Committee then submits the final list of selected beneficiaries to the school principals or teachers that are responsible for BEAM. The list is then submitted to this department which is the Department of Social Welfare; we then submit the final list to the Department of Education and from there, the list is submitted at the headquarters, which is the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, for final approval. After that, the final list of beneficiaries is then distributed to the District Education Office and then submitted to the schools, where the list is placed on notice boards for all teachers, students and parents to see. The reason behind displaying the final list of beneficiaries is to maintain transparency and to give community members who may have grievances a chance to report their concerns to the Community Selection Committee or the Department of Social Welfare. Students that make it to the final list are also informed and are also told to inform their parents about their successful applications on BEAM.

In support of this view, another government official said

When it's time for new selections, parents are informed about the availability of application forms, through the schools and the Community Selection Committee. The parents or caregivers then fill in the application forms and submit them back to the schools. After that the Community Selection Committee then conveys a meeting with the parents and community members, the nomination of beneficiaries takes place in this meeting, all members who attend the meeting are given fair chances to express their views and to nominate the neediest children who require assistance from BEAM. After that, the Community Selection Committee coveys another meeting in which they come up with the final list of beneficiaries of BEAM. The list is then submitted to the Department of Social Welfare and the Ministry of Labour and Social Services for final approval.

In general, BEAM is well structured and is based on the selection of the neediest members of society. Firstly parents/guardians/caregivers of BEAM beneficiaries who require BEAM assistance fill in the application forms of BEAM and submit them to the schools which their children attend. The next step is the nomination of deserving beneficiaries in a meeting in which involved stakeholders and community members attend (GOZ, 2016). After the meeting of nominating beneficiaries, the Community Selection Committee then conducts a meeting in which the most deserving beneficiaries are selected (Roelen et al., 2011). Thus, the selection

of BEAM beneficiaries is based on a transparent and well thought out process which allows for the selection of eligible children.

8.7.3 Theme 3: Community participation

One theme that emerged from the collected data was that implementation of BEAM at a local level allows for community participation in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries. One government official explained the active involvement of community members in selecting BEAM beneficiaries and said

> *The parents, caregivers and the community members are the main actors in selecting beneficiaries. The active participation of the community during the selection process enables them to drive the program, they are the owners of this programme and their accountability of the whole process is very important in ensuring that transparency is maintained throughout the whole process. Community members are the ones who nominate and select the deserving participants, reason being they reside with each other in the same community and are aware of those households that are living poverty and are unable to send children to school. There is no way in which us as social workers can be able to go to these schools and select deserving beneficiaries, we lack adequate knowledge on the living standards of these families, the community members know best and they are the best group to drive the selection process.*

On a similar note, another government official mentioned

> *Parents and guardians are the most important group in selecting beneficiaries, they are the ones that are well informed about the backgrounds of these children and its easy for them to make recommendations on those students that are deserving of BEAM benefits.*

The above responses indicate that the implementation of BEAM at a local level supports the active involvement of the community in the development of their communities. Community participation is enhanced by giving community members a platform to participate in the nomination and selection of beneficiaries. Community participation is regarded as a way of enhancing the social inclusion of vulnerable members of society. As stated by Kaseke (2004) the effective implementation of social protection programmes is enhanced by promoting

community participation, as it enables beneficiaries to expose their own needs and to suggest best ways of addressing such needs.

8.7.4 Theme 4: Gender equity

The promotion of gender equity was identified as a major principle which informs the implementation of BEAM. In explaining this, one governmental official noted that

> *We always encourage women to be actively involved in the Community Selection Committee, we prioritise their involvement in matters pertaining children because women are always concerned about the wellness of children, we also believe women are more informed about the needs of children and they understand the challenges that are faced by children better than man, thus their involvement in the selection process is very important. In actual fact, we always try to ensure that 50% of members of the Community Selection Committee are women.*

Another government official confirmed

> *Women are considered when forming all committees that are concerned with BEAM. We always strive to ensure that there is a gender balance in selecting members of the Community Selecting Committee, there are women in each and every Community Selection Committee and they actively participate in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries.*

As stated by the Government of Zimbabwe et al. (2016) 50% of community members selected as members of the Community Selection Committee should be women. The reasoning behind this is to promote the involvement of women in development initiatives and to promote gender equity. In addition, the selection process of BEAM beneficiaries is largely informed by gender equity. One government official stated that

> *Gender equity is highly considered during the selection process of beneficiaries of BEAM, it clearly stipulated on the BEAM manual that 50% of the learners on BEAM should be females, we always make sure that there is a balance between girls and boys.*

Similarly, another government official noted that

> *We always make sure there is gender balance when BEAM beneficiaries are selected, if it's not 50-50, we always make sure that there are more girls than boys on the programme.*

Gender equity is one of the major principles that inform the provision of social protection services (Barbier, 2016). Historically, women and children have been referred as vulnerable members of society, and this is largely due to their susceptibility to childhood marriages, abuse and lack of access to education (UN, 2015). Zimbabwe's rural areas are characterised by high rates of school dropouts among girl children, and some of the reasons behind dropping out of school include poverty, lack of prioritisation of girl child education and cultural beliefs that support child marriages (UNICEF, 2011). In most African countries, women have less opportunities of attaining education compared to men (Verheul et al, 2006). BEAM seeks to break gender related issues that impede the equal involvement of women and girl children in the social and economic development of society (GOZ, 2016). In doing so, BEAM is honouring the fifth SDG which support the involvement of women and girl children in the social and economic development of their communities. Furthermore, BEAM promotes the fourth SDG which is focused on promoting equal access to education.

8.7.5 Theme 5: BEAM benefits and categories of eligible children

One of the themes that emerged from the study was that benefits provided under BEAM are school and examination fees. Children who are eligible for BEAM benefits include double orphans, maternal orphans, paternal orphans , children who are living with HIV/ADS and other chronic illnesses, disabled children, children who dropped out of school, children living in child headed households, neglected children and non-orphans whose parents/guardians/caregivers maybe old aged, unemployed or living in poverty. One government official explained factors considered when selecting BEAM beneficiaries and the nature of BEAM benefits and said

> *The benefits that are under BEAM include school and examination fees. Children that benefit from BEAM are double orphans, maternal orphans, paternal orphans, children living with HIV/AIDS or other chronic illnesses, disabled children, children living in a household headed by an elderly person or a chronically ill person, children who stay in child headed households and children who dropped out of school.*

Another government official shared the same sentiment and said

> *BEAM benefits are school fees and examination fees. We give first preference to double orphans, secondly, we focus of maternal orphans and thirdly paternal orphans, we also consider children living with disabilities and school dropouts, we also consider children who are living with disabled parents or caregivers, and those children under the care old aged individuals.*

From the given responses, it can be noted that BEAM benefits are provided for children who are living in extreme deprivation. The Government of Zimbabwe (2014) states that BEAM is focused on enhancing access to education through enabling OVCs to attain primary and secondary education. Children who qualify for BEAM benefits are unable to meet their education needs through their parents/guardians/caregivers, thus the government intervenes to provide the needed support (GOZ & UNICEF, 2012).

8.7.6 Theme 6: Nominations

One theme that emerged from the study was that another criteria used in selecting BEAM beneficiaries was through nominations by social workers, community leaders and educators. One government official stated that

> *There have been cases in which the social workers from the Department of Social Welfare and community leaders recommend on children who should be on BEAM. In these cases, we then fill in application forms on behalf of parents of these children or we give the children the application forms and instruct them to hand them to their parents or care givers, for them to fill in and submit to the school.*

Another government official echoed the same sentiment and said

> *Educators also nominate children who they feel should be BEAM beneficiaries, there are cases in which children who are from child headed households do not have anyone to stand for them during the application process. In such cases, educators take the responsibility of applying for these children.*

The responses given by government officials show that children whose parents/guardians/caregivers do not apply for BEAM benefits receive support from community leaders, educators and social workers. Teachers nominate some children for BEAM because

through teaching children and conversing with them, they can easily pick children who are living in extreme poverty. Village heads are also in a good position to nominate children for BEAM since they know living condition of families who live in communities which they head. Similarly, social workers get to know the living conditions of children through interacting with them or their families, thus their input is important in selecting BEAM beneficiaries. Children who stay in child headed families are not able to apply BEAM without any adult representing them, the extra support provided in enabling such children to access education through BEAM ensures that most needy children are able to access education.

8.7.7 Theme 7: Poverty alleviation

Another theme that emerged in data analyses was that BEAM is a poverty alleviation strategy. One government official said that

> *BEAM targets the most vulnerable households; The fact that children who reside in these households are given an opportunity to attain education helps in enabling these children to become independent and to be able to assist their families. Poverty is linked to one's level of education, so the moment a child gets access to education, the vulnerability of that child is lessened as he/she is provided with an opportunity of attaining a better future. Additionally, BEAM is part of the Enhanced Social Protection Project, which is a broad range of programmes that are aimed at alleviating poverty. Regardless of the resource constraints that are faced by our government; BEAM goes a long way in alleviating poverty. At the end of the day, if a child manages to sail through primary and secondary education, that child would be able to find a job and provide care for his/her family; thus, attaining economic emancipation within households that are living in poverty.*

On a similar note, another government official confirmed

> *BEAM has been very helpful in alleviating poverty in our district, BEAM beneficiaries who manage to excel in school are able to seek employment and provide for their families and also help in paying for educational expenses for their siblings. The programme has enhanced the lives of so many families through giving children from poor families an opportunity to attain education and become independent adults, thus escaping poverty. We now have increased numbers of educated individuals in our*

District and this is because of the effort put by the government to eradicate poverty through enabling orphans and vulnerable children to access to education.

The World Bank (2015) noted that social protection programmes are aimed at addressing poverty. BEAM alleviates poverty through enabling children from disadvantaged backgrounds to access education. Education attainment is regarded as a way of escaping poverty as it enables BEAM beneficiaries to become self-sufficient. Upon completing secondary education, beneficiaries are able to seek employment and support their families. The objective of BEAM is to alleviate poverty though enhancing education access for OVCs (Gandure, 2009). Henceforth, BEAM contributes towards eradicating poverty in Gutu District.

8.7.8 Theme 8: Aspects that are easy to implement during the selection process of BEAM beneficiaries

Government officials noted that the involvement of community members in nominating and selecting BEAM beneficiaries made the implementation of BEAM easy. One government official explained this and said

The ranking of prospective beneficiaries is also very easy to implement because it is done by community members who know the living conditions of applications. The community members have got sense of ownership of this programme, they actively participate in all selection procedures and they are the ones who nominate each other for BEAM , this makes It easy for us to make informed decisions when coming up with the final list of BEAM beneficiaries.

On a similar note, another government official noted that

The selection process of beneficiaries is very easy to implement, the involvement of parents and guardians in the selection process enables us to enhance fairness and transparency in selecting the beneficiaries. We do not have adequate information on the backgrounds and living conditions of prospective beneficiaries, however we do not struggle in choosing the most deserving beneficiaries because parents and community members are also there to provide us with the information we require.

The aforementioned responses indicate that the involvement of community members in selecting BEAM beneficiaries facilitated the smooth implementation of BEAM. Community

involvement ensures the selection of eligible children on the programme (GOZ,2015). As indicated by Paes-Sousa et al. (2013) the involvement of community members in selecting eligible beneficiaries is the most efficient way of avoiding exclusion and exclusion errors that may exist in selecting beneficiaries of social protection programmes.

8.7.9 Theme 9: Inconsistency and inadequacy

Another theme that emerged from the study was that BEAM benefits were inadequate and inconsistent. One government official elaborated on this and said

> *If I were in charge of BEAM, I would improve on the nature of benefits that are provided under BEAM. I would expand the benefits such that the programme does not only focus on providing school and examination fees, sometimes we have situations in which BEAM beneficiaries do not have school uniforms and stationery. When it comes to examination fees, the programme only covers 5 core subjects, including Maths, English, Science and one practical subject. This makes the learning process complicated, it is more like imprisoning children, imagine a child having to go to school without basic learning materials. I would also improve the budgetary allocation for BEAM, it is very low, as a result, most of the children who deserve to be on BEAM are not benefiting from the programme. As much as we are trying to avoid school dropouts, we end up having many of these cases because the majority of deserving children are not on BEAM.*

Another government official shared the same views and said

> *If I were in charge of BEAM, I would improve on the disbursement of funds to schools and ensure that funds are being paid on time. BEAM funds are very inconsistent. The last time we received BEAM funds in primary schools was in 2017 and in secondary schools BEAM payments were last made in 2016. This inconsistency in paying school and examination fees is comprising the effectives of the programme, a lot of children ended up dropping out of school because of this. The schools have also been struggling with providing enough resources for BEAM beneficiaries since they have been attending school for a long time without any payments, in primary schools, students on BEAM have been going to school for 3 full years without any payments from the government, and it has been 2 years in secondary schools.*

The responses given by government officials revealed that the effectiveness of BEAM in ensuring that OVCs remain in school was compromised by the fact that BEAM only provided school fees and a limited amount of examination fees, while ignoring other needs such as school uniforms and stationery. Due to inconsistences related to the payment of BEAM funds, beneficiaries end up dropping out of school. The provision of BEAM benefits is informed by the neoliberal theory which is based on the notion that government assistance should be provided on minimum basis (Peck et al., 2018). The reason behind the provision of minimum benefits is to avoid a situation in which beneficiaries become overdependent on social protection benefits (Rodgers, 2018). BEAM benefits are minimum in the sense that the programme does not cover all educational needs of beneficiaries. Kaseke (2012) stated that social protection benefits in Zimbabwe are inconsistence and inadequate due to the financial difficulties that have been faced by GOZ.

8.8 GUIDELINES TO ENHANCE THE USEFULNESS OF BEAM IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE.

The seventh objective of this study sought to develop guidelines to enhance the usefulness of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. Guidelines are informed by the researcher's observations and responses given by participants as discussed in relation to the first six objectives. In addition, the proposed guidelines are informed by existing literature regarding the contribution of BEAM in enhancing access to education for OVCs. It is anticipated that the stated guidelines in Table 8.8 below will be helpful in enhancing the usefulness of BEAM.

Table 8.8 Guidelines to enhance the usefulness of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

Guidelines
Skills building programmes for parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM
Improved budgetary allocations for BEAM
Enhanced focus on the educational attainment of BEAM beneficiaries
Community workshops to raise awareness on BEAM
Yearly applications
The establishment of feeding programmes for beneficiaries of BEAM
The implementation of counselling services for OVCs and their families

This section provides a discussion of guidelines on enhancing the usefulness of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe.

8.8.1 Guideline1: Skills building programmes for parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM

The findings of this study revealed that of the 60 participants that were interviewed by the researcher only three of them were employed and only one participant was considered to be literate. The vast majority of research participants were illiterate and unemployed.

Gutu is characterised by high rates of unemployment and poverty (UNICEF, 2015; WB, 2017). The United Nations Children's Fund (2015) states that high rates of poverty in Gutu District are attributed the fact that the majority of the population is unemployed. Due to high illiteracy levels and unemployment rates among participants, it is suggested that social protection programmes should be extended to providing parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM with skills on building projects or programmes which provide education and training on dressmaking, fishing, basketry weaving and any other related enterprises. It is anticipated that such programmes will be useful in enabling parents/guardians/caregivers of BEAM beneficiaries to engage in income generating activities which would enable them to better address their financial needs. The provision of life skills training programmes is a fundamental way empowering beneficiaries to become self-sustaining (Holmes et al., 2012b; Nyatsanza & Hlatywayo, 2012; UN, 2007). Similarly, Barrientos et al. (2009) are of the view that the development of skills building programmes for beneficiaries of social protection enables them to become financially independent.

Skills building programmes are likely to reduce the high levels of poverty that prevail in Gutu District. The International Labour Organisation (2013) states that the challenges faced by children mirrors the living conditions of their parents or care providers, hence it is impossible to effectively address those challenges in isolation of their families. The most effective way of enhancing the wellness of OVCs in Gutu District is to include the needs presented by parents/guardians/caregivers in the provision of social protection services. It is anticipated that including the families of OVCs in initiatives that are focused on alleviating poverty will be effective in addressing poverty in a comprehensive manner.

8.8.2 Guideline 2: Improved budgetary allocations for BEAM

The findings of the study revealed that there were several aspects that reduced the effectiveness of BEAM in enhancing access to education for OVCs in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. This realisation stemmed from five factors, namely; the exclusion of eligible children, partial payment of O-Level examination fees, the exclusion of other educational needs, the exclusion of first school term fees for newly recruited beneficiaries and the existence of inconsistences in the payment of BEAM funds. The above stated challenges are discussed below. Some suggestions are proposed towards addressing some of these challenges.

The results of the study revealed that there are limited numbers in selecting BEAM beneficiaries and this leads to the exclusion of some OVCs on the programme. BEAM is not as comprehensive as is expected due to the fact that large numbers of eligible children are not on the programme (Maushe, 2014). The exclusion of eligible children on BEAM is due to the low budgetary allocations for BEAM (Kaseke, 2012; WB, 2018). The underfunding of BEAM leads to the exclusion of eligible children on the programme and this leads to school dropouts amongst children from low income households (Mutenga, 2014). It is suggested that there should be increased budgetary allocations for BEAM. This will enable the recruitment of larger numbers of OVCs on the programme.

High rates of school dropouts in Zimbabwe are attributed to poverty, as parents/guardians/caregivers from impoverished families cannot meet the financial requirements of sending children to school (UNICEF, 2015). It is anticipated that increased numbers of BEAM beneficiaries will lead to decreased rates in school dropouts. It is expected that increased social spending on BEAM will increase access to education for OVCs. It is hoped that the number of school dropouts in Gutu District will decrease once the programme becomes comprehensive. In addition, it is hoped that the increased budgetary allocations for BEAM will facilitate efforts towards achieving the objective of BEAM, which is to alleviate poverty through enhancing access to primary and secondary education for OVCs.

The findings of the study revealed that BEAM does not pay full examination fees for beneficiaries but pays half of the subjects which beneficiaries write for O-Level examinations. The World Bank (2018) states that BEAM covers half of O-level examination fees. It is suggested that the budgetary allocations for BEAM should be extended to cover all O-Level examinations. It is hoped that covering all O-Level examinations will lessen the financial

burden on parents/guardians/caregivers as they are faced with the financial responsibilities of paying examination fees for O-Level subjects that are not covered on BEAM.

Responses given by participants and key informants indicated that BEAM does not address all educational needs of beneficiaries. The effectiveness of BEAM is undermined by the fact that the programme does not cover other educational needs, which include school uniforms and books (Mutenga, 2014; UNICEF, 2012). Participants indicated that they could not afford to meet educational expenses which included school uniforms and text books. It is suggested that the budgetary allocations for BEAM should be improved to cover other educational costs which are not provided on BEAM. Parents/guardians/caregivers indicated that they could not afford to meet educational expenses that were not covered on BEAM. The International Labour Organisation (2015) argues that efforts should be made towards improving the quality of social protection programmes that are aimed at responding to the needs of OVCs. It is hoped that the improved coverage of BEAM benefits will ensure sure that beneficiaries are provided with all materials that are needed for them to perform to their optimal capabilities in school

The findings of the study revealed that BEAM does not pay the first term school fees for newly recruited beneficiaries. It is suggested that the programme should pay school fees for all three school terms. It is hoped that this will lessen situations in which parents/guardians/ caregivers are given the responsibility of paying school fees for beneficiaries of BEAM. The findings of the study indicated that BEAM funds had not been disbursed in secondary and high schools in Gutu District since 2017. The last payment in primary schools was last made in 2016. It is suggested that budgetary allocations for BEAM should be improved to allow the timely disbursements of BEAM funds. This would reduce situations in which beneficiaries miss school as they are often sent home to collect outstanding school fees which is supposed to have been covered by the BEAM programme.

The findings of the study revealed that the inconsistences that existed in BEAM payments led to some beneficiaries dropping out of school. It is suggested that improved budgetary allocation should be made on BEAM. It is anticipated that this will lessen the number of children dropping out of school in Gutu District.

The findings of the study also revealed the inconsistences in the payment of BEAM funds resulted in some beneficiaries being unable to collect grade seven and O-Level results because they were required to pay outstanding fees before they could collect results. Parents/ guardians/beneficiaries of BEAM are regarded as individuals who are living in chronic poverty

(GOZ, 2016). Thus, they did not have the financial capacity to pay the outstanding fees. It is suggested that BEAM budgetary allocations should be improved to address the inconsistences that exist in paying beneficiaries' school fees. This will eliminate delays that are faced by some BEAM beneficiaries in collecting results.

8.8.3 Guideline 3: Enhanced focus on the educational attainment of BEAM beneficiaries

The findings of the study revealed that some beneficiaries of BEAM were removed from the programme before they attained basic education. The removal of children form BEAM in primary and secondary school led to some children dropping out of school as parents/guardians/caregivers could not afford to send them to school. Some beneficiaries were removed from BEAM during years in which they were writing national examinations, this was a huge inconvenience for them as they were left without school and examination fees. Parents/guardians/caregivers whose children were removed from BEAM in primary or secondary school faced financial responsibilities which they could not address. As a result, most of the affected children dropped out of school. Some children faced challenges in transitioning from primary school to secondary school due to the fact that their BEAM applications for form one had been unsuccessful. The World Bank (2018) states that some BEAM beneficiaries end up dropping out of school as they are removed from the programme before attaining education.

It is suggested that BEAM beneficiaries should be given an opportunity to attend both primary and secondary school, and this can be achieved by ensuring that children who are BEAM beneficiaries in primary school are given an opportunity to attend secondary school, which allows for easy transition of beneficiaries from primary to secondary school. The fact that some BEAM beneficiaries drop out of school before attaining primary and secondary education compromises the effectiveness of BEAM in ensuring that beneficiaries attain basic education (Maushe, 2014).

The removal of children who would be looking forward to writing national examinations from BEAM also places a financial burden on parents/guardians/ caregivers who are faced with financial responsibilities of paying school and examination fees which they cannot afford. It is proposed that children who are BEAM beneficiaries in secondary or high schools should be given an opportunity to stay on the programme until they attain secondary or high school

education, it is expected that this will reduce the possibility of children dropping out of school. It is further suggested that BEAM beneficiaries who would be writing national exams in grade seven, form four and form six should not be removed from BEAM as this places emotional distress on children as they worry about the uncertainties of attaining basic education.

8.8.4 Guideline 4: Community workshops to raise awareness on BEAM

The findings of the study revealed that some parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM showed little enthusiasm regarding applying for BEAM, as they did not make efforts to apply for BEAM yet they were struggling with paying school fees. It is suggested that community workshops on BEAM should be conducted by stakeholders including social workers from the Department of Social Welfare, the District Remedial Tutors and educators who are responsible for the management of BEAM. It is hoped that such workshops will raise community awareness on the importance of educating children and the role played by BEAM in alleviating poverty. In addition, it is anticipated that community workshops on BEAM will be useful in empowering community members by involving them in the implementation of BEAM. The involvement of community members in social protection programmes that are aimed at developing their communities is a way of empowering them and giving them a sense of ownership of such programmes (Paes-Sousa et al., 2013; WB, 2018).

Given that the majority of parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM were illiterate, it is hoped that educating community members on the importance of sending children to school will be effective in mitigating an intergenerational cycle in which high illiteracy rates prevail among low income families.

The findings of the study revealed that some members of the community thought that every child had the right to be on BEAM. Community workshops on BEAM will be effective in educating community members on the selection criteria used to select BEAM beneficiaries, and categories of children who are eligible for BEAM. It is anticipated that such workshops will impart knowledge on the operation of BEAM. The Mothers' Clubs of Benin, for example, raised awareness on the importance of sending children to school and led to a 30% increase in school attendance rates (UNDP, 2010b). It is anticipated that community workshops on BEAM will reduce the likelihood of children dropping out of school in the sense that parent/guardians/caregivers who face financial struggles in paying school fees will apply for BEAM and ensure that their children remain in school.

8.8.5 Guideline 5: Yearly applications

The findings of the study revealed that BEAM applications were carried out on an annual basis. BEAM applications are renewed yearly, that is, is parents/guardians/beneficiaries are mandated to apply every year, regardless of the fact that their BEAM applicants were successful the previous year/s (GOZ, 2016). Participants indicated that they found yearly applications to be inconvenient for them due to the fact that they had to travel long distances to schools to submit application forms and to attend BEAM meetings. Some participants suffered ill-health and some were old aged and disabled. Thus, it was difficult for them to travel to the schools on yearly basis.

It is suggested that BEAM applications should be done once and then children who become eligible stay on the programme until they finish primary and secondary education. The yearly applications of BEAM also led to the removal of beneficiaries from the programme before they attained education. This led to school dropouts among children whose applications were unsuccessful. It is suggested that children who are on BEAM should be given an opportunity to stay on the programme until the completion of primary and secondary school. It is hoped that ensuring that beneficiaries manage to attend primary and secondary school will facilitate efforts towards meeting the objective of BEAM, which is enable beneficiaries to attain basic education.

8.8.6 Guideline 6: The establishment of feeding programmes for beneficiaries of BEAM

The findings of the study revealed that some BEAM beneficiaries came to school without food in instances where their parents/guardians/caregivers did not have food to pack for them. It is suggested that a feeding programme, which provides a meal during school hours should be established for BEAM beneficiaries. It is hoped that this initiative will help to enhance their nutritional status and physical wellness of beneficiaries. The provision of feeding programmes is effective in reducing the effects of malnutrition and ill-health amongst OVCs (Holmes & Jones, 2010b; Ortiz et al., 2010). It is vital to pay attention to children's nutritional needs because their wellness is directly linked to their educational performance and attainment (Bastagli et al., 2016). Feeding programmes are effective in improving school attendance rates and in lessening school dropouts (ILO, 2014; World Bank, 2012a).

Evidence drawn from Junaeb of Chile suggested that the programme was effective in enhancing school enrolments and educational outcomes of beneficiaries (McEwan, 2013). In Bangladesh, the Food for Education programme led to increased participation of children in schools (Meng & Ryan, 2007). It is hoped that the provision of meals for BEAM beneficiaries will lessen the likelihood of beneficiaries dropping out of school or missing school during times when they would not be having food to eat at school. Feeding programmes that are implemented in schools have synergies with the first SDG which is to alleviate poverty (Gelli et al., 2007; Sanchez et al., 2015b). It is anticipated that the provision of a feeding programme will facilitate efforts towards meeting the goal of BEAM which is to alleviate poverty.

8.8.7 Guideline 7: The implementation of counselling services for OVCs and their families

The findings of the study revealed that the majority of BEAM beneficiaries were living in poverty stricken families the majority of them had lost one or both parents. Given that OVCs and their families face various socio- economic challenges which are associated with losing loved ones, while some have ill-health and live with disabilities, it is suggested that OVCs and their families should be provided with counselling amenities by social workers from the Department of Social Welfare. It is hoped that counselling services will assist BEAM beneficiaries and their families in dealing with challenges that they face in their daily lives. OVCs often suffer emotional distress that is mainly caused by losing parents through death (Tigere, 2016; UNICEF, 2009). The provision of counselling services for OVCs and their families is crucial in addressing the psychosocial effects of trauma, bereavement and depression (Killiam, 2009; Mugurungi, 2006). Powel et al. (2004) suggest that counselling services enhance the psychological wellness of OVCs and their families.

According to Barrientos et al. (2013), the most effective way of addressing the needs of OVCs in a holistic manner is to link child protection and social protection services. OVCs do not only need material support, but require psychological support as a way of assisting them in coping with social challenges which may include loss of a parent, abuse and lack of emotional support (Nyawasha, 2006; Serey et al., 2011). If issues that undermine the physical and emotional wellness of OVCs and their families are left undressed, they may end up experiencing burnouts that are characterised by mental exhaustion and chronic stress (Mwona & Pillay, 2015). It is envisaged that the provision of counselling services for BEAM

beneficiaries will enable them to receive emotional support in coping with the loss of one or both parents and in addressing challenges which they may be facing.

SUMMARY

This chapter provided a presentation and discussion of the findings of the study. Themes that emerged from the study were discussed in relation to the objectives of the study. The chapter began by discussing the profiles of parents/guardians/caregivers and BEAM beneficiaries and concluded by stating the proposed guidelines to enhance the usefulness of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. The next chapter is a concluding chapter that presents the main findings, conclusions and recommendations of this study.

CHAPTER 9

MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1. INTRODUCTION

BEAM has been providing education benefits for OVCs for the past 20 years and remains the largest social protection programme in Zimbabwe. This study sought to establish how BEAM enables OVCs to access education in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. This study aimed to contribute to knowledge on BEAM and to propose guidelines that enhance the usefulness of the programme. This chapter presents the main findings, conclusions and recommendations that were drawn from the study.

9.2. RESEARCH QUESTION

The overarching research question for this study is: how does the Zimbabwean Basic Education Assistance Module enable orphans and vulnerable children to access and achieve education?

The following are sub-questions

1. What are the experiences of parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries about the implementation of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe?
2. What are the experiences of educators involved with the operationalisation of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe?
3. What are the views of government officials about the implementation of BEAM in Gutu District Zimbabwe?

9.3. AIM AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The aim of the study is to establish how the Zimbabwean Basic Education Assistance Module enables orphans and vulnerable children to access education. The aim of the study was achieved through the following objectives:

Objective 1

The first objective of the study was to establish the profiles of parents/guardians/caregivers and beneficiaries of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. This objective was achieved by asking participants about their demographic profiles. In addition, the study of literature on Gutu District contributed to the achievement of the objective.

Objective 2

The second objective of the study was to explore the experiences of parents/guardians /caregivers of beneficiaries on the selection process and the provision of BEAM. The researcher achieved this objective through asking participants to state their experiences and views regarding the selection of BEAM beneficiaries and the provision of BEAM.

Objective 3

The third objective of the study was to explore the perceptions of the parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM about the contributions of the programme in enabling beneficiaries to access education and remain in school. This objective was investigated by asking participants to state their insights regarding ways in which BEAM enabled beneficiaries to access education and to remain in school until they attained primary and secondary education.

Objective 4

The fourth objective sought to explore educators' experiences when operationalising the Basic Education Assistance Module to beneficiaries in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. This objective was achieved by engaging with educators on issues relating to procedures taken during the implementation of BEAM at a local level.

Objective 5

The fifth objective of the study was to determine the challenges associated with the provision of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. This objective was achieved by gathering participants'

insights regarding challenges that were faced by participants and beneficiaries regarding the provision of BEAM.

Objective 6

The sixth objective sought to explore the perceptions of government officials about the implementation of BEAM. This objective was achieved through asking government officials questions which were related to procedures and principles that inform the implementation of BEAM.

Objective 7

The seventh objective sought to develop guidelines to enhance the usefulness of BEAM in Gutu District, Zimbabwe. The researcher achieved this objective through analysing existing literature on the contribution of BEAM in enhancing access to education for OVCs. In addition, guidelines are informed by the responses given by participants and observations made by the researcher.

9.4. KEY FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Finding 1: Illiteracy, unemployment and poverty

The findings of the study revealed that the majority of participants were illiterate. Only one participant attained primary and secondary education. Some participants attended both primary and secondary education but did not manage to pass at secondary school level. Some participants dropped out of school in primary school and some dropped out in secondary school. Poverty was given as the reason behind high illiteracy rates among participants.

The United Nations Children's Fund (2015) states that low income families are often incapable of meeting the educational needs of children due to poverty. Participants stated that their families could not afford to pay their school fees due to poverty. As a result, they dropped out of school. Some participants revealed that they could not afford to repeat form four after failing exams because their families could not afford to pay the required school and examination fees.

It emerged that the majority of research participants were unemployed. Only 3 out of 60 participants were employed. Old age, ill health and disability were given as the reasons behind the high prevalence of unemployment among participants. Some participants indicated that they were old aged and thus it was not ideal for them to seek employment. Fourteen participants were between the ages of 65 and 78 and were not fit to engage in any form of income generating activities. Some participants stated that they suffered ill health and this was the reason why they could not be permanently employed. Health related challenges that were faced by participants included eyesight problems, physical challenges associated with medical operations and mobility challenges that were a result of disabilities.

It was noted that BEAM beneficiaries were living in low-income households characterised by extreme poverty. Participants indicated that they applied for BEAM because they were living in poverty, thus they could not afford to pay school fees for children who were under their care. The results of the study are in harmony with the findings of several scholars (Gandure, 2009; GOZ, 2016; Kaseke, 2012; Mutenga, 2014; WB, 2018) who stated that BEAM provides education benefits for OVCs who reside in households that suffer chronic poverty.

Conclusion on Finding 1

Participants were living in chronic poverty, as the majority of them were unemployed and suffered vulnerabilities associated with ill health, disability and old age. Although a small fraction of participants were employed, they still could not afford to meet the educational needs of children who were under their custodianship. The findings indicated that there is a correlation between poverty and illiteracy, as the majority of participants did not attain education because their families could not afford to send them to school.

Finding 2: Participants' understanding of BEAM and its objectives

The findings of the study revealed that participants understood BEAM as a government programme that is aimed at reducing school dropouts amongst OVCs, and alleviating the poverty OVCs. Some participants indicated that BEAM is aimed at reducing school dropouts through ensuring that children from poor families are provided with educational benefits which their families cannot afford. Other participants were of the view that BEAM alleviates poverty by ensuring that OVCs get an opportunity to attain education and eventually escape poverty once they manage to join the workforce. Some participants indicated that the objective of

BEAM was to enable beneficiaries to be self-sustaining, that is, to enable them to become adults who are equipped to address their financial needs upon getting employed.

Conclusion on Finding 2

Participants regarded BEAM as a programme which is aimed enhancing the wellness of beneficiaries and their families through alleviating poverty, reducing school dropouts and enabling beneficiaries to become financially independent.

Finding 3: Key informants' understanding of BEAM and its objectives

The findings of the study indicated that educators understood BEAM as a programme which is focused on alleviating poverty through providing educational benefits for OVCs. Educators indicated that improved access to education led to decreased levels of poverty in Gutu District. Educators indicated that attaining primary and secondary education enabled beneficiaries to advance to tertiary education or vocational skills training programmes which enabled them to seek employment and be in a position to better address their financial needs and those of their families.

The findings of the study indicated that government officials regarded BEAM as a poverty alleviation strategy which facilitated access to education for OVCs. It emerged that education and poverty were linked in the sense that attaining education enabled BEAM beneficiaries to escape poverty once they got employed and started generating income. Upon being employed, beneficiaries became better equipped in addressing their needs, thus escaping poverty.

Conclusion on finding 3

The education attainment of BEAM beneficiaries is regarded as a way of escaping poverty, as this enables OVCs to become self-sufficient.

Finding 4: The eligibility criteria for BEAM

The third finding revealed that children who were eligible for BEAM included single and double orphans, non-orphans from low-income households, disabled children who were living in extreme deprivation and children who were under the guardianship of old aged, chronically

ill and disabled parents/guardians/caregivers. It emerged that double orphans received first preference in selecting BEAM beneficiaries, and they were more likely to drop out of school due to lack of parental support. Findings indicated that maternal orphans received more preference than paternal orphans, and this stemmed from the perception that mother figures were more concerned about the education and overall wellness of children and their absence in children's lives placed them at the risk of dropping out of school.

Conclusion on Finding 4

Children who met the eligibility criteria for BEAM were single and double orphans, disabled children and children from low income households. In addition, children under the care of old aged, chronically ill and disabled parents/guardians/caregivers were eligible for BEAM.

Finding 5: Support in completing application forms

It emerged that some participants required assistance in completing application forms, given that BEAM application forms were written in English which is not the mother tongue of participants the majority of whom were illiterate. Participants who required assistance in completing application forms indicated that they received the needed support from the educators, principals and deputy principals who were responsible for managing BEAM. It emerged that participants did not face any challenges during the application process of BEAM as it was not a complex process which only involved the filling in and submission of application forms to the responsible educators.

Conclusion on Finding 5

Educators, principals and deputy principals provided support for participants who needed assistance in completing application forms.

Finding 6: Community involvement in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries

The study revealed that the selection of BEAM beneficiaries was concentrated at the local level and was the responsibility of community members. The CSC consisted of members of the community who were knowledgeable about the living standards of community members. The

CSC and community members took leading roles in nominating and selecting BEAM beneficiaries.

Community members were placed at the forefront in the nomination and selection of BEAM beneficiaries because they were well informed of the living standards of BEAM applicants. They were in the best position to select eligible children. The nomination of BEAM beneficiaries was achieved during meetings which were chaired by the CSC, and some of the stakeholders who attended meetings included community members, Ward Councillors and social workers from the Department of Social Welfare.

The shortlisting of beneficiaries was done at meetings which were held by the CSC after the nomination meetings. The final list of beneficiaries was then submitted to educators responsible for managing BEAM who then submitted the list to the District Social Services Officer for verification, the list was submitted to the District Schools Inspector who also verified the list and submitted it to the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare for final verification and approval before its submission to PMU.

The list of successful applicants was communicated through the schools and village heads. The findings of the study indicated that the active involvement community members in the selection process of BEAM made the selection process easy for involved stakeholders. It emerged those other stakeholders had no knowledge of the living conditions of individuals who applied for BEAM. However, community members were well informed about the living conditions of each other, they provided vital information which allowed for the selection of eligible children. It emerged that community members had a sense of ownership of BEAM as they actively participated throughout the whole selection process.

Conclusion on Finding 6

Community members were mainly involved in the selection of BEAM beneficiaries, their knowledge on the living conditions of fellow community members was crucial in ensuring that eligible children were selected for BEAM.

Finding 7: Nominations by social workers, educators and community leaders

The findings of the study indicated that another criteria used in selecting BEAM beneficiaries was through their nominations by social workers, educators and community leaders. It

emerged that there were cases in which social workers from the Department of Social Welfare and educators within the selected schools took the responsibility of submitting application forms for children whom they regarded as being eligible for BEAM. Educators also issued application forms to eligible children and instructed them to hand them in to their parents/guardians/caregivers, for them to complete and submit them to the relevant offices. Community leaders also took the responsibility of nominating children for BEAM but did not oversee the selection process as it was the responsibility of the CSC and community members.

Conclusion on finding 7

Social workers, educators and community leaders took active roles in nominating eligible children for BEAM.

Finding 8: The promotion of gender equity

The findings of the study indicated that the promotion of gender equity guided all procedures that were taken in implementing BEAM. The formation of CSCs was guided by the principle that at least 50% of the committee should be women. This was done to promote the social inclusion of women in development initiatives. The active involvement of women in the implementation of BEAM was through their participation in BEAM meetings, which were held by the CSC to nominate and select BEAM beneficiaries. Women were considered as primary caregivers of children and were believed to be concerned about the wellness and education of children. The participation of women in the implementation of BEAM ensured that eligible children were selected for the programme, as their judgements in the selection and nomination of BEAM beneficiaries were believed to be for the best interests of children. The promotion of gender equity was achieved by ensuring that at least 50% of BEAM beneficiaries were girl children. It emerged that BEAM operates on the basis of empowering girl children, henceforth the selection of BEAM beneficiaries was informed by the principle that there should be gender equity in selecting BEAM beneficiaries.

Conclusion of finding 8

The implementation of BEAM was informed by gender equity; the selection of members of CSC and BEAM beneficiaries was informed by the principle that 50% of them should be females.

Finding 9: Fairness and transparency in selecting BEAM beneficiaries

The findings of the study indicated that the selection of BEAM beneficiaries was done in a fair and transparent manner which allowed for the selection of eligible children. The nomination of beneficiaries took place in meetings which were attended by CSC, community members and involved stakeholders, community members were given a platform to participate and nominate children which they thought should be given first preference. It emerged that applicants were given a chance to attend the meetings and state their reasons for applying for BEAM, and fellow community members were available to argue for or against their applications. The selection of BEAM beneficiaries was regarded as being fair and transparent in the sense that the nomination and selection of beneficiaries was achieved through a process in which applicants and community members were able to actively participate.

Conclusion from finding 9

The selection of BEAM beneficiaries followed procedures which allowed for the selection of eligible children and was done in a transparent manner which allowed for active participation of community members.

Finding 10: Grievance Committees

The results of the study indicated that there were grievance committees which had the responsibility of addressing grievances, queries or conflicts which arose during the nomination and selection of BEAM beneficiaries. Grievance committees consisted of community members, village heads and Ward Councillors. The findings of the study revealed that there were instances in which community members indicated that CSCs were biased as some of the members were believed to be selecting their children or children who were under their care, regardless of the fact that those children were ineligible for BEAM. Grievance committees took

the role of resolving such issues and ensure that all complains raised by community members were resolved.

Conclusion on Finding 10

Grievance committees were established to manage disputes that arose regarding the selection of BEAM beneficiaries and to address concerns which were presented to the committee by community members.

Finding 11: Enhanced access to education

The results of the study indicated that some participants were grateful for the assistance which they received from BEAM as it enabled their children to stay in school until they completed primary and secondary education. Some participants indicated that their children enrolled in primary school with the assistance from BEAM, while others indicated that BEAM ensured easy transition from primary to secondary school by enabling children who had been on BEAM in primary school to stay on the programme as they advanced to secondary school. Some participants indicated that if it was not for BEAM, their children would not have had the opportunity to attend school, thus BEAM played a significant role in enhancing access to education for OVCs in Gutu District.

Conclusion on Finding 11

BEAM enhanced access to primary and secondary education for OVCs and enabled some beneficiaries to attain both primary and secondary education, and, in doing so, the programme lessened the probability of OVCs dropping out of school.

Finding 12: Yearly applications of BEAM

The findings of the study indicated that participants regarded BEAM yearly applications as being strenuous as they were required to walk long distances to schools to submit BEAM application forms and to attend BEAM meetings. The yearly applications also resulted in the removal of some BEAM beneficiaries from the programme before they could attain primary and secondary education. Some beneficiaries ended up dropping out of school as parents/guardians/caregivers could not afford to send them to school. Participants suggested

that BEAM applications should be done once off and beneficiaries should be given an opportunity to stay on BEAM until they complete primary and secondary school, this would reduce situations in which OVCs drop out of school.

Conclusion on finding 12

Yearly applications for BEAM were an inconvenient for participants as it involved walking long distances to attend selection meetings, and they resulted in the removal of BEAM beneficiaries from the programme before they attained primary and secondary education.

Finding 13: Exclusion of eligible children

Findings revealed that BEAM employed a narrow approach in providing education benefits for OVCs in Gutu District. The low budgetary allocations for BEAM led to the recruitment of a small fraction of OVCs. As a result, most children who were eligible for BEAM were not on the programme. As indicated by Mutenga (2014) the financial constraints that are faced by GOZ lead to the underfunding of social protection programmes. It emerged that the effectiveness of BEAM was hindered by the fact that the programme did not provide education benefits for all OVCs in Gutu District. Eligible children were often excluded from BEAM benefits and this was the reason behind school dropouts in Gutu District. The findings of the study indicated that BEAM is still lagging behind achieving its goal of enhancing access to education for OVCs as the programme was less comprehensive.

Conclusion on Finding 13

A large number of children who were eligible for BEAM were not on the programme due to the financial difficulties faced by GOZ.

Finding 14: Inconsistency

The findings of the study indicated that BEAM benefits were inconsistent in the sense that BEAM funds were not paid regularly. It emerged that BEAM funds were last made in 2016 for primary school and in 2017 for secondary schools. The findings of the study revealed that schools were failing to cater for BEAM beneficiaries as they had been attending school for long periods without paying school fees. It emerged that some BEAM beneficiaries ended up

dropping out of school due to the fact that their parents/guardians/caregivers were required to pay the outstanding school fees which they could not afford.

Conclusion on finding 14

The inconsistences that existed in BEAM payments compromised the ability of schools to accommodate BEAM beneficiaries who had been attending school without paying schools feels. As a result, the payment of outstanding fees was the responsibility parents/guardians/caregivers of BEAM beneficiaries. In such instances, some beneficiaries ended up dropping out of school due to the fact that their families could not afford to send them to school.

Finding 15: Failure to attain secondary education

The findings of the study indicated that not all BEAM beneficiaries stayed on the programme until they completed secondary education. Some participants indicated that their children did not manage to attain secondary education because they were removed from BEAM and ended up dropping out of school as their families could not afford to pay their school fees. Some parents/guardians/caregivers noted that their children dropped out of school in secondary school because their children who had been on BEAM in primary school did not manage to stay on the programme in secondary school as their applications were unsuccessful. In situations whereby BEAM payments were not made on time, some beneficiaries were sent home to collect school fees, their families could not afford to pay the school fees, resultantly, they dropped out of school.

Conclusion on finding 15

Some beneficiaries of BEAM dropped out of secondary school due to unsuccessful applications, their removal from the programme and the late payments of BEAM funds.

Finding 16: Failure to collect results

The findings of the study indicated that some children who had been on BEAM failed to collect grade seven and O-Level results due to the fact that they owed school fees which had not been paid by BEAM. School principals informed participants that they could only collect their

children's results if they paid the outstanding schools. Parents/guardians/caregivers could not afford to pay the school fees and ended up not collecting their children's results. Participants failed to pay the outstanding school fees as they were living in chronic poverty and had no means of accumulating the needed funds.

Conclusion on finding 16

The late payments of school fees for BEAM beneficiaries resulted in failure to collect results, as parents/guardians/caregivers could not afford to pay the outstanding fees which was a prerequisite for collecting results.

Finding 17: The exclusion of complimentary benefits on BEAM

The findings of the study revealed that efforts towards enhancing access to education for OVCs in Gutu District were hindered by the fact that BEAM benefits were limited to school fees and half of examination fees, while other complimentary benefits such as school meals, books and uniforms were not provided on the programme. Educators indicated that lack of adequate nutritional needs was detrimental to the physical, mental and emotional wellness of children and disturbed their school performance as no child would perform well in school on an empty stomach. It emerged that the provision of complimentary needs on BEAM would ensure that children are provided with all educational needs, which are necessary to enable them to perform to their maximum capabilities in school.

Conclusion of Finding 17

BEAM benefits were inadequate in that benefits were limited to school fees and half of examination fees and were not extended to other basic education needs which included school uniforms and books.

Finding 18: The need for increased community awareness on BEAM

The findings of the study indicated that there was need for increased community awareness on BEAM. Educators pointed out that there were parents/guardians/caregivers who were not interested in applying for BEAM despite the fact that they were struggling to pay school fees. In addition, some community members had little knowledge regarding BEAM and the

eligibility criteria used to select BEAM beneficiaries. Educators indicated that community workshops on BEAM by various stakeholders involved in the implementation of BEAM would be effective in educating community members on BEAM. Educators revealed that community awareness programmes were also a way empowering community member with knowledge which would increase their participation towards social protection initiatives that are aimed at enhancing social and economic development in their communities.

Conclusion from finding 18

Increased community awareness on the importance of educating children is necessary in educating communities on the importance of education and how it benefits not only children, but their families and their communities. Additionally educating community members on BEAM is also a way of empowering them with knowledge.

9.5. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE

Skills building programmes

The findings of the study revealed that the majority of research participants were illiterate and unemployed. It was noted that unemployment and illiteracy were major contributions towards high rates of poverty in Gutu District. In line with the guidelines presented in chapter 8, the researcher recommends that the benefits of BEAM should be extended to the provision of skills building programmes which equips parents/guardians/caregivers of OVCs with skills and knowledge on income generating activities such as fishing, dressmaking, basketry, weaving and the development of small enterprises. It is hoped that this will enable parents/guardians/caregivers of BEAM to better address the needs of their families. In addition, such programmes have the potential empower beneficiaries with knowledge that is vital in enabling them to escape chronic poverty. The provision of skills building programmes for parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM will ensure that the needs of OVCs and their families are met in a comprehensive manner.

Improved budgetary allocations for BEAM

It was established that the exclusion of eligible children on BEAM was a hindrance towards meeting the goal of alleviating poverty in Gutu District as this led to school dropouts among OVCs who were not on BEAM. It emerged that BEAM did not cover the full amount of examination fees for O-Level examinations. In addition, other educational needs were not met on BEAM as benefits were limited to school fees and half of examination fees. The findings of the study indicated that BEAM did not cover school fees for the first school term in which beneficiaries were newly recruited on BEAM. BEAM benefits were inconsistent as payments were made in a sporadic manner.

The researcher proposes that the above stated challenges could be addressed by improving the budgetary support for BEAM, as this will ensure that all eligible children are able access BEAM benefits. The improved budgetary allocation for BEAM will ensure that the programme provides other education benefits including books, school uniforms and school meals. Furthermore, the improved budgetary allocation will allow for the payment of full examination fees and the payments of the first school term fees. The improved budgetary support for BEAM would lead to timeous payments of BEAM funds and will further eliminate possibilities of children missing school or dropping out of school.

Enhanced focus on the educational attainment of BEAM beneficiaries

The findings of this study revealed that some BEAM beneficiaries were removed from the programme before they attained primary and secondary education. This resulted in school dropouts as parents/guardians/caregivers struggled to pay school fees. Children who were removed from BEAM during the years in which they wrote final examinations were left stuck without school and examination fees. Parents/guardians/caregivers whose children were removed from BEAM in primary or secondary school faced financial responsibilities which they could not address. Some children who had been on BEAM in primary school faced challenges in transitioning to secondary school as their applications had been unsuccessful, consequently, some of them dropped out of school. It is proposed that much focus should be placed on ensuring that beneficiaries stay on BEAM and manage to complete primary and secondary education.

Community workshops to raise awareness on BEAM

It emerged that some parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM did not make efforts to apply for BEAM even though they faced financial challenges in sending children to school and some had little knowledge on BEAM. It is recommended that community workshops should be conducted to educate parents/guardians/caregivers on the role of BEAM in alleviating poverty and the importance of educating children. It is hoped that providing community members with such knowledge will mitigate a cycle in which poverty and illiteracy are passed from generation to generation, among low income families.

Yearly applications

It was noted that BEAM applications were carried out on annual basis, participants indicated that they found yearly applications to be cumbersome as they involved travelling long distances to schools. In addition, yearly applications resulted in the removal of some children from BEAM, some of them ended up dropping out of school. Given that participants suffered vulnerabilities related to old age, ill health and disability, the researcher proposes that BEAM applications should be once off to avoid yearly travels to schools among parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of BEAM. Once off applications will minimise school dropouts among BEAM beneficiaries.

The establishment of feeding programmes for beneficiaries of BEAM

The findings of the study indicated that there were situations in which BEAM beneficiaries came to school without food because there was no food at home. The researcher proposes that BEAM benefits should be extended to school feeding programmes, to enhance the nutritional status and wellbeing of beneficiaries. As indicated in the writings of Bastagli et al. (2016), ILO (2014) and the World Bank (2012a) school feeding programmes are effective in reducing school dropouts and in enhancing the physical and mental wellness of OVCs.

The implementation of counselling services for OVCs and their families

Findings revealed that BEAM beneficiaries consisted of OVCs who lived-in poverty-stricken families. Given that OVCs suffer depression associated with losing parents through death, it is

proposed that BEAM beneficiaries and their families should be provided with counselling services, by social workers at the Department of Social Welfare. It is anticipated that the provision of counselling services for OVCs and their families will be crucial in addressing issues that negatively impact on their psychological wellness.

9.6. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The involvement of educators, principals and deputy principals who manage BEAM in the Community Selection Committee

The findings of the study revealed that educators, principals and deputy principals who managed BEAM did not form part of the CSC, it is recommended that they should be included in the CSC. Given that they spend notable time with children during their working hours, they are regarded as possessing knowledge on the living conditions of children. Thus, their participation in selecting BEAM beneficiaries would enable the selection of children who are eligible for BEAM.

Beneficiary representatives on BEAM

The findings of the study indicated that BEAM beneficiaries were not involved in the implementation of BEAM at a local level. The researcher recommends that there should be representatives of BEAM beneficiaries who would be responsible for communicating with the responsible educators, principals and deputy principals regarding any challenges that would be faced by beneficiaries regarding BEAM. It is hoped that this will give beneficiaries an appropriate platform to state issues that require improvement on BEAM, and possible solutions of addressing such issues. It is hoped that the promotion of beneficiaries' participation in the implementation of BEAM will enhance the effectiveness of BEAM in enhancing access to OVCs.

9. 7. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the findings of the study and the reached conclusions, it is hoped that this study will be employed as a foundation for further research on the contribution of social protection

programmes, particularly BEAM, in enhancing access to education for OVCs. The possible areas of future research are identified as follows;

- The exploration of counselling services as a possible avenue of enhancing the psychosocial wellness of OVCs and their families.
- The contribution of school feeding programmes on the physical and emotional wellness of OVCs.

9.8. CONCLUDING COMMENTS

In conclusion, it can be noted that BEAM plays a pivotal role in enabling OVCs to access education and in alleviating poverty in Gutu District. The findings of the study indicated that a notable number of beneficiaries managed to attain primary and secondary education through BEAM. However, there were several challenges, which were faced regarding the provision of BEAM, these involved the removal of children from the programme before they attained education, the yearly applications of BEAM, the inconsistences in the provision of BEAM, the exclusion of eligible children on the programme and the exclusion of some educational benefits from the programme. Such challenges resulted in children dropping out of school as their families could not address their educational needs.

REFERENCES

Abass, A. (2014). *Complete International Law: Text, Cases, and Materials* (2nd ed.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Abebe, T., & Aase A. (2007). Children, AIDS and the politics of orphan care in Ethiopia: the extended family revisited. *Social Science and Medicine, 64* (10), 2058-2069.

Abhijit, B., Suraj, J., Kremer, M., Lanjouw, J., & Lanjouw, P. (2001). *Promoting School Participation in Rural Rajasthan: Results from Some Prospective Trials*. Mimeo: Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Academic of Science of South Africa. (2016). *Social Protection in Africa. Overview of Policy Maker*. Pretoria: Academic of Science of South Africa.

Acemoglu, D., & Angrist, J. (2000). How Large Are Human-Capital Externalities? Evidence from Compulsory Schooling Laws: *NBER Macroeconomics Annual, 15,* (2000), 9-59.

Acemoglu, D., & Dell, M. (2010). Productivity Differences between and within Countries. American Economic Journal. *Macroeconomics, 2 (1),* 169-88.

Adato, M. (2008). Combining survey and ethnographic methods to improve evaluation of conditional cash transfer programs. *International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches, 2 (2),* 222-236.

Adato, M., & Bassett, L. (2012). *Social Protection and Cash Transfers to Strengthen Families Affected by HIV and AIDS.* Washington DC: International Food Policy Research Institute.

Addae-Korankye, A. (2014). Causes of Poverty in Africa: A Review of Literature. *American International Journal of Social Science, 3 (7),* 147-153.

African Union. (2004). *Assembly of the African Union Third Extraordinary Session on Employment and Poverty Alleviation.* 3–9 September 2004. Burkina Faso: Ouagadougou.

African Union. (2008). *First Session of the African Union Conference of Ministries in Charge of Social Development. Social Policy Framework for Africa*. Namibia: Windhoek.

African Union. (2015). *Addis Ababa Declaration on Social Development for Inclusive Development.* Addis Ababa: African Union.

African Union. (2015). *The Effects of Traditional and Religious Practices of Child Marriage on Africa's Socio-Economic Development: A Review of Research, Reports and Toolkits from Africa.* Adidas Ababa: African Union.

Agarwal, J.C. (2010). *Educational reformation in India*. Delhi: Shipra Publication.

Agrawal, T. (2013). Educational inequality in rural and urban India. *International Journal of Educational Development, 34 (1),* 11-19.

Agüero, J.M., Carter, M.R. & Woolard, I. (2006). *The Impact of Unconditional Cash Transfers on Nutrition: The South African Child Support Grant.* Southern Africa Labour and Development Research Unit Working Paper Number 06/08. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Aguirre, A.J.R., Eick, V.E., & Reese, E. (2006). Neoliberalism, globalization, urban privatization and resistance. *Social Justice, 33 (3),*1-2.

Ahmed, A.U., & Arends-Kuenning, M. (2006). Do crowded classrooms crowd out learning? Evidence from the Food for Education Program in Bangladesh. *World Development 34 (4),* 665-684.

Ainsworth, M., & Filmer, D. (2002). *Poverty, AIDS, and children's schooling: a targeting dilemma.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

Aitken, S.C. (2001). Global crises of childhood: Rights, justice and the unchildlike child. *Area, 33 (2),* 119–127.

Akinola, O. (2014). Graduation and Social Protection in Nigeria: *A Critical Analysis of the Care of People Conditional Cash Transfer Programme.* Paper Presented at the International Conference on Graduation and Social Protection. Rwanda: Kigali.

Akresh R., de Walque, D., & Kazianga, H. (2013). *Cash Transfers and Child Schooling: Evidence from a Randomized Evaluation of the Role of Conditionality.* Policy Research Working Paper 6340.Washington, DC: World Bank.

Akwara, P.A., Noubary, B., Ken, P.L.A., Johnson, K., Yates, R., Winfrey, W., Chandan, U.K., & Sweetland, S.R. (1996). Human capital theory: foundations of a field of inquiry. *Review of Educational Research, 66 (3),* 341-359.

Akwara, P.A., Noubary, B., Ken, P.L.A., Johnson, K., Yates, R., Winfrey, W., Chandan, U.K., Mulenga, D., Kolker, J., & Luo, C. (2010). Who is the vulnerable child? Using survey data to identify

children at risk in the era of HIV and AIDS, AIDS care: *Psychological and Socio-medical Aspects of AIDS/HIV, 22 (9),*1066-1085.

Alam, A., Baez, J. E., & V. Carpio, X. D. (2013). *Does cash for school influence young women's behaviour in the longer term? Evidence from Pakistan (English). Engender Impact:* Washington, D.C: The World Bank's Gender Impact Evaluation Database.

Albert, J, R. (2014). T*he costs and benefits of Pantawid Pamilya*. Rappler,3. www.rappler.com/thought-leaders/76723-cost-benefits-pantawid-pamilya

Albo, G. (2008). Neoliberalism and the Discontented, in L. Panitch & C. Leys (Eds.), *Socialist Register: Global Flashpoints* (pp. 354-362) London: Merlin Press.

Alholjailan, M.I. (2012). Thematic Analysis: A critical review of its process and evaluation. *West East Journal of Social Sciences, 1(1),* 39-47.

Al Riyami, T. (2015). Main Approaches to Educational Research. *International Journal of Innovation and Research in Educational Sciences, 2 (5)* 2349-5219.

Angeles, G., Chakrabarti, A., Handa, S., Spektor, G., Osei, R.D., & de Groot, R. (2017). *Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme. End line Impact Evaluation Report.* Chapel Hill: Carolina Population Centre. University of North Carolina.

Angelucci, M. & Giacomo, D. (2009). Indirect effects of an aid program: How do cash transfers affect ineligibles' consumption? *The American Economic Review, 99* (1), 486–508.

Annukka, V. (2013). Beyond research ethics: Anonymity as ontology, analysis and independence. *Qualitative Research, 13* (6), 685-698.

Asfaw, S., Davis, B., Dewbre, J., Federighi, G., Handa, S., & Winters, P. (2012). *The impact of the Kenya CT-OVC programme on productive activities and labour allocation, From Protection to Production project report.* Rome: Food and Agriculture Organisation.

Aspater, C., & Singh, S. (2008). (Eds.), *Debating Social Development.* Taoyuan, Taiwan: Casa Verdi Publishing.

Attanasio, O.P., Battistin, E., Fitzsimons, E., Mesnard, A., & Vera-Hernández, M. (2005). *How effective are conditional cash transfers? Evidence from Colombia, Briefing Note No. 54*. London: Institute for Fiscal Studies.

Atkinson, A. (2017). *Monitoring Global Poverty: Report of the Commission on Global Poverty.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

Arif, S., Muhammed, S., Widjajanti I., Meuthia R., & Bambang, S. (2013). *Is Conditionality Pro-Women? A Case Study of Conditional Cash Transfer in Indonesia.* The SMERU Research Institute: Jakarta.

Arnold, G. (2016). *Wars in the Third World Since 1945. History and Politics in the 20th Century: Conflict*. New York: Bloomsbury.

Ashman, S., & Fine, B. (2013). Neo-liberalism, Varieties of Capitalism, and the Shifting Contours of South Africa's Financial System', *Transformation, 81* (82), 145-178.

Awino, D. (2010). *A qualitative study on everyday life experiences of children living in child/adolescent headed household in Western Kenya Region.* Kenya: Umeå University.

Ayala, F. (2007). *Draft Concept Paper for CCT Pilot in Zimbabwe, Draft Social Protection in ESAR0: A Framework and Strategy for UNICEF, ESARO*. Harare: United Nations Children's Fund.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001).*The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2004). *The Practice of Social Research.* Cape Town: Oxford University.

Babbie, E. (2007). *The Practice of social research* (11th ed.) USA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Bachelet, M. (2011). *Social protection floor for a fair and inclusive globalisation. Report of the Social Protection Floor Advisory Group.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

Baez, B. (2002). Confidentiality in qualitative research: Reflections on secrets, power and agency. *Qualitative Research, 2,* 35-58.

Bailey, C & Turner, J. (2002). Social Security in Africa, received from author. A Brief Review. *Journal of Aging and Social Policy, 14 (1),* 105-115.

Baird, S., Craig, M., & Özler, B. (2009). *Designing Cost-Effective Cash Transfer Programs to Boost Schooling among Young Women in Sub-Saharan Africa*, Policy Research Working Paper Series 5090. The World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No.5090. http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/docsearch/document-type/620265.

Baird, S., McIntosh, C., & Ozler, B. (2009b). *Designing Cost-effective Cash Transfer Programs to Boost Schooling among Young Women in Sub-Saharan Africa, Policy Research Working Paper Series 5090.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

Baird, S., McIntosh, C., & Berk, Ö. (2011). Cash or Condition? Evidence from a Cash Transfer Experiment. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics 126 (4),* 1709–1753.

Baird, S., Ferreira, F., Ozler, B., & Woolcock, M. (2013). *Relative Effectiveness of Conditional and Unconditional Cash Transfers for Schooling Outcomes in Developing Countries: A Systematic Review.* Norway: Campbell Systematic Reviews. The Campbell Corporation

Baird, S., Jacobus, D., & Berk, Ö. (2013). Income shocks and adolescent mental health. *Journal of Human Resources 48 (2),* 370–403.

Baird, S., Francisco F., Berk Ö., & Woolcock, M .(2014). Conditional, Unconditional and Everything in between: A Systematic Review of the Effects of Cash Transfer Programmes on Schooling Outcomes. *Journal of Development Effectiveness 6 (1),* 1–43.

Baker, J.L., Burger, N., Glick, P., Perez-Arce, F., Rabino-vich, L., Rana, Y.S., Sinduja, Y.J. (2013). *Indonesia - Urban poverty and program review.* Washington DC: World Bank.

Barbier, E. B. (2016). Sustainability and Development. *Annual Review of Resource Economics 8,* 261-280.

Barham, T., Macours, K., & Maluccio, J. (2013). *More Schooling and More Learning?: Effects of a Three-Year Conditional Cash Transfer Program in Nicaragua after 10 Years,* Inter-American Development Bank: IDB Publications.

Barrientos, A., Hulme, D., & Shepherd, A. (2003). Can Social Protection Tackle Chronic Poverty? *European Journal of Development Research, 17,* 8-3.

Barrientos, A., & DeJong, J. (2004). *Child poverty and cash transfers.* Childhood Poverty London: Research and Policy Centre.

Barrientos, A., & Hulme, D. (2005). Chronic poverty and social protection: Introduction. *European Journal of Development Research, 17, (1),* 1–7.

Barrientos, A., & Hulme, D. (2009). Social protection for the poor and poorest in developing countries: Reflections on a quiet revolution. *Oxford Development Studies, 37(4),* 439-456.

Barrientos, A., & Niño-zarazúa, M. (2011). Financing social protection for children in crisis. Social Transfers and Child Protection Florence. *Development Policy Review, 29,* 603-620.

Barrientos, A., Byrne, J.M., & Villa, P. (2013). *Social Transfers and Child Protection, Working Paper 2013-05.* Florence: United Nations Children's Fund Office of Research.

Barrientos, A. (2015). A Veritable Mountain of Data and Years of Endless Statistical Manipulation. Methods in the three worlds and After. *Social Policy and Society, 14(2),* 97-100.

Bastagli, F., Hagen-Zanker, J., Harman, L., Barca, V., Sturge, G., Schmidt, T., & Pellerano, L. (2016). *Cash transfers: What does the evidence say? A rigorous review of programme impact and of the role of design and implementation features.* London: Overseas Development Institute.

Bawa, S. (2012). Women's Rights and Culture in Africa: A dialogue with global patriarchal traditions, *Canadian Journal of Development Studies 33 (1),* 90–105.

Baxen, J., Nsubuga, Y., & Botha, L.J. (2014). A capabilities perspective on education quality: Implications for foundation phase teacher education program design. *Perspectives in Education, 32(4),* 93-105.

Bazeley, P., & Jackson, K. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis with NVIVO* (2nd ed) London: Sage Publications, Ltd.

Beegle, K., Christiaensen, L., Dabalen, A., & Gaddis, I. (2016). *Poverty in a rising Africa.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

Becker, S., & Bryman, A. (2004). (Eds.), *Understanding Research for Social Policy and Practice: Themes, Methods and Approaches* Bristol: The Policy Press.

Belcher, J.R., & Tice, C. (2013). Power and social work: a change in direction. *Journal of Progressive Human Services, 24(1),* 81-93.

Bell, J. (2014). *Doing your research project: a guide for first-time researchers*. Berkshire: McGraw-Hill Education.

Benanav, A. (2019). The origins of informality: the ILO at the limit of the concept of unemployment. *Journal of Global History, 14 (1),* 107–125.

Benerjee, A., Hanna, R., Kreindler, G., & Olken, B. (2017). Debunking the stereotype of the lazy welfare recipient. Evidence from cash transfer programmes. The World Bank. *Research Observer, 32 (2),* 155-184.

Bennett, C., Foley, M., & Krebs, H.B. (2016). (Eds.), Learning from the past to shape the future Lessons from the history of humanitarian action in Africa. London: Overseas Development Institute.

Berg, B. L. (2007). *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences* (6th ed.) Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Berg, B. L. (2012). *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Science* (8th Ed.) Long Beach: Allyn and Bacon.

Berg, B. L., & Lune, H. (2017). *Qualitative research methods for social sciences* (9th ed.) Boston, MA: Pearsons Education Ltd.

Berkowitz, M.W., & Bier, M.C. (2005). Character Education: Parents as Partners. *Educational Leadership, 63(1),* 64–69.

Bernard, H.R. (2002). *Research methods in anthropology: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (3rd ed.). Walnut Creek, CA. Alta Mira Press.

Bernard, H. R. (2013). *Social Research Methods. Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches* (2nd ed.). California: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Bertranou, F., & Maurizio, R. (2012a). Semi-conditional cash transfers in the form of family allowances for children and adolescents in the informal economy in Argentina, International Social Security Review, 65 (1), 53–72.

Bettman, J.E. (2006). Using attachment theory to understand the treatment of Depression in Adulthood. *Clinical Social work journal 34 (4), 531-542.*

Bevan, P. (2004a). Conceptualising in/security regimes, in I. Gough, G. Wood. A. Barrientos, P. Bevan, P. Davis & G. Room, *Insecurity and Welfare Regimes in Asia, Africa and Latin America: Social Policy in Development Contexts* (pp. 202-252). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bevan, P. (2004b). The dynamics of Africa's in/security regimes. In I. Gough, G. Wood. A. Barrientos, P. Bevan, P. Davis & G. Room, *Insecurity and Welfare Regimes in Asia, Africa and Latin*

America: Social Policy in Development Contexts (pp. 202-252). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bhaiseni, B. (2016). Zimbabwe Children's Act Alignment with international and domestic legal instruments: Unravelling the gaps. *African Journal of Social Work, 6(1),* 3–6.

Bhalotra, S., Harttgen, K., & Klasen, S. (2014). *The Impact of School Fees on the Intergenerational Transmission of Education: Inequality - measurement, trends, impacts and policies.* Finland: UNU-WIDER, Helsinki.

Bhebhe, T., Bhebhe, R., & Bhebhe, B. (2016). An Investigation into the cause unemployment among youths in the city of Harare. *Global Journal of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences. 4 (2),* 90-102.

Bicego, G., Rutstein, S., Johnson, K., (2003). Dimensions of the emerging orphan crisis in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Soc. Sci. Med. 56,* 1235-1247.

Birch, K., & Mykhnenko, V. (2010). *Introduction: A World Turned Right-Way Up, in The Rise and Fall of Neoliberalism: The Collapse of an Economic Order?* London: Zed Books.

Birdthistle, I.J., Floyd S., Machingura, A., Mudziwapasi N., Gregson, S., & Glynn J.R. (2008). From affected to infected. Orphanhood and HIV risk among female adolescents in urban Zimbabwe. AIDS. 22(6), 759-766.

Birech, J. (2013). Child marriage: A cultural health phenomenon. *International journal of humanities and social science, 3(17),* 97-103.

Blattman, C., & Niehaus, P. (2014). Showthem the Money:Why Giving Cash Helps Alleviate Poverty. *Foreign Affairs 93 (3),*117-26.

Blattman, C., Fiala, N., & Martinez, S. (2014). Generating skilled employment in developing countries: Experimental evidence from Uganda. *Quarterly Journal of Economics, 129 (2),* 697-752.

Boas, T.C., & Gans-Morse, J. (2009). Neoliberalism: From New Liberal Philosophy to Anti-Liberal Slogan. *Studies in Comparative International Development, 44 (2),* 137–61.

Boler, T., & Carroll, K. (2003). *Addressing the Educational Needs of Orphans and Vulnerable Children.* London: ActionAid International and Save the Children Fund.

Borzutzky, S. (2005). From Chicago to Santiago: Neoliberalism and social security privatization in Chile. *Governance, 18 (4),* 655-674.

Brand, U., & Sekler, N. (2009). Post neoliberalism: Catch-all word or valuable analytical and political concept? – Aims of a beginning debate. *Development Dialogue, 51,* 5-13.

Brown, W. (2015). *Undoing the Demos: Neoliberalism's Stealth Revolution*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Brown, W. (2016). Sacrificial citizenship: Neoliberalism, human capital, and austerity politics. *Constellations, 23 (1),* 3–14.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analyses in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3 (2),* 77.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2012). Thematic analysis. In H. Cooper (Ed.), *APA handbook of research methods in psychology* (Vol.2, pp. 57–71). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2013). *Successful qualitative research: A practical guide for beginners.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Braun, V., & Wilkinson, S. (2003). *Liability or asset? Women talk about the vagina. Psychology of Women Section Review, 5 (2),* 28-45.

Bravemen, P., & Gruskin, D. (2003). Poverty, equity, human rights and health. Bulleting of the World Health Organisation, 81, 539-545.

Brokensha, R & Hodge, P. (1969). *Community Development: An interpretation.* San Francisco: Chandler.

Bruff, I. (2014). The Rise of Authoritarian Neoliberalism. *Rethinking Marxism, 26 (1),*113-129.

Bryman, A. (2008). *Social Research Methods* (3rd ed.) New York: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. (2015). *Social Research Methods* (5th ed.) New York: Oxford University Press.

Budlender, D., Proudlock, P., & Jamieson, L. (2008). *Developing Social Policy for Children in the Context of HIV/AIDS: A South African Case Study. Children's Institute Case Study No.3*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Budlender, D. (2014). *Conditional Cash Transfers: learning from the literature. Final Report Submitted to UN Women Multi-Country Office-Caribbean.* Barbados: UN Women.

Buss, D., & Burrill, E.S. (2016). *Marriage by force?: contestation over consent and coercion in Africa.* Ohio: Ohio University Press.

Buvé, A. 2006. "The HIV Epidemics in Sub-Saharan Africa: Why So Severe? Why So Heterogenous? An Epidemiological Perspective." In P. Denis & C. Becker, *The HIV/AIDS Epidemic in Sub-Saharan Africa in a Historical Perspective. Senegalese Network "Law, Ethics, Health".* Senegal: Dakar.

Cahill, D. (2013). 'Ideas-Centred Explanations of the Rise of Neoliberalism: A Critique', *Australian Journal of Political Science, 48 (1),*71-84.

Cahill, D., Cooper, M., Konings, M., & Primrose, D. (2018). *The Sage Handbook of Neoliberalism.* London: Sage Publications, Ltd.

Caldés, N., Coady, D., & Maluccio, J. A. (2006). The cost of poverty alleviation transfer programs: a comparative analysis of three programs in Latin America. *World development, 34 (5),* 818-837.

Capel, S., Leask, M., & Younie, S. (2016). *Learning to Teach in the Secondary School: A companion to school experience* (7th ed.) New York: Routledge.

Caraël, M., & Glynn, JR. (2007). *HIV, resurgent infections and population change in Africa.* Dordrecht: Springer.

Cardoso, I.B. (2010). *Establishing, Reviewing and Implementing National Plans of Action for Orphans and Vulnerable Children In Southern And East Africa: Lessons Learnt And Challenges*. Pretoria: Save The Children UK.

Case, A., Hosegood, V., & Lund. F. (2005). 'The Reach and Impact of Child Support Grants: Evidence from KwaZulu-Natal'. *Development in Southern Africa, 22 (4),* 467-482.

Castree, N. (2006). From neoliberalism to neoliberalisation: consolations, confusions, and necessary illusions, *Environment and Planning, 38 (1), 1–6.*

Cassell, C. & Symon, G. (2004). *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organisation research.* London. Sage Publications, Ltd.

Centre for Policy Analysis. (2010). *The current state of the Macro Economy of Ghana.* Accra: Centre for Policy Analysis.

Cerny, P.G. (2008). Embedding neoliberalism: the evolution of a hegemonic paradigm. *Journal of International Trade and Diplomacy, 2(1),* 1-46.

Chandang'oma, K.P., & Kakoma, J. (2008). *Sustainability of Voluntarism for a National Scaled-up Social Cash Transfer Scheme.* Lusaka: Ministry of Community Development Social Services Zambia, Department for International Development and Care International.

Chandiwana, B., Mahati S.T., Munyati S., & Gwini, S. (2005). *Situational Analysis of Orphaned and Vulnerable Children in Eight Zimbabwean Districts.* Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Chandy, L. (2015). *Why is the number of poor in Africa increasing when Africa's economies are growing? Africa in Focus.* Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.

Chapman, K. (2006). *Using Social Transfers to Scale up Equitable access to Education and health services. Background Paper.* London: DFID Policy Division.

Childhood Poverty Research and Policy Centre. (2004). *Children and Poverty: Some Questions Answered. CHIP Briefing 1.* London: Childhood Poverty Research and Policy Centre.

Chitambara, P. (2010). *Social Protection System in Zimbabwe.* Harare: Labour and Economic Development Research Institute of Zimbabwe.

Chingono A., Rusakaniko, S., Mahati, S.T., Mupambireyi P.F., & Chandiwana., B. (2006). Psychosocial conditions of Orphans and vulnerable children in two Zimbabwean districts. Cape Town. HSRC Press.

Chirwa, D.M. (2018). The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and Human Rights Discourse. In C. Ferstman, T. Gray (Eds.),*Contemporary Human Rights Challenges: The Universal Declaration of Human Rights and its Continuing Relevance* (pp. 183-193). London: Routledge.

Chitiyo, M., & Wheeler, J. (2004). The development of special education services in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Special Education, 19 (2),* 46-52.

Chitiyo M., Changara D.M., Chitiyo, G. (2008). Providing psychosocial support to special needs children: A case of orphans and vulnerable children in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Educational Development, 28,* 384-392.

Choy, L.T. (2014). The Strengths and Weaknesses of Research Methodology: Comparison and Complimentary between Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 19(4),* 99-104.

Cirillo, C., & Tebaldi, R. (2016). Social protection in Africa: Inventory of non-contributory programmes New York: International Poverty Centre for Inclusive Growth, United Nations Children's Fund.

Clarke, D.G. (1977). *The Economics of Old Age Subsistence in Rhodesia.* Gwelo: Mambo Pres.

Clarke, M. (2002). The Relationship between Economic Development and Social Welfare: A New Adjusted GDP Measure of Welfare. *Social Indicators Research 57(2),* 201-229.

Clarke, S. (2005). The neoliberal theory of society. In A. Saad-Filho & D. Johnston (Eds.), *Neoliberalism: A critical reader* (pp. 50–59). London: Pluto Press.

Clarke J. (2008). Living with/in and without neo-liberalism, *Focaal 51,* 135–147.

Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2013). Teaching thematic analysis: Overcoming challenges and developing strategies for effective learning. *The Psychologist, 26 (2),* 120-123.

Clarke, V., Braun, V., & Hayfield, N. (2015a). Thematic analysis. In J. Smith (Ed.), Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods (3rd ed.) (pp. 222–248). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Coady, D., Grosh, M., & Hoddinott, J. (2013). *Targeting of Transfers in Developing Countries: Review of lessons and Experiences.* Washington, DC. World Bank.

Coetzee, M. (2013). Finding the benefits: Estimating the impact of the South African child support grant. *South African Journal of Economics 81(3),* 427-450.

Coetzee, M. (2014). *Do poor children really benefit from the child support grant.* Stellenbosch University: Department of Economics.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education.* (6th Ed.) Routledge: USA and Canada.

Cole, W.M. (2012). Human Rights as Myth and Ceremony? Re-evaluating the Effectiveness of Human Rights Treaties, 1981–2007. *American Journal of Sociology, 117(4),* 1131–1171.

Cole, W.M. (2013). Government Respect for Gendered Rights: The Effect of the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women on Women's Rights Outcomes, 1981–2004. *International Studies Quarterly, 57(2),* 233–249.

Collier, P. (2007). *The Bottom Billion: Why the poorest countries are falling and what can be done about it.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Connell, R. (2015). The neoliberal cascade and education: An essay on the market agenda and its consequences. *Critical Studies in Education 54 (2),* 99-112.

Conning, J., & Kevane, M. (2002). Community-Based Targeting Mechanisms for Social Safety nets. A Critical Review. *World Development, 30 (3),* 375-394.

Cooksey, R., & Mcdonald, G. (2011). *Surviving and thriving in postgraduate research*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Cooper, E. (2012). Following the Law, but Losing the Spirit of Child Protection in Kenya. *Development in Practice, 22 (4),* 486-97.

Corak, M. (2006). *Do poor children become poor adults? Lessons from a cross country comparison of generational earnings mobility. Discussion Paper No. 1993*. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labour.

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2008). Basics of qualitative research. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Costanza, R., Daly, L., Fioramonti, L., Giovannini, E., Kubiszewskia, I., Mortensen, LF., Pickett, K.E., Ragnarsdottir, K., De Vogli, R., & Wiekinson, R. (2016). Modelling and measuring sustainable wellbeing in connection with the Sustainable Development Goals. *Ecological Economics, 130,* 350-355.

Cotto, S. (2018). The effect of cash transfer programmes on poverty reduction. *Business and Public Administration Studies, 12,* (1).1.

Covarrubias, K., Davis, B. & Winters, P. (2012). From Protection to Production: Productive Impacts of the Malawi Social Cash Transfers Scheme. *Journal of Development Effectiveness. 4 (1),* 50-77.

Cox, B.A. (2004). *Dementia and Social Work Practice. Research and Interventions.* New York: Springer Publishing Company.

Cox, S. (2011). *New Perspectives in Primary Education: Meaning and Purpose in Learning and Teaching.* New York: Two Penn Plaza.

Cox, L., & Nilsen, A.G. (2014). *We make our own history: Marxism and social movements in the twilight of neoliberalism.* London: Pluto.

Crampin A.C., Floyd, S., Glynn J.R., Madise, N., Nyondo, A., Khondowe, M.M., Njoka, C.L., Kanyongoloka, H., Ngwira, B., Zaba, B., & Fine, P. E. (2003). The long-term impact of HIV and orphanhood on the mortality and physical well-being of children in rural Malawi. *AIDS, 17*, 389-97.

Creswell, J.W. (2007). *Research design. Qualitative and mixed methods approaches.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Method Approaches* (3rd ed.) Los Angeles: Sage Publications Ltd.

Cresswell, J.W., & Plano Clark, V L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed method research.* (2nd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Creswell, J. (2012). *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research.* Boston: Pearson.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Creswell, JW. (2013). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Ltd.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design: Choosing among Five Approaches* (4th ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Creswell, J. W. (2016). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design. Choosing Among Five Approaches.* (4th ed) Thousand Oaks. CA. Sage Publications Ltd.

Creswell, J. (2016). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design. Choosing Among Five Approaches.* (4th ed). Thousand Oaks. CA. Sage Publications Ltd.

Crawford, J .(2012). *Brownlie's principles of public international law*. (8th ed.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Chatikobo, T. (2015). An investigation into the effectiveness of the Basic Education assistance Module (BEAM) in reducing dropout rate in Mberengwa District Primary Schools. http://hdl.handle.net/11408/2286

Chronic Poverty Research Centre. (2008). *The Chronic Poverty Report 2008-9.* Manchester: Chronic Poverty Research Centre.

Crouch, C. (2011). *The Strange Non-death of Neo-liberalism.* Cambridge: Polity Press.

Crow, G., Wiles, R., Heath, S., & Charles, V. (2006). Research ethics and data quality: The implications of informed consent. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology (9),* 83-95.

Csáky, C. (2014). *Why Care Matters: The Importance of Adequate Care for Children and Society.* London: Family for Every Child.

Dade, A., Olafson, L., & DiBella, S.M., (2016). *Implementing a Comprehensive Research Compliance Program: A Handbook for research officers.* Charlotte: Information Age Publishing Inc.

Dapatem, D.A. (2011). *World Bank Supports Ghana*. Ghana: Daily graphic.

Datta., P. (2012). Protecting rights of orphans and vulnerable children: No substitute for community action in Nyanza, Kenya. *Community Development Journal, 48 (1),* 105-118.

Dardot, P., & Laval, C. (2013). *The New Way of the World: On Neoliberal Society.* London: Verso Books.

Darling-Hammond, L., Flook. L., Cook-Harvey, C., Barron, B., & Osher, D. (2020). Implications for educational practice of the science of learning and development. *Applied Developmental Science, 24 (2),* 97-140.

Daudet, Y., & Singh, K. (2001). *The Right to education: an analysis of UNESCO's standard setting instruments.* Paris: UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Davies, S., & J. Davey. (2008). A Regional Multiplier Approach to Estimating the Impact of Cash Transfers on the Market: The Case of Cash Transfers in Rural Malawi. *Development Policy Review 26 (1),* 91-111.

Davies, D., & Dodd, J. (2002). Qualitative Research and the question of rigor. *Qualitative Health Research.,12 (2),* 279-289.

Davies, P. (2013). Informed Consent. The Sage Dictionary of Social Research Methods. Lodon: Sage Publications Ltd.

Davis, B., Handa, S., Hyper, N., Rossi, N.W., Winters, P & Yablonsk, J. (2016). (Eds.), *From Evidence to Action. The Story of Cash Transfers and Impact Evaluation in Sub-Sharan Africa.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Deacon, B. (2013). Globalisation and social policy in developing countries. In R. Surender & R. Walker (Eds.), *Social policy in a developing world* (pp. 217-236). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Dean M. (2014). Rethinking neoliberalism. *Journal of Sociology, 50 (2),* 150–163.

Deb. P., Das., P., & Ghosh, G.S. (2015). Perspicacity on Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan Among Students of Kolkata District of West Bengal. *International Journal in Management and Social Science, 3(2),* 372-381.

De Haan, A. (2000). *Introduction: The role of social protection in poverty reduction.* London: Department for International Development.

De Janvry, A., Finan, F., Sadoulet, E. & Vakis, R. (2006). Can Conditional Transfer Programmes Work as Safety Nets in Keeping Children at School and from Working When Exposed to Shocks?. *Journal of Development Economics, 79,* 349-373.

De Lannoy, A., Swartz, S., Lake, L., & Smith, C. (2015). *Introducing Children Count- Abantwana Babalulekile.* University of Cape Town: Children's Institute.

Della Porta, D. (2017). *Progressive and Regressive Politics in Late Neoliberalism. In the Great Regression.* Cambridge: Polity Press.

Denzin, N.K., & Giardina, M.D. (2007). *Decolonizing and politics of knowledge: Ethical futures in qualitative research.* California: Left Coast Press.

Denzin N.K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research (3rd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Denzin N.K, & Lincoln, Y. S. (2010). *Handbook of qualitative research.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2011). Handbook of qualitative research (4th ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Department for International Development. (2005). *Social Transfers and Chronic Poverty: Emerging Evidence and the Challenge Ahead, a DFID practice paper*. London: Department for International Development.

Department of Social Development., South African Council for Social Service Professions., & United Nations Children's Fund. (2012). *The South African Child Support Grant Impact Assessment: Evidence from a Survey of Children, Adolescents and Their Households.* Pretoria: United Nations Children's Fund.

Desai, M. & Solas, J. (2012). *Poverty, development and social justice. The Sage Handbook of international Social Work.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Desai, M. (2018). *Child Rights Education for Inclusion and Protection: Primary Prevention.* Berlin: Springer Publishing.

Desmond, C., Richter, L., Makiwane, M., & Amoateng, A. (2003). Child-headed households: Dissecting our understanding of who is at risk. *Children First, 46,* 56-58.

Devereux, S. (2002). The Malawi famine of 2002. *IDS Bulletin, 33(4), 70-78.*

Devereux, S. (2006). *Social Protection Mechanisms in Southern Africa. RHVP Regional Hunger and Vulnerability Programme.* University of Sussex, UK: Centre for Social Protection, Institute of Development Studies.

Devereux, S. (2013). *Trajectories of social protection in Africa. Development Southern Africa, 30 (1),* 13-23.

Devereux, S., & Cipryk, R. (2009). *Social Protection in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Regional Review. Brighton:* Institute of Development Studies.

Devereux, S., & Marshall, J. (2005). *Making Cash Count: Lessons from Cash Transfer Schemes in East and Southern Africa for Supporting the Most Vulnerable*. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.

Devereux, S., Roelen, K., & Ulrichs, M. (2015). *Where next for social protection? IDS Evidence Report no.124.* Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

Devereux, S. (2017). *The Targeting Effectiveness of Social Transfers. Journal of Development Effectiveness, 9* (2), 162-211.

Devlin, K. (2013). *Reducing Youth Unemployment in Sub-Saharan Africa.* Washington, DC: Population Reference Bureau.

Dhlembeu, N. (2004). *The Safety Nets and Beyond*. Harare: Mambo Press.

Dimmel, N. (2014). Fighting Poverty and social protection. The role of social worker. Surrey: Ashgate.

Drèze, J., & Khera, R. (2017). Recent social security initiatives in India. *World Development, 98,* 555–572.

Drolet, J. (2016). *Social Development and Social Work Perspectives on Social Protection.* London: Routledge.

Duflo, E. (2002).*The Medium Run Effects of Educational Expansion: Evidence from a Large School Construction Program in Indonesia,* National Bureau of Economic Research Working Paper No. 8710, 2002. https://ideas.repec.org/p/nbr/nberwo/8710.html

Duflo, Esther. 2012. Women Empowerment and Economic Development. *Journal of Economic Literature, 50 (4),*1051–79.

Dumauli, M.T. (2015). Estimate of the Private Return on Education in Indonesia: Evidence from Sibling Data. *International Journal of Educational Development, 42,* 14-24.

Duménil, G., & Lévy, D. (2004). *Capital resurgent. Roots of the neoliberal revolution. C*ambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Duménil, G., & Lévy, D. (2010). *The crisis of neoliberalism.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Duménil, G. and Lévy, D. (2011). *The Crisis of Neoliberalism.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Dul, J., & Hak, T., (2008). *Case Study Methodology in Business Research.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Dunn, B. (2017). Against Neoliberalism as a Concept. *Capital and Class, 3,* 435–54.

Earle, D. (2010). *How Can Tertiary Education Deliver Better Value to the Economy?* (1st ed.) Auckland: Tertiary Sector Performance Analysis and Reporting.

Ebersohn, L., & Eloff, I. (2002). The black, white and grey of rainbow children coping with HIV/AIDS. *Perspectives in Education, 20(2),* 77-86.

Edström, J. (2007). *Rethinking Vulnerability and Social Protection for Children Affected by AIDS. IDS Bulletin, 38 (3),* 106-112.

Eduardo, A. (2000). Chile in the 1990s: Embracing Development Opportunities. *Finance & Development, 37 (1),* 19-21.

Edwards, S. (2019). *Chile's insurgency and the end of neoliberalism. Research-based policy analysis and commentary from leading economists.* London: Centre for Economic and Policy Research.

Ehrenreich, B. (2019). *Welcome to the Global Rebellion Against Neoliberalism.* https://www.thenation.com/article/archive/global-rebellions-inequality/.

Eide, A., & Ingstad. B. (2011). (Eds.), *Disability and poverty: A global challenge.* Bristol: The Policy Press.

Elliott, D. (1993). Social Work and Social Development: Towards an Integrative Model for Social Work Practice. *International Social Work 36, (1),* 21-37.

Engel, R.F., & Schutt, R.K. (2013).*The Practice of Research in Social Work.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Engle, P. (2008). *National Plans of Action for Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Sub-Saharan Africa: Where Are the Youngest Children?,* Working papers in Early Childhood Development. Netherlands: Bernard van Leer Foundation.

Emam, A. (2017). Egyptian children dropping out of school because of poverty. *The Arab weekly*, p. 1.

Estes, R. (1985). *The Social Progress of Nations.* New York: Praeger.

Estes, R. (1993). Towards Sustainable Development: From Theory to Praxis. *Social Development Issues, 15 (3),* 1-29.

Evans, D., & Popova, A. (2014). *Cash transfers and temptation goods. A review of global evidence.* Washington: World Bank.

Evatt, E., (2002). Finding a Voice for Women's Rights: The Early Days of CEDAW. *George Washington International Law Review 34*, 515.

European Social Watch Report. (2010). *Measuring Social Inclusion.*

http://www.socialwatch.org/sites/default/files/European_SW_Report_2010-eng.pdf.

European University Institute. (2010). *The 2010 European report on development, social protection for inclusive development.* San Domenico di Fiesole: Robert Schuman Centre for Advanced Studies, European University Institute.

Every Child. (2009). Every Child Deserves a Family: Every Child's Approach to Children Without Parental Care. London: Every Child.

Every Child. (2010). *Positively Caring: Ensuring that Positive Choices Can Be Made About the Care of Children Affected by HIV.* London: Every Child.

Eyal, K., & Woolard, I. (2013). *School enrolment and the Child Support Grant: Evidence from South Africa, National Income Dynamics Study,* Working Paper Series. Cape Town: Southern Africa Labour and Development Research Unit.

Devereux, S., Roelen, K., Béné, C., Chopra, D., Leavy, J., & McGregor, A. (2013). *Evaluating outside the box: an alternative framework for analysing social protection programmes,* IDS Working Paper 431/CSP Working Paper No. 010. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies and Centre for Social Protection.

Devereux, S. (2015). *Social protection and safety nets in the Middle East and North Africa.* Research report No. 80. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.

De Waal, A. (2000). *Democratic Political Process and the fight against Famine,* IDS Working Paper No. 107. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.

Dhlembeu, N. (2004). *The Safety Nets and Beyond*. Harare: Mambo Press.

Fanelli, C. W. (2006). *Zimbabwe's Child-Friendly National Action Plan for Orphans and Other Vulnerable Children: Adding Value by Facilitating Child Participation*. Paper presented at the World Congress on Communication for Development. Rome, Italy.

Fanta, A.B., Berkowitz, B., Khumalo, J., Mutsonziwa, K., Maposa, O. & Ramsamy, P. (2017). *Digitization of Social Grant Payments and Financial Inclusion of Grant Recipients in South Africa -Evidence from Finscope Surveys.* Midrand: FinMark Trust.

Fanzo, J., Hawkes, C., Udomkesmalee, E., Afshin, A., Allemandi, L., Assery, O., Baker, P., Battersby, J., Bhutta, Z., Chen, K., Corvalan, C., Di Cesare, M., Dolan, C., Fonseca, J., Grummer-Strawn, L., Hayashi, C., McArthur, J., Rao, A., Rosenzweig, C., & Schofield, D. (2019). *2018 Global Nutrition Report.* London: Global Nutrition Report. https://globalnutritionreport.org/reports/global-n.

Fatah, A.A. (2016). *The Impact of Bantuan Operasional Sekolah (BOS) Program: School Operational Assistance to the Household Expenditures in Education: A Case Study of Indonesia.* University of Kentucky: Martin School of Public Policy and Administration.

Feng, Y., & Gizelis, T. (2002). Building political consensus and distributing resources: A trade-off or a compatible choice? *Economic Development and Cultural Change, 51(1),* 217-236.

Fenz, K., & Hamel, K. (2019). *More than half of the world's poor are children.* https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Global-Estimate-of-Children-in-Monetary-Poverty-An-Update.pdf

Feo, O. (2008). Venezuelan Health Reform, Neoliberal Policies and their Impact on Public Health Education: Observations on the Venezuelan Experience. *Social Medicine, 3*, 224.

Ferguson, J. (2006). *Global Shadows: Africa in the Neoliberal World Order.* London: Duke University Press.

Fernald, L.C., Gertler, P. J., & Neufeld. L. M. (2008). Role of Cash in Conditional Cash Transfer Programmes for Child Health, Growth, and Development: An Analysis of Mexico's Oportunidades. *The Lancet, 371 (9615),* 828-837.

Filmer, D., & Schady, N. (2011). Does More Cash in Conditional Cash Transfer Programs Always Lead to Larger Impacts on School Attendance?. *Journal of Development Economics 96 (1),* 150-157.

Fine, B., & Hall, D. (2012). Terrains of Neoliberalism: Constraints and Opportunities for Alternative Models of Service Delivery. In D.A. McDonald & G. Ruiters (Eds.), *Alternatives to Privatisation.* London: Routledge.

Fine, B., & Saad-Filho, A. (2014). Politics of Neoliberal Development: Washington Consensus and post-Washington Consensus. In H. Weber (Ed.), *Politics of Neoliberalism.* London: Routledge.

Fine, B. (2015). Development as zombie economics in the age of neoliberalism. *Third World Quarterly, 30 (5),* 885-904.

Fiorentini, R. (2015). Neoliberal Policies, Income Distribution Inequality and the Financial Crisis. *Forum for Social Economics, 44(2),* 115-32.

Fiszbein, A., & Schady, N. (2009). *Conditional Cash Transfers: Reducing Present and Future Poverty.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

Fiszbein, A., Schady, N., Ferreira, G., Grosh, M., Keleher, N., Olinto, P., & Skoufias, E. (2009). *Conditional Cash Transfers: Reducing Present and Future Poverty*. World Bank Research Report No. 47603. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Flick, U. (2011). *Introducing research methodology: A beginner's guide to doing a research project.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Flick, U. (2014). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research* (5th Ed.) Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Food and Agriculture Organization. (2014a). *The State of Food Insecurity in the World: Strengthening the Enabling Environment for Food Security and Nutrition.* Rome: Food and Agriculture Organisation.

Food and Agriculture Organization. (2014). *The State of Food and Agriculture: Innovation in Family Planning.* Rome: Food and Agriculture Organisation.

Food and Agriculture Organization. (2015). *The State of Food Insecurity in the World 2015. Strengthening the enabling environment for food security and nutrition.* Rome: Food and Agriculture Organisation.

Food and Agriculture Organisation. (2015). *The Food and Agriculture Organisation and Sustainable Development Goals.* Rome: Food and Agriculture Organisation.

Food and Agriculture Organisation. (2016b). *The state of Food and Agriculture. Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security.* Rome: Food and Agriculture Organisation.

Forbes, B., Dung, L., Elisabeth, O., &Tamara, T. (2011). *A Systems Approach to Child Protection.* A World Vision Discussion Paper. Uxbridge: World Vision International.

Fleming, K. (2015). *Improving access to education for orphans or vulnerable children affected by HIV/AIDS.* Paper commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015, Education for All 2000-2015. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002324/232423e.pdf.

Flew, T. (2014). Six Theories of Neoliberalism. *Thesis Eleven, 122, (1),* 49–71.

Frances, R., Coughlan, M., & Cronin, P. (2009). Interviewing in qualitative research. *International Journal of Therapy and Rehabilitation, 16 (6),* 309-314.

Franklin, B. (2002). (Ed.), *The New Handbook of Children's Rights.* London: Comparative policy and practice.

Fraser, N. (2017). Progressive Neoliberalism versus Reactionary Populism: A Hobson's Choice. In G. Heinrich (Ed.), *The Great Regression* (pp. 40-48) Cambridge: Polity Press.

Freeman, M., deMarrais, K., Preissle, J., Roulston, K., St Pierre, E. A. (2007). Standards of Evidence in Qualitative Research. *An incitement to Discourse. 36 (1),* 25-32.

Frezzo, M. (2015). *Sociology of Human Rights*. Malden, MA: Polity Press.

Frufonga, R.F. (2015). The Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program (4Ps) in Iloilo, Philippines: An Evaluation. *Asia Pacific Journal of Multidisciplinary Research, 3 (5),* 59-65.

Gabel, S.G. (2012). Social protection and children in developing countries. *Children and Youth Services Review, 34,* 537-545.

Galasso, E. (2006). *With their effort and one opportunity: Alleviating extreme poverty in Chile.* The World Bank Development Research Group.

http://www.iadb.org/res/publications/pubfiles/pubS-001.pdf.

Galasso, E. (2011). Alleviating Extreme Poverty in Chile: The Short Term Effects of Chile Solidario. *Estudios de Economia, 38(1),* 101-127.

Galasso, E. (2006). With their effort and one opportunity: Alleviating extreme poverty in Chile. The World Bank Development Research Group.

http://www.iadb.org/res/publications/pubfiles/pubS-001.pdf.

Galasso, E. (2011). Alleviating Extreme Poverty in Chile: The Short Term Effects of Chile Solidario. Estudios de Economia 38(1), 101-127.

Gandure, S. (2009). *Baseline Study of Social Protection in Zimbabwe, A Report for the Social Protection Technical Review Group (SPTRG) of the Multi-Donor Trust Fund.* Harare: Government Printers.

Gao, Q. (2017). *Welfare, work and poverty: Social assistance in China.* New York: Oxford

University Press.

Garcia, G. (2011). Mexican American and Immigrant Poverty in the United States of America. New York: Springer Science Business Media.

Garcia, M., & Moore, C. (2012). The cash dividend : The rise of cash transfer programme in sub-Saharan Africa. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Garcia, M., & Moore, C.M.T. (2012). The Cash Dividend. The Rise of Cash Transfer Programs in Sub-Saharan Africa. Washington DC: The World Bank.

Garcia, S., & Saavedra, J.E. (2017). Education Impacts and Cost-Effectiveness of Conditional Cash Transfer Programs in Developing Countries: A Meta-Analysis. Review of Educational Research, 87 (5), 921–65.

Garrett, P.M. (2008). How to be modern: New labour's neoliberal modernity and the change for the children programme. *British Journal of Social Work, 38,* 270-289.

Gasparini, L., & Lustig, N. (2011). *The rise and fall of income inequality in Latin America.* Working Paper No. 118. Argentina: Centro de Estudos Distributivos, Laborales Sociales.

Gasson, S. (2004). Rigor in grounded theory research: An interpretive perspective on generating theory from qualitative field studies. In M. E. Whitman & A. B. Woszczynski (Eds.), *The handbook of information systems research.* Hershey: PA: Idea Group.

Gavrilovic, M., Alder, H., Cali, M., Cullen, E., Harper, C., Jones, N., Samuels, F., & Niño-Zarazúa, M. (2011). *The Impact of the Food, Financial and Fuel (3F) crises on Women and Children in Nigeria: The results of a six State study and secondary data analysis. National report.* London: Oversees Development Institute.

Gelli, A., Meir, U., & Espejo. F. (2007). Does Provision of Food in School Increase Girls' Enrolment? Evidence from schools in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Food and Nutrition Bulletin, 28 (2),* 149-155.

Gennaioli, N., La Porta, R., Lopez-de-Silanes, F., Shleifer, A. (2011). *Human Capital and Regional Development*, NBER Working Paper No. 17158. Cambridge: National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc.

Gentles, S. J., Charles, C., Ploeg, J., & McKibbon, K. (2015). Sampling in Qualitative Research: Insights from an Overview of the Methods Literature. *The Qualitative Report, 20 (11),* 1772-1789.

Gentilini, U. (2009). Social Protection in the Real World: Issues models and Challenges. *Development Policy Review, 27 (2),* 147-166.

Gentilini, U. (2016). Revisiting the Cash versus Food Debate: New Evidence for an Old Puzzle?. *World Bank Research Observer, 31 (1),* 135–67.

Gibson, W., & Brown, A. (2009). *Working with qualitative data.* London: Sage Publications Inc.

Gilham, B. (2000). *Case Study Research Methods.* London: Continuum.

Giroux, H. A. (2004). *The terror of neoliberalism: Authoritarianism and the eclipse of democracy.* Boulder, CO: Paradigm Publishers.

Global Agenda Councils. (2013). *Youth Unemployment Visualization 2013.* World Economic Forum. http://www.weforum.org.

Graneheim, U. H., Lundman, B. (2004). Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: concepts, procedures and measures to achieve trustworthiness. *Nurse Education Today, 24,* 105-112.

Grantham-McGregor, S. (2007). Developmental Potential in the first five years for children in developing countries. *The Lancet, 9555,* 60-70.

Gray, M. (2016). (Ed), *The Handbook of Social Work and Social Development in Africa.* New York: Routledge International Handbooks.

Grbich, C. (2007). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Introduction.* London: Sage Publications Inc.

Green, R.A. (2011). *Case Study Research. A Program Evaluation Guide for Librarians.* Oxford: ABC-Clio, LLC.

Gregory, I. (2003). *Ethics in Research.* London: Continuum.

Gregson, S., Nyamukapa, C,A., Garnett, G.P., Wambe, M., Lewis, J.J., Mason, P.R., Chandiwana, S.K., Anderson, R.M. (2005). HIV infection and reproductive health in teenage women orphaned and made vulnerable by AIDS in Zimbabwe. *AIDS Care, 17 (7),* 785-794.

Gregson, I. (2013). Effects of unconditional and conditional cash transfers on child health and development in Zimbabwe: a cluster-randomised trial. *Lancet, 381 (9874),* 1283-1292.

Germann, S., Ngoma, F., Wamimbi, R., Claxton, A., & Gaudrault, M. (2009). Mobilizing and strengthening community-led childcare through community care groups and coalitions: A study from Ethiopia, Mozambique, Uganda and Zambia. *International NGO Journal, 4 (1),* 001-006.

Ghai, D.P. (1977). *The Basic Needs Approach to Development.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

Gibson, W., & Brown, A. (2009). *Working with qualitative data.* London: Sage Publications Inc.

Gilbert, N., Parton, N., & Skivenes, M. (2011). (Eds.), *Child Protection Systems. International trends and orientations.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Gilbert, J. (2013). What kind of thing is neoliberalism?. *New Formations. 80 (1),* 7–22.

Gilbert, J. (2017). Litigating indigenous peoples in Africa: potentials, challenges and limitations. *Int Comp Law Q 66,* 657-686.

Glennerster, H., & Midgley, J. (1991). (Eds), *The Radical Right and the Welfare State: An international Assessment.* Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

Glewwe, P., & Kassouf, A.L. (2012). The Impact of the Bolsa Escola/Familia Conditional Cash Transfer Program on Enrolment, Dropout Rates and Grade Promotion in Brazil. *Journal of Development Economics, 97 (2),* 505-517.

Goodman, R., & Jinks, D. (2003). Measuring the effects of human rights treaties. *Eur J Int Law 14 (1),* 171-183.

Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *Qualitative Report, 8,* 597-607.

Golan, J., Sicular, T., & Umapathi, N. (2017). Unconditional cash transfers in China: Who benefits from the rural minimum living standard guarantee (Dibao) program?. *World Development, 93,* 316-336.

Goliber, T. (2002). *The Status of the HIV/AIDS Epidemic in Sub-Saharan Africa.* https://www.prb.org/thestatusofthehivaidsepidemicinsubsaharanafrica/

Gomm R., Hammersley, M., & Foster P. (2000). *Case Study Method: Key issues, key texts*. London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Gore, M. (1973). *Some Aspects of Social Development.* University of Hong Kong: Department of Social Work.

Gornick, J. C., & Jäntti, M. (2011). *Child poverty in comparative perspective: Assessing the role of family structure and parental education and employment. Luxemburg Income Study/.* (LIS) Working Paper Series No.57. Luxembourg: LIS Cross-National Data Centre.

Gough, I., & Wood, G. (2004). Insecurity and Welfare Regimes in Asia, Africa and Latin America. In I. Gough, G. Wood, A. Barrientos, P. Bevan, P. Davis & G. Room (Eds), *Social Policy in Development Contexts.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Government of India. (2016a). *School education in India, U-DISE 2015–16.* New Delhi: National University of Education Planning and Administration.

Government of India .(2016b). *Education in India, NSS 71st Round, 2014–15.* Report No. 575. New Delhi: Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation, Government of India.

Government of Zimbabwe. (2001). *Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (MERP).* Harare. Government Printers Publishers.

Government of Zimbabwe. (2003). *National Economic Revival Programme (NERP).* Harare: Government of Zimbabwe. Harare.

Government of Zimbabwe. (2003). *Zimbabwe Millennium Development Goals: 2004 Progress Report.* Harare: Government Printers Publishers.

Government of Zimbabwe (2005): Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM), 2005 Annual Report, Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare.

Government of Zimbabwe., & United Nations Children's Fund. (2005). *Survey on Orphans and Other Vulnerable Children in Rural and Urban High Density Zimbabwe 2004/2005.* Harare: United Nations Children's Fund.

Government of Zimbabwe. (2010). Project Summaries Under the Government's Investment Proposals for the Water Sector in Zimbabwe. Harare

Government of Zimbabwe. (2013). *Constitution of Zimbabwe amendment (No.20) Act; 2013.* Harare: Fidelity and Refiners.

Government of Zimbabwe. (2014). *Crafting a Coherent Social Protection System. Policy Note.* Harare: Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Services and the World Bank.

Government of Zimbabwe. (2015). *Enhanced social protection Project: BEAM operational manual.* Harare: Government Printers Publishers.

Government of Zimbabwe. (2015). *National Social Protection Policy Framework for Zimbabwe.* Harare: Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare.

Government of Zimbabwe. (2016). *National social protection policy framework.* Harare: United Nations Children's Fund.

Government of Zimbabwe., & World Bank. (2016). *Zimbabwe Public Expenditure Review. Volume 5*. Social Protection. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Grady, C. (2010). Do IRBs protect human research participants? JAMA. *The Journal of the American Medical Association, 304 (10),* 1122-1123.

Gray, J. (2004). Blair's Project in Retrospect. *International Affairs, 80 (1),* 39-48.

Gray, M., Midgley, J., & Webb, S. A. (2012). *The SAGE handbook of social work.* London: Sage Publications Inc.

Grimaldi, E. (2011). Neoliberalism and the marginalisation of social justice: The making of an education policy to combat social exclusion. *International Journal of Inclusive Education 16(11),* 1131-1154.

Gwirayi, P. (2010). *Sociology of Education*. Gweru: Mambo Press.

Gupta, A. (2018). How neoliberal globalization policy is shaping early childhood education policies in India, China, Singapore, Sri Lanka and the Maldives. *Policy Futures in Education 16 (1),* 11–28.

Gustafson-Brown, C. (2013). *HIV/AIDS Pandemic: Origins, Science and Global Impact* (2nd ed.) San Diego, CA: Cognella Academic Publishing.

Gutsa, I. (2012). *Local Government and Access to Education for Orphans and Vulnerable Children under Zimbabwe's NAP for OVCs.* Harare: Progressio.

Ha a, W., Salama, P.B & Gwavuya, S. C. (2014). *The impact of orphan hood on education attendance: evidence from Zimbabwe.* Harare: United Nations Children's Fund.

Hagen-Zanker, J., & Morgan, J. (2011). *South Africa's cash social security grants: progress in achieving coverage. Development Progress Stories.* London: Overseas Development Institute.

Hailu, D., & Soares, F.V. (2008). (Eds.), *Cash Transfers: Lessons from Africa and Latin America. Poverty in Focus No 15.* Brasilia: International Poverty Centre.

Hall, A., & Midgley, J. (2004). *Social policy for development.* London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Hall, A. (2006). Social Policies in the World Bank: Paradigms and Challenges. *Global Social Policy, 7 (2),* 151-175.

Hall, K. (2015). Children's access to housing. In: A. De Lannoy, S. Swartz, L. Lake, & C. Smith (Eds.), *South African Child Guage*. Cape Town: Children' s Institute, University of Cape Town.

Hall, K., & Sambu, W. (2015). Children's access to services. In A. De Lannoy, S. Swartz, L. Lake, & C. Smith (Eds.), *South African Child Guage.* Cape Town: Children's Institute, University of Cape Town.

Hall, S. (2017). *The Neoliberal Revolution.* Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

Halama, P. (2010). Hope as a mediator between personality traits and life satisfaction. *Studia Psychologica, 52 (4),* 309-314.

Hallfors, D., Cho, H., Rusakaniko, S., Iritani, B., Mapfuno, J., & Helpern, C. (2011). Supporting adolescent orphan girls to stay in school as HIV risk prevention: Evidence from a randomized controlled trial in Zimbabwe. *American Journal of Public Health, 101 (6),* 1082-1088.

Hancock, B. (2002). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research. Trent Focus Group. Annual Report.* Harare: Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare.

Handa, S., & Davis, B. (2006). *The Experience of Conditional Cash Transfers in Latin America and the Caribbean.* ESA Working Paper No. 06-07. Italy: Food and Agriculture Organisation: Italy.

Handa, H., Devereux, S., & Webb, D. (2012). *Social Protection for Africa's Children.* London: Routledge.

Handa, S., Park, M., Darko, R.O., Osei-Akoto, I., Davis, B., & Daidone, S. (2013). *Livelihood empowerment against poverty program impact evaluation.* Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina, Carolina Population Centre.

Handa, S. L., Natal, D., Seidenfled, G., & Zambia Cash Transfer Evaluation Team. (2015). *The Impact of Zambia's Unconditional Child Grant on schooling and work: Results from a Large-Scale Social Experiment.* Florence; United Nations Children's Fund Office of Research.

Handa, S. L., Natali, D., Seidenfeld, G., Tembo and B. Davis (2016). *Can Unconditional Cash Transfers Lead to Sustainable Poverty Reduction? Evidence from two government-led programmes in Zambia,* Innocenti Working Paper No, 2016-21. Florence: UNICEF Office of Research.

Hansson, K. (2012). Schools of thought in children's rights. In M. Liebel. Children's Rights from Below. *Cross-Cultural Perspectives,* Houndsmill, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Harris, D.J., & Sivakumaran, S. (2015). *Cases and materials on international law* (8th ed.) London: Sweet and Maxwell.

Harrison, G. (2019). Authoritarian neoliberalism and capitalist transformation in Africa: all pain, no gain. *Globalizations, 16 (3),* 274-288.

Harper, C., Jones, N. & Tincati, C. (2010). *Opportunities and challenges in promoting policy-and practice-relevant knowledge on child rights.* Working Paper No. 318. London: Overseas Development Institute.

Haskins, C. (2018). *The Paris Yellow Vest Protests Show the Flaws of Capitalism*. *Vice.* https://www.vice.com/en/article/nepkpw/the-paris-yellow-vest-protests-show-the-flaws-of-capitalism.

Hasmath, R. (2014). Social Development. *The Journal of Development Studies, 50 (9),* 1321-1323.

Hathaway, O.A. (2002). Do human rights treaties make a difference? *Yale Law J, 111 (8),* 1935-2042.

Haushefer. J., & Shapiro, J. (2016). The short-term impacts of unconditional cash transfers to the poor. Experiment evidence from Kenya. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 131 (4),* 1973-2042.

Hautala, H. (2012). Foreward in M. Sepulveda & C. Nyst. *The human rights approach to social protection.* Helsinki: Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Finland.

Harvey, D. (2005). *A Brief History of Neoliberalism.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Harvey, D. (2007a). A Brief History of Neoliberalism. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Harvey, D. (2007b). Neoliberalism as creative destruction. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 610 (1),* 21-44.

Hendrikse, R. (2018). Neo-illiberalism. *Geoforum, 95,* 169–72.

Hesse-Biber. S.N., & Leavy, P. (2011). *The Practice of qualitative research* (2nd ed.). California: Sage Publications Ltd.

Hesse-Biber, S. N. (2016). *The Practice of Qualitative Research: Engaging Students in the Research Process.* California: Sage Publications Ltd.

Himaz, R., & Aturupane, H. (2015). *Returns to Education in Sri Lanka: A Pseudo-Panel Approach', Education Economics, 24 (3),* 300-311.

Hlatywayo , L., Zimondi,F., Nyatsanza, T. (2015), Challenges of Copying with Orphans and Vulnerable Children at Household Level. *A Caregivers Perspective, 5 (1),* 1-11.

Hobbs N. (2014). *The UN and the Congo Crisis of 1960.* New Haven: Yale University.

Hodge, S. (2017). Teachers, curriculum and the neoliberal imaginary of education. In M. Peters, B, Cowie, & I. Menter (Eds.), *A companion to research in teacher education* (pp. 333-345). The Gateway West: Springer

Hoefer, R., & Curry, C. (2011). Food security and social protection in the United States. *Journal of Policy Practice, 11(12),* 59-76.

Holland, C., Hughes, J., & Leitch, R. (2016). Neoliberalism and education: Spotlight on Ireland. *Policy Futures in Education 14 (8),* 1041-1045.

Holman, R.S. (2015). *Beholden: Religion, Global Health and Human Rights*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Holmes, R., Akinrimisi, B., Morgan, J., & Buck, R. (2011). *Social protection in Nigeria: an overview of programmes and their effectiveness.* ODI Project Briefing. London: Overseas Development Institute.

Holmes, R., Samson, M., Magoronga, W., Akinrimisi, B., &Morgan, J. (2012). *The potential for cash transfers in Nigeria.* London: Overseas Development Institute.

Holmes, B., Scarrow, G., & Schellenberg, M. (2012). Translating evidence into practice: The role of health research funders. *Implementation Science, 7 (1),* 39.

Holmes, R., & Bhuvanendra, D. (2013). Social protection and resilient food systems: The role of cash transfers. London: Overseas Development Institute.

Holmes, R., & Jones, N. (2013). *Gender and Social Protection in the Developing World. Beyond Mothers and Safety Nets.* London: Zed Books.

Holmwood, J. (2014). From social rights to the market: neoliberalism and the knowledge economy. *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 33 (1),* 62-76.

Honorati, M., Gentilini, U., & Yemtsov, R.G. (2015). *The state of social safety nets.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

Honorati, M., Gentilini, U., and Yemtsov, R.G. (2015). *The state of social safety nets 2015.* Washington, D.C: World Bank.

Houser, R.A. (2015). *Counselling and Educational Research.* California: Thousand Oaks.

Howard, M., & King, J. (2008). *The rise of neoliberalism in advanced capitalist economies: a materialist analysis.* Basingstoke: Palgrave-Macmillan.

Howell, D., & Mamadou, D. (2007) The Importance of Accounting for Job Quality: Charting U.S. Economic Performance with Alternative Labour Market Indicators. *Challenge, 51 (1),* 26-44.

Howell, F., & Larasati, D. (2014). *Bantuan Siswa Miskin (BSM): Indonesian Cash Transfer Programme for Poor Students.* Brasília: International policy centre for inclusive growth.

Iffe, J. (1987). *The African Poor. A history.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

International Labour Organization. (2008). *Toolkit for mainstreaming employment and decent work: Country level application.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

International Labour Organisation. (2010a). *World Social Security Report 2010/11: Providing coverage in the time of crisis and beyond.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

International Labour Organisation. (2012). *Global Employment Outlook.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

International Labour Organisation. (2012). *Recommendation concerning national floors of social protection, No. 202.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

International Labour Organisation. (2012a). *SOLVE: Integrating Health Promotion into Workplace OSH Policies.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

International Labour Organisation. (2013). *World Report on Child Labour: Economic vulnerability, social protection and the fight against child labour Geneva:* International Labour Office.

International Labour Organisation. (2013a). *World Report on Child Labour: Economic vulnerability, social protection and the fight against child labour.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

International Labour Organisation. (2014). *World Social Protection Report 2014/15. Building economic recovery, inclusive development and social justice.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

International Labour Organisation. (2014a). *World Social Protection Report 2014/15: Building economic recovery, inclusive development and social justice.* Geneva: International Labour Office: International Labour Office.

International Labour Organisation. (2014b). *Universal health protection: progress to date and the way forward.* Geneva: International Labour Office.

International Labour Organisation. (2015). Social protection for children: Key policy trends and statistics, Social Protection Policy Paper No. 14. Geneva: International Labour Office.

International Labour Organisation. (2016). World Employment Social Outlook. Trends 2016. Geneva: International Labour Office.

Integrated Regional Information Networks. (2004). *Zimbabwe: Reform of birth registration law urged.* Harare: Integrated Regional Information Networks

International Monetary Fund. (2013). *World Economic Outlook Database.* Washington, DC: International Monetary Fund.

International Monetary Fund. (2014a). *Fiscal policy and income inequality, IMF Staff Report.* Washington, DC: International Monetary Fund.

International Monetary Fund. (2017). *World economic outlook.* Washington, D.C: International Monetary Fund.

Jackson, C., Butters., Byambaa, E., Davies, M. & Perkins, N. (2011). *Lessons from Social Protection Programme Implementation in Kenya, Zambia and Mongolia (Research Summary).* University of Sussex: Institute of Development Studies.

Jain, S. (2017). *The Truth Behind the Growing Number of India's Digitally Literate.* New Delhi: The wire.

Javadi, M., & Zarea, M. (2016). Understanding Thematic Analysis and its Pitfalls. *Journal of Client Care, 1 (1),* 33-39.

Jessop, B. (2007). What follows neo-liberalism? In R. Albritton, R. Jessop, & R. Westra (Eds.), *Political economy and global capitalism* (pp. 67-88). Anthem: London.

Jolly. R. (2008). The World Employment Conference: The Enthronement of Basic Needs. *Development Policy Review, A9 (2),* 31-44.

Jones, N. (2009). *Child Protection and Broader Social Protection Linkages in West and Central Africa. Regional Thematic Report No. 5 for the study on Social Protection in West and Central Africa.* London: Overseas Development Institute.

Jones, N., Ahadzie W., & Doh, D. (2009). *Social Protection to Tackle Child Poverty in Ghana. Briefing Paper.* London: Overseas Development Institute.

Jones, N., & Holmes, R. (2010). *Tackling Child Vulnerabilities through social protection: Lessons from West and Central Africa. Background Note.* London: Overseas Development Institute and United Nations Children's Fund.

Jones, N., Harper, C., & Wats, C. (2010). *Stemming Girls' Chronic Poverty.* University of Manchester: Chronic Poverty Research Centre.

Jones, N., & Holmes, R. (2011). Why is Social Protection Gender-blind? The Politics of Gender and Social Protection. *IDS Bulletin, 42 (6),* 45-52.

Jones, N., & Marquez, E.V. (2014). Is cash the answer? Lessons for child protection programming from Peru: the Juntos (Together) program has the potential to improve children's care and protection. *Child Abuse & Neglect 38 (3),* 383-94.

Kafwa, V.N. (2005). *Effectiveness of AIDS Education Programs in Secondary Schools in Kesses.* Uasin, Gishu county: Moi University.

Kaime, T. (2009a). *The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child: A Socio-legal Perspective.* Pretoria: Pretoria University Law Press.

Kaime, T. (2009b). The Foundations of Rights in the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child: A Historical and Philosophical Account. *Africa Journal of Legal Studies, 3,* 120-36.

Kaiser, K. (2009). Protecting respondent confidentiality in qualitative research. *Qualitative Health Research, 19 (11),* 1632-1641.

Kajawu, G.P. & Mwakiwa, E. (2006). Innovative approaches to empowering OVC. CRS/ZW STRIVE education initiatives. *Journal of Social Development in Africa, 21(1),* 67 – 84.

Kakwani, N., Li, S., Wang, X., & Zhu, M. (2017). *Evaluating the effectiveness of the Rural Minimum Living Standard Guarantee (Dibao) program in China*. Working Papers No 440. Palma de Mallorca: ECINEQ, Society for the Study of Economic Inequality.

Kanyongo, G. (2005). Zimbabwe's public education system reforms: Successes and challenges. *International Education Journal, 6 (1),* 65–74.

Kaplan, J., & Jones, N. (2013).Child-Sensitive Social Protection in Africa. *Challenges and Opportunities.* Addis Ababa: ACPF and ODI.

Kararach, G., & Otieno, R. (2016). *Economic Management in a Hyperinflationary Environment: The political economy of Zimbabwe 1980-2008.* New York: Oxford University.

Karimi, K.L., & Maingi, S.M. (2019). *Influence of educational support on academic performance of orphans and vulnerable children in public primary schools in Kalama Sub-County, Machakos County, Kenya*. https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/INFLUENCE-OF-EDUCATIONAL-SUPPORT-ON-ACADEMIC-OF-AND-Karimi-Maingi/bd3ba57512951022a67661a5050c47c046cea6d5

Kaseke, E. (1988). Social Security in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Social Development, 3 (1).* 5-19.

Kaseke, E. (1982). *Social Assistance in Developing Countries. The Case of Zimbabwe*. London: London School of Economics and Political Science.

Kaseke, E. (2003). Social Exclusion and Social Security. The case of Zimbabwe. *Journal of Social Development in Africa, 18 (1),* 33-48.

Kaseke, E. (2004). *Social Protection in SADC: Developing an Integrated and Inclusive Framework-Social Policy Perspective*. Johannesburg: Centre for International and Comparative Labour and Social Security Law.

Kaseke, E .(2008). *Access to Social Security in SADC: A Human Rights Perspective. Paper prepared for a conference on Comprehensive Social Protection for poverty reduction and sustainable livelihoods in Africa.* Cape Town: South Africa.

Kaseke, E. (2012). Social Assistance and the Right to Social Security: The case of Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Social Security and Workers Compensation, 1,* 1-4.

Kaseke, E. (2013). *Informal Social Security in Southern Africa. A paper prepared for the SASPEN and FES International Conference on Social Protection for Those working informally*. Johannesburg: South Africa.

Kavishe, F.P. (2007). *Securing the Wellbeing of Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Zimbabwe through Cash Transfers.* Harare: United Nations Children's Fund.

Kazimierczuk, A. (2010). *Gbangbu follow-up workshop report: Inclusion of the poor. PADev Working Paper No. 2010.2.* Amsterdam: The Amsterdam Institute for Social Science Research.

Kebede, S. (2015). *The efficacy of child-headed households in caring for orphans in slum areas of Addis Ababa.* http://etd.aau.edu.et/bitstream/123456789/7950/1/16.Kidus%20Bazezew.pdf.

Kelly, M. J. (2002). Preventing HIV transmission through education. *Perspectives in Education, 20(2),* 1-12.

Keller, L. M. (2014). The impact of states parties' reservation to the convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women. *Michigan State Law Review, 2,* 309-326.

Kenayathulla, H.B. (2013). Higher Levels of Education for Higher Private Re-turns: New Evidence from Malaysia. *International Journal of Educational Development, 33(4),* 380-393.

Kentikelenis, A.E., Stubbs, T.H King, L.P. (2016). IMF Conditionality and Development Policy Space, 1985–2014. *Review of International Political Economy, 23 (4),* 543–82.

Kenya AIDS Indicator Survey. *(2014). (2014). Final Report.* *http://nacc.or.ke/wp-content/uploads/2015/10/KAIS-2012.pdf*.

Kidd, S., Gelders, B., & Bailey-Athias, D. (2017). *Exclusion by design: An assessment of the effectiveness of the proxy means test poverty targeting mechanism. Extension of Social Security (ESS) Paper Series No. 56.* Geneva: International Labour Office and Development Pathways.

Kidman, R., & Thurman, T.R. (2014). Caregiver burden among adults caring for orphaned children in rural South Africa. *Vulnerable Children and Youth Studies, 9 (3),* 234-246.

Kiely, R. (2005). *The Clash of Globalisations: Neo-Liberalism, the Third Way and Anti-Globalisation.* Leiden: Brill.

Kiger, M.E., & Varpio, L. (2020). Thematic analysis of qualitative data. AMEE Guide No. 131. *Medical Teacher, 42 (8),* 846-854.

Kiguwa, P. (2008). Feminist critical psychology in South Africa. In D. Hook (Ed.), *Critical Psychology.* Lansdowne: University of Cape Town Press.

Killian, B. (2009). *Working with Children, Families and Communities affected by HIV and AIDS, Conflict, Poverty and Displacement in Africa.* Randburg: REPSSI and UNICEF Publishers.

King, N., & Horrocks, C. (2010). Interviews in Qualitative Research. Califonia: Sage Publications Ltd.

Klenke, K. (2016). *Qualitative Research in the Study of Leadership* (2nd ed.) Bringley: Emarald Group Publishing Limited.

Knitting, J. (2012). *The Orphan. Report-For Ministry Leaders.* Pennsylvania: BookBaby.

Knox, S., & Burkard, A.W. (2009). Qualitative research interviews. *Psychotherapy Research, 19 (4-5),* 566-575.

Konings, P. (2011). *The politics of neoliberal reforms in Africa: State and civil society in Cameroon.* Bamenda: Langaa Research and Publishing Common Initiative Group.

Korstjens, I., & Moser, A. (2018). Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 4: Trustworthiness and publishing. *European Journal of General Practice, 24 (1),* 120-124.

Kotz, D. (2015). *The Rise and Fall of Neoliberal Capitalism.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Kramer, L. (2003). Emotional Experiences of Perfoming Prostitution in M. Farley (Ed), *Prostitution, Trafficking and Traumatic Stress.* New York: Haworth Press.

Kumar, S. & Ahmad, S. (2007). *Meaning, Aims and Process of Education.* https://sol.du.ac.in/SOLsite/Courses/UG/StudyMaterial/16/

Kwashirai, V. (2009). *Green Colonialism in Zimbabwe. 1980-1980.* New York: Cambria Press.

Kwon, H., & Kim, K. (2015). *The Evolution of Cash Transfers in Indonesia: Policy Transfer and National Adaptation.* Asia & The Pacific Policy Studies, Vol. 2/Special Issue: Health Policy Challenges in Asia and the Pacific. https://doi.org/10.1002/app5.83.

Kynoch, G. (2008).Urban Violence in Colonial Africa: A Case for South Africa. *Journal of Southern African Studies 34 (3),* 629-645.

Langridge, D. (2004). *Introduction to research methods and data analysis in psychology.* Harlow: Pearson.

Lapati A, de la Rocha, M.G. (2009). Girls, mothers, and poverty reduction in Mexico: evaluating Progresa-Oportunidades. In S. Razavi (Ed.), *The gender impact of liberalization: towards embedded liberalism* (pp. 283-30). Routledge: New York,

Lauder, H., & Mayhew, K. (2020). Higher education and the labour market: An introduction. *Oxf. Rev. Educ, 46,*1–9.

Lavelle, A. (2016). *The Death of Social Democracy: Political Consequences in the 21st Century.* London: Routledge.

Layton, L. (2009). Who is responsible? Our mutual implication in each other's suffering. *Psychoanalytic Dialogues, 19 (2),* 105-120.

Leatham, C.P. (2005). *The lived experiences of adolescent learners from child-headed Families in Northern Free State.* Johannesburg: University of Johannesburg.

Levy, S., Schady, N. (2013). Latin America's Social Policy Challenge: Education, Social Insurance, Redistribution. *Journal of Economic Perspectives, 27 (2),* 193-218.

Lewin, K. (2011). Expanding access to secondary education: can India catch up? *International Journal of Educational Development, 31 (4),* 382-393.

Li, S., & Sicular, T. (2014). The distribution of household income in China: Inequality, poverty and policies. *The China Quarterly, 217*, 1-41.

Liefaard. T., & Sloth-Nielsen. J. (2017). (Eds), *The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child: Taking stock after 25 years and looking ahead.* Netherlands: Boston - Leiden.

Lifshitz, F. (2009). *The African Journey Though It's Art.* Indiana: Bloomington.

Lincoln, S. Y., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Lindlof, T. R., & Taylor, B.C. (2010). Qualitative communication research methods (3rd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Lodhi, L. (2017). Neoliberalism and Political Crisis: A Postulate of the Causal Dialectics Behind the Unfolding Trumpian Crisis. *Critique, 45 (4),* 519-547.

Lomelī E.V. (2008). Conditional Cash Transfers as Social Policy in Latin America: An Assessment of their Contributions and Limitations. *Annual Review of Sociology, 3,* 475-99.

Long, T., & Jonson, M. *(2007). Research ethics in the real world.* Edinburgh: Churchill.

Long, S., & Bunkers, K. (2013). *Building Protection and Resilience: Synergies for child protection systems and children affected by HIV and AIDS. In Inter-Agency Task Team (IATT) on Children and HIV and AIDS.* UNICEF & World Vision. https://resourcecentre.savethechildren.net/library/building-protection-and-resilience-synergies-child-protection-systems-and-children-affected

Lundberg, M., & Over, M. (2000). *Transfers and Household Welfare in Kagera.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

Lundy, L., & McEvoy, L. (2012). Childhood, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child and research: What constitutes a 'rights-based' approach? In M. Freeman (Ed.), *Law and childhood* (pp. 75–91). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Macassa, G., Hallqvist, J., & Lynch, W. (2011). Inequalities in child mortality in sub-Saharan Africa: A social epidemiologic framework. *African Journal of Health Sciences, 18 (1-2),* 14-26.

Mackenzie, N., & Knipe, S. (2006). Research dilemmas: paradigms, methods and methodology. *Issues in Educational Research, 16,* 1-5.

Maclean, L.M. (2002). Constructing a Social Safety Net in Africa: An Institutionalist Analysis of Colonial Rule and State Social Policies in Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire, Studies in Comparative *International Development, 37(3),* 64-90.

Madra, Y., Adaman, F. (2014). Neoliberal Reason and Its Forms: De-Politicisation through Economisation. *Antipode, 46 (3),* 691-673.

Maguire, M., Gibbons, S., Glackin, M. Pepper, D., & Skilling, K. (2018). *Becoming a Teacher: Issues in Secondary Education* (5th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Magwa, S., & Magwa, W. (2016). Challenges affecting schooling faced by child-head families: A study of perceptions by teachers, parents and learners in Masvingo district. *European Journal of Research and Reflection in Educational Sciences, 4 (10),* 19-27.

Mahat S.T., Chandiwana, B., Munyat, S., Chitiyo, G., Mashange, W., Chabatamoto, P., & Mupambireyi, P.F. (2008). *A qualitative assessment of orphans and vulnerable children in two Zimbabwean districts.* Capetown: HSRC Press.

Makhalima, J. L., Sekatane, M.B., & Dunga, S.H. (2014). Determinants of Child Poverty in a South African Township: A Case of Boipatong Township. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 5 (1),* 235.

Malterud, K. (2001). Qualitative research: standards, challenges, and guidelines. *Lancet 358,* 483-488.

Mandell, D. (2008). Power, care and vulnerability: considering use of self in child welfare work. *Journal of Social Work Practice, Psychotherapeutic Approaches in Health, Welfare and the Community, 22 (2),* 235-248.

Manyonganise, M. (2013). Education for all: Myth or reality for orphans and vulnerable children in Zimbabwe? *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education, 3 (3),* 2223-4934.

Marcus, R. & Pereznieto, P. (2011). *Children and Social Protection in the Middle East and North Africa: A Mapping Exercise.* https://gsdrc.org/document-library/children-and-social-protection-in-the-middle-east-and-north-africa-a-mapping-exercise/

Masdar, L. (2006). Status of Social Protection in Zimbabwe, with a special focus on Orphans and Vulnerable Children and Health Shocks affecting the Very Poor. Harare: World Bank.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2011). *Designing Qualitative Research* (5th ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Massey, D. (2015). Vocabularies of the Economy. In H. S. Hall, D. Massey & M. Rustin (Eds.), In S. Hall, D. Massey, & M. Rustin (Eds.), *After neoliberalism? The Kilburn manifesto* (pp. 9-23). London: Lawrence & Wishart.

Masondo, G. (2004). The impact of HIV/AIDS on disadvantaged schools. *NUE Comment, 7:*1-21.

Maushe, F. (2014). In Search for The Right to Education: The Role of the Basic Education Assistance Module in Promoting Access to Education in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Development Administration, 1 (1),* 1-20.

Mayrand, H. (2010). Does Money Matter? the effects of the child support grant on childrearing decisions in South Africa. *Children and Youth Services Review, 47 (2),* 105-112

McCord, A. (2008). *The social protection function of short-term public works programmes in the context of chronic poverty. Social Protection for the Poor and the Poorest.* Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

McCowan, T. (2013). *Education as a Human Right: Principles for a Universal Entitlement to Learning.* London: Bloomsbury.

McEwan, P.J. (2013). The impact of Chile's school feeding program on education outcomes. *Economics of Education Review, 32,* 122-139.

Meintjes, H., Budlender, D., Giese, S., & Johnson, L., (2003). *Children in need of care or in need of cash. Questioning social security provisions for orphans in the context of the South African AIDS Pandemic.* University of Cape Town: Children's Institute, and the Centre for Actuarial Research

Meng, X., & Ryan. J. (2007). *Does a Food for Education programme affect school outcomes? The Bangladesh Case.* IZA Discussion Paper, 2557.

https://ideas.repec.org/p/iza/izadps/dp2557.html

Menzur, B.D. (2008). The African Children Charter versus the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child: A zero sum game? *South African Public Law, 23 (1),* 1-29.

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (2nd ed.) San Francisco: CA: Jossey-Bass.

Midgley, J. (1981). *Professional Imperialism. Social Work in the Third World.* London: Heinemann

Midgley, J. (1984). Poor Laws Principles and Social Assistance in the Third World: A Study of the Perpetuation of Colonial Welfare. *International Social Work, 27(1),* 19–29.

Midgley, J. (1986). *Social Work in the Third World. Crisis and Response. Social Work and Social Welfare Yearbook 1.* London: Open University Press.

Midgley, J. (1994). The Challenge of Social Development: Their Third World and Ours. *Social Development Issues, 16 (2),* 1-12.

Midgley, J. (1995). *The Developmental Perspective in Social Welfare.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Midgley, J. (1997). *Social Welfare in Global Context.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Inc.

Midgley, J. (2001). Introduction to the special issue: Conceptual traditions and social development. *Social Development Issues, 23 (1),* 2-4.

Midgley, J., & Tang, K.I. (2001). Social Policy, Economic Growth and Developmental Welfare. *International Journal of Social Welfare, 10,* 244-252.

Midgley, J. (2008). Micro-enterprise, global poverty and social development. *International Social Work, 51 (4),* 467-479.

Midgley, J. (2010b). *The theory and practice of developmental social work.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Midgley, J. (2010c). *Poverty, Social Assistance and Social Investments.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Midgley , J., & Piachuad, D. (2011). (Eds.), *Social Policy and British Empirical Legacy.* London: MPG Books.

Midgley, J. (2012). Social Protection and Social Policy Key Issues and Debates. *Journal of Policy Practice, 11(1-2),* 8-24.

Midgley, J. (2013). *Social Development Theory and Practice.* London: Sage publications Ltd.

Midgley, J., & Piachuad, D. (2013). *Social Protection, Economic Growth and Social Change Goals, Issues and Trajectories in China, India, Brazil and South Africa.* New Haven: Yale University Press.

Midgely, J. (2014). *Social Development: Theory and Practice.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Miller. C. M., Gruskin S., Subramanian, S,V., Rajaraman, D., Heymann, S.J. (2005). Orphan care in Botswana's working households: growing responsibilities in the absence of adequate support. *Am J Public Health, 96 (8),* 1429-1435.

Miller, C., Gruskin, S., Subramanian, S., Rajaraman, D., & Heymann, J. (2006). Orphan care in Botswana's working households: Growing responsibilities in the absence of adequate support. *American Journal of Public Health, 96 (8),* 1429-1435.

Miller, C. (2008). *Economic impact report of the Mchinji Social Cash Transfer Pilot, Draft. Boston:* Boston University School of Public Health.

Miller, C., Tsoka, M., Reichert, K., & Hussaini, A. (2010). Interrupting the Intergenerational Cycle of Poverty with the Malawi Social Cash Transfer'. *Vulnerable Children and Youth Studies 5(2).* 108-121.

Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (Zimbabwe). (2018). *Primary and Secondary Education Statistics Report.* https://www.globalpartnership.org/sites/default/files/2016-07-education-sector-strategic-plan.pdf

Ministry of Public Services, Labour and Social Welfare. (2006). *Basic Education Assistance Module, Progress Report, September 2006, paper presented at the ZANU P.F, Goromonzi.* Harare: United Nations Children's Fund.

Ministry of Public Services, Labour and Social Welfare. (2016). *National action plan for orphans and vulnerable children in Zimbabwe. Phase III.* Harare: United Nations Children's Fund.

Minujin, A., & Nandy, S. (2012). Global child poverty and well-being: Measurement, concepts, policy and action. Bristol: Policy Press.

Mishra, V., & Bignami-Van, S. A. (2008). *Orphans and Vulnerable Children in High HIV Prevalence Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. DHS Analytical Studies No. 15.* Calverton: Macro International Inc.

Mkandawire, T. (2016). *Colonial Legacies and Social Welfare Regimes in Africa. An Empirical Exercise.* Paper Prepared for the UNRISD project on Politics of Domestic Resource Mobilisation. Working paper 2016-4.

https://www.unrisd.org/80256B3C005BCCF9/(httpPublications)/600078C0E3281680C1257FC00032132A?OpenDocument .

Mo, D., Zhang, L., Hongmei, Y., Luo, R., Rozelle, S., & Brinton, C. (2013). School Dropouts and Conditional Cash Transfers: Evidence from a Randomized Controlled Trial in Rural China's Junior High Schools. *The Journal of Development Studies, 49 (2),* 190–207.

Mohan, B. (2010). *Toward a New Social Development. In M. Pawar & D. Cox (Eds.), Social Development: Critical Themes and Perspectives* (pp.205-223). New York: Routledge.

Mokoena, M. (2007). *An Exosystemic programme for dealing with difficulties experienced by AIDS orphans at School.* North-west University: Vanderbij/park.

Mokomane, Z. (2012). *Anti-poverty family-focused policies in developing countries, Background Paper to the Twentieth Anniversary of the International Year of the Family*. New York: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

Molyneux, M. (2006). Mothers at the Service of the New Poverty Agenda Progresa/Oportunidades, Mexico's Conditional Cash Transfer. *Social Policy and Administration, 40 (4),* 425-449.

Molyneux, M. (2007). Two cheers for Conditional Cash Transfers. *IDS Bulletin, 38 (3),* 69-74.

Molyneux, M., & Thomson, M. (2011). Cash transfers, gender equity and women's empowerment in Peru, Ecuador and Bolivia. *Gender and Development, 19 (2),* 195-212.

Monasch R., Boerma, J.T. (2004). Orphanhood and childcare patterns in Sub-Saharan Africa: An analysis of national surveys from 40 countries. *AIDS, 18,* 55–65.

Mwoma, T., & Pillay, J. (2016). Educational support for orphans and vulnerable children in primary schools. *Challenges and interventions Issues in Educational Research, 26 (1),* 82 -97.

Moon, K., & Blackman, D. (2014). A guide to understanding social science research for natural scientists. *Conservation Biology, 28,* 167-1177.

Morris, S. S., Flores, R., Olinto, P., & Medina, J.M. (2004). Monetary incentives in primary health care and effects on use and coverage of preventive health care interventions in rural Honduras: cluster randomised trial. *The Lancet 364 (9450),* 2030-2037,

Morrow. S.L. (2005). Quality and Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research in Counselling Psychology. *Journal in Counselling Psychology, 52,* 250-260.

Morse, J. M., Barret, M., Mayan, M., Olson K., & Spiers, J. (2002). Verification Strategies for establishing reliability and validity in qualitative Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 1 (2), 1-9.*

Morse, J. M. (2003). A review committee's guide for evaluating qualitative processes. *Qualitative Health Research, 13 (6),* 833-851.

Morley, S., & Coady. D. (2003). *From Social Assistance to Social Development: A Review of Targeted Education Subsidies in Developing Countries.* Washington, DC: International Food Policy Research Institute.

Mpofu, J., & Chimhenga, S. (2016). Performance in schools of students from child-headed families in Zimbabwe. Successes, problems and way forward. *IOSR Journal of Research and Method in Education, 6 (3),* 37-4.1.

Mtapuri, O. (2012). A Review of Social Protection Programmes in Zimbabwe. Lessons from Zimbabwe. *The social work practitioner-researcher, 24,* 3-4.

Mthethwa, S.M. (2009). *Challenges faced by child headed families at Mahlabathini in Kwa Zulu Natal.* http://hdl.handle.net/10530/1293

Mudge S. (2008). What is neo-liberalism?. *Socio-Economic Review, 6(4),* 703–731.

Mudge, S. (2018). *Leftism Reinvented: Western Parties from Socialism to Neoliberalism.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Mugurungi, O. (2006). *Palliative Care for Children: Training Manual for Communities in Zimbabwe.* Harare: UNICEF and MHCW Publishers.

Muedini F. (2015). *The Importance of Education: What Are the Benefits of Providing Free Child Primary Schooling?* New York: Macmillan.

Mukhopadhyay, A., & Sahoo, S. (2012). *Does Access to Secondary Education Affect Primary Schooling? Evidence from India*. IZA Discussion Paper No. 6507. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labour.

Mulenga, D., Kolker, J., & Luo, C. (2010). Who is the vulnerable child? Using survey data to identify children at risk in the era of HIV and AIDS, AIDS care. *Psychological and socio-medical aspects of AIDS/HIV, 22 (9),* 1066-1085.

Mulinge, M. (2010). Persistent Socio-economic and Political Dilemmas to the Implementation of the 1989 UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in Sun-Saharan Africa. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 34,* 10-7.

Munro, L.T. (2015). Children in Zimbabwe after the long crisis: Situation analysis and policy issues. *Development Southern Africa, 32 (4),* 477-493.

Munyati, S., Chandiwana, B., Mahati, S.T., Mupambireyi, P.F., Buzuzi, S.S., Mashange, W. (2009). *Situation analysis of orphans and vulnerable children in eight districts in Zimbabwe*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Muratovski, G. (2016). *Research for Designers. A Guide to Methods and Practice.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Murray, R ., & Long, D. (2015). The implementation of the findings of the African Commission on Human and People's Rights. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Murenha, A. (2006). *Report on the Study on Cost and Community Co-Financing of Basic Education in Zimbabwe.* Harare: United Nations Children's Fund and Ministry of Education Sports and Culture.

Murisa, T. (2010). *Social Development in Zimbabwe. Discussion Paper prepared for the Development Foundation for Zimbabwe. Development Foundation for Zimbabwe.* www.dfzim.com

Mushunje, M.T. (2006). Child protection in Zimbabwe: yesterday, today and tomorrow. *Journal of Social Development, 21(1),* 12-34.

Mushunje, M,T. & Mafico, M. (2010). Social protection for orphans and vulnerable children in Zimbabwe: The case for cash transfers. *International Social Work, 53 (2),* 261–275.

Mutasa, F. (2014). The future of the Basic Education Assistance Module, a poverty alleviation strategy in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Public Administration and Governance, 5 (3),* 155-64.

Mutasa, F. (2015). The future of the Basic Education Assistance Module, a poverty alleviation strategy in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Public Administration and Governance, 5 (3),* 155-164.

Mutenga, T. (2014). *Zimbabwe education better off with donor funding.* https://www.zimbabwesituation.com/news/zimsit_zim-education-better-off-with-donor-funding//

Mutepfa, M., Mpofu, E., Chataika, T. (2007). Inclusive Education in Zimbabwe: Policy, Curriculum, Practice, Family, and Teacher Education Issues. *Childhood Education, 83 (6),* 342–346.

Mupedziswa, R.S. (1988). Social Work Practice in Zimbabwe and the factors instrumental in this development. A paper presented at an Exchange Visit to the University of Zambia. Lusaka: University of Zambia.

Mwanza, A. (1999). (Ed.), *Social Policy in an Economy under stress: The case of Zimbabwe* Harare: SAPES Books.

Mwoma, T., & Pillay, J. (2015). Psychosocial support for orphans and vulnerable children in public primary schools: Challenges and intervention strategies. *South African Journal of Education, 35*(3).

Mwoma, T., & Pillay, J. (2016). Educational support for orphans and vulnerable children in primary schools. *Challenges and interventions Issues in Educational Research, 26 (1),* 82-97.

National AIDS Control Council. (2017). *Kenta HIV Estimates.* Harare: National AIDS Council

National AIDS Control Council. (2011). *National child and social protection mechanisms revitalise.* Harare: National AIDS Council.

National Treasury. (2014). *Social security and welfare spending in South Africa.* Pretoria: National Treasury.

Ndlovu-Bhebhe, S. (2012). Harmonise Zimbabwe's marriage laws before changing marriage certificates. BUWA! J*ournal on African Women's Experiences, 2,* 15-17.

Nelson, M. (2000). Childhood nutrition and poverty. *Nutr Soc, 59 (2),* 307-315.

Neumayer, E. (2007). Qualified Ratification: Explaining Reservations to International Human Rights Treaties. *Journal of Legal Studies, 36,* 397–429.

Newell, M. L., Brahmbhatt H., & Ghys P.D. (2004). Child mortality and HIV infection in Africa: A review. *AIDS, 18,* 27–34.

Ngwenya, V.C. (2020). Curriculum Implementation Challenges Encountered by Primary School Teachers in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province, Zimbabwe. *Africa Education Review, 17 (2),* 158-176.

Ngwerume, C. (2011). *Orphans and Vulnerable Children programming training manual: NAP for OVC capacity development series.* Harare: United Nations Children's Fund.

Nielsen, L. (2009). *Global Relative Poverty. IMF Working Paper WP/09/03.*Washington DC: International Monetary Fund.

Niño-Zarazúa, M. (2010). Social protection in Sub-Saharan Africa: Will the Green Shoots Blossom?' BWPI Working Paper No. 116. Manchester: University of Manchester.

Niyuni, W. (2010). *Overview and Update of the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty of Ghana.* Paper presented at the African Royal Beach Hotel. Accra: Dept of Social Welfare.

Njungwe, E, (2009). International Protection of Children's Rights. An Analysis of African Attributes in the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. *Cameroon Journal of Democracy and Human Rights, 3 (1),* 4-25.

Norton, A., Conway, T., & Foster, M. (2001). Social Protection Concepts and Approaches: Implications for Policy and Practice in International Development. London: Overseas Development Institute.

Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E., & Moules, N. J. (2017). Thematic Analysis: Striving to Meet the Trustworthiness Criteria. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 16 (1),* 1-13.

Nucci, L. (2001). *Education in the moral domain.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nussbaum, M.C. (2016). Women's Progress and Women's Human Rights. *Human Rights Quarterly, 28 (3),* 589–622.

Nyambedha, E. O., Wandibba, S., & Aagaard-Hansen, J. (2003). Changing patterns of orphan care due to the HIV epidemic in western Kenya. *Social Science & Medicine, 57,* 301–311.

Nyambuya, S. (2018). The Basic Education Assistance Module: Its impact on livelihoods of orphans and vulnerable youths in Dzivarasekwa Township, Harare, Zimbabwe. https://africantheses.org/abstracts/8359-177474

Nyamukapa, C.A., & Gregson, S., (2003). *Contrasting primary school outcomes of paternal and maternal orphans in Manicaland, Zimbabwe: HIV/AIDS and weaknesses in the extended family system.* Measure Evaluation Working Paper No WP-03-71. Chapel Hill: Carolina Population Centre.

Nyamukapa, C & Gregson, S.B. (2004). Extended families and women's roles in safeguarding orphans' education in AIDS-afflicted rural Zimbabwe. *Social Science & Medicine 60 (2005)* 2155-2167.

Nyamukapa C., Gregson S., Lopman. B., Saito S., Watts, H.J., Monasch R., Jukes, M.C. (2007). HIV-associated orphanhood and children's psychosocial distress: theoretical framework tested with data from Zimbabwe. *Am J Public health, 98 (1),* 133-141.

Nyamukapa, H. (2016). Cash transfers and early childhood care and education in Zimbabwe: A critical inquiry to discourse, theory and practice. *South African Journal of Childhood Education 6(2),* 455.

Nyatsanza T., & Hlatywayo, L. (2012). The Efficacy of the Basic Education Assistance Module in the Provision of Life Skills to Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR), 3 (8),* 1481-1488

Nyawasha, T.S. (2006). Psychosocial Support to Orphans and Vulnerable Children. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science (IJRISS), 2, (4),* 26-40.

Nyawasha, T.S. & Chipunza, C. (2012). An Assessment of Psychosocial and Empowerment Support Interventions for Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Human Ecology, 40 (1),* 9-16.

Ochen, E., Jones, A., & McAuley, J. (2012). Formerly Abducted Child Mothers in Nothern Uganda. A critique of Modern Structures for Child Protection and Reintegration. *Journal of Community Practice, 20 (1-2),* 98-111.

Ocheni,S., & Nwankwo, B.C. (2012). Analysis of Colonialism and Its Impact in Africa. *Cross-Cultural Communication, 8 (3),* 46-54.

Oduro, A. D. (2010). *Formal and Informal Social Protection in Sub-Saharan Africa.* Paper presented at the Promoting Resilience through Social Protection in Sub-Saharan Africa. Dakar: Senegal.

Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation. (2011). *Information on poverty and income statistics. A summary of 2011 current population survey data. Child Poverty, 2000 to 2010.* https://aspe.hhs.gov/report/information-poverty-and-income-statistics-summary-2011-current-population-survey-data/child-poverty-2000-2010

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights. (2019). *Right to education. The implementation of the right to education and Sustainable Development Goal 4 in the context of growth of private actors in education.* New York: United Nation General Assembly.

Oketch M., McCowan, T., Schendel, R. (2014). *The Impact of Tertiary Education on Development: A Rigorous Literature Review.* London: Department for International Development.

Olaniyan, R. (2014). *Corruption and human rights law in Africa.* Oxford: Hart Publishing.

Oliver, P. (2003). *The Student's Guide to Research Ethics.* Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Oltmann, S.M. (2016). Qualitative Interviews: A Methodological Discussion of the Interviewer and Respondent Contexts. *Qualitative Social Research, 17(2),* 15.

Omilola, B. (2014). *Social Protection in Africa: A Review of Potential Contribution and Impact on Poverty Reduction.* New York: United Nations Development Programme.

Oosterbeek, H., & Ponce, J., & Schady, N. (2008). *The Impact of Cash Transfers on School Enrolment: Evidence from Ecuador.* World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 4645. https://ssrn.com/abstract=1149578

Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. (2007b). *Higher Education and Regions: Globally Competitive, Locally Engaged.* Paris: OECD Publishing.

Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. (2011). *Main science and technology indicators database.* Paris: OECD Publishing.

Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. (2019). *Education at a Glance 2019: OECD Indicators.* Paris: OECD Publishing.

Ortiz, I.G., Faith, J., & Yablonski, R. (2010). *Social Protection: Accelerating the MDG's with Equity.* UNICEF: UNICEF Social and Economic Policy Working Briefs.

Ortiz, I., Fajth, G., Yablonski, J., & Rabi, A. (2010). *Social Protection: Accelerating the MDGs with Equity.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

Osher, D., Cantor, P., Berg, J., Steyer, L., & Rose, T. (2018). Drivers of human development: How relationships and context shape learning and development. *Applied Developmental Science, 24 (1),* 1-31.

Ostry, J.D., Loungani, P., & Furceri, D. (2016). Neoliberalism: Oversold? *Finance & Development 53 (2),* 38-41, 2016.

Overseas Development Institute., & United Nations Children's Fund. (2009). *Promoting Synergies Between Child Protection and Child Promotion.* London: Overseas Development Institute.

Oxford Policy Management. (2014). *Qualitative research and analyses of the economic impact of cash transfer programmes in sub-Saharan Africa: Malawi Country Case Study Report. PtoP project report.* Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization.

Ozturk, I. (2001). The Role of Education in Economic Development: A Theoretical Perspective. *J. Rural Dev. Adm, 33,* 39-47.

Paes-Sousa, R., Regalia, F., & Stampini, M. (2013). *Conditions for Success in Implementing CCT Programs: Lessons for Asia from Latin America and the Caribbean. Policy Review No. 192.* Washington, DC. Inter-American Development Bank.

Pajankar,V.D. (2012). *Indian School Education System A Holistic View.* Delhi: Kunal Books.

Palmer, M. (2013). Social Protection and Disability: A Call for Action. *Oxford Development Studies, 412,* 139-154.

Parnell, S., & Robinson, J. (2012). Retheorizing Cities from the Global South: Looking beyond Neoliberalism. *Urban Geography, 33 (4),* 593-617.

Patel, L. (2005). *Social Welfare and Social Development in South Africa.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Patel, L., Hochfeld, T., Moodley, J., & Mutwali, R. (2012). *The gender dynamics and impact of the child support grant in Doornkop, Soweto*. University of Johannesburg: Centre for Social Development in America.

Patel, L. (2012). Poverty, gender and social protection: Child Support Grants in Soweto, South Africa. *Journal of Policy Practice, 11,* 106-120.

Patel, L., Hochfeld, T., & Moodley, J. (2013). Gender and Child Sensitive Social Protection In South Africa. *Development in Southern Africa 30 (1),* 69-83.

Patel, L. (2015). *Social Welfare and Social Development,* (2nd ed.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Patel, L., Knijn, G., & Van Wel, F. (2015). Child Support Grants in South Africa: A pathway to women's empowerment and child well-being? *Journal of Social Policy, 44(2),* 377-397.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Pawar, M.S., & Cox, D.R. (2010). *Social Development. Critical Themes and Perspectives.* New York: Routledge.

Pawar, M. (2014). *Social and community development practice.* New Delhi: Sage Publications Ltd.

Paxton, P., Melanie, M., & Hughes, (2017). Women, Politics, and Power: A Global Perspective (3rd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Payne, C. (2012). *The Consumer, Credit, and Neo-Liberalism: Governing the Modern Economy.* London: Routledge.

Pearson, R. (2014). *Child focused social protection strategies across Africa: Trends, innovations and organizing principles, paper prepared for the International Social Protection Conference.* Arusha: International Conference Centre, Simba Hall.

Peck, J. (2010). *Constructions of Neoliberal Reason.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Peck, J., Theodore, N., & Brenner, N. (2012). Neoliberalism Resurgent? Market Rule after the Great Recession. *South Atlantic Quarterly, 111, (2),* 265-88.

Peck, J., Theodore, N. (2012b). Reanimating neoliberalism: process geographies of neoliber-alisation. *Social Anthropology/Anthropologie Sociale, 20 (2),* 177-185.

Peck J. (2013). Explaining with neoliberalism. *Territory, Politics, Governance 1(2),* 132-157.

Peck, J. (2013). *Constructions of Neoliberal Reason.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Peck, J., Brenner, N., & Theodore, N. (2018). Actually Existing Neoliberalism. In D, Cahill. M. Cooper. M. Konings, & P. David. *The Sage Handbook of Neoliberalism* (pp. 3-15). London: Sage. Publications, Ltd.

President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief. (2006). *The President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief. Orphans and other vulnerable children programming guidance.* Washington, DC: PEPFAR office of the U.S. Global AIDS.

President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief. (2016). *United States President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief. Washington, DC: PEPFAR office of the U.S. Global AIDS.* Washington, DC: PEPFAR office of the U.S. Global AIDS.

Petroni, S., Steinhaus, M., Fenn, N.S., Stoebenau, K. & Gregowski, A. (2017). New findings on child marriage in sub-Saharan Africa. *Annals of global health, 83 (5-6),* 781-790.

Phillips, C. (2011). *Child-headed households: a feasible way forward, or an infringement of children's right to alternative care?* http://www.charlottephillips.org/eBook%20Child-headed%20Households.pdf.

Pillay, J. (2011). Challenges counsellors face while practising in South African schools: implications for culturally relevant in-service training. *South African journal of psychology, 41(3), 351-362.*

Pillay, J. (2012). Experiences of learners from child-headed households in a vulnerable school that makes a difference: Lessons for school psychologists. *School Psychology International, 33(1),* 3-21.

Pillay, J. (2018). Early Education of orphans and vulnerable children: A crucial aspect for social justice and African development. *KOERS— Bulletin for Christian Scholarship, 83 (1),* 1-12.

Pikalo, J. (2007). *Economic Globalisation, Globalist Stories of the State and Human Rights.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pitney, W.A., & Parker, J. (2009). *Qualitative Research in Physical Activity and the Health Professions.* Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Piven, F.F. (2015). Neoliberalism and the welfare state. *Journal of International and Comparative Social Policy, 31 (1),* 2–9.

Plagerson, S., & Ulriksen, M. (2013). *Cash transfer programmes, poverty reduction and economic empowerment of women in South Africa, Country study for ILO.* Johannesburg: Centre for Social Development in Africa.

Plant, R. (2009). T*he neo-liberal state.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Polanyi, K. 1. (944). *The great transformation.* New York: Farrar and Rinehart.

Polgar, S., & Thomas, S.A. (2019). *Introduction to Research in the Health Sciences -E- Books* (7th ed) New York: Elsevier Health Sciences.

Pouw, N.R.M. & Janvier, K. (2014). *Missing the very poor with development interventions: Results from the PADev methodology in Burkina Faso, ASC Infosheet No. 19.* Leiden: African Studies Centre.

Pouw, N., Dietz, T., Bélemvire, A., de Groot, D., Millar, D., Obeng, F., Rijneveld, W., Van der Geest, K., Vlaminck, Z., & Zaal, F. (2016). Participatory assessment of development interventions: Lessons learned from a new evaluation methodology in Ghana and Burkina Faso. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 1-13.

Powell, G., Chinake, T., Mudzinge, D., Maambira, W., & Mukutiri, S. (2004). *Children in residential care: the Zimbabwean experience.* Harare. http://www.crin.org/docs/BCN%20-%20Children%20in%20Residential%20Care%20-%20Zimbabwe.pdf.

Pranee, L. (2007). *Researching the vulnerable: A guide to sensitive research methods.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Pufall, E.L., Nyamukapa, C., Eaton. J.W., Campbell, C., Skovdal, M., Munyati, S., Robertson, L. & Gregson. S. (2014). The impact of HIV on children's education in eastern Zimbabwe. *AIDS Care, 26 (9),* 1136-1143.

Putzel, J. (2002). *Politics, the State and the Impulse for Social Protection: The Implications of Karl Polanyi's Ideas for Understanding Development and Crisis.* Working Paper No. 18. London: Development Research Centre, London School of Economics and Political Science.

Qiu, Y., & He, X. (2017). *Overused welfare: The policy goal deviation of rural minimum living security Research Online Documents on Economics 840.* London: London School of Economics and Political Science.

Raftopoulos, B., & Mlambo, A.S. (2009). *Becoming Zimbabwe. A History from the Pre-colonial period to 2008.* Avondale: Weaver Press.

Ramia, G. (2002). The new contractualism, social protection and the Yeatman thesis. *Journal of Sociology, 38 (1),* 49-68.

Rasella, D., Rosana, A., Carlos S., Paes-Sousa, R., & Barreto, M. (2013). Effect of a Conditional Cash Transfer Programme on Childhood Mortality: A Nationwide Analysis of Brazilian Municipalities. *Lancet, 382 (9886),* 57-64.

Ramsden, N. (2002). *Avondale Community help for children living in an HIV positive world.* Durban: Children's Rights Centre.

Ranganathan M., & Lagarde, M. (2012). Promoting healthy behaviours and improving health outcomes in low and middle income countries: A review of the impact of conditional cash transfer programmes. *Preventive Medicine, 55,* 95-105.

Rasella, D., Rosana, A., Santos, C., Paes-Sousa, R., & Mauricio, B. (2013). Effect of a Conditional Cash Transfer Programme on Childhood Mortality: A Nationwide Analysis of Brazilian Municipalities. *Lancet, 382 (9886),* 57–64.

Redclift, M. (1987). *Sustainable Development. Exploring the Contradictions.* London: Routledge.

Regional Hunger and Vulnerability Programme. (2006). *Zimbabwe: The Basic Education and Assistance Module.*

http://www.wahenga.net/index.php/views/country_update_view/zimbabwe_the_basic_education_assistance_module_beam/.

Reimers, F., DeShano da Silva, C., & Trevino, E. (2006). *Where is the education in conditional cash transfers in education?* Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Remenyi, D. (2013). *Case Study Research. The Quick Guide Series.* (2nd ed.) Montreal: Academic Conferences and Publishing International Limited. U.K.

Republic of South Africa. (2003). *Plan of action: Improving access to free and quality basic education for all.* Pretoria: Department of Basic Education.

Republic of Kenya. (2012). *The Kenya Social Protection Sector Review, Draft 2.* Nairobi: Government of the Republic of Kenya.

Resnik, D.B.. & Elliott K.C. (2016). The ethical challenges of socially responsible science. *Accountability in Research, 23 (1),* 31-46.

Richardson, L. (2015). Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (and Beyond) in the UN Human Rights Council. *Human Rights Law Review, 15 (3),* 409–440.

Ritchie, B.W., Burns, P., & Pulmer, C. (2005). (Eds), *Tourism Research Methods. Integrating Theory with Practice.* King's Lynn: Biddles Ltd.

Richter, L. (2010). An introduction to family-centered services for children affected by HIV and AIDS. *Journal of the International AIDS Society. 13 (2),* S1.

Richardson, A. J. (2012). Paradigms, theory and management accounting practice: A comment on Parker (forthcoming) .Qualitative management accounting research: Assessing deliverables and relevance. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 23(1),* 83-88.

Ringson, J. (2019). The impact of child rights cultural contestation in orphans and vulnerable children support in Zimbabwe. *Child Abuse Research in South Africa, 20 (1),*5161.

Robertson, L., Mushati, J.W., Eaton, L., Dumba, G., Mavise, J., Makoni, C., Schumacher, T., Crea, R., Monasch, L., Sherr, G., Garnett, C., Nyamukapa, S., & Rodgers, D. (2018). The Uses and Abuses of Neoliberalism. *Dissent, 65 (1),* 78-87.

Robinson, W.I. (2004). *A Theory of Global Capitalism: Production, Class, and State in a Transnational World.* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Robson, S., & Kanyanta, S.B. (2007). Moving towards inclusive education policies and practices? Basic education for AIDS orphans and other vulnerable children in Zambia. *International Journal of Inclusive Education , 11 (4),* 417-430.

Roby, J. (2011). *Children in Informal Alternative Care. Child Protection Section.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

Rodney, W. (1972). *How Europe underdeveloped Africa.* London: Bogle-L'Ouverture.

Rodney. W. (2018). *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa.* Croydon: CPI Group Ltd.

Roelen, K., & Delap, E. (2012). Researching the links between social protection and children's care in Sub-Saharan Africa – a concept note. *Journal of Inclusive Education, 11(4),* 419.

Roelen, K. (2011). Referral Mechanisms and Case Management for Vulnerable Children in Eastern and Southern Africa - Mozambique Country Case Study. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.

Roelen, K., Edstrom, J., Sabates-Wheeler, R., & Davies, M. (2011). *Lessons from the Children and AIDS Regional Initiative. Child- and HIV-sensitive social protection in Eastern and Southern Africa.* Brighton: Centre for Social Protection, IDS.

Roelen, K., & Sabates-Wheeler, R. (2012). A child-sensitive approach to social protection: serving practical and strategic needs. *Journal of Poverty and Social Justice, 20 (3),* 291-306.

Roelen, K. (2014). Sticks or carrots? Conditional cash transfers and their effect on child abuse and neglect: researchers observe both benefits and harms of CCT programs. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 38 (3),* 372–82.

Roller, M.R., & Lavrakas P.J. (2015). *Applied Qualitative Research Design, A Total Qualitative Framework Approach* (5th ed.) New York: The Guilford Press.

Romer, D. (2011). Advanced Macroeconomics (4th ed.) New York: Mcgraw-hill.

Root, G.P.M. (2001). Sanitation, Community Environments and Childhood Diarrhoea in Rural Zimbabwe. *Journal of Health, population and Nutrition, 19 (2),* 73-92.

Rose, S., Spinks, N., & Canhoto A. (2015). *Management Research. Applying the principles.* Stoodleigh: Florence Production Ltd.

Rubaha, R.F. (2008). *Factors influencing good performance in Tanzania school*. Dar es Salaam: University of Dar es Salaam.

Rushing, S. (2016) What is left of empowerment after neoliberalism? *Theory & Event 19(1).* https://www.muse.jhu.edu/article/607286

Ryan, F., Coughlan, M., & Cronin, P. (2009). Interviewing in qualitative research: The one-to-one interview. *International Journal of Therapy and Rehabilitation, 16 (6),* 309-314.

Ryan-Nicholls, K., & Will, C. (2009). Rigour in qualitative research: Mechanisms for control. *Nurse Researcher, 16,* 70-82.

Saad-Filho, A. (2008). Marxian and Keynesian Critiques of Neoliberalism in L. Panitch, C. Leys, G. Albo & V. Chibber (Eds.), *Socialist Register* (pp. 337-345) London: Merlin Press.

Saad-Filho, A. (2011). Crisis in Neoliberalism or Crisis of Neoliberalism? in L. Panitch, G. Albo & V. Chibber (Eds.), *Socialist Register* (pp. 242–59). London: Merlin Press.

Sa Sanfilippo, M., De Neubourg, C., & Martorano, B. (2012). The Impact of Social Protection on Children. In Office of Research Working Paper. Florence: United Nations Children's Fund.

Sachs, J. (2008). *Common Wealth: Economics for a crowded planet.* New York: Penguin Books.

Sabates-Wheeler, R., Devereux, S., & Hodges, A. (2009). Taking the Long View: What Does a Child Focus Add to Social Protection? *IDS Bulletin, 40 (1),* 109-119.

Sabates-Wheeler, R., & Roelen, K. (2011). *Transformative social protection programming for children and their carers: a gender perspective. Gender & Development, 19 (2),* 179-194.

Sabbarao K., Mattimore, A., & Plangemann, K. (2001). *Social Protection of Africa's Orphans and Other Vulnerable Children. Africa Region Human Development Working Paper Series*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Sachikonye, L.M. (2003). From Growth with Equity to Fast Track Reform: Zimbabwe's Land Question. *Review of African Political Economy, 96,* 227-240.

Salomon, M.E. (2005). (Ed.), *Economic, Social and Cultural Rights: A Guide for Minorities and Indigenous Peoples.* London: Minority Rights Group International.

Samson, M. (2004). *The Social and Economic Impact of South Africa's Social Security System.* Cape town: Economic Policy Research Institute.

Samson, M., MacQueen, K., & Van Niekerk, I. (2006). *Designing and Implementing Social Transfer Programmes.* Cape Town: Economic and Policy Research Institute.

Samson, M. (2014). *Developing a social protection agenda for equitable growth: Perspectives, policies and best practices.* Paper prepared for the International Social Protection Conference. Arusha: International Conference Centre.

Sanchez, M.V., Julca, A., & Winkel, J. (2015b). *National adoption governance and institution of MDG's: Lessons and implications for post -2015.* New York: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Development Policy and Analysis Division.

Sanders. M.R., & Morawska, A. (2018). *Handbook of Parenting and Child Development Across Lifespan.* Brisbane: University of Queensland.

Sanfilippo, M., de Neubourg, C., & Martorano, B. (2012). *The impact of social protection on children: A review of the literature.* New York: UNICEF Office of Research Working Paper .

Sano, H.O. (2000). Development and Human Rights: The Necessary, but Partial Integration of Human Rights and Development. *Human Rights Quarterly, 22(3),* 734-752

Santana, M. (2008). *An Evaluation of The Impact of South Africa's Child Support Grant on SchoolAttendance.*http://www.depeco.econo.unlp.edu.ar/cedlas/ien/pdfs/meeting2008/papers/santana.pdf.

Santa-Ana-Tellez, Y., DeMaria, L.M., & Galarraga, O. (2011). Costs of interventions for AIDS orphans and vulnerable children: Systematic review. *Tropical Medicine and International Health, 16 (11),* 1417-1426.

Saul, B., Kinley, D., & Mowbray, J.(2014). *The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights: Commentary, Cases and Materials.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Saul, B. (2016). (Ed), *The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights: Travaux Préparatoires.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Save The Children. (2010). *Advancing Children's Rights: A Guide for Civil Society Organisations on hot to engage the African Committee of Experts on Rights and Welfare of the Child.* London: Save the Children International.

Save The Children. (2012a). *A chance to grow: How social protection can tackle child malnutrition and promote economic opportunities.* London: Save the Children International.

Save the Children. (2012b). *What cash transfer programming can do to protect children from violence, abuse and exploitation: Review and recommendations.* London: Save the Children International.

Save the Children. (2013). *Surviving the First Day: State of the World's Mothers.* London: Save the Children International.

Save the Children. (2014). *Putting Child sensitive social protection into practice in Nepal-Approach paper.* London: Save the Children International.

Save The Children. (2015). *Child Sensitive Social Protection in Sub-Saharan Africa. Addressing Child Poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa.* London: Save the Children International.

Schady, N., Araujo, M. C., Peña, X., & López-Calva, L.F. (2008). Cash Transfers, Conditions, and School Enrolment in Ecuador, *Economía, 8 (2),* 43-77.

Schaeffer, M., Baarsch, F., Adams, S., de Bruin, K., De Marez, L., Freitas, S., Hof, A., & Hare, B. (2015). *Africa's adaptation gap.* Nairobi: United Nations Environment Programme.

Schenk, K.D., Michaelis, A., Sapiano, T.N., Brown, L., & Weiss, E. (2010). Improving the lives of vulnerable children: Implications of horizons research among orphans and other children affected by AIDS. *Public Health Reports, 145,* 325-336.

Schill, S.W. (2015). *Reforming Investor-State Dispute Settlement: Conceptual Framework and Options for the Way Forward.* Geneva: International Centre for Trade and Sustainable Development.

Schubert, B. (2007). *The Impact of Social Cash Transfers on Children Affected by HIV and AIDS: Evidence from Zambia, Malawi and South Africa.* Nairobi: United Nations Children's Fund.

Schwartz, J., & Shieh, S. (2009). (Eds.), *State and Society Responses to Social Welfare Needs in China. Serving the People.* Routledge: New York.

Scott, D., & Usher, R. (2004). *Researching education: Data, methods and theory in educational inquiry.* New York: Continuum.

Scott, S.B.E. (2008). *Statement. Director of Planning in the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, Sierra Leone. AU Regional Experts Group Meeting on Social Protection. Meeting on Investing in Social Protection in Africa*. Dakar: Senegal. https://cadmus.eui.eu/bitstream/handle/1814/15496/ERD_Report_2010%5BEN%5D.pdf?sequence=2&isAllowed=y

Scott, K. (2010). *Community vitality: A Report of the Canadian Index of wellbeing.* Ottawa: Canadian Council on Social Development.

Scotland, J. (2012). Explaining the philosophical underpinnings of research. Relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigms. *English Language Teaching, 5(9),* 9-16.

Seekings, J. (2012). Pathways to redistribution: The emerging politics of social assistance across the Global South. *Journal für Entwicklungspolitik, 28(1),* 14-34.

Seekings, J., & Nattrass, N. (2013). *Social Protection, Economic Growth and Social Change. Goals, Issues and Trajectories in China, India, Brazil and South Africa.* New Haven: Yale University Press.

Seidman. I. (2013). *Interviewing as Qualitative Research. A Guide for Researchers in Education and Social Sciences* (4th ed) New York: Teachers College Press.

Sen, A. (2010). Primary schooling in West Bengal. *Prospects quarterly review of comparative education, 155(3),* 311-320.

Sewall, R. G. (2008). Conditional Cash Transfer Programs in Latin America. *SAIS Review of International Affairs, 28 (2),* 175-87.

Shangwa. I.K., Mathende, T.L. (2019). Child Protection Systems in the UK and Zimbabwe: Exporting Valuable Lessons to Zimbabwe. *Journal of Social Service and Welfare, 1(1).* https://bettercarenetwork.org/library/social-welfare-systems/child-care-and-protection-policies/child-protection-systems-in-the-uk-and-zimbabwe-exporting-valuable-lessons-to-zimbabwe

Shaw, M.N. (2014). International law (7th ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Shawn. D. (2016). *IMF Economists Put Neoliberalism under the Spotlight.* London: Financial Times.

Shei, A. (2013). Brazil's conditional cash transfer program associated with declines in infant mortality rates. *Health Affairs, 32 (7),* 1274-1281.

Shenton, A.K. (2004). Strategies for Ensuring Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research Projects. *Education for Information, 22 (2),* 63-75.

Shvji, I. G. (2007). *Silences in NGO Discourse. The role and future of NGO's in Africa.* Oxford: Fahamu Ltd.

Saville N., Shrestha B.P., Style S., Harris-Fry H., Beard B.J., & Sen A. (2018). Impact on birthweight and child growth of participatory learning and action women's groups with and without transfers of food or cash during pregnancy: findings of the Low Birth Weight South Asia Cluster-randomised Controlled Trial (LBWSAT) in Nepal. *PLoS One.13(5).* https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0194064

Shahnazarian, D., Hagemann,J., Aburto, M., & Rose, S. (2013). *Informed Consent in Human Subjects Research.* California: University of Southern California.

Shibuya, T., & Taylor, V. (2013). Alternative care options and policy choices to support orphans: The case of Mozambique in the context of the SADC. *International Social Security Review, 66 (1),* 71-95.

Shimeles, A. (2014). *Growth and poverty in Africa: Shifting fortunes and new perspectives*. IZA Discussion Paper No. 8751. Bonn: Institute for the Study of Labour

Serey, S., Many, D., Sopheak, M., Sokkalyan, T., Sela, S.A., Chanravuth. L., & Sophal, K. (2011). Addressing the special needs of orphans and vulnerable children: A case study in Kien Svay district, Kandal Province, Cambodia. *Journal of AIDS and HIV Research, 3(2),* 43-50.

Shabaya, J., & Konadu-Agyemang, K. (2004). Unequal access, unequal participation: Some spatial and socio-economic dimensions of the gender gap in education in Africa with special reference to Ghana, Zimbabwe and Kenya. *Compare, 34 (4),* 395-424.

Shahnazarian, D., Hagemann,J., Aburto, M., & Rose, S. (2013). *Informed Consent in Human Subjects Research.* California: University of Southern California.

Shaw, P. (2002). *Changing conversations in organisations. A complexity approach to change.* London: Routledge.

Sharma, S. (2016). The Status of Muslim Women in Medieval India. New Delhi: Sage Publications India Pvt Ltd.

Shetty, A.K., & Powell, G. (2003). Children Orphaned by AIDS: A Global Perspective. *Seminar on Paediatric Infectious Diseases, 14 (1),* 25-31.

Shizha, E., & Kariwo. M.T. (2011). *Education and Development in Zimbabwe. A Social. Political and Economic Analysis.* Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Shizha, E., & Makuvaza, N. (2017). (Eds.), Re-thinking Postcolonial Education in Sub-Saharan Africa in the 21st Century-Post-Millennium Development Goals. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Siddiqui, K. (2012). Developing countries' experience with neoliberalism and globalisation. *Research in Applied Economics, 4 (4),* 1948-5433.

Skinner, D., Tsheko, N., Mtero-Munyati, S., Segwabe, M., Chibatamoto, P., Mfecane, S., Chandiwana, B., Nkomo, N., Tlou, S., & Chitiyo, G. (2006). *Towards a Definition of Orphaned and Vulnerable Children.* New York: Springer Science+Business Media, Inc.

Simmons, B.A. (2009). Mobilizing for Human Rights: International Law and Domestic Enforcement. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Singh, P., & Gupta, S. (2013). A Conceptual Study on Women Empowerment-Facts and Realities. *IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science, 11 (4),* 54-63.

Singh, H., & Gera, M. (2015). Difficulties faced by teachers in successful implementation of Sarva-Shiksha-Abhiyan. *Indian Journal of Educational Studies, 1,* 2349-6908.

Singh, A., & Revollo, P.E. (2016).*Teenage marriage, fertility, and well-being: Panel evidence from India. Working paper. Young Lives.* Oxford: Oxford Department of International Development.

Singh, J. (2020). *Interventions in the Field of Education During Conflict Situations of Kashmir*. Srinagar: R K Publishing House.

Slobodian, Q. (2018). *Globalists: The End of Empire and the Birth of Neoliberalism.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Smart, R. (2003). *Policies for Orphans and Vulnerable Children. A Framework for Moving Ahead.* Washington, D.C: The United States Agency for International Development

Smith, H., Chiororo, P & Musker, P. (2012). *Process and Impact Evaluation of the Basic Education Assistance Module in Zimbabwe. Final Evaluation Report*. Harare: CfBT Education Trust, Impact Research International & Paul Musker and Associates.

Smyth, M., & Williamson, W. (2004). (Eds.), *Researchers and their subjects: Ethics, power, knowledge and consent.* Bristol: Policy Press.

Sniegocki, J. (2008). Neoliberal globalization: Critics and alternatives. *Theosophical Studies, 69 (2),* 321–334.

Soares, F., & Silva, E. (2010). *Conditional cash transfer programmes and gender vulnerabilities in Latin America.* London: Overseas Development Institute.

South African Social Security Agency. (2020). *You and Your Grants.* https://www.sassa.gov.za/publications/Documents/You%20and%20Your%20Grants%202020%20-%20English.pdf

Spector, A. J. (2007). Globalization or Imperialism? Neoliberal Globalization in the Age of Capitalist Imperialism. *International Review of Modern Sociology*, *33*, 7–26.

Spitzer, H., & Twikirize. (2013). War-affected Children in Northern Uganda. No Easy Path to Normality. *International Social Work, 56,* 67-79.

Spolander, G., Engelbrecht, L. & Pullen-sansfaçon, A. (2015). Social work and macro-economic neoliberalism: beyond the social justice rhetoric. *European Journal of Social Work, 9,* 199-221.

Ssengonzi R. (2007). The plight of older persons as caregivers to people infected/affected by HIV/AIDS: Evidence from Uganda. *J Cross Cult Gerontol, 22(4),* 339-353.

Ssenyonjo, M. (2010). *Economic, Social and Cultural Rights: An Examination of State Obligations.* Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd.

Stake, R. E. (2000). Case studies. In N.K, Denzin & Y.S, Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 443-466).Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Ltd.

Stampini, M., Martinez-Cordova, S., Sebastian, I., & Harris, D. (2016a). *Do conditional cash transfers lead to better secondary schools? Evidence from Jamaica's PATH. Technical Note No. 1125.* Washington, DC: Inter-American Development Bank.

Starman, A. B. (2013). The Case Study as a Type of Qualitative Research. *Journal of Contemporary Educational Studies, 1,* 28-43.

Statistics South Africa. (2017). *Poverty on the Rise in South Africa.* http://www.statssa.gov.za/?p=10334.

Stavrinides, Z. (1999). Human rights obligations under the United Nations charter. *The International Journal of Human Rights, 3 (2),* 38-48.

Steger, M.B., & Roy, R..K., (2010). *Neoliberalism: A Very Short Introduction.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stover, J., Bollinger, L., Walker, N., Monasch, R. (2006). Resource needs to support orphans and vulnerable children in sub-Saharan Africa. *Health Policy and Planning, 22,* 21-27.

Stuckler, D., & Basu, S. (2011). McKee M. International monetary fund and aid displacement. *Int J Health Serv, 41,* 67–76.

Sudhanshu, J. (2012). Accelerating Transition of Girls to Secondary Education: A Call for Action. Washington: Global Partnership for Education.

Supine, P.G., & Borer, J.S. (2012). *Principles of Research Methodology: A Guide for Clinical Investigators.* New York: Springer Publishing Company.

Suprastowo, P. (2015). Contributions of Students Aid Program Towards Sustainability and Continuity of Students Education. *Jurnal Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 20(2).*

Suri, H. (2011). Purposeful sampling in qualitative research synthesis. *Qual Res J, 11 (2),* 63-75.

Suryahadi, A., & Sumarto, S. (2003). "Poverty and vulnerability in Indonesia before and after the economic crisis. *Asian Economic Journal, 17 (1),* 45-64.

Tansel, C.B. (2017). (Ed.), *States of discipline: Authoritarian neoliberalism and the contested reproduction of capitalist order.* London: Rowman & Littlefield International.

Taylor, V. (2012). *Social Protection in Africa: An Overview of the Challenges.* Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Taylor, E., Kagin, J., Filipsky, M., & Thome, K. (2013). *Evaluating General Equilibrium Impacts of Kenya's Cash Transfer Programme for Orphans and Vulnerable Children.* Rome: Food and Agriculture Organisation.

Taylor, J.E., Thome, K., & Mateusz, F. (2013). *Evaluating Local General Equilibrium Impacts Lesotho's Child Grants Program.* Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization

Taylor, E., Kagin, J., Filipsky, M., & Thome, K. (2013). *Evaluating General EquilibriumImpacts of Kenya's Cash Transfer Programme for Orphans and Vulnerable Children.* Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization.

Taylor, J.E., Thome, K., & Mateusz, F. (2013). *Evaluating Local General Equilibrium Impacts Lesotho's Child Grants Program.* Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization.

Taylor, R. (2015). Beyond anonymity: Temporality and the production of knowledge in a qualitative longitudinal study. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology, 18 (3),* 281-292

Tazoacha, F.(2001). *The causes and impact of poverty on sustainable development in Africa.* A paper presented at the conference held in Bordeaux. France. https://www.hrpub.org/download/20181230/SA2-19611985.pdf

Terceira, N., Gregson, S., Zaba, B., & Mason, P. (2003). The contribution of HIV to fertility decline in rural Zimbabwe, 1985-2000. *Population Studies, 57 (2),* 149-164.

Terre Blanche, M., Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (2006). (Eds.), *Research in Practice: Applied methods in the social sciences.* Cape town: UCT Press.

The African Child Policy Forum. (2012). *2012 Pocket Statistics on Children in Africa.* https://africanchildforum.org/index.php/en/component/com_sobipro/Itemid,158/pid,2/sid,76/

The Economist. (2005). *New thinking about an old problem.* London: The Economist.

The Economist.(2015a). *The era of Syriza. The Economist.* London: The Economist.

The President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief. (2006). *Orphans and other vulnerable children programming guidance.* Washington, D.C: The Office of the U.S. Global AIDS Coordinator.

Thirumurthy, H. (2012). *Improved employment and children's education outcomes in households of HIV positive adults with high CD4 Counts: evidence from a community-wide health campaign in Uganda.* 19th International AIDS Conference, Washington DC.

Thomas, P. (2005). *Disability, poverty and the Millennium Development Goals: Relevance, challenges and opportunities for DfID, Disability Knowledge and Research.* London: Department of International Development.

Thomas, N. (2007). Towards a theory of children's participation. *International Journal of Children's Rights, 15(2),* 199-218.

Thomson, A. (2010). *An Introduction to African Politics* (3rd Ed.) New York: Taylor & Francis.

Thomson, S. B. (2011). Qualitative research. *Validity, 6(1),* 77-82.

Thurman TR, Brown L, Richter L, Maharaj P, Magnani R. Sexual risk behaviour among South African adolescents: is orphan status a factor? *AIDS Behav 10 (6),* 627-635.

Tight, M. (2017). *Understanding Case Study Research: Small-scale Research with meaning.* Croydon: Sage Publications Ltd.

Tikly, L. (2011). Towards a framework for researching the quality of education in low income countries. *Comparative Education, 47(1),* 1-23.

Todaro, M.P., & Smith, S.C. (2011). *Economic development* (11th ed.) Boston, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Tooze, A. (2018). Neoliberalism's World Order. *Dissent, 65 (3),* 132-36.

Townsend, P. (2000). *Prisoners of the global market: social polarisation and the growth of poverty.* PSE Working paper No 25. New York: UNICEF House.

Townsend, P. (2007). Using human rights to defeat ageism: dealing with policy-induced structured dependency'. In B. Miriam & Thomas, S. (Eds.), *Critical Perspectives on Ageing Societies. Ageing and the life course series* (pp. 27-44). Bristol: Policy Press.

Trainor, A., & Graue. E. (2013). (Eds), *Reviewing Qualitative Research in Social Sciences. Routledge.* Oxfordshire: Abingdon.

Tuckett, A. G. (2005). Applying thematic analysis theory to practice: A researcher's experience. *Contemporary Nurse, 19(1-2),* 75-87.

Ugwu, C., Ngozi, A., & Chiemezie, A. (2016). Neoliberalism and Intervention Philosophy in Africa: Myth of under differentiation. *Journal of Economic and Allied Research, 1(1),* 42-52

Ulfah, M., & Astuti, P. (2013). Poor Scholarship Pro-gram Implementation Evaluation . *Journal of Politics and Government Studies, 2 (4),* 76-85.

United Nations. (1954). *Social Development in British Colonial Territories.* London: Colonial Office, HMSO.

United Nations. (1971a). Social Policy and Planning in National Development. *International Social Development Review, 3,* 4-15.

United Nations. (1971b). *Popular Participation in Development.* New York. United Nations.

United Nations. (1989). *World Population Monitoring 1989. Special Report. The Population Situation in the Least Developed Countries.* New York: United Nations Department of International Economic and Social Affairs.

United Nations. (1995). *World Summit for Social Development, Copenhagen, 1995*. New York: UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

United Nations. (2008). *The role of social factors in development. Expert Group Meeting on Social Policy and Planning, Background Paper No. 2.* Stockholm: United Nations.

United Nations. (2012b). *Guiding principles on extreme poverty and human rights, submitted by the Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights, Magdalena Sepúlveda Carmona*. New York. United Nations Human Rights Council

United Nations. (2013d). *The report on the world social situation: Inequality matters*. New York: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

United Nations. (2014). *World Survey on the role of women in development, Gender Equality and Sustainable Development.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2014). *A World that Counts. Report by the Independent Expert Advisory Group on a Data Revolution for Sustainable Development.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2015). *Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 25 September 2015. 70/1. Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. A/RES/70/1*. New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2015a). *The ten principles.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2015a). *Addis Ababa Action Agenda of the Third International Conference on financing for Development.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2015d). Transforming our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2016). *Declaration on the right to peace.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2016a). *Global Sustainable Development Report.* 2016 Edition. New York.

United Nations. (2016b). *Sustainable Development Goals Report 2016.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2017). *World Economic Situation and Prospects 2010.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2017b). *The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2017.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2018). *The Sustainable Development Goal Report 2018.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2018). *Promoting inclusion through social protection. Report on World Social Situation 2018.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations. (2019). *World Prospects 2019.* New York: Unite Nations.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2000). *The State of the World's Children.* New York: UNICEF House.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2003). *The state of the World's Children.* New York: UNICEF House.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2004). *Children on the Brink 2004. A Joint Report of New Orphan Estimates and a Framework for Action.* New York: UNICEF House.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2005). *The state of the world's children. Childhood under threat.* New York: UNICEF House.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2006). *Children living in poverty. Overview of definition, measurements and policy.* New York: Global Policy Section.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2006a). *The State of the World's Children.* New York: UNICEF House.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2007). *Draft Social Protection in ESAR: A Framework and Strategy for UNICEF; Conceptual Framework for Social Protection.* New York: UNICEF House.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2007). *The Framework for The Protection, Care and Support of Orphans and Vulnerable Children Living in A World with HIV And AIDS.* New York: UNAIDS, UNICEF And Partners

United Nations Children's Fund. (2008). *Social protection in eastern and southern Africa: A framework and strategy for UNICEF.* Nairobi: UNICEF Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2009). Promoting quality education for orphans and vulnerable children: A source book of programme experiences in Eastern and Southern Africa. New York: UNICEF House.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2010). *Annual Report 2010.* New York: UNICEF House.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2011). *Gender, Rights and Civic Engagement, Policy and Practice.* New York: UN Plaza.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2011). *Situational analysis on the status of women and children in Zimbabwe: a call for reducing disparities and improving equity 2005–2010.* Harare: United Nations Children's Fund, Social Sciences Analytics Cell & Government of Zimbabwe.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2011). *State of the world's children. Adolescence: An age of opportunity.* New York: *UNICEF House.*

United Nations Children's Fund. (2011). *Child protection fund. In support of the Government of Zimbabwe's National Action Plan for Orphans and Vulnerable Children: Strategic concept and design.* Harare: Ministry of Labour and Social Services.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2012). *Child poverty and inequality: new perspectives.* New York: Division of Policy and Practice.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2012). *BEAM evaluation and assessment report.* Harare: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2012). *Towards a Post-2015 Word Fit for Children: UNICEF's Key Messages on the Post-2015 Development Agenda.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2014). *Cash Transfer Programs for Gender Equality in Girls' Secondary Education*. New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2014). *Child Poverty on the Post -2015 Agenda.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2014). *Hidden in plain sight: A statistical analysis of violence against children.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2014a). The State of the World's Children 2014 in Numbers: Every child counts. New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2015). *UNICEF Annual Report Zimbabwe.* Harare: Ministry of Labour and Social Services.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2016). *The state of the World's Children 2016. A fair chance for every child.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2016). *Annual Report Zimbabwe.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2018). *Social Policy Programmes in Malawi.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2018). *Basic Education. Giving children a chance to learn is one of the most urgent priorities in Liberia.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2018). *UNICEF Ethiopia-Learning and Development Programme.* Addis Ababa: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2018). *Infographic: get the facts on handwashing.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2018a). *Malnutrition rates remain alarming: stunting is declining too slowly while wasting still impacts the lives of far too many young children.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2019). *Child marriage.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2019). *2019 Zimbabwe: UNICEF Zimbabwe HIV and AIDS Programme mid-term evaluation.* Harare: Ministry of Labour and Social Services.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2019). *Children in Africa: Key statistics on child survival and population.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2019). *Education Overview.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2020). *History of child rights.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2020). *Global and regional trends.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund. (2020). *Child poverty*. New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund., & Government of Zimbabwe. (2005). *International Mapping for OVCs in Zimbabwe.* Harare: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund., United States Agency for International Development., & United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2004). *Children on the Brink 2004: A Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, the United Nations Children's Fund and the United States Agency for International Development*, New York.

United Nations Children's Fund., & United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2006). *Children on the Brink 2004: Africa's Orphaned and Vulnerable Generations; Children Affected by AIDS.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund., & World Bank. (2016). *Ending Extreme Poverty: A focus on children. Briefing Note.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Children's Fund., World Health Organisation., & World Bank. (2017). *Levels and trends in child malnutrition: joint malnutrition estimates*. New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2015). *World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision.* New York: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division.

United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2020). *Recovering better. Economic and social challenges and opportunities.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations Development Programme. (1993). *Human Development Report 1993*.New York: Oxford University Press.

United Nations Development Programme. (2003). *Human Development Report 2003, Millennium Development Goals: A Compact among Nations to End Human Poverty.* New York: Oxford University Press.

United Nations Development Programme. (2010). *Human Development Report. The Real Wealth of Nations. Pathways to Human Development.* New York: United Nations Development Programme.

United Nations Development Programme.(2010b). *Human Development Report. The Wealth of Nations. Pathways to Human Development*. New York: United Nations Development Programme.

United Nations Development Programme. (2010c). *Human Development Report 2010. The Real Wealth of Nations: Pathways to Human Development.* New York. United Nations Development Programme.

United Nations Development Programme. (2013). *Human Development Report. The Rise of the South. Human Progress in a Diverse World.* New York: United Nations Development Programme.

United Nations Development Programme. (2014). *Humanity divided: Confronting inequality in developing countries.* New York: United Nations Development Programme.

United Nations Development Programme. (2014). *Global Outlook on Sustainable Consumption and Production Practices. Taking Action Together.* Nairobi: United Nations Development Programme.

United Nations Development Programme. (2015). Social Protection, Entrepreneurship and Labour Market Activation. *Policy in focus, 12 (2),* 8-10.

United Nations Development Programme. (2016). *An assessment of the status of human security and human development in Nigeria.* New York: Oxford University Press.

United Nations Development Programme., & International Labour Organisation. (2011). *Sharing Innovative Experiences: Successful Social Protection Floor Experiences.* New York: United Nations Development Programme.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2000). *World education report. The right to education. Towards education for all throughout life.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2002). *Education for All: Is the world on track? EFA Global Monitoring Report 2002.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2003). *Global Education Digest 2003: Comparing Education Statistics Across the World.* Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2005). *Secondary Education Reform: Towards a Convergence of Knowledge Acquisition and Skills Development.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2005). *Scaling up, Good Practices in Girls Education.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2008). *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008: Education for All by 2015.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2009a). *International Technical Guidance on Sexuality Education. An Evidence-informed Approach for schools, teachers and health educators.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2011). *Science Report*. Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2011). *Primary education.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2012). *World Atlas of Gender Equality in Education.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2013). *World Social Sciences Report: Changing Global Environments.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2014). *Teaching and learning: Achieving quality for all. Education for All global monitoring report 2013/14.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2014). *Teaching and learning: Achieving quality for all. Education for All global monitoring report 2013/14.* UNESCO: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2015). *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015: Education for All 2000-2015 - Achievements and Challenges.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2015). *Promising EFA practices in the Asia-Pacific Region, India. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, case study, Bangkok.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. (2015). Education for all 2015: Achievements and Challenges. *Journal of supranational policies of education, 3,* 328-330.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2015). *Education for All Global Monitoring Report: Teaching and Learning : Achieving quality for all.* Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

United Nations General Assembly. (2014a). *Report of the Open Working Group of the General Assembly on Sustainable Development Goals.* Geneva: United Nations

United Nations General Assembly. (2014a). *Accelerating efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women : violence against women as a barrier to women's political and economic empowerment : resolution / adopted by the Human Rights Council.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. (2018).*Guidelines on Assessing and Determining the Best Interests of the Child.* Geneva: United Nations

United Nations Human Rights Council. (2019). *Membership of the Human Rights Council.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations Population Division. (2005). *World Population Prospects: The 2004 Revision.* New York: United Nations.

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS & World Health Organisation. (1998). *Report on the global HIV/AIDS epidemic- June* 1998. https://data.unaids.org/pub/report/1998/19981125_global_epidemic_report_en.pdf

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS & World Health Organisation. (2003). *AIDS epidemic update.* https://data.unaids.org/pub/report/2003/2003_epiupdate_en.pdf

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2004). *Ethical considerations in HIV preventive vaccine research.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2004). *Report on the Global HIV/AIDS Epidemic. Joint United Nations Program on HIV/AIDS.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS & World Health Organisation. (2007). *AIDS epidemic update.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2007). *AIDS epidemic update.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2009). *2009 AIDS epidemic update.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2016). *Global AIDS.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2018). *Global AIDS Response Report 2018. Fast-Track Commitment to end AIDS by 2030.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2018). *Global HIV/AIDS Statistics-2018 Factsheet.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2019). *Communities at the centre: Global AIDS Update 2019.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2020). *Global HIV/AIDS statistics-2020 fact sheet.* Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations Research Institute for Social Development. (2010). *Combating Poverty and Inequality: Structural Change, Social Policy and Politics.* Geneva: United Nations Research Institute for Social Development.

United Nations Research Institute for Social Development. (2015). *Global Assessment Report. Making Development Sustainable. The Future of Disaster Risk Management.* Geneva: United Nations Research Institute for Social Development.

United Nations Research Institute for Social Development. (2016). *Policy Innovations for Transformative Change: UNRISD Flagship Report 2016.* Geneva: United Nations Research Institute for Social Development.

United Nations Research Institute for Social Development. (2018). *Social Policy and Social Spending in Zimbabwe: 1980-2015.* Geneva: United Nations Research Institute for Social Development.

United States Agency for International Development. (2009). *A Situational Analysis of Orphans and Vulnerable Children and Adolescents in Zimbabwe: Background Papers.* Harare: United States Agency for International Development.

United States Agency for International Development. (2012). *Community-based early childhood development centres for reaching orphans and vulnerable children: Considerations and challenges.* Arlington, VA: AIDSTAR-One.

United Nations Women. (2018). *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women States Parties.* New York: United Nations.

Unterhalter, E. (2014). Connecting the private and the public: pregnancy, exclusion, and the expansion of schooling in Africa. *Gender and Education, 25 (1),* 75-90.

Uprimny, R., (2018). *Article 22 and The Role of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in the Realization of Social Justice. In Contemporary Human Rights Challenges: The Universal Declaration of Human Rights and its Continuing Relevance.* London: Routledge.

Vaismoradi, M., Turunen, H., & Bondas, T. (2013). Content analysis and thematic analysis: Implications for conducting a qualitative descriptive study. *Nursing and Health Sciences, 15 (3), 398-405.*

Vanclay, F., Baines, J.T., & Taylor, C.N. (2013). Principles for ethical research involving humans: ethical professional practice in impact assessment Part I. *Impact Assessment and Project Appraisal, 31 (4),* 243-253.

Vandemoortele, J. (2012). Equity begins with children. Bristol: The Policy Press.

Varoufakis, Y. (2014). Egalitarianism's latest foe: a critical review of Thomas Piketty's Capital in the Twenty-Frist Century. *Real World Economics Review, 69,* 18-35.

Velarde, R., & Fernandez, L. (2011). *Welfare and distributional impacts of the Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program. Philippine Protection Note.* Manila: World Bank Group and Australian Government Aid Program.

Velikonja, M. (2005). *Evroza: Kritika Novega Evrocentrizma [EUrosis: A Critique of the New Eurocentrism.* Ljubljana: Mirovni institut.

Venugopal R. (2015). Neoliberalism as concept. *Economy and Society, 44 (2),* 165-187.

Verheul, I., Van Stel, A.J., & Thurik, A.R. (2006). Explaining female and male entrepreneurship at the country level. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development, 18(2),* 151-83.

Verpoorten, R., & Verschraegen, G. (2008). *Formal and Informal Social Protection in Sub-Saharan Africa:A Complex Welfare Mix to Achieve Poverty and Inequality Reduction.* University of Leuven: Centre for Sociological Research,

Vigilla-Montecillo. K.R., Hurtada, W.K., Gordoncillo, N.P., & Depositario, D.P. (2017). *Dietary Diversity of Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program Beneficiary and Nonbeneficiary Households in Selected Barangays in San Pablo City, Laguna, Philippines.* https://www.researchgate.net/publication/319242235.

Viljoen, F. (2012). *International Human Rights Law in Africa, 2.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Viljoen, F. (2013). International Human Rights Law in Africa, 2. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Visser, M., & Moleko, A. (2012). *Community Psychology in South Africa* (2nd ed.) Pretoria: van Schaik.

Veugelers, W., & Vedder, P. (2003). *Values in teaching. Teachers and Teaching, 9 (4),* 377–389.

Wabwile, M. (2010). Implementing the Social and Economic Rights of Children in Developing Countries: The Place of International Assistance and Cooperation. *International Journal of Children's Rights, 18,* 355-385.

Walliman, N. (2011). *Research methods:* The basics. New York: Rout ledge.

Wang, V. (2016). *Ending child marriages–new laws bring progress but hurdles remain.* Toronto: CMI Insight.

Wang, Y., Gao, Q., & Yang, S. (2019). Prioritising health and food: Social assistance and family consumption in Rural China. China. *An International Journal, 17(1),* 48-75.

Wekwete, N.N. (2010). Adolescent Pregnancy Challenges in the Era of HIV/AIDS: A Case Study of Selected Rural Area in Zimbabwe. Addis Ababa: Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa.

Williams, E.N., & Morrow, S.L. (2009). Achieving Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research: A Pan-Paradigmatic Perspective. *Psychotherapy Research, 19 (4/5),* 576-582.

Wilson, V. (2012). Research methods: Interviews. *Evidence Based Library and Information Practice, 7(2),* 96-98.

Welch, J. (2012). Sustainability and social development: An integrative examination. *Social Development Issues, 34 (1),* 56-76.

Wellington, J. & Szczerbinski, M. (2007). Research methods for the social sciences. Continuum. London.SS and GoZ. Harare, Zimbabwe.

Wengraf, L. (2018). *Extracting profit: Imperialism, neoliberalism, and the new scramble for Africa.* Chicago: Haymarket Books.

Wetzel, D. (2013). *Bolsa Família: Brazil's Quiet Revolution.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

Wetzel, D. (2015). *Bolsa Familia: Brazil's Quite Revolution*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Wessels, M. (2009). *What Are We Learning About Protecting Children in the Community? An inter-agency review of the evidence on community-based child protection mechanisms in humanitarian and development settings.* London: Save the Children.

West, 0. (2002). *The Rise of an African Middle Class: Colonial Zimbabwe, 1898-1963.* Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

White, H., Leavy, J., & Masters, A. (2003). Comparative Perspectives on Child Poverty: A review of poverty measures. *Journal of Human Development, 4 (3),* 379-396.

Wietler, K. (2007). *The Impact of social cash transfer on informal safety nets in Kalomo District, Zambia. A Qualitative Study.* Berlin: German Technical Cooperation..

Williams, G. (2007). Why Structural Adjustment Is Necessary and Why It Doesn't Work. *Review of African Political Economy, 21 (60),* 214-225.

Willis, J.W. (2007). *Foundations of qualitative research: interpretive and critical approaches.* London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Winter, G. (2000). A comparative discussion of the notion of validity in qualitative and quantitative research. *Qualitative Report, 4,* 1-14.

Wisman, J.D., & Smith, J.F. (2011). Legitimating inequality: Fooling most of the people all of the time. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology, 70 (4),* 974-1013.

Woodside, A.G. (2010). *A Case Study Research. Theory. Methods. Practice. Howard House.* Bingley: Emerald Group. Publishing Limited.

Wolf, C., Joye, D., Smith, T.W., Fu, Y. (2016). (Eds), *The SAGE Handbook of Survey Methodology.* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Ltd.

Wolfensohn, J.D., & Bourguignon, F. (2004). *Development and poverty reduction. Looking back, looking ahead.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (1975). *The Assault on World Poverty.* Baltimore, MD: John Hopkins University Press.

World Bank. (1990). World Development Report. Poverty. World Development Indicators. Washington DC: Oxford University Press.

World Bank. (1993a). World Development Report, 1993: Investing in Health. Washington, DC: Oxford University Press.

World Bank. (2001a). *Social Protection Sector Strategy: From Safety Net to Springboard. Sector Strategy Paper.* Washington, DC: Oxford University Press.

World Bank. (2002). *Education and HIV/AIDS, A Window of Hope: Accelerating the Education Sector Response to HIV/AIDS in Africa: A Review of World Bank Assistance in the Global HIV/AIDS Programme.* Washington, DC: The World Bank.

World Bank. (2005). *The World Bank Annual Report 2005 .Year in Review.* Washington, DC: The World Bank..

World Bank. (2007). *World Development Report. Development and the Next Generation.* Washington, DC: The World Bank.

World Bank. (2009). *Kenya Poverty and Inequality Assessment: Executive summary and synthesis report.* Washington, DC: The World Bank.

World Bank. (2010). *Financing Higher Education in Africa.* The World Bank. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

World Bank. (2010). *World Development Report: Development and the Next Generation.* Washington, DC: The World Bank.

World Bank. (2012). *The World Bank 2012-2022 Social Protection and Labour Strategy.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2012). *Managing Risk, Promoting Growth: Developing Systems for Social Protection in Africa - The World Bank's Africa Social Protection Strategy 2012-2022.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2012a). An Update to the World Bank's Estimates of Consumption Poverty in the Developing World. Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2012a). *Targeting poor and vulnerable households in Indonesia. Public expenditure review*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2013). *The State of the Poor: Where are the Poor and Where are They Poorest? PREM, Draft Background Note.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2013c). *World Bank Corporate Scorecard: Integrated Results and Performance Framework.* Washington, DC: World Bank .

World Bank. (2014). *The State of Social Safety Nets 2014.* Washington, DC: World Bank

World Bank. (2014). *Equity, access, and success in higher education. Policy brief.* Washington, DC: World Bank Group.

World Bank. (2014a). *World Bank Indicators 2014*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2015). *Out-of-School Youth in Sub-Saharan Africa. A Policy Perspective.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2016b). *Poverty shared prosperity 2016. Takin on Inequality.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2017). *Global Economic Prospects. Weak Investments in Uncertain Times*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2017). *Atlas of Sustainable Development Goals 2017: From World Development Indicators. World Bank Atlas.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2017). Climate-Smart Agriculture in Zimbabwe. CSA Country Profiles for Africa Series. International Centre for Tropical Agriculture. Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2017). World Development Indicators. Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2018). *Poverty and Shared Prosperity 2018. Piercing together the Poverty Puzzle.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2018). *The State of Social Safety Nets 2018.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2018). *The World Bank in Zimbabwe.* New York: University Press for the World Bank.

World Bank. (2019). *World Development Report 2019.* The Changing Nature of Work. Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2019). *Accelerating Poverty Reduction in Africa: In Five Charts.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2019). *Kenya-Cash-Transfer-for- Orphans- and-Vulnerable-Children-Project. Social Protection and Jobs Global Practice African Region.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2019). Accelerating Poverty Reduction in Africa: In Five Charts. Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2020). *Poverty and Equity.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Food Programme. (2015). *1O Facts about Hunger in Zimbabwe.* Harare: World Food Programme.

World Economic Forum. (2016). *10 things the IMF wants you to know about Africa's economy.* Geneva: World Economic Forum.

World Health Organisation. (1981). *Global Strategy for Health for All by the year 2000.* Geneva: WHO Press.

World Health Organisation. (2013). World Health Report: Research for Universal Health Coverage. Geneva: WHO Press.

World Health Organisation. (2017). *World Health Statistics 2017: Monitoring health for the SDGs.* Geneva: WHO Press.

World Health Organisation. (2020). *Global Health Observatory (GHO) data.* Geneva: WHO Press.

World Trade Report. (2014). *World Trade Report. Trade and Development: Recent Trends and the Role of WTO.* Geneva: WTO Publications.

Wright, G., Noble, M., Ntshongwana, P., Neves, D., & Barnes, H. (2014). *The Role of Social Security in Respecting and Protecting the Dignity of Lone Mothers in South Africa.* Oxford: University of Oxford, Centre for the Analysis of South African Social Policy.

Wu, X. (2011). Study on China's urban employment assistance. *Social Security Studies, 4(4),* 67–77.

Xlao, Y., Norris, C.B., Lenzen, M., Norns, G., & Murray, J. (2017). How social footprints of nations can assist in achieving Sustainable Development goals. *Ecological Economics, 130 (350),* 55-56

Yadav, S.K., Sharma R.S., Birua, M. (2018). *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: Achievements, Problems and Future Prospects: A Comparative Analysis of Some Indian States.* Singapore: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-1414-8_9

Yin, R.K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and Method* (3rd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Ltd.

Yin, R.K. (2014). Case Study Research Design and Methods (5th ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Ltd.

Zaalouk, M. (2013). Globalization and educational reform- what choices for teachers? In T. Seddon & J. Levin (Eds.), *Professionalism, and Politics: Global Transitions, National Spaces and Professional Projects* (pp.201-219). New York: Routledge.

Zainal, Z. (2007). *Case Study as a research method. Faculty of Management and Human Resource Development.* Brunei: Universiti Teknologi: Malaysia.

Zenawi, M. (2012). *States and Market: the neoliberal limitations and the case for developmental state. In Good growth and governance in Africa. Rethinking Development strategies.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Zengeya, M.A. (2011). The trajectory of Zimbabwe's education system: A historical perspective in B.C. Chisaka (Ed.), *State of the Zimbabwean Education Sector* (pp. 9-25). Harare: HRRC/ Zimrights Association, University of Zimbabwe.

Zhang, H. (2009). Poverty and politics: The evolution of the Minimum Living Standard Guarantee System in China in the period of transition. *Asia Pacific Journal of Social Work and Development, 19(2),* 5-20.

Zhangazha,W. (2010). *Tragedy of child –headed families.*

https://www.theindependent.co.zw/2010/07/29/tragedy-of-child-headed-families.

Zhi., H. L. (2014). *A comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Zimbabwe Ministry of Health and Child Welfare. (2003). *Zimbabwe National HIV and AIDS Estimates 2003.* Harare: Zimbabwe Ministry of Health and Child Welfare.

Zimbabwe National Statistical Agency .(2011). *Poverty Analysis, Poverty Datum Lines -May 2011.* Harare: ZIMSTAT.

Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency. (2012). *Census Provincial Report: Masvingo.* Harare: ZIMSTAT.

Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency., & Inner City Fund International. (2012). Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey 2010–11. New York: ZIMSTAT and ICF International Inc.

Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency., & United Nations Children's Fund. (2010). *Multiple indicator monitoring survey 2009.* Harare: National Statistics Agency and United Nations Children's Fund.

Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency., & United Nations Children's Fund. (2019). *Zimbabwe Child Poverty Report 2019.* Harare: ZIMSTAT and UNICEF.

Zimmermann, C.R. (2006). Social Programs from a Human Rights Perspective: the case of the Lula Administrations' family grant in Brazil. *International Journal on Human Rights 4(3), 145-161.*

Zobel, C.W., Altay, N., & Hasekolm, M.P. (2013). (Eds.), *Advances in Managing Humanitarian Operations. International Series in Operations Research and Management Science.* New York: Springer International Publishing.

Zvobgo, R.J. (1994). *Colonialism and education in Zimbabwe.* Harare: Sapes Books.

APPENDIX A

Participant Information Sheet for parents/guardians/caregivers of beneficiaries of the Basic Education Assistance Module;

Zita rechidzidzo: The contributions of Zimbabwe's Basic Education Assistance Module in enabling orphans and vulnerable children to access education. The case of Gutu District in Zimbabwe.

ZVAMUNGADA KUZIVA

Kwaziwai,

Zita rangu ndinonzi Joice Kanengoni. Ndirikuita zvidzidzo zvePhD Pa University ye Witwatersrand yekuSouth Africa. Ndirikuita ongororo netsvakurudzo yechirongwa che Basic Education Assistance Module, ndakanangana ne nzira dzakasiyana siyana dzinoshandiswa kuburikidza nechirongwa ichi, mukubatsira nherera nevana vanotambudzika kuti vakwanise kuinda kuchikoro. Zvinotarisirwa kuti zvichawanikwa mutsvakurudzo ino zvichabatsira kuwedzera ruzivo maererano nenzira dzakasiyana siyana dzinoshandiswa nechirongwa che Basic Education Assistance Module, mukubatsira nherera nevana vanotambura kuti vakwanise kuinda kuchikoro. Zvinotarisirwa zvakare kuti ongororo netsvakurudzo iyi ichabatsira kuwedzera ruzivo maererano nezvirongwa zvakasiyana siyana zvine chinangwa chokubatsira vanhu vanotambura, tsvakurudzo iyi inotarisirwawo kubatsira kunatsurudza zvirongwa zvakanangana nekubatsira vanotambura.

Nokudaro ndiri kukumbirai kuti muve umwe wevari mutsvakiridzo iyi. Kuva mutsvakiridzo ino hakumanikidzirwe, kunofanira kuva kuda kwenyu. Kana muchinge mabvuma ndichakubvunzai mibvunzo yandinayo ingatore maminitsi makumi matanhatu, mibvunzo iyi ndichaibvunza panzvimbo nenguva yamunenge makasununguka nayo. Ikodzero yenyu kuramba kubvunzwa kana kuva mutsvakiridzo ino. Munogonawo zvakare kuramba kupindura imwe yemibvunzo yandinayo. Munogona kubuda mutsvakiridzo ino chero nguva ipi zvayo pasina zvirango. Hapana miripo inopiwa kana inotarisirwa kuti muripe maererano nekuva mutsvakurudzo iyi. Nebvumo yenyu, ndichatapa mhinduro dzenyu uye kudzinyora pasi. Ini nemurairidzi varairidzi vangu tiri vaviri tisu tichakwanisa kuterera zvandinenge ndatapa. Mazwi enyu andinotapa uye mhinduro dzandinonyora pasi ndichazvishandisa kunyora

zvinobuda mutsvakiridzo ino. Mazita evari mutsvakiridzo haazoziviswa vanhu uye kuva muzvinyorwa zvichabuda patsvakiridzo iyi.

Kana mune mubvunzo munokwanisa kutaura neni pa: +27 74 8914 634 kana kuti apa 1231971@students.wits.ac.za. Murairidzi wangu anoitwa Doctor Edmarie Pretorius, munokwanisa kutaura navo apa Edmarie.Pretorius@wits.ac.za / 011 7174 476. Kana muchishuvira kuzowana zvichabuda mutsvakurudzo iyi, urongwa hwekuti muve munokwanisa kuzviwana huchaitwa. Kana paine zvamungada kunzwisisa kana kuti kana muine nyunyuto maererano netsvakurudzo iyi, munokwanisa kubata veUniversity Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical), pa +27 11 7171408 kana kuti apa Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za.

Ndinokutendai nenguva yenyu.

Ndini wenyu

Joice Kanengoni

APPENDIX B

Participant Information Sheet for key informants;

Zita rechidzidzo: The contributions of Zimbabwe's Basic Education Assistance Module in enabling orphans and vulnerable children to access education. The case of Gutu District in Zimbabwe.

ZVAMUNGADA KUZIVA

Kwaziwai,

Zita rangu ndinonzi Joice Kanengoni. Ndirikuita zvidzidzo zvePhD paUniversity ye Witwatersrand yekuSouth Africa. Ndirikuita ongororo netsvakurudzo yechirongwa che Basic Education Assistance Module, ndakanangana ne nzira dzakasiyana siyana dzinoshandiswa kuburikidza nechirongwa ichi, mukubatsira nherera nevana vanotambudzika kuti vakwanise kuinda kuchikoro. Zvinotarisirwa kuti zvichawanikwa mutsvakurudzo ino zvichabatsira kuwedzera ruzivo maererano nenzira dzakasiyana siyana dzinoshandiswa nechirongwa che Basic Education Assistance Module, mukubatsira nherera nevana vanotambura kuti vakwanise kuinda kuchikoro. Zvinotarisirwa zvakare kuti ongororo netsvakurudzo iyi ichabatsira kuwedzera ruzivo maererano nezvirongwa zvakasiyana siyana zvine chinangwa chokubatsira vanhu vanotambura, tsvakurudzo iyi inotarisirwawo kubatsira kunatsurudza zvirongwa zvakanangana nekubatsira vanotambura.

Nokudaro ndiri kukumbirai kuti muve umwe wevari mutsvakiridzo iyi. Kuva mutsvakiridzo ino hakumanikidzirwe, kunofanira kuva kuda kwenyu. Kana muchinge mabvuma ndichakubvunzai mibvunzo yandinayo ingatore maminitsi makumi matanhatu, mibvunzo iyi ndichaibvunza panzvimbo nenguva yamunenge makasununguka nayo. Ikodzero yenyu kuramba kubvunzwa kana kuva mutsvakiridzo ino. Munogonawo zvakare kuramba kupindura imwe yemibvunzo yandinayo. Munogona kubuda mutsvakiridzo ino chero nguva ipi zvayo pasina zvirango. Hapana miripo inopiwa kana inotarisirwa kuti muripe maererano nekuva mutsvakurudzo iyi. Nebvumo yenyu, ndichatapa mhinduro dzenyu uye kudzinyora pasi. Ini nemurairidzi varairidzi vangu tiri vaviri tisu tichakwanisa kuterera zvandinenge ndatapa. Mazwi enyu andinotapa uye mhinduro dzandinonyora pasi ndichazvishandisa kunyora zvinobuda mutsvakiridzo ino. Mazita evari mutsvakiridzo haazoziviswa vanhu uye kuva muzvinyorwa zvichabuda patsvakiridzo iyi.

Kana mune mubvunzo munokwanisa kutaura neni pa: +27 74 8914 634 kana kuti apa 1231971@students.wits.ac.za. Murairidzi wangu anoitwa Doctor Edmarie Pretorius, munokwanisa kutaura navo apa Edmarie.Pretorius@wits.ac.za / 011 7174 476. Kana muchishuvira kuzowana zvichabuda mutsvakurudzo iyi, urongwa hwekuti muve munokwanisa kuzviwana huchaitwa. Kana paine zvamungada kunzwisisa kana kuti kana muine nyunyuto maererano netsvakurudzo iyi, munokwanisa kubata veUniversity Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical), pa +27 11 7171408 kana kuti apa Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za.

Ndinokutendai nenguva yenyu.

Ndini wenyu

Joice Kanengoni

APPENDIX C

Title of the study: The contributions of Zimbabwe's Basic Education Assistance Module in enabling orphans and vulnerable children to access education. The case of Gutu District in Zimbabwe.

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PARENTS/GUARDIANS/CAREGIVERS OF BENEFICIARIES OF BEAM

INTRODUCTION

- Welcoming participant and introduction
- Explain the purpose of the interview

Age	Gender	Marital status	Educational Status	Employment	Household Characteristics

1. In your understanding, explain the Basic Education Assistance Module?
2. How would you describe the objective of the Basic Education Assistance Module?
3. Share with me your reasons for applying for the Basic Education Assistance Module for your child\children?
4. What are the selection criteria for beneficiaries of the Basic Education Assistance Module?
5. Take me through your experiences in applying for benefits of the Basic Education Assistance Module?
6. Where there any challenges faced in applying for benefits of the Basic Education Assistance Module? If yes, what were the challenges and what are your suggestions on addressing these challenges?
7. In what ways were you involved in the selection process of the beneficiaries of the Basic Education Assistance Module? (Probe understanding of the challenges faced during the selection process of the beneficiaries of the Basic Education Assistance Module)

8. For how long has your child /children been beneficiaries of the Basic Education Assistance Module?
9. Explain your opinions on whether the benefits of the Basic Education Assistance Module are adequate in meeting the educational needs of beneficiaries until completion of secondary education?
10. Describe the experiences of your child/children in accessing educational benefits through the Basic Education Assistance Module?
11. In what ways has the Basic Education Assistance Module made a positive impact on your child/ children?
12. Is there anything else you wish to inform me regarding BEAM?

APPENDIX D

Title of the study: The contributions of Zimbabwe's Basic Education Assistance Module in enabling orphans and vulnerable children to access education. The case of Gutu District in Zimbabwe.

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR KEY INFORMANTS

1. Share with me your understanding of BEAM and its objectives?
2. To what extend are women involved during the formation of various committees responsible for the selection of beneficiaries?
3. How would you describe the procedures taken during the selection process for beneficiaries of BEAM?
4. How is gender equity taken into consideration when selecting beneficiaries?
5. What are other selection criteria for beneficiaries of BEAM?
6. Which stakeholders are involved in the selection process of beneficiaries of BEAM?
7. To what extend are prospective beneficiaries involved in the selection process?
8. How would you explain the importance of parents/guardians/caregivers/communities in selecting the deserving beneficiaries?
9. Describe benefits provided under BEAM, and the categories of individuals who qualify for these benefits?
10. Tell me how BEAM contributes to poverty alleviation in Gutu District ?
11. When reflecting on the selection process of BEAM, what aspects are easy to implement?
12. If you were in charge of BEAM, what areas would you improve and why?

APPENDIX E

Consent form for participation and tape-recording of the interview in the study: The contributions of Zimbabwe's Basic Education Assistance Module in enabling orphans and vulnerable children to access education. The case of Gutu District in Zimbabwe.

MANZWI EUNOBVUNZWA

Ndinobvuma kubvunzwa mibvunzo mutsvakurudzo iyi, ndinobvuma kuti inzwi rangu ritapwe pandinenge ndichidavira mibvunzo. Chinangwa chetsvakurudzo iyi chatsanangurwa kwandiri zvizere.

Ndinonzwisisa kuti:

Kupindura mibvunzo yetsvakurudzo iyi kuda kwangu, ndakasununguka kuramba kudavira mibvunzo yandinenge ndisina kusununga kudavira

Ikodzero yangu kubuda mutsvakurudzo iyi, kana kuramba kuenderera mberi ndambotanga, sarudzo iyi haizotariswi semhosva uye haizondisungiriri.

Mhinduro dzese dzandichapa mutsvakurudzo iyi dzichachengetedzwa pakavanzika

Handina zvandichabhadharwa mutsvakuudzo ino uye hapana njodzi mukudavira mibvunzo yandichabvunzwa

Magwaro achanyorwa mhinduro dzandichapa achachengetwa muchivande, magwaro aya achange asina umbovo hunoratidza zita rangu, magwaro aya anochengeterwa kuzoshandiswa munedzimwe tsvakurudzo dzingangova dzichaitwa mumakore anotevera. Mhinduro dzandichapa mutsvakurudzo iyi dzinogona kuva dzichashandiswa mumisangano ichaitwa makore anotevera uye dzinogona kuzoshandiswa kunyora ma bhuku edzidzo.

Zvitapiso zve inzwi rangu zvichachengetedzwa munzvimbo yakavanzika, zvitapiso izvi zvichange zvichishandiswa nevanhu vaviri chete vanoti mwana wechikoro arikuita tsvakurudzo iyi nemudzidzisi wake.

Zita reanobvunzwa:…….

Zuva:……

Siginicha:…….

APPENDIX F

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Kanengoni

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H18/02/16**
PROJECT TITLE	The impact of Zimbabwe's Basic Education Assistance Module in enabling orphans and vulnerable children to access education. Perceptions of stakeholders in Gutu District, Zimbabwe
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Miss J Kanengoni
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Human and Community Development/
DATE CONSIDERED	16 February 2018
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved
EXPIRY DATE	20 June 2021

DATE 21 June 2018 **CHAIRPERSON** J. Knight
(Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Dr E Pretorius

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

Signature

16 / 02 / 2018
Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

APPENDIX G

Telephone: 796450/60
Telegrams: "SECLAB"
Private Bag 7707/7750
Causeway

ZIMBABWE

MINISTRY OF LABOUR
AND SOCIAL WELFARE
Compensation House
Fourth Street and Central Avenue

HARARE

28 May 2018

Attention: Ms Joice Kanengoni

PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT AN ACADEMIC RESEARCH ON THE TOPIC ENTITLED "THE CONTIBUTION OF THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN ENHANCING ACCESS TO EDUCATION IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE.

Receipt of your letter dated 07 May 2018 with the above mentioned matter is acknowledged.

Please be advised that permission is hereby granted for you to carry out research on a topic entitled "THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN ENHANCING ACCESS TO EDUCATION IN GUTU DISTRICT, ZIMBABWE". Please note that this permission is granted STRICTLY on condition that the research is for academic purposes only in pursuit of your PhD in Social Work and that the data collected should not be shared to third parties.

You are kindly requested to submit a copy of your final research document to the Department of Social Welfare upon completion as your research has a bearing to the Department's mandate.

E.C. GAPARA (Mr)
DIRECTOR HUMAN RESOURCES
FOR: SECRETARY OF LABOUR AND SOCIAL WELFARE

APPENDIX H

All communications should be addressed to "The Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education
Telephone: 732006
Telegraphic address : "EDUCATION"
Fax: 794505

ZIMBABWE

Reference: C/426/ Masvingo
Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
HARARE

16 May 2018

KANENGONI JOICE
UNIVERSITY OF WITWATERSRAND
1 JAN SMUTS AVENUE
BRAAMFONTEIN 2000
JOHANNSBURG
SOUTH AFRICA

Re: **PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE: GUTU DISTRICTGUTU UNITED; GONA AND HWIRU PRIMARY SCHOOLS: MPANDAWANA; GADZINGO AND CHINDITO SECONDARY SCHOOLS.**

Reference is made to your application to carry out research at the above mentioned schools in Masvingo Province on the research title:

"THE IMPACT OF ZIMBABWE'S BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN ENABLING ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN TO ACCESS EDUCATION."

Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director Masvingo Province, who is responsible for the schools which you want to involve in your research. You should ensure that your research work does not disrupt the normal operations of the schools. Where students are involved, parental consent is required.

You are also required to provide a copy of your final report to the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education.

MIN. OF PRY. & SEC. EDUCATION
POLICY PLANNING RESEARCH
AND DEVELOPMENT
04 JUN 2018
P.O. BOX CY 121, CAUSEWAY
ZIMBABWE

.....
DR S. J. UTETE-MASANGO
SECRETARY FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

APPENDIX I

ALL communications should be addressed to
"The Provincial Education Director for Primary and Secondary Education"
Telephone: 263585/264331
Fax: 039-263261

ZIMBABWE

Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
P. O Box 89
Masvingo

30 April 2018

Joice Kanengoni
1 Jan Smith Avenue
Braamfontein 2000
Johannesburg
South Africa

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE: GUTU DISTRICT: GUTU UNITED, GONA, HWIRU PRIMARY SCHOOLS: MUPANDAWANA, GADZINGO AND CHATINDO SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research at the above mentioned school in Gutu District on the research title:

"THE IMPACT OF ZIMBABWE'S BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN ENABLING ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN TO ACCESS EDUCATION"

Please be advised that the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education has granted permission to carry out your research.

You are also advised to liaise with the District Schools Inspector who is responsible for the schools which are part of the sample for your research.

MINISTRY OF PRIMARY & SECONDARY EDUCATION
PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR
MASVINGO
30 APR 2018
P.O. BOX 66, MASVINGO
ZIMBABWE
TEL: 039 - 264331
FAX: 039 - 263261

Z. M. Chitiga
Provincial Education Director
MASVINGO PROVINCE

MINISTRY OF PRY & SEC EDUCATION
DISTRICT SCHOOLS INSPECTOR - GUTU
30 APR 2018
MASVINGO PROVINCE
P.O. BOX 66, GUTU
TEL:

APPENDIX J

Chindito Secondary School

P. O Box 475

Mpandawana

Gutu

14 May 2018

Joice Kanengoni

University of Witwatersrand

1 Jan Smuts Avenue

Braamfontein, 2000

Johannesburg

South Africa



Dear Sir/ Madam

REF: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE: GUTU DISTRICT: CHINDITO SECONDARY SCHOOL

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research at the mentioned school in GUTU District on the research title:

"THE IMPACT OF ZIMBABWE'S BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN ENABLING ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN TO ACCESS EDUCATION"

Please be advised that the Head for Chindito Secondary School has granted permission to carry out your research.

S. MUFUKARI (DEPUTY HEAD)

Cell: 0778 798 221



APPENDIX K

Mupandawana High School

P. O Box 200

Mpandawana

Gutu

15 May 2018

Joice Kanengoni

University of Witwatersrand

1 Jan Smuts Avenue

Braamfontein, 2000

Johannesburg

South Africa

Dear Sir/ Madam

REF: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE: GUTU DISTRICT: MUPANDAWANA HIGH SCHOOL

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research at the mentioned school in GUTU District on the research title:

"THE IMPACT OF ZIMBABWE'S BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN ENABLING ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN TO ACCESS EDUCATION"

Please be advised that the Head for Mupandawana High School has granted permission to carry out your research.

THE DEPUTY HEAD
MUPANDAWANA HIGH SCHOOL
15 MAY 2018
P.O BOX 200
GUTU

Kufa. K (Deputy Head)

Cell: 0715 514 637

APPENDIX L

Gadzingo Secondary School

P. O Box 82

Mpandawana

Gutu

15 May 2018

Joice Kanengoni

University of Witwatersrand

1 Jan Smuts Avenue

Braamfontein, 2000

Johannesburg

South Africa

Dear Sir/ Madam

REF: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE: GUTU DISTRICT: GADZINGO SECONDARY SCHOOL

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research at the mentioned school in GUTU District on the research title:

"THE IMPACT OF ZIMBABWE'S BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN ENABLING ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN TO ACCESS EDUCATION"

Please be advised that the Head for Gadzingo Secondary School has granted permission to carry out your research.

Musakanda. K (Deputy Head)

Cell: 0772 901 600

THE HEAD
GADZINGO SECONDARY SCHOOL
17 MAY 18
DATE
P.O. BOX 82

APPENDIX M

HWIRU COUNCIL PRIMARY SCHOOL

P O Box 69 Tel: 030 -2537/3013/3011

14 may 2018

Joice Kanengoni

University of Witwatersrand

1 Jan Smuts Avenue

Braamfontein 2000

Johannesburg

South Africa

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE :GUTU DISTRICT :HWIRU PRIMARY SCHOOL.

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research at the mentioned school in GUTU District on the research title:

"THE IMPACT OF ZIMBABWE'S BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN ENABLING ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN TO ACCESS EDUCATION'

Please be advised that the Head for Hwiru Primary School has granted permission to carry out your research.

TAKABVIRWAKARE J (HEAD)

THE DEPUTY HEAD
HWIRU PRIMARY SCHOOL
14 MAY 2018
P.O. BOX 69
GUTU

APPENDIX N

Gutu United Primary School
P.O Box 172
Mupandawana
Tel: 0302523
Cell: 0773370721
: 0772709814

15 May 2018

Joice Kanengoni

University of Witwatersrand

1 Jan Smuts Avenue

Braamfontein 2000

Johannesburg

South Africa

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE : GUTU DISTRICT: GUTU UNITED PRIMARY SCHOOL.

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research at the above mentioned school in Gutu district on the research title:

"THE IMPACT OF ZIMBABWE "S BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN ENABLING ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN TO ACCESS EDUCATION "

Please be advised that the Head of Gutu United Primary School has granted permission to carry out your research.

.....

CHITSA E (HEAD)

HEADMASTER
GUTU UNITED PRIMARY SCHOOL
2018 -05- 14
P.O. BOX 172
MUPANDAWANA
PHONE : 030 - 2523
EKChitsa

APPENDIX O

Gona Primary School
P. O. Box 63
Gutu

15 May 2018

Joice Kanengoni
University of Witwatersrand
1 Jan Smuts Avenue
Braamfontan, 20000
Johannesburg
South Africa

Dear Madam

REF: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE: GUTU DISTRICT – GONA PRIMARY SCHOOL.

Reference is made to your application to carry out your research at the above mentioned school in Gutu district on the research title: **'THE IMPACT OF ZIMBABWEAN'S BASIC EDUCATION ASSISTANCE MODULE IN ENABLING ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN TO ACCESS EDUCATION.'**

Please be advised that the head of Gona Primary School has granted you permission to carry out your research at afore - mentioned station.

Yours faithfully

Masakadza E.E.K
00262712786820/ 00263772855088

THE SCHOOL HEAD
GONA PRIMARY SCHOOL
15 MAY 2018
P. O. BOX 63, GUTU
TEL: (030) 2400