



**UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE**

**AN ASSESSMENT ON SOCIAL PROTECTION INTERVENTIONS FOR
INFORMAL STREET TRADERS IN CAPE TOWN**

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my children Zizwe, Lichume and Kwakhanya Zondani. Having you in my life has made me believe you can achieve anything you want in life no matter the challenges. Being your mother has taught me resilience and that patience is indeed a virtue for great success.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ANC	African National Congress
COVID 19	Coronavirus Disease 2019
CBD	Central Business Hub
CATI	Computer Assisted Telephone Interviews
CCTs	Conditional Cash Transfers
CSG	Child Support Grant
DFID	Department for International Development
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ILC	International Labor Conference
ILO	International Labour Organisation
LAN	Local Area Networks
LRA	Labour Relations Act
NDP	National Developmental Plan
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NSSF	National Social Security Fund
PO	Participant Observation
RAF	Road Accident Fund
SALGA	South African Local Government Association
SCTs	Social Cash Transfers
SDGs	Sustainable Developmental Goals
SMMEs	Small medium micro enterprises
SP	Social Protection
SARS	South African Revenue Services
SASSA	South African Social Security Agency
SRD	Social Relief of Distress
SLF	Sustainable Livelihood Framework
SPIREW	Social Protection Plan for Informal Economy and Rural Workers
TERS	Temporary Employee/Employer Relief Scheme
UIF	Unemployment Insurance Fund
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Fund
WIEGO	Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing
OXFAM	Oxford Committee for Famine Relief

ABSTRACT

Social protection focuses on defending and assisting those who are weak, marginalized, or facing risks. (Browne, 2015). The unemployed, poor children and women, elderly people, and persons with disabilities, as well as those who are displaced, and ill, are amongst vulnerable groups that can be supported by social protection interventions, (Browne, 2015). These could be covariates affecting communities or regions as a result of climatic changes, inflation, civil unrests, protests, pandemics, epidemics or other pressures and shocks. Although there is a debate over the definition of social protection, most operational definitions include social assistance (which provides protection from poverty) and social insurance (protection against vulnerability). (Deveraux, 2012). Social protection's main goals are managing vulnerability and reducing income poverty. Raising household incomes can result in poverty alleviation or reduction, while stabilizing incomes that can manage to alleviate livelihood vulnerability, (Deveraux, 2012). There are ongoing discussions about which interventions qualify as social protection. (Browne, 2015). Social protection has become a prominent term of discussion since the late 1980s and the relevance was in the early 1990s, (World Development Report,1990). This was based on debates of how to establish safety nets for people's livelihoods, so they do not succumb to livelihood shocks.

The informal economy is now experiencing a revival of interest, which has contributed to its close relationship with the formal economy and economic contribution. According to Fourie, there is a persistent "dangerous" dualism in the labour markets with high rates of irregular and casual employment as well as covered or open unemployment. (Fourie, 2018). Informal business trade has become a permanent solution for obtaining an income for many. Workers in the informal economy in South Africa and other developing nations do not have sufficient coverage on labour law policies and social protection measures. (Fourie, 2018). These workers are not recognized, regulated, or protected by the labour legislation or social protection measures, and they show varying levels of dependency and vulnerability. (Fourie, 2018).

Some developed countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa have formulated policies and regulations of this sector. Unregulated informal business trade has an impact on imbalanced social conditions which do not only concern economic growth but social justice. An important aspect of social justice is to accumulate wealth for the poor and better opportunities, (United Nations Report, 2013). However, since poverty has been a subject of multidimensional economic backgrounds. It then became clear that safety nets were relevant for the aftereffects of

livelihood shocks. (Devereux, 2004). When shocks occur, such as illness, the death of a household income earner, or harvest shocks. Households typically resort to coping tactics and informal social arrangements because state social protection mechanisms are either non-existent or unable to provide the necessary help. (Oduro, 2010).

South Africa has been faced with the challenge of unemployment for the past two decades. Giving a rise to poverty, criminality, public health, and inequality (Roncolato et al, 2017). South African Government committed to reducing poverty and promote the networks of social security following the end of apartheid. Even though South Africa has an increasing informal employment, the rate of economic development is still very modest at comparable levels, (Roncolato et al, 2017). The activity of street trading is widely used in many nations of the global South as a financial expression of informality. The development of informality is especially important in the towns of Sub-Saharan Africa. (Rogerson, 2015). Like other major cities, Cape Town has taken its own path in terms of establishing a unique policy framework for the development of the informal economy. (Rogerson, 2018). The informal trade bylaw in the City of Cape Town was amended in 2013. Informal trading encompasses a broad range of activities, such as street trading, trading in pedestrian malls, trading in open spaces, and trading at markets. Although the risks faced by informal traders on these designated areas of trade can have a negative impact on their livelihood without social protections measures. Assessing social protection systems for informal traders is an important corrective measure which will be addressed by this study.

The logo of the University of the Western Cape, featuring a stylized building with columns and the text "UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE" below it.

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Key words; *Informal economy, Informal sector, Street traders, Social protection, Sustainable livelihoods, Small medium micro enterprises (SMMEs)*

TABLE OF CONTENT

CHAPTER 1 (Background, Contextualisation, Significance of the Study)

1. Introduction	1
1.1. Background of the study	2
1.2. Background of the research area	3
1.3. Significance of the study	4
1.4. Problem statement	5
1.4.1. General objective	6
1.4.2. Specific objective	6
1.5. Research questions	6
1.6. Theoretical framework	7
1.6.1. Theoretical framework table	9
1.7. Empirical literature review	9
1.7.1. Conceptual framework	11
1.8. Brief research methodology	12
1.8.1. Qualitative secondary data research	13
1.8.2. Secondary research analysis	13
1.8.3. Sampling methods	14
1.8.4. Area of study	14
1.8.5. Sample size	14
1.8.6. Probable limitations	15
1.8.7. Tentative chapter outline	16
1.8.8. Conclusion	16



CHAPTER 2 (Contextualization of Social Protection, Informal Street trade an informal economy)

2. Introduction	17
2.1. Contextualisation of social protection	18
2.2. Social protection in Sub-Saharan Africa	20
2.3. Social protection in South Africa	23
2.4. Social Protection Agency Assistance	24
2.5. Social protection interventions (South African Government)	25
2.6. Social grants	27
2.7. Conceptual functions of social protection	28
2.7.1. Protective/promotive social protection: school feeding	29
2.7.2. Promotive/transformational social protection	30
2.7.3. Transformational social protection: anti-discrimination campaigns	30
2.7.4. Non-State informal social protection	30
2.8. The informal sector	31
2.8.1. Informal street trade/vendor	33
2.8.2. Informal trading in the City of Cape Town	34

2.8.3.	Demographical challenges of street trade in Cape Town	34
2.8.4.	Urban development for informal street trade	36
2.8.5.	The socio-economic issue of street trade in South Africa	38
2.9.	Regulatory framework for informal economy in South Africa	39
2.9.1.	Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996	39
2.9.2.	The White Paper on social welfare	40
2.9.3.	Labour Relations Act amendments for vulnerable workers	40
2.9.4.	The Employment Services Act 4 of 2014	41
2.9.5.	The SP Plan for the informal economy and rural workers	41
2.9.6.	The Code on social security (2007)	41
2.9.7.	The Social Assistance Act of 2004	42
2.10.	Conclusion	43

CHAPTER 3 (Theoretical Framework, Social Capital and Sustainable Livelihood Theories)

3.	Introduction	44
3.1.	Theoretical Framework	44
3.2.	Contextualising social capital theory	45
3.2.1.	Types of social capital	47
3.2.2.	Horizontal and vertical networks	48
3.3.	Sustainable livelihood theory	49
3.3.1.	Contextualising livelihood approach	50
3.3.2.	Sustainable livelihood framework for informal street trade	54
3.3.3.	Coping and adaptive strategies	56
3.4.	The role of the state	58
3.5.	Conclusion	61

CHAPTER 4 (Research methodology, Design, Techniques)

4.	Introduction	62
4.1.	Qualitative secondary research	62
4.2.	What is research method	63
4.3.	Methodology	64
4.4.	Characteristics of research design	65
4.4.1.	Explorative study	67
4.4.2.	Descriptive study	67
4.4.3.	Casual study	68
4.5.	Research process	68
4.6.	Research strategy	69
4.7.	Choice of research methodology	69
4.7.1.	Quantitative	70
4.7.2.	Qualitative	70
4.7.3.	Mixed methods	71
4.8.	Time horizon	71
4.9.	Techniques and procedures	72

4.9.1. Coding	72
4.10. Population	73
4.10.1. Target sampling population	73
4.11. Measuring instrument	74
4.11.1. Interviews	74
4.11.2. Questionnaire	75
4.12. Validity of the measuring instrument	76
4.12.1. Reliability	77
4.12.2. Pretesting	77
4.12.3. Pilot study	78
4.13. Types of data sources	79
4.14. Data collection process	80
4.15. Ethical consideration	81
4.15.1. Informed consent	82
4.15.2. Anonymity and confidentiality	82
4.16. Data analysis procedure	82
4.16.1. Statistics	83
4.17. Conclusion	84

CHAPTER 5 (Informal Trading and Economy Discussions and Perspectives)

5. Introduction	85
5.1. Socio-economic challenges of informal street trade	86
5.2. Discussion of informal economy in the City of Cape Town	88
5.3. St George's Mall in Cape Town	89
5.4. Discussion of social protection interventions	91
5.4.1. Impact of social protection on informal street trade	92
5.5. Social assistance coverage in the City of Cape Town	93
5.6. Street trade bylaws	95
5.7. Economic challenges of informal trade business	96
5.8. The level of safety street traders	97
5.9. The level of skills and education	97
5.10. Local economic development for informal street trade	98
5.11. The bargaining power street traders have with government/state	98
5.12. Conclusion	100

CHAPTER 6 (Recommendations and Conclusion)

6. Introduction	101
6.1. Conclusion	102
6.2. Overview of chapters	104
6.3. Recommendations for social protection interventions	105
6.3.1. Recommendation 1:	106
6.3.2. Recommendation 2:	107

6.3.3. Recommendation 3:	107
6.3.4. Recommendation 4:	107
6.3.5. Recommendation 5:	108
6.3.6. Recommendation 6:	108
6.3.7. Recommendation 7:	109
6.3.8. Recommendation 8:	110
6.3.9. Recommendation 9:	110
6.4. Future research	111
6.4.1. Other areas of research that could be explored in future	112
7. REFERENCES	113
8. TABLES	
Table 1	09
Table 2	56
Table 3	94
9. FIGURES	
Figure 1	11
Figure 2	26
Figure 3	29
Figure 4	52
Figure 5	53
Figure 6	87
Figure 7	90
Figure 8	90
Figure 9	92
Figure 10	99



CHAPTER 1

“Background, Contextualisation, Significance of the Study”

1. Introduction

South Africa is probably far from establishing the country's informal economy in an inclusive set of policies and procedures that recognize its contributions to domestic economic development (Rogerson; 2016). Particularly informal trade businesses have been the key for obtaining an income and sustaining livelihoods for the unemployed poor. The best figures available indicate that at least 30% of South Africa's total labor force were employed in informal jobs by the end of the 1980s (Rogerson, 2015). Furthermore, it has been shown that local urban policy is not as essential at matching domestic policies towards the informal economy. (Rogerson, 2016). South Africa's economy is related with informal economy issues because of dire unemployment conditions that are structural in nature. South Africa has current and past trends which imply existing external and internal constraint that may well be holding back South African economic growth. This is an indication by determinants of trade performance in general and the impact of trade, (Edwards's et al, and 2008). The increasing rate of unemployment over the years has since created a rise of the informal economy. This is due to fewer jobs in the formal market. Development of informal work means an increase in the labour force, which creates livelihood (Unni and Rani, 2003). However, this poses a question of how informal businesses can be conducive for economic development and for sustaining livelihoods. This revival in interest is because the informal economy has not disappeared but instead expanded massively globally, however economists never account for this sector. (Rogerson, 2016). This makes it seem dysfunctional and not a significant sector with business acumen. Those who operate informal trade businesses usually work in unregulated and unprotected areas. This can be risky for business and their well-being, (Mittulah, 2003). As they require social security and social insurance to enable them to sustain their livelihood in the informal sector. This dissertation will assess social protection measures that are available for the informal trade sector in order to secure their livelihood.

1.1. Background of the Study

Since the democratic transition of 1994 in South Africa, discussions were underway for the assistance of the informal economy as part of small, medium, and micro –enterprise (SMME) policy. However a South African country-wide policy framework was only launched in 2012. (Rogerson, 2016). In domestic policy papers, a development narrative is given and the progressive development for supporting measures to tackle the critical problems facing informal entrepreneurs in their business environment (Rogerson, 2016). A South African informal entrepreneur’s development strategy, connected with an anti-development plan for migrant entrepreneurs, this was made part of the national policy. Nonetheless, South Africa is far from establishing an integrated set of policies for the micro-level informal economy of the country and a series of measures to recognize its contribution to domestic economic development (Rogerson, 2016). Formal workers have the right to social insurance, social assistance, and social services, but they also have the obligation to contribute to the funding of these systems through waged labor or self-employment. (Alfers et al. 2017). Informal workers, on the other hand, do not have access to job-related social security. They face significant occupational hazards but have little or no access to reliable social protection, (Lund, 2012). The informal labor force is expanding globally, and changes in the global structure of employment and workplaces mean that this work is a source of danger and illness for many poorer workers.

Despite the political rhetoric of support for the informal economy in general and street trading to be specific, since 2000 South Africa has been gradually appealing succession measures to curb street trading activity in urban regions (Rogerson, 2015). Petty trade in Africa is also seen as one of the ways of making a living for those with low levels of education as an economic activity. Especially females, their reproductive and domestic function is regarded to be extended. The level of education achieved influences their employment. Because women are relatively less trained than men, they cannot compete efficiently on the official labor market (Mitullah, 2003). The absence of precise estimates of the figures of street traders has made informal trade to be a neglected street selling operation. Although it is argued that street trade attracts those with restricted possibilities for official work at prestigious companies. It reduces social exclusion and marginalization possibilities, street vending is becoming progressively an alternative for many people. It is not restricted to lower social groups, to those in deprivation who live in an environment of urban harassment by urban authorities. (Mitullah, 2003).

New elements of social protection in various Sub-Saharan African nations include the growth of social assistance programs that provide conditional or unconditional cash or kind transfers, as well as the development of social protection policy frameworks and strategy documents. These programs necessitate a larger focus on social protection issues, as well as the necessity to target the poorest and most vulnerable in a way that universal free primary education and free primary health care do not, (Oduro, 2010). Social protection measures are an integral component of the plan to combat poverty and the "leave no one behind" objective. However, in the wake of the global financial crises, social protection spending has been reduced because of fiscal consolidation and adjustment measures, (Holmes and Scot, 2016). It might be argued that the implementation of social protection interventions in some African countries is not new, based on the classification of social protection interventions which are: preventative, protective, promotional, and transformative, (Oduro, 2010) Ambitions to extend social security programs, addressing work-related risks to those working in the informal economy is admirable and vital. However, they are deprived by the legal and administrative realities of traditional social security guarantees for workers. It will not be easy or quick to bring about change in this situation, (Lund, 2012)

1.2. Background of the Research Area

The South Atlantic Ocean and the Hottentots Holland highlands practically encircle Cape Town (municipal area 2487 km²). The Table Mountain range, which stretches southwards in a mainly undeveloped peninsula that makes up the majority of the Table Mountain National Park, dominates the city centre. (Petersen et al, 2012). The city has historically occupied the ground between the park's foothills and the sea, which is today home to well-established medium and upper-class residential districts. These are referred to as Cape Town's Northern and Southern suburbs as well as the Coastal area side. Moving east, the metropolitan landscape stretches for 50 kilometres across a wide, sandy, low plain known as the Cape Flats, which is mostly occupied by working-class residents. (Petersen et al, 2012). As a result of the apartheid regime, these previous marginalised groups are mostly geographically separated, with White South Africans living closer to the city centre and on the outskirts of the mountains and beaches, and predominantly Black and Colored South Africans residing on the Cape Flat, (Petersen et al, 2012). Limited official work opportunities, poverty, and a lack of education have resulted in the growth of a rather substantial informal economy within the Cape Flats. This economy is

broadly characterized as “unregulated street trading business within the local townships, nearby taxi ranks, alongside the road, at residential area, backyard of formal and informal residents etc., (Fourie)

Like other large cities, Cape Town has taken its own path in terms of establishing a unique policy framework for the development of the informal economy. The most pressing policy issue in Cape Town is the complicated issue of informal retailing. (Rogerson, 2018). Although African migrant entrepreneurs in Cape Town participate in a diverse range of business operations, the vast majority – about two-thirds – engage in various forms of informal trading, (Rogerson, 2018). In terms of employment and economic growth prospects, the City of Cape Town recognizes the legitimacy and relevance of the informal economy. The number of people entering the informal sector is increasing in urbanized cities and towns around the world. In addition, the informal economy has low entrance barriers and functions as a social safety net, (Rogerson, 2018).

1.3. Significance of the study

Although, social protection is highly publicized in international development platforms. It has not been aligned properly with anti-poverty programmes in practice, (Sabates-Wheeler, 2019). In low-income countries, social protection continues to be perceived by governments and donors as comprising fiscally unsustainable “consumption” transfers to the economically inactive or unproductive poor. (Sabates-Wheeler, 2019). It requires limited public resources from taxpayers and productive investments which are supposed to boost economic growth. Therefore, becoming unrealistic to reduce poverty (Deveraux & Sabates –Wheeler, 2008). It is therefore important to ascertain all the programmes of social protection available to explore this study. Also, to ascertain the practicality of implementing social protection measures to an unregulated informal economy. This study seeks a way forward to implementing social protection that comprises of a much broader strategy that is not only designed for contingencies but also as a part of the informal worker’s benefit to income. It should also strive to support income security by providing social protection for risk factors relating to health and death. However, broadening the intention of what social protection is promoting from risk alleviation to risk eradication, would mean finding a strategy to prevent income depreciation. Therefore, this would require transformative measures set to change the institutional environment in which informal sector functions, (Unni & Ranni, 2003). Local government should implement strategic

assessments when regulating the informal economy for those participating in this sector not to become invisible, (Alfers et al, 2017). Most informal laborers are not employees, but economic agents operating within an unequal economic system. While it is true that informal employees desire and require state recognition, many also struggle to develop direct relationships with businesses in the formal economy and capital owners, (Alfers et al, 2017). The study also aims to ascertain the bargaining power informal workers have with the state or government as well as other institutions or agencies that may be able to implement social protection measures that can assist their businesses.

1.4. Problem Statement

In today's South Africa, street trading is one of the most major and most difficult political issues that local governments must address. (Rogerson, 2008). Street trade is regarded to be a major part of the informal economy in most nations however domestic economic statistics do not account for it and do not recognize it. The above statement demonstrates that street traders make a substantial contribution to African countries' urban and national economies but it is unaccounted for (Mitullah, 2003). The idea of social justice requires measures of social security to meet basic needs and economic security in developing economies with a large informal component in the labor force, (Unni et al, 2003). Workplaces such as roadsides, public spaces, landfill and construction sites, and informal houses are frequently insecure in terms of workers' rights (Alfers et al, 2017). The city regulations that govern them do not recognize them as workplaces, thus the people who work there have no protection. Most municipal bylaws, particularly those dealing with health hazards, are aimed at protecting the public, and informal laborers are frequently considered as one of the annoyances from which the public must be protected. As a result, informal laborers who work in public settings may be exposed to all regular risks associated with such environments., (Alfers et al, 2017)

Street trading in Africa is regarded for people with a low level of education as a financial activity. Females in the informal trade tend to treat it as a domestic function extended. The amount of education achieved affects their employment (Mitullah, 2003). Street trading is also seen to be non-vocational trade and mainstream economists have nothing important to say about it. Street trading has negligible financial measurement coverage in all towns and nations. Even the local authorities, who generate significant sector revenues, do not keep records of the sector numbers and contribution to the urban economy, (Mitullah, 2003). Informal street trade is primarily unorganized and invisible. Working in different locations and the lack of an

organized workforce result in limited bargaining and negotiating power with employers and/or governments., (Holmes et al, 2016)

1.4.1. General objective

To ascertain social protection interventions available to support informal street traders to combat shocks and loss.

1.4.2. Specific objectives

This research thesis aims to evaluate the following objective to achieve this study.

- To ascertain urban by-laws and regulations of informal trade implemented by local government
- To evaluate environmental risk factors of informal trade business
- To evaluate economical risk factors of informal trade business
- Evaluate social protection measures for informal workers in Cape Town
- To ascertain the bargaining power street traders, have with government /state
- To ascertain the level of skills and education of street traders in Cape Town
- To analyse the working conditions of street trade in Cape Town
- To analyse the local economic state of informal street trade in Cape Town

1.5. Research Questions

1. What are street trade by-laws that regulate informal trade business?
2. What specific challenges impact the working conditions of informal trade business?
3. Are there any interventions that contribute to social protection of informal trade business?
4. What is the economical state of street trade in Cape Town?
5. What environmental risk factors impact street trade in Cape Town?

1.6. Theoretical Framework

This study will apply three theoretical approaches as the informal sector seeks to implement social protection measures that can enable street trade to be a resilient business for local economic development. Therefore, social security becomes a subject of social capital theory. Social capital theory is the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition. In other words, a membership in a group which provides each of its members with the backing of the collectively owned capital, a “credential” that entitles them to credit, in the various senses of the word, (Bourdieu, 1986; 21). Since social capital is known for its longstanding theoretical interest of having the power to uplift those who embark on entrepreneurial activities. It may become productive to discuss ways in which entrepreneurship can improve in the micro –level for informal trade. However, this may not be sufficient when applying such mechanisms on macro-level entrepreneurial activities with massive geographical areas such as districts or regions. Social capital on entrepreneurship must not only focus on standard individual and social network level determinants. It should also investigate a broader perspective of a social context in which people are located. (Kwon et al, 2013). Therefore, in this study it is vital to investigate social capital on micro-level entrepreneurship to understand the influence from an economic, political, and institutional perspectives of informal street trade. Informal trading appears to be saturated entrepreneurial activity in most districts in the City of Cape Town. Those involved in the business must adhere to certain rules and regulation to remain above board. Therefore, it is important to ascertain street trader’s involvement with the regulators and agencies that assist micro-level businesses. Although informal sector employees appear to be unregulated and self-sufficient, it would be far preferable if government or associated agencies assisted their work processes through supporting programs. (Jati et al, 2021).

This can also seek measures of human capital which entails investments that people can make for themselves to improve economic productivity. The theoretical framework mostly represents a great outlook for carrying out educational and developmental policies. There is a perspective, that in human capital education and schooling are seen as cautious investments that prepare the labour force and increase productivity of individuals and organizations, as well as encouraging growth and development at international level (Nafukho et al, 2004). Street traders can be assisted with arranging spaces for their businesses so the informal sector can be more

organized, less crowded, and more attractive. Furthermore, providing debt relief or stimulants to encourage their enterprises to grow or, at the very least, attain an income comparable to the Regional Minimum Wage standard. Given that most informal employees' income does not meet the Regional Minimum Wage standard, (Jati et al, 2021). To minimize the number of individuals with low income in future, the government and affiliated organizations should increase their educational programs, develop skills training, offer internet access, and other ways linked to factors that have a positive effect to human capital (Jati et al, 2021).

Lastly, this research study analyses informal street trader's livelihood that can succumb to any shock or distress suffered by businesses during a difficult period. It is common for businesses to suffer during, e.g. economic meltdown, natural disasters, social ills, and health pandemics. These are all the factors that can cause major challenges on the informal sector and threatening the livelihoods of informal employees. Therefore, a livelihood is sustainable when it can cope and recover from shocks and stress, maintain, and enhance its capabilities and assets and provide sustainable livelihoods opportunities for the next generation. Which can contribute net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global level in short and long-term, (Chambers and Conway; 2001,6). In the informal sector a big percentage of the urban poor are compelled to work earning low incomes for lengthy hours. Working in competitive and intense environment, with usually very low incomes. Whereby there is no insurance, medical care, or sick pay for such employees. Working under poor conditions increases the risk of long-term disease or depression, (Sanderson, 2000). The informal economy provides a variety of revenue gaining methods. However, these funds can come at a high cost, with the poorest often paying more for essential facilities than the other formal counterparts. (Sanderson, 2000).

1.6.1. Theoretical Framework Table 1

	Theory	Key variables	Measurable Indicator	Claimed Causality or Association	Limitations
1	Social Capital	The connection between informal traders and their customer base. The correlation between traders and local authorities.	Number of purchases per day Compliant / or non-compliant (regulation checklist)	The World Bank has identified that social relationships affect economic outcomes	Unavailability of statistical records measured from these indicators.
2	Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA)	Livelihood capabilities and assets of informal traders sustainable to cope with shocks and stress (e.g. financial , environmental)	Livelihood assets such as human assets, social assets, physical assets, public assets and financial assets	OXFAM and other international development organizations more broadly in the global South have established Frameworks on SLA.	Limited statistical records measured from these indicators

1.7. Empirical Literature Review

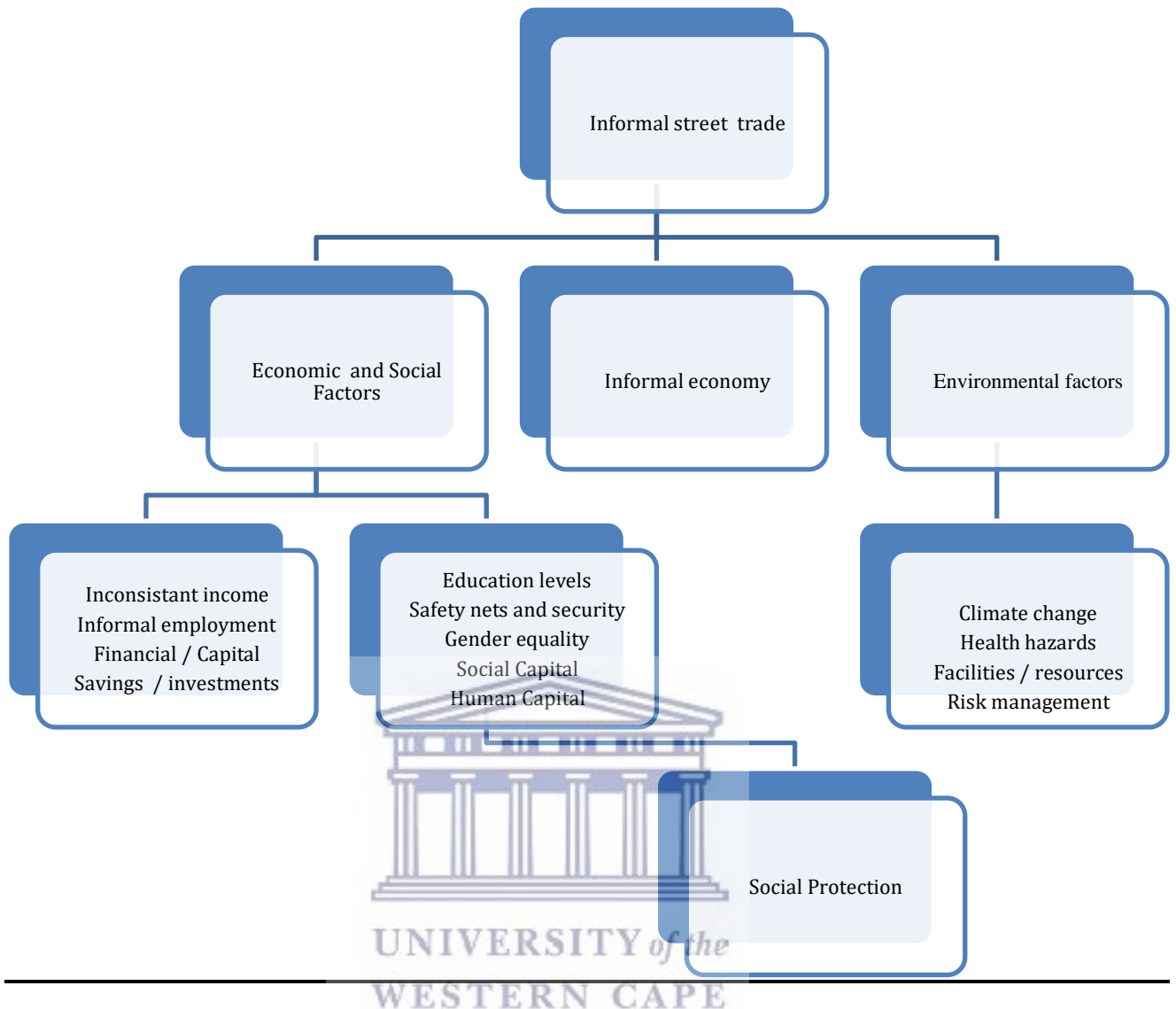
Social protection has reached its development policy agenda in Africa, and it is now a main issue to extend coverage to casual employees, (Daveraux, 2018). Under standard social protection informal workers who have no employment agreements, savings accounts or pensions generally have one safety, their burial society (Dalufeya, 2018;156). Social protection has been recognised as a developmental plan for policy formulation in South Africa. The policy on social grants is an example of social protection it was established for those who cannot work for an income. It has become a major issue to widen up coverage for informal workers. This is

referring to informal workers without conventional social protection. Such as a work contract, bank account, savings/investment, pension fund, provident fund, occupational health, and wellness. (Dafuleya, 2018). According to Unni and Ranni the notion of social protection must be extended to include economic security and not just social security for contingencies, (2003)

The idea of productive jobs and reducing poverty must be considered in social protection. (Unni & Rani, 2003). Social protection includes all government and private programmes that can grant an income or funding transfers to the poor. This is to protect the vulnerable from the risk factors and improving their social position and freedom for marginalized people. With the general goal that the poor and marginalized groups are economically and socially vulnerable (Deveraux, 2001). Social protection can be provided via state-formal proceedings (such as financial subsidies), formal non-state provision (such as social assistance from NGOs) and/or unofficial provision such as non-state social security such (as Community –Based Organisations insurance) (Dafuleya, 2018).

The approach towards social protection for workers in the informal sector should be comprehensive, designed not only to protect against contingencies, but also to promote income security through elimination of risks (Mitullah, 2003). Extending the objective of social protection to minimize risks against informal workers is to imply strategic changes that do not prevent a drop in revenue or reduce its fluctuation to a higher rate of revenue. This requires fundamental reforms aimed at changing the institutional context of the informal sector. (Unni and Rani, 2003). According to Devereux the guidelines for social security are to assist the poor retain access to fundamental social facilities, prevent social exclusion, minimize erosive management policies for livelihood shocks, encourage more financial return operations and prevent inefficient informal risk-sharing processes, (Deveraux, 2001)

1.7.1. Conceptual Framework (Figure 1)



1.8. Brief Research Methodology

The goal of the research study is to make an assessment for social protection intervention on informal street traders particularly in the city area of Cape Town. The researcher decided to embark on the process of qualitative secondary research study to ascertain the research objectives of the study and to formulate findings based on data acquired by other researchers of similar research interest. Therefore, the study will be based on empirical evidence and reviewing findings of other qualitative studies, (Irwin, 2013).

These studies by other scholars will be selected and explored for findings and brought together to correlate. Subject to several factors of related substantive interests in biography, sequence

and life development changes, familiarity, connection, and intergenerational dynamics, (Irwin, 2013). The aim is to explore qualitative or mixed methods to longitudinal studies of social processes that are progressive and dynamic. This is used on a variety of methods for understanding time in many aspects, such as experiential, biographical, and historical research, (Irwin, 2013). Since I draw on a secondary analysis of qualitative studies which includes longitudinal evidence on the assessment of social protection interventions in Cape Town. I will be looking into qualitative studies that have addressed some of the objectives of this study and explored some of the research questions. Qualitative secondary analysis is the process of using previously collected data to build new social scientific or methodological understandings, (Irwin, 2013). Therefore, it is vital to review some of the empirical evidence and data obtained to make up the findings that were concluded by primary researchers.

There are various advantages for using existing data to test new hypotheses or answer new research questions. This data will allow for the researcher to evaluate research objectives, (Dunn et al, 2015). Secondary Research usually also requires less time and money, poses no risk to participants, and provides access to big data sets and longitudinal data, (Irwin, 2013). Given these benefits, there are some disadvantages, such as a lack of awareness about rich data sets and how to access and evaluate their contents, insufficient or obsolete data, (Dunn et al, 2015). Secondary research obtains material that is physically stored in libraries, archives, and other public and private collections, although a rising amount of information is accessed online on the internet, in local area networks (LAN), and on stand-alone databases , (Curtis, 2017)

1.8.1. Qualitative Secondary Data Research

The research study will make use of other empirical research information by other scholars that have embarked on this related field of study. Hence the use of qualitative secondary research will be essential for this study. “Qualitative secondary research is a systematic approach to the use of existing data to provide ways of understanding that may be additional to or different from the data’s original purpose”, (Largan and Moris, 2019; 14). This type of qualitative research reflects on how you may see the world using certain types of data that can be descriptive or categorical instead of numerically orientated. This will enable the researcher to interpret data rather than measure it (Largan et al, 2019, 14). In qualitative secondary research you are using data you did not instigate or did not take part in for its creation in any way. Qualitative secondary research requires a systematic approach whereby as the researcher you

need to adopt strategies or techniques that ensures you achieve a research topic that will be meaningful and add value to one's subject field of knowledge. Therefore, a researcher must be critical when viewing secondary data and that is achieved by a new perspective in terms of your research question, aims and applying a new method and theoretical framework.

1.8.2. Secondary Research analysis

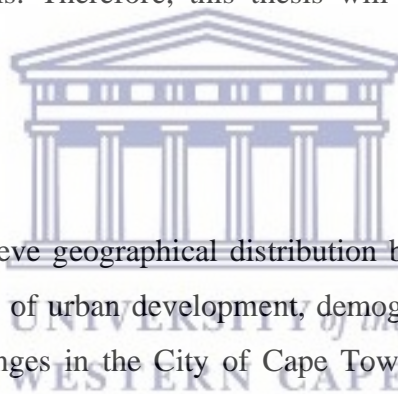
Secondary analysis is the re-use of previously collected qualitative data from prior research investigations. These data include semi-structured interviews, replies to open-ended questions in questionnaires, field notes, and research diaries, Heaton (2008). Once the information has been collected from various disciplines relating to this study it will be gathered and analysed for these following purposes; Firstly, to examine the research questions of this study or additional research questions, secondly to validate existing research findings by other scholars, Heaton (2008). These data are likely to have been carefully recorded for archival reasons and to have satisfied the appropriate ethical and legal criteria for sharing with other researchers, potentially subject to the fulfilment of specific restrictions. The researcher will still require ethical clearance by the University. However, this is practice done to clarify research information obtained from primary research is ethically cleared.

1.8.3. Sampling Methods

A sample should be the variety of the population groups under investigation in the phenomenon of the study, this is called the targeted qualitative sample. A big random sample would achieve this study, but this technique would not have been very effective. The selection of a diversity sample with a view to cover all current appropriate phenomenon variants (saturation) has both been logical and more effective. (Welman et al, 2005). The sampling method for this research thesis will be the quota sampling method which is a non-probability sampling technique. Since the researcher will be conducting a research study which analyses the challenges of informal street trade. It will be required to select a quota from all the different forms of street trade in this analysis.

1.8.4. Area of Study

This research study will be conducted in Cape Town in the Western Cape Province. Within this region I will be analysing data from a survey study conducted in the City centre of Cape Town. The area of study has different range of informal enterprise, it is called the St George Mall. The informal trade business to be studied has informal trade businesses such as; clothing/material/textile, food produce, beverages, and electronics and so on. Cape Town has helped to make South Africa the third largest financial hub and a key driver of economic growth and development in Africa and South Africa. According to a General Household Survey in 2013 total employment in the informal sector consisted of approximately 185 984, which is 11, 84(%) percent (City of Cape, 2015b). Statistical records found on street trade will be the key concept of this research study. Qualitative interviews conducted by other scholars on previous research studies have including members the Economic Development Department of Western Cape Province; representatives of street traders in the City of Cape Town, including city's economic development officials. Therefore, this thesis will be conducted as a secondary qualitative research method



1.8.5. Sample size

The researchers sought to achieve geographical distribution by selecting research sites that would reflect the various kinds of urban development, demographic features, infrastructure, and major development challenges in the City of Cape Town (Charman et al, 2015). The researcher will evaluate statistical records which includes informal street traders in the Cape Town City Bowl, regulated by City of Cape Town local municipality.

1.8.6. Probable Limitations

The study limitation which may be challenging for the researcher may include the following elements: -

- Researcher may experience network challenges sometimes when accessing databases to obtain empirical data
- Data not updated into current statistics
- Unavailability of secondary data to examine the research questions of this study
- Unavailability of secondary data to validate the research objectives of this study

In terms of the qualitative secondary research methodology the researcher will undertake the study with consideration that limitations are neither rare nor unexpected when conducting social research. However, in case the researcher is restricted during a crucial point of this study, then this might lead for the study to adopt a research approach that can be successful to obtain conclusive research results.

1.8.7. Tentative Chapter Outline

Chapter 1 – will comprise of the following

1. Introduction

1.1. Contextualisation and background

1.2. Contextualisation of social protection

1.3. Contextualisation of Social Protection and Informal Street Trade

This chapter will give a broad background of the study and ultimately tie it with the study of social protection interventions for street traders. It will also present the delimitations of the study and finally a conclusion.

Chapter 2 – Literature review

2. Introduction

2.1. Social protection elements available for informal street workers

2.2. Modes of social protection

Chapter two (2) will give various empirical evidence from different scholars and disciplines on the topic of social protection and informal street workers. Different modes of social protection and a conclusion

Chapter 3 – Theoretical Framework

3. Introduction

3.1. Social capital theory

3.2. Sustainable Livelihoods theory

Chapter three (3) will discuss two relevant theories to this study; the social capital theory and sustainable livelihoods theoretical approach to align with the current challenges of this study. Finally, the data will be analysed according to the selected theoretical framework chosen.

Chapter 4 – Research design and methodology

4. Introduction

4.1. Contextualisation of Qualitative Secondary Data

4.2. Contextualisation of Secondary Analysis

4.3. Research methodology

4.4. Research Techniques

Chapter four (4) will give an outline of the research method that will be applied in this research study in terms of data collection and analysis. It will contextualise the research methods and techniques of the study and qualitative secondary data will be applied in this study.

Chapter 5 – Recommendation and conclusion

This chapter will provide an outline and recommendations of the study. Lastly provide a conclusion that will summarise the outlook of the mini thesis.

1.8.8. Conclusion

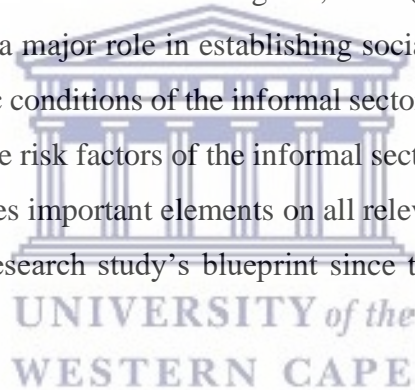
Social protection and informal street trade in Cape Town were discussed in detail in this chapter. At a societal level, social protection is regarded as a basis for eliminating intergenerational poverty, advancing social justice and social cohesion, fostering the development of human capability, and promoting economic growth and social entrepreneurship. Therefore, it is vital to do an assessment study that will ascertain all the different facets of social protection that can promote change to social injustice.

CHAPTER 2

“Contextualization of Social Protection, Informal Street trade and informal economy”

2. Introduction

This chapter will present different empirical evidence from different scholars and authors to obtain an understanding of the key variables of this research study. The research topic is based on the analysis of social protection for the informal street traders and to determine whether certain interventions have been implemented to address challenges of the informal sector. Therefore, the structure of this chapter will be firstly to define social protection on a broader context, and its relevance in the South African informal sector, and in the city of Cape Town’s informal street trade setting. This chapter will also explore legislative framework that was established to address some of the inequalities of the informal sector with the view aligned to social protection interventions for a sector that is carrying a vast majority of the population to obtain their livelihood. As well as relevant agents, i.e. (government or international organization) that have played a major role in establishing social protection programmes and policies to curb socio-economic conditions of the informal sector. These could have improved people’s livelihood and limit the risk factors of the informal sector environment. Furthermore, this section of the study provides important elements on all relevant literature as this will help achieve the outcomes of the research study’s blueprint since this is a secondary qualitative research study.



The informal economy is regaining popularity across the world right now. This is partly due to the informal economy's global expansion, which has shown itself in novel forms and in unexpected locations. (WIEGO, 2012). Many observers saw the informal sector as marginal or peripheral, disconnected from the formal sector or capitalist societies economy. The self-employed, who work on their own account and do not employ others, are among the informally employed. These range from workers of both formal and informal businesses to proprietors of informal businesses who employ others, to individuals involved in subcontracting arrangements when the work connection is unclear or obscured. However, for most informal workers, a distinguishing element of their working life is that their jobs are unstable, with little or limited social or labor protections. In the informal sector, there is also a larger likelihood of poorer returns, which means that informal employees are more likely to be poor, (Alfers, Xulu, Dobson, Richard and Sujatha, 2016).

Workers in the informal economy in South Africa, as well as other developing nations, do not have adequate protection in terms of labor and social protection. These workers are not recognized, controlled, or protected by labor laws or social protection measures, and they can be described as having varied degrees of reliance and vulnerability, (Fourie, 2018). The cities of South Africa have a diverse range of retail enterprise categories and outlets in structure like those seen in other western influence urban economies. A domain of economic activity, defined by micro-entrepreneurship in urban residential township settlements, exists outside the conventional retail sector in high streets, in central business districts, and shopping malls. The businesses are part of the informal economy (Petersen and Charman, 2018). Informal employment in South Africa increased from 4,2 million jobs in 2013 to 5 million jobs in 2019 and now accounts for nearly a third of overall employment. In comparison to females, males had the biggest percentage of individuals employed in all sorts of jobs, (Statistics South Africa, 2021). Participating females had a decrease in informal employment from 47.7% in 2013 to 43.8% in 2019, while males saw a rise from 52.3% in 2013 to 56.2% in 2019. (Statistics South Africa, 2021). In South Africa, the informal sector includes a diverse spectrum of vending, producing, service, and trading activities in rural and urban regions, inner-city, peri-urban, and suburban neighbourhoods, as well as informal settlements. Even though there are disparities between the informal and formal sectors, they have tight links. These include anything from outsourcing work and services to the informal sector to the usage of inputs obtained in the formal sector commerce and manufacturing. It is unknown how many individuals work in South Africa's informal industry (Peberdy, 2000).

In concluding, while interest in the informal sector has risen and fallen since the early 1970s, the term has remained relevant to many regulators, activists, and scholars. This is due to the importance of the reality that it aims to capture. It is the enormous part of the global labour that contributes considerably to the global economy while staying outside of the state's protection, (WIEGO, 2012).

2.1. Contextualization of Social Protection

Social protection refers to a set of policies and programmes that aim to reduce poverty and vulnerability to enhance the capacity of people to manage economic and social risks, such as unemployment, sickness, disability, and old age, (Hagen -Zanker, Vidal and Sturge, 2017). It encompasses social assistance programs that are not contingent on previous contributions, such

as cash transfers to poor households, child support for the unemployed, as well as social insurance programs based on previous contribution such as contributory old-age pensions, (Hagen -Zanker et al. 2017). In its most basic and widely accepted definition, social protection is a set of interventions designed to provide income support to people living in poverty, either temporarily or permanently. (Devereux and Cuesta, 2021). Social insurance and social assistance are the two basic foundations for social protection. Contributory social security programs for formally employed employees, such as pension funds and unemployment payments, are referred to as social insurance, (Devereux and Cuesta, 2021). It is the most common kind of social protection for working adults. Social assistance refers to cash in kind-transfers to non-contributory cash or in-kind transfers, as well as income lost due to job loss. Social insurance is typically funded on a three-tiered basis, with contributions from employers, employees, and the government. However, the informal sector and non-contributing self-employed workers are not covered by social insurance (Devereux et al. 2021). Social protection can also be provided via state-formal proceedings such as health subsidies, formal non-state provision (such as social assistance from NGOs and NPOs) or unofficial provision such as non-state social security (such as Community Burial Societies) (Dafuleya, 2018). Food, water, healthcare, childcare, housing, and education are all components of social security and social safety, and they must be considered essential entitlements for employees. Furthermore, the informal sector employed usually involves, organized strength through their associations to actively engaging in the creation, execution, and monitoring of programs designed for them (Jhabvala and Sinha, 2006).



Contributory social insurance, social assistance, and labor market-related policies are the three primary components of social protection, according to the widespread use and World Bank data, (Leisering, 2021). Regular non-contributory payments for subsistence this includes most social cash transfers (SCT)), as well as one-time pay-outs and benefits linked to specific purposes, sometimes even in kind, such as school meals, school fee exemptions, utility support (subsidies for accessing public goods), and cash for work, are all examples of social assistance, (Leisering, 2021). Determining the minimum wage, subsidizing salaries, regulating labor markets, funding public works, and mobilizing employees through training and job retention programs during crises are all examples of labor market initiatives. (Leisering, 2021)

2.2. Social Protection in Sub-Saharan Africa

Social protection has reached its development policy agenda in Africa, and it is now a main issue to extend coverage to casual employees, (Dafuleya, 2018). In sub-Saharan Africa, street trading employs more than 51% percent of all women working in the informal economy, excluding agriculture. According to figures from 2011, there were more than 500,000 street traders in South Africa, (Fourie, 2018). Under standard social protection informal workers who have no employment agreements, savings accounts or pensions generally have one safety, their burial society (Dalufeya, 2018;156). The policy on social grants in some African states is an example of social protection it was established to support those who do not work for a formal income. It has become a major issue to widen up coverage for informal workers. This is referring to informal workers without conventional social protection. Such as working contract, bank account, savings, pension, provident fund, occupational health, and wellness. (Dafuleya, 2018). Informal workers in the sub-Saharan Africa do not have access to work-related social protection. Many types of informal work in the streets are precarious and involve a high level of risk, (Lund, 2013). In terms of protecting informal workers, all pillars of social security and social protection have flaws. In both the global North and the global South, (Lund, 2013). State social insurance systems in developing nations do not cover informal employees, whether salaried or self-employed. Poor people tend to live and work in marginalised poor communities, where they are exposed to risk sharing. (Lund, 2013).

Experience with urban social protection programmes is relatively limited in the Global South, (Lund, 2013). Extensions or duplicates of rural social assistance programmes do not reflect the distinct vulnerabilities of the urban poor, who face higher living costs and more precarious employment, and are not reached by social insurance schemes that are designed for formally employed workers. (Devereaux and Cuesta, 2021) While certain developing work and employment arrangements may provide greater flexibility for employees and employers, they may also result in large gaps in social protection coverage at a time when demand for social protection services is growing, (Devereaux and Cuesta, 2021). As a result, it is vital to enhance and adjust social protection systems to meet the needs of a changing labour market. Moreover, they play a critical role in preventing poverty, decreasing inequality, improving financial security, and assisting workers and their families in searching for jobs and life transitions more than ever, (Devereaux and Cuesta, 2021). Comprehensive systems, which include both contributory and non-contributory social protection mechanisms, as well as fair and long-term

finance mechanisms based on taxes or contributions, have the highest possibility of providing appropriate social protection to everybody, (Behrendt and Nguyen, 2019). Social safety nets such burial societies are groups of friends, relatives, co-workers, and community members who band together to protect themselves and their extended families from the costs of death. This is common practice in Africa as it presents a well-established feature for social protection (Dalufeya, 2015). The focus on discussions of formal and informal social protection has been formalizing the informal systems (for example, registering and regulating informal operations), combining or merging formal and informal systems (for example, collective lending in microfinance,) (Dalufeya, 2015). In Africa, there is no clear consensus on how to register and regulate informal social protection networks. Most governments are reluctant to register and control informal institutions, (Dalufeya, 2015).

The involvement of African government was minimal in the formulation of this global social strategy, (Seeking, 2019). Most people appear to have agreed to the global policymaking, as they had been doing so earlier on other global declarations. In the hope that it will have minimal impact on them. There is also no clear indication on any meaningful influence from Southern Africa. Social protection strategy documents adopted by the African Union or national governments, are typically written by external consultants, (Seekings, 2019). They have generally avoided direct use of the concept of social protection base, while retelling the commitment to ‘comprehensive’ and appropriate social protection that preceded the Internal Labour Organization -led initiative, (Seekings, 2019).

Social transfers are the most direct way to combat food insecurity i.e. to provide food security to persons without food, .i.e. food aid or the means to get food, conditional or unconditional cash transfers, (Deveraux, 2012). Food assistance has been highly criticized for various reasons, despite being the preferred form of giving humanitarian relief and social protection in Africa since the 1960s. Food donations has been ineffective in addressing chronic food poverty for decades. Analysis of projects for food assistance such as school feeding, food-for-work, as well as emergency food aid have determined that its usefulness is restricted primarily to alleviate transitory or acute food hunger. Furthermore, Western donors for food aid to Africa has been criticized as a self-serving method for 'dumping' excess produced by massively subsidized agriculture in Europe and North America. (Deveraux, 2012)

Conditional cash transfers (CCTs) are typically used to encourage the use of health and education services - particularly, small children should be immunized, and older children should attend school, otherwise financial transfers from eligible households may be withheld. (Deveraux, 2012), Conditional cash transfers have an indirect and long-term linkage with food security. Food insecurity is less prevalent among those who are more educated and healthier. (Deveraux, 2012). Cash transfers that are not conditional is food aid and it has been recently surpassed as the most common type of social transfer in Africa by unconditional cash transfers. Cash, in contrast to food aid, is perceived as more adaptable, less paternalistic, and capable of fulfilling a wider range of needs. Cash improves local economies, creates income and job multipliers, and encourages rather than discourages production and trade. However, most cash transfer programs do not account for inflation or price seasonality. Cash transfers may simply drive local food prices higher in situations where markets are fragmented, and food supplies are limited. (Deveraux, 2012)

COVID-19 lockdowns had a particularly negative economic impact on low-wage informal employees, mostly in urban areas, (Deveraux, 2021). Informal workers were unable to work from home and were not covered by existing social assistance or insurance programmes. (WIEGO, 2020). Millions of African households received temporary economic assistance in 2020. The beneficiaries were frequently pre-COVID-susceptible organizations, implying that they were subject to 'COVID-intensified' vulnerabilities. (Deveraux, 2021). In South Africa, the Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) offered financial support to workers who were retrenched. Meanwhile jobless workers who did not qualify for UIF might have applied for the Temporary Employee/Employer Relief Scheme (TERS), which was developed specifically for them, (Deveraux, 2021). This might provide the groundwork for permanently expanding social insurance coverage to informal employees. COVID-19 inspired the Eswatini government to create the country's first national UIF, (Deveraux, 2021).

Although governments' actions have been expectedly temporary and brief, international organizations are aiming to have future-oriented policies and present a range of suggestions for the post-crisis period, (Leisering, 2021). However, these are pre-COVID-19 conceptions, and the major objective is to extend rather than alter the old models, even though international organizations recognize new kinds of poverty and structural inequalities. (Leisering, 2021). In Southern African nations, the direction of policy reform appears to have remained unchanged.

At the global and African levels, there is still a disconnect between 'global social policy.', (Seekings, 2019).

2.3. Social Protection in South Africa

South Africa's modern social protection system must be understood in the context of its unique history, which includes the adoption of components of the European-style social welfare support as early as the 1920s, (Deveraux, 2010). During the first part of the twentieth century, similar social welfare and employment-related social security programs were "disseminated" by many other European colonies, and the legacy of these policies continues, in varied degrees, in most African nations today, (Deveraux, 2010). In contrast, the current expansion of social pension plans in Southern Africa, as well as unconditional cash transfer programmes in several African nations, (Deveraux, 2010). In South Africa, social protection is more than just a government program (or a donor-funded initiative), but a "social contract" between the government and the citizens of the country, backed up by a pledge made in the post-apartheid Constitution, largely regarded as one of the most progressive in the world. This Constitution includes a Bill of Rights that confers the rights to all South Africans *"To have access to social security, including if they are unable to support themselves and their dependants, appropriate social assistance"* (Constitution of RSA, Bill of rights, Sect 27). Former Finance Minister Tito Mboweni indicated during his Budget statement in February 2021, "that the real value of all social payments will decrease". In other words, the rand rise is less than the expected inflation. This was verified at a news conference with the Minister and senior Treasury officials following the budget address. The amounts of all non-contributory social assistance programs are insufficient to support a decent quality of life for beneficiaries and their families. (Economics and Human Rights Factsheet, 2021). However domestic workers in South Africa have been implemented the UIF protection, but waste pickers and informal traders, who operate on their own without a distinguishing employee-employer connection, are excluded from most labour and social protection laws. Necessitating the development of inventive and tailor-made solutions is vital in South Africa, the regulation of waste pickers and informal traders is inconsistent, with no inclusive or universal regulations, (Fourie, 2018).

2.4. Social Protection Agency Assistance

In low-income nations, donors continue to play an essential role in providing financial support for social protection. There is an agreement that this should be done as part of a shift toward domestic financing of social protection expenses, especially through funding and support of social protection systems rather than simply specific programs, (Browne, 2015). Food aid, cash transfers, school meals, public works programs, and other social protection measures are frequently implemented as single instruments. Most evaluations are positive that poor individuals who get food, cash, or work opportunities are often better off than they were before, (Deveraux, 2012). These good results may be quantified in terms of food security, beneficiaries have increased access to healthy food, dietary diversity has increased, and nutritional status has improved. Single instruments, on the other hand, are often aimed at a small number of individuals and provide poverty reduction and food security advantages only for the duration of the intervention. (Deveraux, 2012)

The World Bank has been involved in social protection since the 1990s, but its primary focus remains on financial and economic issues. According to the World Bank, public social protection should be limited to battling severe poverty, with residual safety nets as a significant program type. Social security is primarily concerned with social safety nets and social assistance. Economic and communal metrics such as human capital investment and community-based public utilities are given greater weight. Individual entitlements to government benefits contribute just a little amount to the broader goal of 'shared prosperity.', (Leisering, 2021).

UNICEF aims to create a shared awareness of the need of cash transfer programs to gain national support and allocate resources to establish or construct large-scale programs. This area relies heavily on advocacy among decision-makers and the general pub. Frequently based on an awareness of the present situation as well as the gaps or inadequacies in current programs, UNICEF collaborates with governments to assist them consider how a new program or current program may be improved to help resolve child poverty and vulnerability. (Browne, 2015). In addition assisting with the research and design of cash transfers, as well as the policy engagement and advocacy required to effect change. UNICEF works directly with governments in various settings to assist with the implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of cash transfer programs. (2019). The number of nations with robust or moderately robust

social protection programs has nearly doubled since 2017. UNICEF has worked to develop shock-responsive social protection systems in sixteen (16) countries. (2020a)

Informal employment, on the other hand, emerges and is found in a wide range of businesses. Informal employment, according to the ILO, comprises occupations in both the official and informal sectors, as well as jobs in homes. Informal employment, according to the ILO, refers to employment conditions that are not subject to national labor legislation, income taxes, or access to social protection or other employment benefits or by law (advance notice of dismissal, severance pay, paid annual or sick leave, etc).

In terms of Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing. The International Labour Conference (ILC) issued a Recommendation for a Global Social Protection Floor in June 2012, which would cover individuals at all phases of their lives and be made up of a mix of cash transfers and affordable social services, including health care. There is growing agreement on the importance of comprehensive pensions and health care. However, there is limited consensus on the proper role of government, the extent of government responsibility and expense, and the balance of private and public insurance and provision.

Workers in low-wage jobs require both economic and social protection. They require economic stability, as well as a constant flow of work that allows them to earn enough money and in kind to fulfil their necessities. They also require social support, such as healthcare, childcare, shelter, and relief fund, to help them and their families cope with the long-term challenges they face with their families. Childcare services can help a woman employee work longer hours and be more productive at work. Increased productivity and a reduction in disease are two benefits from food security. As a result, social protection is a way of enhancing and preserving the worker's output, as well as his or her economic stability. (Jhabvala, 2006).

2.5. Social Protection Interventions (South African Government)

According to Section 27(1)(c) of the South African Constitution, "everyone has the right to social security, including, adequate social assistance if they are unable to maintain themselves and their dependents, (Hall, 2010). The most well-known social grants will be discussed in this section: Grants for the elderly, disabled people, and parents with children. The expression "social security" has traditionally been used to refer to a variety of arrangements in which

people save for their retirement with their own money, with no employer or government involvement; to social insurance, to which employees, employers, and the government may all contribute; to state help, where persons may be eligible for a non-contributory stipend in their old age or when a natural disaster strikes, (Lund and Nicholson, 2003). Different municipalities around the country have concentrated on encouraging street vendors' entrepreneurial potential, stressing the move from the informal to formal sectors while ignoring the informal sector's worth as a means in and of itself., (Arias, 2019)

Social protection is mainly funded through the budget, mostly through tax revenues, with some assistance from donors depending on the degree of national resources available., (Browne, 2015). The following are some options that governments might consider when increasing fiscal flexibility for social protection:

To increase the overall size of a country's budget:

- (i) increasing tax revenues.
- (ii) expanding social security coverage and contributory revenues.
- (iii) lobbying for increased aid and transfers.
- (iv) eliminating illicit financial flows.
- (v) borrowing or restructuring debt, and
- (vi) adopting a more accommodative macroeconomic framework.'

Sustainable finance at the national level necessitates a knowledge of the political economy and why particular expenditure decisions are made. This requires cohesive strategies considering how predicted social protection expenses relate to national government spending priorities and long-term finance obligations. (Browne, 2015).

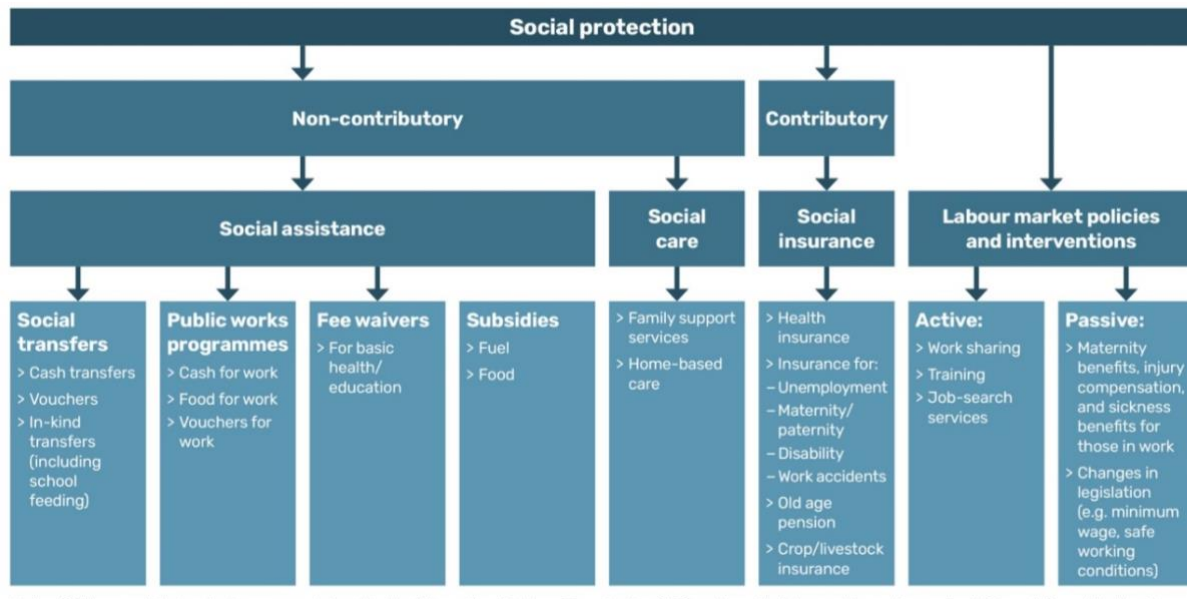


Figure 2: Taxonomy of social protection instruments; Source; O’Brien et al. (2018).

2.6. Social Grants

The South African government has a social protection role, which is a poverty reduction strategy that includes a comprehensive social assistance program handled by Department of Social Development, (Deveraux, 2012). Grants are non-contributory and financed by taxes, ensuring that the most disadvantaged members of society are protected. South Africa's program is the largest on the African continent in terms of social protection. (Macket, 2020). In the last fiscal year in March 2021, 18,44 million grants were paid to beneficiaries. The social grant has benefitted about 11.45 million South Africans. The total number of grant beneficiaries increased from 11.31 million at the end of April 2020 to 11.45 million at the end of March 2021. The total increase in social grant beneficiaries amounts to 137 933 or 1.2 per cent in 2020/21, (The Parliamentary Budget Office ,2020/21a). This accounts for around 46 percent of our total population. Simultaneously, the number of people working has decreased, emphasizing the severe problems in our economy, (Macket, 2020). South African government provides for the following social grants: -

- Old-age pensions, which are paid to women over the age of 60 and males over the age of 65, (SASSA Annual report, 2020/21)
- Disability grants are provided to those who are 18 or older but under the pensionable age, have a condition that will last more than a year, and are unable to support

themselves due to their disability or other circumstances, (SASSA Annual report, 2020/21).

- The Child Support Grant is awarded to a primary caregiver who is responsible for one or more children under the age of 14. The caregiver might be the child's mother, father, grandmother, relative, friend, or someone else, (SASSA Annual report, 2020/21).
- The Care Dependency Grant is for adults who are responsible for children with severe disabilities who require full-time and specialized care. Parents, foster parents, and court-appointed, guardians are all affected, (SASSA Annual report, 2020/21).
- The Foster Child Grant is for children who are placed in the care of someone who is not their biological parent, such as a grandmother.
- A Grant-in-Aid can be applied for by someone who is already receiving a grant but requires full-time care from someone else. This is an extra small amount of money on top of the grant or pension, (SASSA Annual report, 2020/21)
- War veterans' grants are given to those over the age of 60 who served in the South African army during World War I (1914–1918). Those who served in the Second World War (1939–1945) or the Korean War (1950–1953) who are unable to support themselves due to physical and/or mental condition, (Reddy et al, 2008).

Grants are an essential source of income for low-income families, particularly those in the lowest bracket. Although questions have been expressed concerning the sustainability of these payments, studies demonstrate that the rollout of the social grants program has had a favorable influence on poverty reduction., (Macket, 2020).

2.7. Conceptual Functions of Social Protection

When formulating social protection aims, there are various distinct conceptual frameworks. These have developed over time, and they have been embraced and endorsed by a variety of governments and international organizations, (Deveraux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004). Each one considers possible consequences in a different way, with an emphasis on transformation, human capital development, vulnerability reduction, and human rights protection. (Deveraux et al. 2004). The following provide most used conceptual framework, which describes four social protection functions:

- Protective: providing relief from deprivation (e.g., income benefits, state pensions)
- Preventative: preventing deprivation (e.g., social insurance, savings clubs)

- Promotive: enhancing incomes and capabilities (e.g., inputs, public works)
- Transformative: social equity and inclusion, empowerment, and rights (e.g., labour laws), (Devereux et al. 2004),

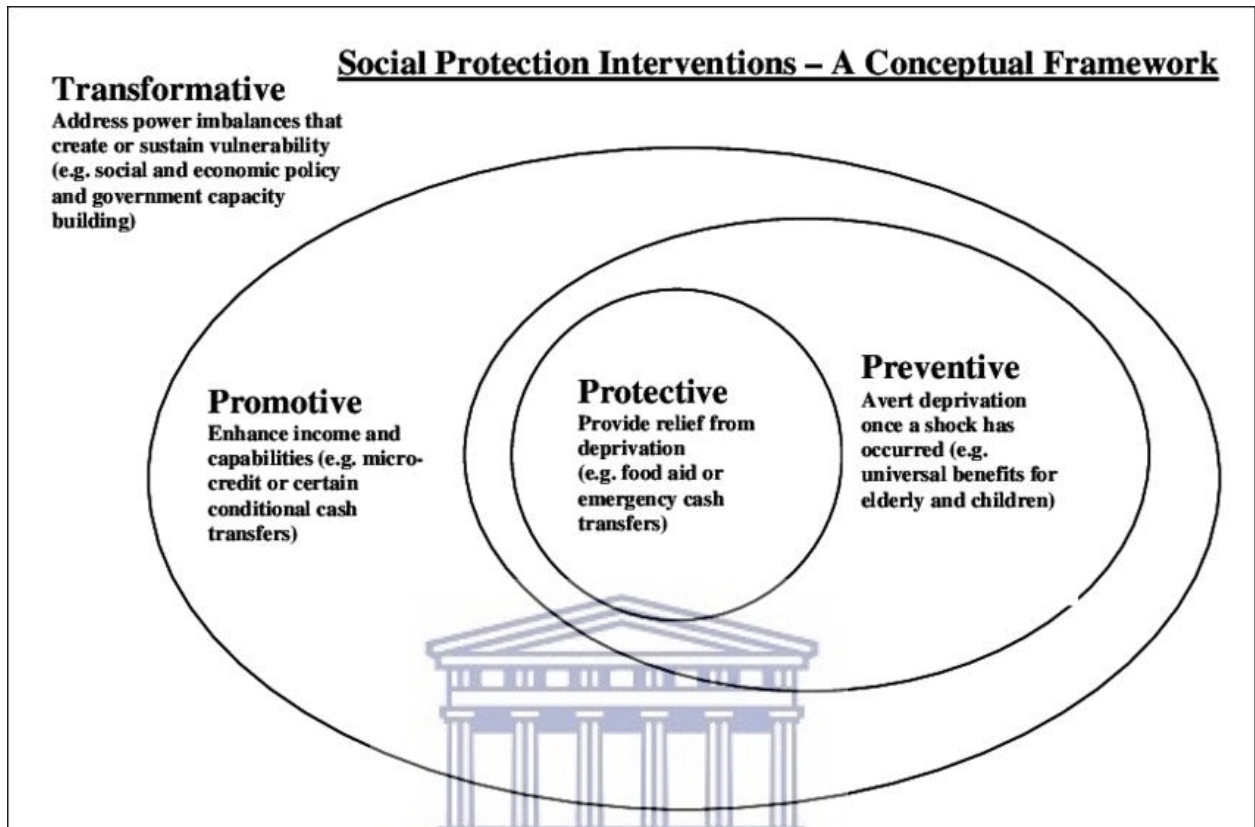


Figure 3, Source; (Handa and Blank, 2007) A proposed social protection conceptual framework for UNICEF

2.7.1. Protective/promotive social protection: school feeding

School feeding systems, which offer students with free meals at school, are one example of a social protection initiative that can help to long-term poverty reduction goals. School meals may be classified as both protective and promotive social protection objectives both serve two functions: providing immediate consumption transfers to children who are typically malnourished and encouraging children from disadvantaged homes to attend school even during tough times. However, this should be proving that education leads to greater earnings for student, that school feeding enhances educational outcomes, and that school feeding is pro-poor. (Deveraux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004)

2.7.2. Promotive/transformative social protection

Wages at a minimum wage mandate are a labor market policy aimed at reducing poverty by boosting the pay of the poorest employees or above the poverty level. Implementing minimum wages for workers who are paid extremely low salaries appears to be an appealing policy option for social protection. It targets low-income groups, involves nothing to the government or donors (since private sector businesses bear the expense of boosting wages), and has both direct and indirect (income-enhancing) impacts (multiplier effects) negative effects on poverty reduction. Furthermore, in addition to these "motivating" advantages, this is a "transformative" policy in that it empowers groups of employees who are normally unorganized and/or have limited bargaining power with their employers. (Deveraux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004)

2.7.3. Transformative social protection: anti-discrimination campaigns

Surprisingly, as previously said, much of the conceptual and policy literature on social protection has been concentrated with strategies for providing economic assistance (e.g., food aid or cash transfers) from economic challenges and livelihood shocks. This concern has not advanced the notion and practice of social protection much beyond the early 1990s safety nets debate, which tried to smooth consumption in the face of income fluctuation, in microeconomists' terms. A concern for social protection has been conspicuously lacking from much mainstream thought on the problem. These researchers argue that social protection should be concerned with tackling aspects of "social risk" and non-economic vulnerability, such as social exclusion, discrimination, and breaches of minority rights, (Deveraux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004).

2.7.4. Non-State informal social protection

Informal workers who are not covered by standard social protection, such as those who do not have employment contracts, savings accounts, or pensions, typically have just one source of security: their burial society. Burial societies are groups of friends, family, co-workers, and community members that join a society together to protect themselves and their extended families from the costs of death, (Dalufeya, 2018). These have become prominent small number of community-based systems (hereinafter referred to as informal systems) that have become rather common throughout Africa. Household burial society contributions and

informal procedures provide social security throughout this difficult period. Household burial society transfers can take the form of monetary or in-kind transfers from one household to another. Migration and divorce have resulted in geographically scattered homes, with remittances and child maintenance acting as transfers from one family to the other. Furthermore, households within the same community often have social and financial links that allow them to alter monetary payments without incurring any costs or risk of default. Although these practices are still common in both rural and urban African cultures, they are extremely sensitive to covariant risk, (Dalufeya, 2018)

2.8. The Informal Sector

Thousands of South Africans depend on the informal sector for a living, and the impoverished rely heavily on it for food. The informal sector employs roughly 66 percent of non-agricultural workers in Sub-Saharan Africa. (Petersen, Charman, and Kroll, 2018). Informal enterprises provide affordable unit sizes, credit, extended hours of operation, handy locations, daily restocking of fresh food, fresh produce that is often cheaper than supermarkets, and a variety of meat cuts that cater to cultural preferences and tastes. (Petersen, et al, 2018). These benefits are counterbalanced by obstacles such as higher unit costs, perceived lower quality, a limited range, a lack of a cold chain, and perceived food safety risks. (Petersen et al, 2018). Many of the poor in Southern cities have turned to the informal economy, particularly street trading. As a result, there have been plenty of urban conflicts, as well as pressure from municipal administrators to formalize, for which a more developmental strategy has been urged, (Lyons and Snoxell, 2005). Nonetheless, the formalization of street trade has had a very uneven impact on traders, (Lyons and Snoxell, 2005).

In South Africa, the informal sector includes a diverse spectrum of vending, producing, service, and trading activities in rural and urban regions, as well as inner-city, peri-urban, and suburban neighbourhoods, as well as informal settlements. (Peberdy, 2000). Even though there are contrasts between the informal and formal sectors, they have tight ties. These include anything from work being subcontracted to the informal sector to the utilization of formal-sector inputs in informal-sector commerce and manufacturing. Handicraft and curio street commerce, as well as cross-border trade, are just a few of the activities that make up the informal sector. There has been no way of knowing how many individuals work in the South African informal economy. (Peberdy, 2000)

One of the reasons informal employments frequently grows during times of economic adjustment or transition. Workers who are laid off and unable to find new formal occupations frequently wind up working in the informal sector when businesses are reduced or shut down. This is especially true for people who cannot afford to be unemployed, and it is especially true in nations where unemployment insurance or compensation is not available, (Chen, 2012). There is a growing awareness that much of the informal sector is now intertwined with the formal economy and contributes to the entire economy. Assisting the working poor in the informal economy is a crucial approach to decreasing poverty and inequality. (Chen, 2012). The working conditions and wages of people who beg on the streets for rags and paper, those who create clothing on a subcontract from their houses, those who sell things on the streets, and those who work as temporary data processors varies significantly. Even within nations, the informal economy is heavily fragmented by sectors of the economy, site of labour, and job status, as well as social group and gender within these sectors. Those who labour informally, on the other hand, have one thing in common: they have no legal or social protection, (Chen, 2012).

The International Labour Organization and the International Expert Group on Informal Sector Statistics advocated for a broader definition of the informal economy and employment status, which was accepted by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians in 2003: the diverse range of economic activities, businesses, and employees that are neither regulated nor protected by the state (Lund, 2012). It categorizes several types of work: -

- Self-employment in informal enterprises: Self-employed individuals in limited unregistered or unincorporated businesses, including employers, own-account operators (who do not employ people), and unpaid contributing family employees.
- Wage employment in informal jobs: Wage workers without social protection from their workplace who are employed by formal or informal businesses (and their contractors), households, or no fixed employer, including non-standard employees of informal enterprises, non-standard employees of formal enterprises, and casual employees or day labourers, and industrial outworkers (also called homeworkers), (Lund, 2012).

2.8.1. Informal Street Trade/ Vendor

Street trade is popular in many nations in the global South as an economic expression of informality, (Rogerson, 2016). Cities in Sub-Saharan Africa are characterized by an increase in informality. Street trading is one of the most significant and yet most challenging policy challenges that municipal governments in South Africa must handle. (Rogerson, 2016). Street vendors may be found in metropolitan public places throughout the world, although the total number of individuals who operate as street vendors is difficult to cover in the economic spectrum, (Rogerson, 2016). Nonetheless, where data is available, labour force statistics reveal that street vendors make for a sizable portion of urban employment and trading is more of an important economic activity, the proportion of street vendors employed is higher, (Roever and Skinner, 2016). Growing rural-to-urban migration and a shortage of formal-sector jobs in many parts of the Global South have resulted in an increase in the prevalence of street trading as more individuals seek out in-between locations to develop sustainable livelihood (Milgram, 2011). The contributions of street traders to urban life extend beyond their own self-employment. (Roever and Skinner, 2016) They create demand for a variety of services offered by other informal workers, such as transportation workers, food and beverage vendors, clothing, furniture and art, recyclers, and other supplies, (Roever and Skinner, 2016). According to Fakour et al, street selling has frequently been regarded and presented by city officials and regulators as having a damaging impact on the charm and beauty of their cities, (2017). For informal workers to fight for their rights they must organize associations and then cooperate with foreign organizations/NGOs to help them communicate with government officials to influence policy changes. (Fakuor, Akuoko, and Yeboah, 2017). Street traders in several regions of the developing world use similar broad methods to lay claim to public space and bargain against eviction and relocation initiatives, (Fakuor, et al, 2017).

Additional challenges include the informal and micro-status of these businesses, the extra-legal or illegal nature of their operations which is based on land-use zoning, informal status, and municipal permitting, such as requiring food-grade kitchen permits, and the power imbalance they have with their formal sector suppliers, which makes state or private sector interventions difficult, (Petersen, Charman and Kroll, 2018). Interventions will most likely need to focus on areas other than microenterprises themselves, such as the township business environment, to promote the sector's growth and operations. (Petersen et al, 2018). In the urban setting, it is critical to determine the right payment amount for social assistance. The urban poor suffer

greater living costs, produce less food, rely on cash more frequently, and are more exposed to unemployment and underemployment, low and inconsistent income in the informal economy, and rising prices, (Devereaux and Cuesta, 2021). As a result, in metropolitan areas, a cash grant's buying power may be significantly smaller. As a result, cash transfer programs that extend from rural to urban communities do not have a significant impact. (Devereaux and Cuesta, 2021).

2.8.2. Informal Trading in the City of Cape Town

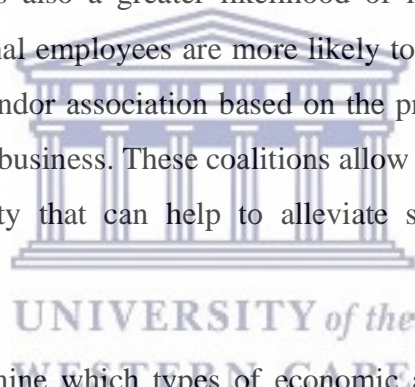
In 2013, the City of Cape Town implemented a new Informal Trading Policy, (Fourie, 2018). Informal street trading encompasses a wide range of activities which included: selling in pedestrian malls, public open areas, and markets. The policy intends to boost economic growth as well as the informal economic development. The policy aims to enhance adaptable infrastructure, spatial planning, and an integrated approach to informal economy growth, (Fourie, 2018). This is a crucial policy element is the City's comprehensive approach for trade areas, which recognizes many features of informal trading places as well as various intended outcomes. In terms of social discourse, the policy calls for the formation of multi-stakeholder discussions at various levels. The policy recognizes non-trade union representative organizations and attempts to provide them with support and help. This is significant since several organizations in Cape Town represent informal traders. (Fourie, 2018).

In comparison to the way informal street trade has been permitted to flourish in areas of Johannesburg and Pretoria's inner cities, informal street trading in Cape Town is considerably more spatially restricted. Locations where informal traders were previously permitted to overlap sidewalks and side-street parking bays, such as the railway station, have recently been off-limits to informal traders, while areas where trading has been allowed remain in the Central Business District (CBD) are confined in clearly defined spaces. (Du Plessis, Geyer, and van Eeden (2011)

2.8.3. Demographical challenges of street trade in Cape Town

According to figures from 2011, there were more than half a million street traders in South Africa, with 70% of them being women. In most towns in Sub-Saharan Africa, street trade employs many women, (Fourie, 2018). All traders are classified as "informal traders," which is a broader word than "street traders" because it covers all traders in malls and markets.

(Fourie, 2018). Outside of enclosed facilities or covered workstations, both men and women engage in street trading. This comprises street pavements, corners, sidewalks, and neighborhood walkways, as well as areas around major transportation hubs such as train stations, bus stops/truck parks, construction sites, and sports facilities, (Mitullah, 2004). According to Celik (2011). This research investigation confirms that street vendors are the primary breadwinners in their homes. However, past studies have left this information incomplete because it is the degree of amalgamation of multiple sources of income in their homes that offers us the important information in defining them, (Celik, 2011). This refers to the distinction between being the primary earner and being the only breadwinner in a household, (Celik, 2011). According to his results, street vendors are the sole breadwinners in 68.6 percent of the families, indicating that most households do not have a mix of income sources. Child support grants account for 32.8 percent of other sources of income, while pension grants account for 19 percent. (Celik, 2011). The fact that most informal workers' jobs are unstable, with no or little social protection or labor safeguards, is a distinguishing element of their working life. There is also a greater likelihood of lesser returns in the informal economy, implying that informal employees are more likely to be poor. (Alfers et al, 2016). Some vendors have formed vendor association based on the products they offer in terms of their geographical space of the business. These coalitions allow sellers to occupy public space and undertake political activity that can help to alleviate some of the limitations they experience. (Milgram 2011).



Local governments can determine which types of economic activities are permitted when establishing the use of public spaces: public spaces to be utilized as locations for formal companies, marketplaces and malls, or informal livelihood activities, (Alfers et al, 2016). Residents of a city will be affected by these decisions on a practical and cultural level. Green space, markets, and civic square, for example, reflect the importance of commercial, civic, and social involvement approaches, (Alfers et al, 2016) Many people have no option but to sell their goods on the street since their livelihoods rely on it, (Arias, 2019). They have nothing else to do since they lack access to commerce, so they disrupt more controlled features of formal space they create a conflict between formal and informal activity, (Arias, 2019). According to statistics, informal food traders play an important role in ensuring urban food security and frequently providing services to communities where the government does not. Informal traders play a critical role in urban living and in reducing home poverty in a broader societal context, (Fourie, 2018).

The development of informal enterprises in portions of Central Business Districts (CBDs) where they had previously been absent drove several formal enterprises, particularly those that had served to the higher income market, to transfer to suburban regions in the early 1990s, (Du Plessis et al, 2011). Various new urban and business land users relocated to the suburbs and ex-urban regions because of this process, (Du Plessis et al, 2011). Taking advantage of market opportunities while many enterprises in inner city districts had to reorientate to meet changing market conditions, (Du Plessis et al, 2011). Cape Town, which displayed indications of urban deterioration in the late 1990s, has again regained its previous vigor. (Du Plessis et al, 2011)

2.8.4. Urban Development for informal street trade

Even though the informal sector has always been a feature of South Africa's urban economy, during apartheid, street trade in metropolitan areas was restricted to black townships, (Deveraux, 2004). However, political transformation in the nation has resulted in many micro structural changes in cities since the early 1990s. (Deveraux, 2004). Black Street vendors migrated into inner city districts and began claiming their fair share of commerce in locations where they had previously been prohibited from doing so, (Du Plessis, et al, 2011). This encouraged black entrepreneurship and offered commercial possibilities for the urban poor, but it also resulted in the displacement of many formal firms that formerly catered to higher income group. (Du Plessis, et al, 2011). The deterioration caused by these developments urged municipal governments to implement street trading policies and regeneration programs to attract new investments and revitalize degraded areas of inner cities, (Du Plessis, et al, 2011)

The concept of Developmental Local Government resulted in a completely different approach to what had been previously seen as the primary duty and function of local government, (Van Rooyen and Malan, 2007). Local government has traditionally been thought of as a tool for ensuring the timely supply of essential services such as water and sanitation to communities and enforcing rules, (Van Rooyen and Malan, 2007). The Republic of South Africa's Constitution of 1996 gives local governments a new mandate to rule, provide services, and encourage development in their respective regions of authority. Informal trading within the country's metropolitan centers is now a sensitive subject. Municipalities should enable to keep an atmosphere that allows for these issues to be resolved. (Van Rooyen and Malan, 2007)

Street trade is frequently seen as a type of trading in many African cities; however, it varies in terms of its degrees of informality. Gbaffou, (2018), contends that municipal decisions have created the ungovernability of street trade, referring to the City's incapacity to lead this area of governmental activity. These decisions have prevented the emergence of street trading as a public issue by demobilizing traders and the broader society behind a shield of progressive but superficial rhetoric, the lack of a dedicated institution that could be engaged, and politics of an opening that obscures the scope of the issue. (Gbaffou ,2018). Although the informal sector has always been a feature of South Africa's urban economy, during the apartheid era, street trade in metropolitan areas was restricted to black townships, (Deveraux, 2004). However, since the early 1990s, the country's political revolution has resulted in several micro - structural changes in cities, (Du Plessis et al, 2011). In comparison to how informal street trade has been permitted to grow in portions of Johannesburg and Pretoria's inner cities, informal street trading in Cape Town is considerably more spatially restricted, (Du Plessis et al, 2011). Street trade adds significantly to municipal income, as trading is a vital activity in many underdeveloped African towns, where national payments to local governments are substantially more limited than in South Africa, (Deveraux, 2011). Street trader mobilization is frequently hindered by the fact that street traders are both oppressed and marginalized because of their informal status and economic vulnerability, and that they are entrepreneurs competing with one another, with the goal of limiting the number of street vendors in their area. (Gbaffou, 2018).

The cheap cost of different service provisions enables vendors to sell things within the purchasing power of the chosen shoppers, (Suryanto, 2020). The cooperative advantages also compensate for the negative consequences of the market on the community, such as garbage piles, traffic jams, loud noise, and privacy violations, (Suryanto, 2020). Despite its enormous contribution to urban life, the presence of the informal economic sector, especially street vendors, in urban settings has resulted in environmental challenges, (Slater, 2020). As a result, it is vital to identify ways to incorporate the informal sector into the urban environment to maximize the advantages while minimizing the problems. Street vending is essential to the survival of not just vendors, but also local inhabitants and regional shoppers. Completely prohibiting vending operations is undoubtedly an unfavourable alternative since it would have a detrimental impact on many people's livelihoods and survival. (Suryanto, 2020).

2.8.5. The socio-economic issue of street trade in South Africa

Individual communities around the country have concentrated on promoting the entrepreneurial potential of street vendors, stressing the shift from the informal to formal sectors while ignoring the significance of the informal sector to an end, (Arias, 2019). After the end of apartheid post- 1994 street businesses flourished. (Du Plessis, et al, 2011). The response of municipal governments across South Africa was the new flow of street trade activities which were simply regulatory at first. Trading operations that restrict traffic or pedestrian movement, block formal retail store frontage, or result in improper stacking of items that might injure the public or merchants are often prohibited by municipal bylaws. (Rooyen and Malan, 2007). While bylaws are vital and necessary strategies for regulating urban space, they are designed to suppress rather than encourage street trade. The lack of proactive municipal actions to enhance the street trade industry has been blamed on financial restrictions. The political desire to be viewed as delivering infrastructure such as housing, roads, and water to historically underprivileged communities exacerbated the problem. (Rooyen et al, 2007). Financial assistance from commercial banks, microfinance institutions, credit bureaus, and other financial organizations is required for sustained informal commerce, just as it is for formal trading. Many informal traders are apprehensive to approach financial institutions because of previous unpleasant experiences with those organizations. The extensive paperwork, which finally yields nothing, is part of the bad experience. Because of their poor education levels, several street traders are frightened by the paperwork, which is frequently phrased in financial jargon that even the most educated members of society find difficult to understand. (Kabanga et al, 2021).

According to studies, the level of education and informal work have a negative linear relationship. Education is important in the shift from informal to formal work, with rates of formal employment declining as education levels rise. Investing in education, particularly the development of girls, is important for long-term growth and breaking the poverty cycle, (Statistics South Africa, 2021). The marketing component of small enterprises is constrained by a lack of capital, making it difficult for sellers to promote their items to the most feasible marketplaces, (Arias, 2019). High transportation expenses further limit informal enterprises, which are often located too far away from their raw supplies or markets, (Tshuma and Jari, 2013). Street vending provides a source of income for low-income households and migrants who have no other economic choices, even though they rely on social networks that provide

them with access to street trading. There are several challenges when making a living from street selling, but one of the most significant is access to public space and services. When viewed as an economic resource, the actuality of public places frequently falls short of their primary purpose as a "public benefit." (Arias, 2019)

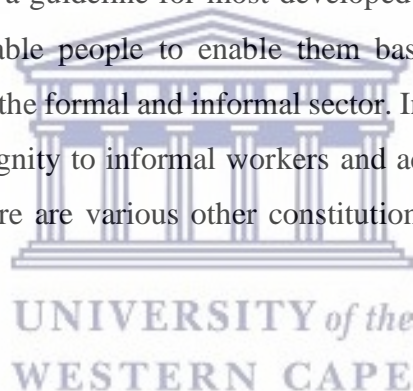
2.9. Regulatory framework for informal economy in South Africa

Regulation of street vending was completely in the hands of municipal governments until the 1970s. However, as more Africans went to cities, the Apartheid-led national government tried to restrict African migration, particularly inside cities. (Arias, 2019).

2.9.1. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

The South African Constitution, Act 104, (1996) remains the fundamental contemporary legislative framework that sets a guideline for most developed legal frameworks of acts and bills that advocate for vulnerable people to enable them basic human rights in the wide spectrum of labour practices in the formal and informal sector. In this study it is paramount for social protection and ensure dignity to informal workers and address the root causes and the disadvantages they suffer. There are various other constitutional rights must be considered, including the following:

- the right to equality,
- the right to human dignity,
- the right to freedom of association,
- the right to choose your trade,
- the right to housing,
- the right to social security, food, water, and health,
- the right to childcare



2.9.2. The White Paper on Social Welfare

The 1997 White Paper on Social Welfare was the first policy vehicle, in which developmental aspects of social security were invoked. This is also the most important policy discussion paper, since it prepared the basis for extensive legislative reforms controlling social assistance distribution. The interesting movement of developing social welfare was easy to catch on in a country just emerging from a restricted approach, (Reddy and Sokomani, 2008).

The terms "social protection" and "social security" are frequently interchanged. The latter, on the other hand, is a considerably larger idea, (Leisering, 2020). It involves both the state's welfare functions as well as developmental policies and programs to guarantee that all people have at least the minimum acceptable living standards, (Leisering, 2020). As a result, it serves an emancipatory goal. Fragmented, inequitable, and fraud-ridden' was how apartheid regimes characterised social security. (Swart, 2006). Among various demographic groups and homelands, social security was managed by 14 distinct departments. The Social Assistance Act of 1992, which was in effect from 1992 to 2006, governed this position. The Social Assistance Act of 2004, which went into effect on April 1, 2006, reformed the whole regime. The 2004 Act established a non-discriminatory policy that applied throughout South Africa. The White Paper for Social Welfare was the basis of this change, alongside the Constitution. The White Paper focuses on developmental social assistance, that also intends to make people self-sufficient, in line with the government's new focus on development. South Africa today boasts "one of the most extensive social welfare systems in the developing world" because of the White Paper's interventions (Swart, 2006).

2.9.3. Labour Relations Act amendments for vulnerable workers

The Labour Relations Act (LRA) was revised in 2014, to give more protection to vulnerable employees, notably those in conventional forms of employment. These amendments are consistent with the LRA's goal of advancing social justice, implementing section 23's fundamental rights, and adhering to international duties. It also aligns with the long-term development goals of gender equality, good employment, and poverty reduction. Workers who work casually, part-time, on a temporary basis, or on a fixed-term contract are all in a common type of job that is typically unstable, (Fourie, 2018)

2.9.4. The Employment Services Act 4 of 2014

This legislation establishes a regulatory framework by requiring the mandatory registration of temporary employment providers. The act's lengthy title provides for the development of public employment initiatives to encourage the employment of vulnerable people. The concept of a "vulnerable person" is broad in nature and is not restricted to vulnerable employees. Consequently, refuse pickers and street traders may be regarded as vulnerable individuals since they lack proper labour and social protection, (Fourie, 2018). Work opportunity and work scheme are defined under the act to encompass self-employment and programmes to put people up for self-employment. These provisions may help waste pickers and informal traders, (Fourie, 2018).

2.9.5. The Social Protection Plan for the Informal Economy and Rural Workers (2011-2015)

The (SPIREW) particularly distinguishes casual workers, informal economy workers, counting country informal workers, as vulnerable, destitute, and regularly prohibited from social security and satisfactory social protection. Another key guideline of this plan is the affirmation that tailor made social protections plans may be way better suited to bargain with specific requirements of the informal economy which value healthcare and may be a core rule in Africa's wellbeing strategy, (Fourie, 2018)

2.9.6. The Code on Social Security (2007)

This approach perceives the broader concept of social protection and its objective to improve human welfare. Solidarity and redistribution, multi-actor accountability, changeable geometry, and providing flexibility in the attainment of social protection for everyone in the region are some of the principles behind the development of social security systems in the region, (Fourie, 2018). South Africa currently has the most effective constitutional foundation for recognizing and enforcing the right to social security. Section 27 acknowledges the broad right to social security but goes on to enumerate additional rights that fall under this general right. It states as follows:

- 1) Everyone has the right to have access to –

- a. health care services, including reproductive health care.
 - b. sufficient food and water; and
 - c. social security, including, if they are unable to support themselves and their dependants, appropriate social assistance.
- 2) The state must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of each of these rights.
 - 3) No one may be refused emergency medical treatment. Besides this right to health care, food, water and security, the constitution goes further to recognise a right to a clean environment which is conducive to people's health their and wellbeing, a right to housing, and a right to education, (Fombad, 2011)

2.9.7. The Social Assistance Act of 2004

This act was adopted in response to Taylor Commission (2002) recommendations, it describes the tax-financed social grants available in South Africa, with eligibility conditions modified in a 2009 modification to the Act. Even though social grants are considered rights in South Africa, they are only available to individuals who are poor and are based on a means test. As a result, the subsidies are referred to as "social assistance" and are viewed as being for "the poor." The Foster Care Grant is the only exemption, as there is no means test. However, to guarantee that social assistance systems work as entitlements and, as a result, are available to everyone who qualifies, the means test has been simplified. Applicants must merely sign an affidavit declaring their income, which is not officially checked; nevertheless, if they claim an income, they must present proof. (Swart, 2006)

2.10. Conclusion

Workers in all types of employment, especially those in "new" forms of employment, confront issues in providing comprehensive and effective coverage under social protection programs across the world. Over the next few decades, the nature of labour is likely to shift dramatically, (Browne, 2015). Poor employees in the informal economy are the ones facing greater risks. For one, given the conditions in which they live and work, they are extremely vulnerable to risk, and secondly, their low level of income does not allow them to save for emergencies. As a result, predictable financial demands like life cycle events and schooling frequently become financial problems or, at the very least, a cause of financial stress for them. Finally, they have

limited or no access to institutional risk management resources including insurance, pensions, and social assistance. They also have limited access to mortgages, loans, and scholarships to assist with housing and education costs. (Lund and Nicholson, 2003)

Social protection has been recognised as a developmental plan for policy formulation in South Africa and many other developing countries of the global South and North. However, it has not covered all the contingencies that may affect the livelihood threats, challenges, risks, and shocks that informal employees may be dealing with to survive or overcome factors that can affect business negatively. Employees in the informal sector require social protection, at the very least healthcare, childcare, shelter, and relief, to counteract the chronic hazards that they and their families endure. Childcare facilities can improve the number of hours a woman worker can work as well as her productivity at work. Food security can lead to higher productivity and a reduction in disease. Thus, social protection is a technique of raising and preserving worker productivity to promote his or her economic security. The introduction of social protection features considerably improves the quality of work and living for workers. (Jhabvala and Sinha, 2006). Finally, social protection is a broader concept than social security. Social protection encompasses development policies and programs aimed at ensuring, at the very least, a minimal level of life for all citizens



CHAPTER 3

“Theoretical Framework, Social Capital and Sustainable Livelihood Theories”

3. Introduction

In this section there are two major theoretical framework that are discussed as the relevant approaches for the study of social protection for the informal sector. They have been discussed by some of the scholars which have embarked on social studies of this nature for decades. There is more theory-based literature on the subject of social protection and sustainable livelihood theory, and I will be looking into that primary research literature. To establish a proper theoretical framework for this investigation, several techniques and theories were critically evaluated.

3.1. Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is made up of theories presented by experts in the topic in which you want to conduct research. This is what use as a theoretical guide connection for your data analysis and findings interpretation. (Kivunja, 2018). The theoretical framework of a research study is the framework that may hold or support a hypothesis. The theoretical foundation for your research proposal or thesis is not a recitation of your own ideas about the topic. Rather, it is a synthesis of the ideas of philosophers in your field of study as they pertain to your planned research thesis, to comprehend those theories, and how you intend to apply those theories to your data, (Kivunja, 2018). In summary, the theoretical framework is made up of what experts in your area have to say about your research issue, the problem you want to study, and maybe even advice for how to address that problem, such as how to interpret the data you collect, (Kivunja, 2018). In the study of social protection, theoretical frameworks developed from social science approaches are less typically used. However, these theories are some of the major frameworks in social studies which are applicable to the study of social protection interventions for informal traders, and they are: Social Capital Theory and Sustainable Livelihoods. I will further discuss these two theories that can be deemed applicable to this study and therefore decide which one will be pertinent to the study. Firstly, I will contextualise Social Capital theory and ascertain whether it corresponds with the study. Secondly, I will contextualise Sustainable Livelihood theory to also determine if its pertinent to the study. Thirdly, I will make use of a theoretical framework of choice related to the study, therefore make a conclusion.

3.2. Contextualising Social Capital Theory

According to Social Capital Theory, individual social cooperation helps both the individuals and the group to which they belong. This idea may be traced back to Aristotle, who stated, "Man is by nature a sociable animal; an individual who is unsocial naturally and not by accident is either beneath our attention or more than human.", (Wong and Reevany, 2019). Social capital is a multifaceted notion that encompasses a wide range of cultural and social value systems. It has recently gained a lot of traction among social scientists as a highly appealing notion. The notion has been used by a rising number of sociologists, anthropologists, political scientists, and economists to explain a variety of economic and social results. The basic idea behind social capital is that it may be used to explain development outcomes by including socio-cultural aspects. (Bhandari and Yasunobu; 2009). Social capital is made up of formal and informal norms, institutions, and organizations that foster trust and cooperation in communities as well as in larger society. It is "capital" because it is a resource that assists in the accumulation of well-being, and it is "social" because it is not the sole property of individuals but it is held by social groupings and may be a feature of the entire social systems, (Durstun, 1998).

Although social capital is an old notion, it was only in the 1990s that it became a topic of scholarly and policy discussion, (Durstun, 1998). It has been significant in describing economic and social issues and has grown in recent years. During the last decade, there has been a major increase in the literature on theoretical and empirical elements of social capital. (Bhandari and Yasunobu, 2009). Society is something that exists before the individual. The interpretations of Pierre Bourdieu, James Coleman, and Robert Putnam are among the most recent elaborations on Social Capital Theory. These three philosophers laid the groundwork for current social capital theory. Individuals, communities, and society may all benefit from social capital, (Wong and Reevany, 2019). The structural dimension of social capital relates to the overall pattern of relationships between individuals, i.e., who you have access to and how you reach them. The most essential components of this dimension are the existence or absence of network links between individuals, the configuration or network structure, and the suitable organization, which characterizes the pattern of relationships in terms of scale, density, linkage, and hierarchy, (Ghahtarani et al, 2020).

The connection with financial capital is taken seriously in Bourdieu and Coleman's concepts of social capital, which sees it as instrumental in the flow of commodities and services to people

and groups. Putnam, on the other hand, promoted a concept of social capital that is linked to the generation of communal goods such as "civic engagement" or a spirit of collaboration available to a community or nation. Bourdieu, (2011), describes social capital as the sum of real or potential resources that are connected to the existence of a long-term network of institutionalized connections of mutual acquaintance and recognition or in other words, membership in a group that gives each of its members the backing of the collectivist's capital, a credential that allows them to credit in multiple senses. According to Bourdieu, social capital is one of three types of capital (economic, cultural, and social). According to Bourdieu (2011), "the amount of social capital owned by a particular agent is determined by the extent of the network of connections they can successfully mobilize, and the volume of capital (economic, cultural, or symbolic) possessed in his own right by each of those to whom he is linked." Coleman defines social capital as a group of things that have two units which are all made up of some part of a social structure, and they are all designed to make it easier for people within the structure to do specific things. Unlike other types of wealth, social capital is inherent in the structure of relationships between and among people. It is not embedded in either persons or physical manufacturing tools. (Coleman,1990:302).

The term "social capital" represents the sociological core of communal vitality. The growth of voluntary collective activity, which is linked to inherited social capital in the society, is required to solve the challenge of shared action and opportunism, (Siisiäinen, 2003). Forms of social capital are the community's general moral resources, and they can be classified into three categories: first, trust (and more broadly, 'positive' values in terms of development); second, social norms and obligations; and third, social networks of citizens' activity, particularly voluntary associations, (Siisiäinen, 2003). Simultaneously, network analysts, as well as sociologists and applied social scientists in general, have accepted variants of the social capital idea that are more in line with the social structural interpretations articulated by Coleman and Bourdieu, this way they prioritize individual and organizational social relations in determining individual growth or collective action, (Bhandari and Yasunobu, 2009). Traders purposefully build their marketplace on social capital, significantly increasing the number of individuals they believe they know well and can consider as friends, (Lyons and Snoxell, 2005). Although trust in money and currency is low, research reveals that trust is required and capable in other domains. As a result, marketplace connections are critical for day-to-day activity as well as strategic business management. (Lyons and Snoxell, 2005). The new social capital created by traders in these marketplaces is not only based on new links, but it also serves new purposes in

their working life. Nonetheless, some noteworthy distinctions in the development of social capital may be detected along gender lines. Although it was shown that informal savings organizations were significant to both men and women, they were often gender-segregated and used distinct management practices. (Lyons and Snoxell, 2005). As a result, the social capital accessible to governments takes two forms: external community-based social capital and internal organizational social capital, both of which may have a unique but potentially complimentary influence on performance, (Andrews, 2011). Each of these categories of community social capital includes characteristics of social capital that are both bonding and bridging. It is expected to have significant independent and combined beneficial effects on the structural and attitudinal resources available within communities for governments to tap into the quest of service improvement, (Andrews, 2011). The range of definitions encompassing many perspectives basically agree that the primary foundation of social capital is the social connections that provide individual and community benefits. (Bhandari and Yasunobu , 2009) Social capital is a multifaceted concept with many different forms and purposes. Social capital may be viewed as a collective asset in the form of social interactions, shared norms, and trust that promote collaboration and collective action for mutual gain, according to various perspectives, (Bhandari and Yasunobu , 2009)

3.2.1. Types of Social Capital

Structural social capital; This is a form of social networks and other organizations such as associations, clubs, cultural groups, and institutions, as well as the rules, processes, and precedents that govern them, are all connected to structural social capital. (Bhandari and Yasunobu; 2009).

Cognitive social capital; in general, are shared aims and objectives among network members that promote common understandings about what can be improvements and how it should be done, resulting in improved business performance. Businesses that can build shared representations, interpretations, goals, routines, and methods of functioning are in the greatest position to benefit from their participation in an industrial district, (Parra-Requenq et al, 2010).

Bridging social capital occurs; when members of one group link with members of another group to acquire access, support, or knowledge, (Larsen et al, 2004) Bridging is important for resolving community problems because it allows individuals to get to know one another, create

connections, share knowledge, and mobilize community resources. (Bhandari and Yasunobu; 2009).

Bonding social capital refers to social networks that mostly consist of people who have similar socioeconomic features (age, gender, social class, and so on), whereas bridging social capital refers to cross-cutting social networks, (Coffé and Geys, 2007). Bonding develops the communication and connections required to accomplish mutual goals. Furthermore, it has an impact on the formation and growth of community organizations such as self-help groups and local associations. Bridging social capital refers to more distant links between similar people, such as casual friendships and co-workers., (Bhandari and Yasunobu, 2009).

Strong and weak ties; Strong ties are relationships that are tight, enduring, and binding, such as those seen in families and close friend groups. Weak ties, on the other hand, refer to more casual temporary, and situational interactions, such as those that occur between persons from diverse origins and friends from other social places. Strong ties are formed through affection, a willingness to assist, and a thorough understanding of one another. Strong ties develop enormous unity and provide personal support, whilst weak ties are more useful for informational purpose, (Bhandari and Yasunobu, 2009).

3.2.2. Horizontal and vertical networks:

Horizontal connections are connections between individuals who belong to the same group and/or are at the same level in an organizational hierarchy. (Pil and Leana, 2009). Horizontal redistributive practices (i.e., transfers between people of comparable economic and social standing) are still common, although they're prone to covariant risk. (Deveraux, 2001). Vertical reciprocity networks (i.e., systems of diffuse, imprecise, and delayed trade expressed as mutual help based on a cultural link, and which, in the "vertical" scenario, involve persons of unequal power) and are therefore unbalanced in any kind and not only do not create social capital, but are commonly its total opposite, (Durstun, 1998). Individual ties refer to the quality of an individual's connection with her or his direct supervisor it is just as significant as the quantity and quality of contacts she or he has inside her or his work group. Furthermore, these differences are reflected in supervisors' evaluations as well as, more importantly for our research, supervisor, and subordinate actions, such as the frequency at which they interact. Subsequent research on what has come to be known as "leader-member interchange" has

backed up this fundamental assumption, as well as shown that subordinates who have higher-quality interactions with their bosses do better in their employment, (Pil and Leana, 2009)

3.3. Sustainable Livelihood Theory

Livelihood studies were pushed to the forefront of development studies in the late 1990s and early 2000s, when the Department for International Development (DFID) a British state development cooperation agency actively propagated what is known as Sustainable Livelihood Framework, (De Haan, 2012). It was part of the New Labour government's attempt to develop a set of distinguishable policies that would position the Blair administration as the architect of the "Third Way" between the outdated labour ideology of the past and the neoliberal ideology of the prior conservative administration, (De Haan, 2012). 'Livelihood' is seemingly a neutral, descriptive word about earning a living, yet livelihood ideas have been largely acknowledged, appearing in outputs ranging from the World Bank to the most radical social change, (Scoones, 2009). However, what are the power dynamics underpinning this new discourse, and how do they affect action? The underlying politics of livelihood knowledge-making have been rarely examined, and if so, only briefly. However, as concepts gain force and influence in the development and shaping of disputes, it is worthwhile to focus on livelihood views as discourse, as well as methodologies and analytical tools, (Scoones, 2009).

In this study as I will analyse the need for interventions that support informal street trade to go beyond identification of physical and natural assets. Support for micro-enterprises, such as informal street trading, should also involve human, cultural, and social asset mobilization since they are essential factors in improving sustainable livelihoods and social protection. As a result, the Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) will be relevant to the study's analysis as well as a reference in understanding livelihood shocks and vulnerabilities in the informal street market. In principle, sustainable livelihoods frameworks and thinking provide a systematic, comprehensive, intersectoral, actor-oriented approach to understanding the lives of poor and disadvantaged people and building ties to macro-level poverty-reduction policies, (Bennett, 2010). Sustainable livelihoods approaches have proven effective for poverty reduction, food security, tourist development, fisheries livelihoods, HIV/AIDS, and informal recycling studies, programmatic interventions, and legislation, (De Haan, 2012). The notion of sustainable livelihoods might also be a helpful conceptual framework for research that aim to reconcile conservation efforts with local community development concerns. (Bennett, 2010). A SLF

provides a framework for capturing, interpreting, and integrating extensive household and community-level data in order to assess the economic, cultural, and environmental components of interventions' which impacts on urban and rural livelihoods., (Simpson, 2007). Sustainable livelihood approaches are part of a new worldwide agreement on reframing "goals" of social change and protecting the development community's rights to intervene and reform interactions between the state and civil society, while challenging 'conventional' development strategies. (Arce, 2003). Growing emphasis is being paid to ways that reject development as a template for a long gone Western idea of nationalist sense of communal cohesion, while strengthening the state's responsibility and responsiveness in allowing participation and effective governance, (Arce, 2003). The livelihood approach was also attractive because it had an open eye for the wider context in which the poor organised their livelihood strategies, (Arce, 2003). The approach recognized that these methods are rooted in structures and are directed by institutions, (De Haan, 2012). This broader context was regarded as critical because an essential component of poverty reduction policies and interventions was intended to target possibilities and restrictions in these structures that would either enable or prohibit the poor from organizing viable livelihood strategies. (De Haan, 2012). If these policies and initiatives could become more successful, the poor would be less vulnerable, happier, and more sustainable. De Haan (2012).

A focus on sustainable livelihoods has prompted more in-depth and critical thinking. This occurs from examining the outcomes of development initiatives at the local level, connecting micro-level, situated particularities of impoverished people's lives to larger-scale institutional and policy framings at the district, provincial, national, and even worldwide levels. (Scoones, 2009). As a result, such thoughts highlight the significance of complex institutional and governance systems, as well as the critical links between livelihoods, power, and politics. (Scoones, 2009). The assessment methodology described here is based on the broad concept of sustainable livelihoods (SL), which evolved from established perceptions of land, labour, and capital assets, as well as skills, social networks, and physical infrastructures, as stressed by concepts of a Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF); (Simpson, 2007).

3.3.1. Contextualising Livelihood Approach:

To begin with, the approach is 'people-centred,' in the sense that policymaking is based on an understanding of poor people's realities of struggle, on the principle of their participation in

determining priorities for practical intervention, and on their need to influence the institutional structures and processes that govern their lives, (Scoones, 2009). It is also 'holistic' in the sense that it is 'non-sectoral,' recognizing numerous effects, actors, tactics, and consequences. It is 'dynamic' in the sense that it seeks to comprehend change, complicated cause-and-effect linkages, and 'iterative chains of occurrences. It aims to 'cross the gap' between large and micro sectors. Lastly, it is openly devoted to different diverse aspects of sustainability, including environmental, economic, social, and institutional sustainability, (Scoones, 2009).

Livelihood is defined as having sufficient food and cash stocks and flows to fulfil fundamental necessities, (De Haan, 2000). Sustainable livelihoods are those that are resilient in the presence of external shocks and pressures; are not reliant on external assistance; preserve the long-term productivity of natural resources; and do not threaten the livelihood options available to others, including future generations. (Bohle, 2007). Livelihood is not always consistent with having a job, and it does not always have something to do with working. Furthermore, while receiving a monetary income is a vital component of one's livelihood, it is not the only factor to consider. It is quite possible for someone with a low monetary income to outperform someone with a larger monetary income. (De Haan, 2000). "A livelihood system consists of the capabilities, assets (both material and social resources), and activities necessary for a means of survival. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base" (Carney 1998, 2).

According to Chambers and Conway (1991), a livelihood, consists of the capabilities, assets (both material and social resources), and activities necessary for a means of subsistence. The term "livelihood security" refers to securing ownership of, or access to, resources and income-generating activities, such as reserves and assets, to mitigate risk, reduce shocks, and prepare for the unexpected. Long-term resource productivity maintenance or improvement is referred to as sustainability, Chambers and Conway (1991). An individual, household, or social group can achieve long-term livelihood security in a variety of ways: by owning land, livestock, or trees; by having rights to grazing, fishing, hunting, or gathering; by having stable employment with adequate remuneration; or by having a diverse repertoire of activities. (Bohle, 2007). The term 'sustainable' in the framework refers to livelihood earners' capacity to cope with unexpected shocks and long-term trends, as well as their ability to improve their capacities without compromising their natural resource base. In order to sustain this ability individuals and communities must have assets in these five capital categories: (Bennett and Franzel, 2013).

- Natural resources that generate flows and provide services such as nutrient growth and erosion prevention.
- Social resources are created through informal or formal networks and groups, trust interactions, and systems of exchange and trade.
- Human resources such as skills, knowledge, good health, and the capacity to collaborate allow people to pursue livelihoods.
- Physical resources include infrastructure, tools, and equipment such as transportation connectivity, shelter, proper water supply and sanitation, electricity, and communications.
- Financial resources, which include both savings and income, (Bennett and Franzel, 2013)

The Sustainable Livelihoods framework was described as an analytical foundation for grappling with the complexities of livelihoods, understanding impacts on poverty, and finding where interventions might be most effective, (Edwards, 2001). People are most likely to pursue a variety of livelihood objectives (health, income, reduced vulnerability, etc.) by drawing on a variety of assets to engage in a variety of activities. The activities people pursue and the manner in which they reinvest in asset-building are influenced, in part, by their own interests and objectives. (Edwards, 2001). According to the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework, poor people live in a vulnerable environment. They have access to specific goods or characteristics that reduce poverty, (Bohle, 2007). Coping with vulnerability is typically a process of failure and success; similarly, adjusting to vulnerability may be a lengthy trial and error process with unknown effects. As a result, research in all areas of social vulnerability must examine the alternatives available to the vulnerable for coping and adaptation, as well as the mechanisms and institutions that encourage or inhibit effective livelihood activities, (Bohle, 2007). It is crucial to understand the current capacity for maintaining livelihood security before any political initiatives can be strengthened or supported in vulnerable circumstances, (Bohle, 2007).

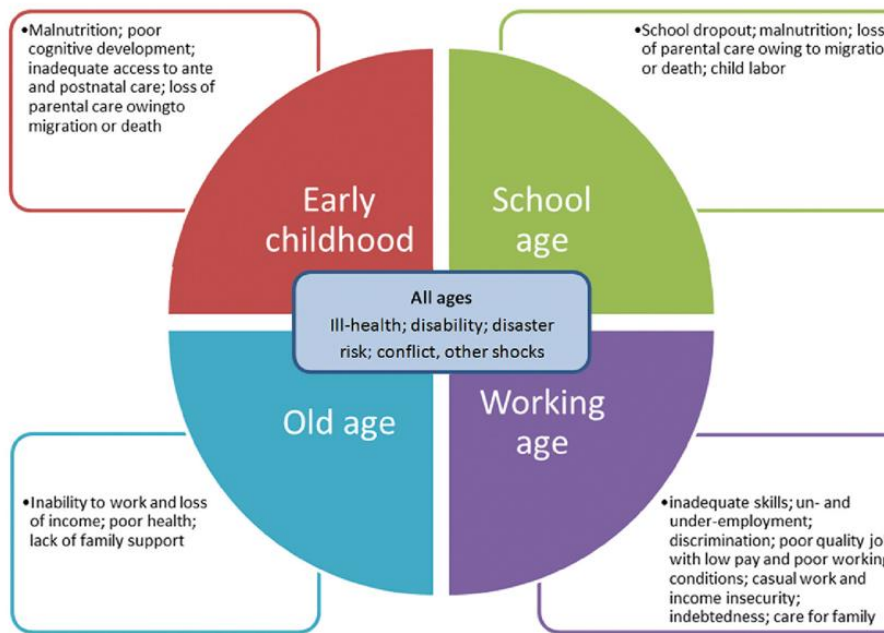


Figure: 4 Risk and Vulnerabilities along the lifecycle, Source; World Bank (2012)

There is a subset of "livelihood capacities" in Sen's capability framework, which includes the capacity to locate and employ livelihood possibilities, as well as the ability to manage against stress and shocks (i.e., gaining security). These capacities are preventative as well as reactive, and dynamically flexible. (Bohle, 2007). The expectation is that livelihood frameworks would be used to 'explain livelihoods. This is an unreasonable expectation of any research project, as well as a misunderstanding of the purpose of a framework. (Levine, 2014). There is no way for a single research study to cover all that a framework covers, and it is not the framework's role to define the research topics, (Levine, 2014). A framework identifies the potential areas that may impact the issue being analysed (in this case, livelihoods) and gives a method for tackling the research questions. The researcher must select the study questions based on their aims, (Levine, 2014). Below, is the standard Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF), which presents the core functions of what livelihood approach encompasses and how it works to address the effects of environmental and societal issues.

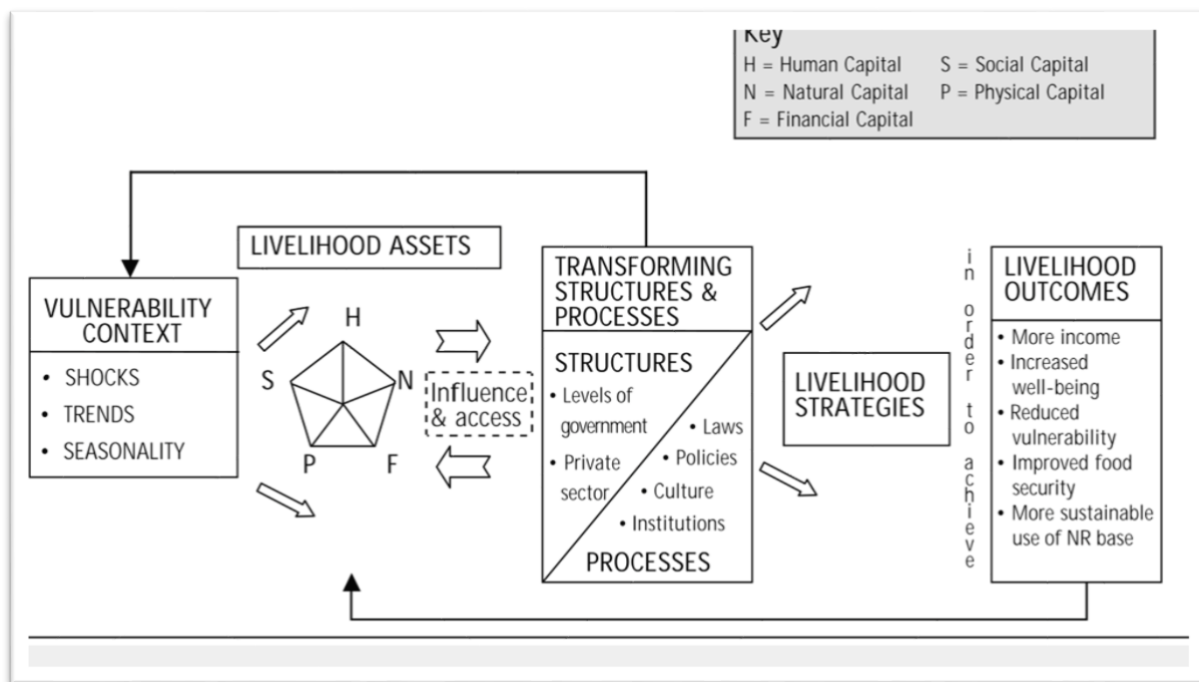


Figure 5: Sustainable Livelihood Framework, Source: (Levine, 2014)

3.3.2. Sustainable Livelihood Framework for Informal Street Trade

People all over the globe are exposed to a variety of risks and hazards that have an influence on their livelihoods, both directly and indirectly. To reduce the possibility of negative livelihood trajectories and implement effective and sustainable social protection programs, we must first understand how families, communities, and countries strive to manage both the potential consequences of risks and the hazards themselves, (Sebates -Wheeler and Deveraux, 2008). Vulnerability must be defined in connection to another condition, such as poverty, malnutrition, exclusion, or neglect, to be useful. Thus, vulnerability is a multidimensional term that corresponds to the complexity of the phenomena against which it is defined. (Sebates - Wheeler and Deveraux, 2008). Social protection, disaster risk reduction, and, more recently, climate change adaptation are three areas of practice that have been formed with the primary goal of decreasing the consequences of such shocks and hazards on individuals in the community by predicting risks and uncertainties. (Davies; Bènè; Arnall; Tanner; Newsham; and Coroilo, 2013). All three communities of practice are thus linked by a core concern with decreasing vulnerability and increasing resilience – whether to poverty, disasters, or long-term changes in average climatic conditions and their distribution over time and geography, (Davies et al, 2013).

The fundamental functions of social protection are to reduce economic poverty and to control vulnerability. Increasing household earnings alleviates or reduces poverty, but income or livelihood vulnerability can be controlled or decreased by securing incomes. Vulnerability has a social dimension, which is connected to marginalization and exclusion, and may be addressed by methods that empower individuals. (Deveraux, 2012). The terms 'graduation' and 'self-reliance' are frequently used in discussions on social protection. Social protection should give only temporary assistance to low-income households with labor potential and should encourage sustainable livelihoods rather than relying on "handouts" (Deveraux, 2012). Risks and uncertainty both result in welfare losses, for example, during the pandemic, informal street traders were faced with a number of risks that forced them to rethink about their livelihood since they were not operating during lockdown level five (5). Dependence on a single crop for food or currency creates uncertainties in the event of a production or price collapse. Pursuing an undiversified livelihood strategy is less important if the sources of income are safe and steady than if they are unpredictable or vulnerable to intertemporal variation, (Deveraux, 2001). Vulnerability is a notion that combines being exposed to a hazard with being sensitive to its negative repercussions. (Deveraux, 2001). Vulnerability is defined in part by risk factors that are general to geographically linked groups of people or by common risk characteristics, and partly by risk variables that are particular to individuals or households, (Huq, Md, et al, 2020). Although a whole community may be exposed to a livelihood challenge such as drought or food price inflation, vulnerability or resilience varies per household based on relative wealth and access to alternative income sources, such as assistance from extended family and social networks, (Deveraux, 2001).

Table 2: Livelihood risk analysis for informal street trade

Nature of risk:	People at risk:	Possible social protection intervention Asset building
Product supply risks, due to (drought, pandemic, economic meltdown)	Street traders with little income and limited access to improve quality of life	Well-conceived social protection can provide for cash transfers to mitigate unforeseen disasters
Street trade risks, due to (crime, public unrest, pandemic)	Street traders with no business insurance	Social protection services can provide for safety and security and access of Insurance for informal trade.
Food price risks, due to (food inflation)	Poor customers/ households	SP can provide for social security funds/food aid allowance / social relief funds
Health risks, due to (Contagious diseases, pandemic, environmental Hazards)	Entire community, street traders, and every customer that cannot afford medical care.	SP services can further strengthen some assets such as access to healthcare, water, and sanitation services.
Political and policy risk failure	Communities in war zones and areas with Possible civil unrest, street traders.	SP can provide for safety and security, e.g., Community patrols / district controls
Employment risks, due to economic meltdown, pandemic	Income earning households, informal workers who rely on formal workers buy goods and services from their street trade business	SP services can offer relief grants, food aid

3.3.3. Coping and adaptive strategies

As a result of shocks and pressures in the environment, livelihood strategies sometimes assume a form of coping mechanisms. These are short-term reactions that ensure survival during times of shock and stress, (Slater, 2022). They do not come out of nowhere but are distinct representations of a way of life. During times of drought, food stores are replenished, and if these are depleted, goods such as jewellery or animals are sold, and livestock caretakers relocate to wetter places, (De Haan, 2000). As previously stated, a livelihood is sustainable if it is capable of sufficiently supplying self-defined fundamental requirements while also protecting individuals from shocks and stresses, (Slater, 2022). Shocks are brutal and sudden; stress is less violent but can persist for a longer period of time. Both have an effect on each other or more of the critical, (De Haan, 2000). An environmental disruption, such as a flood or an earthquake, has an influence on natural, human, and physical capital, (Carr, 2020). Seasonality is a well-known example of low-level environmental stress, and drought is an example of high-level environmental stress, (Carr, 2020). The economy is a second source of shocks and stress. Devaluation may significantly boost the price of imported commodities while also increasing the desirability of cultivating export crops, (De Haan, 2000). Price strategies aimed at lowering food costs in cities may persistently hinder the revenue creation

of rural food producers, (Young and Crush, 2019). Politics is a third source of shocks and pressures, with violent conflict being a regrettably common extreme, (De Haan, 2000).

The assets on which individuals rely their livelihoods comprise of a broader variety of assets than is often discussed. Instead of focusing just on land or other conventional wealth indicators, the sustainable livelihood framework recommends considering an asset portfolio comprised of five distinct types of assets: (Adato and Dick, 2002).

- Natural capital includes land, water, forests, marine resources, air quality, erosion protection, and biodiversity.
- Physical capital includes transportation, roads, buildings, shelter, water supply and sanitation, energy, technology, or communications.
- Financial capital includes savings (cash as well as liquid assets), credit (formal and informal), as well as inflows (state transfers and remittances).
- Human capital includes education, skills, knowledge, health, nutrition, and labour power.
- Social capital includes any networks that increase trust, ability to work together, access to opportunities, reciprocity; informal safety nets; and membership in organizations. (Adato and Dick, 2002).

Intangible assets of a household include claims and access. Claims are demands and appeals that can be made for material or other practical assistance or acceptance. Food, tools, loans, donations, or labour can all be used to aid. Claims are frequently made at times of stress and shock, as well as when other circumstances emerge. (Chambers and Conway, 1992). Claims may be made to people or organizations, such as family, neighbours, patrons, chiefs, social groupings, or communities, or on NGOs, governments, or the international community, including programs for drought relief or poverty reduction (Chambers and Conway, 1992). In practice, access is the ability to use resources, a store, or a service to gain knowledge, materials, technology, job, food, or money. Transportation, education, health, shopping, and markets are examples of services, (Conway and Chambers, 1992). Information services includes media platforms such as radio, television, and newspapers are all sources of information. Techniques for growing more crops are part of technology. Employment and other income-generating activities involve the right to common property resources such as fuel, electricity, or communal land.

3.4. The Role of The State

While South Africa's informal sector is smaller than that of other nations in the global south, it employs around one-third of the workforce. (Rogan and Skinner, 2022). It is a permanent component of the country's labor market, although it is neither protected nor regulated by the state, (Rogan and Skinner, 2022). Thousands of South Africans rely on the informal sector for a living, and the poor benefit greatly from it. Street trading is a significant informal commercial activity in Cape Town, (Peterson et al, 2018). It generates income through a variety of activities such as informal commerce, small-scale building, and social services, (SALGA Report, 2018). The informal economy is linked to creativity, flexibility, and opportunity, as well as poor wages, marginalization, and exclusion. It has been a location of progress in South Africa, but also of struggle and suppression. The risk of inactivity, or worse, repression of the informal sector, is that it sets local governments against its most vulnerable people in society. (SALGA Report, 2018). The Constitutional Laws Act of 2005 delegated executive authority to local governments to manage and supervise the informal sector. (SALGA Report, 2018). The Act must be read in connection with Chapter 2 of the Bills of Rights in the Constitution, which stipulates in section 7 that "the state shall respect, protect, promote, and fulfil the rights in the Bills of Rights.", (Constitution of RSA, Act 108 of 100). Furthermore, livelihood initiatives are dependent on a strong informal market. As Chambers puts it, "employment, in the sense of having an employer, a job, a workplace, and a salary, is more common as a desire than as a reality, (Hovsha and Meyer, 2015). Instead, stability is based on various and informal enterprises that, when combined, provide enough money. Chambers dismisses the idea that more government spending will necessarily benefit everyone. Instead, such "development" is said to have the potential to "destroy livelihoods." As a result, he discusses protective measures such as safeguarding land and water rights, removing limitations on the informal sector, and providing good healthcare, (Hovsha and Meyer, 2015).

Informal traders were not considered "vital service providers" during the early "hard" lockdown periods, and hence were not permitted to operate. As a result, a substantial number of vulnerable informal traders found themselves abruptly out of business. (Rwafa-Ponela, Goldstein; Kruger, Erzse, Abdool, Karim, Hofman, and Urban; 2022). These disruptions to the informal food market were serious, especially in terms of their repercussions for vulnerable groups, and were unexpected. The continued lack of recognition of informal vendors, along with lockdowns and restricting movements, has had an impact not only on the livelihoods and

food security of informal traders, but also on most urban poor populations whose sole source of food is the informal sector, (Rwafa-Ponela, et al. 2022). The informal sector and survival strategies methods that have dominated urban economic study in Africa have been unable to represent the reality of current urban survival since the former focuses primarily on economic activity, while the latter should concentrate on the poor and disadvantaged. As a result, the not-so-poor urban people who work in both the official and informal sectors have had their livelihood plans disregarded (Owusu, 2007)

One of the earliest economic policy efforts of the post-apartheid administration was the White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Small Businesses, published in 1995. The White Paper, as well as the laws that followed in the 1996 National Small Company Act recognized survivalist and micro-enterprises as components of small business, making them eligible for government assistance., (Skinner, Caroline, Crush, Jonathan, 2017). Local governments, on the other hand, have expressed frustration with their inability to manage, particularly the rise of informal commerce in public areas. The Businesses Amendment Act 186 of 1993 provided provinces the authority to build their own legislation, allowing local governments to create street-trading regulations and define limited and forbidden trade zones, (Skinner et al 2017). In 2004, existing government SMME initiatives have primarily been geared towards groups of small and medium-sized firms and to a significant degree they have by-passed micro-enterprises and the informal economy," according to a thorough analysis of the impact of post-apartheid SMME programs published in 2004. Those working in the informal sector had "fallen into the gap" between small enterprises and the jobless, according to an assessment of the government's skills development system.", (Skinner et al, 2017).

Since 2012, the informal sector has received more attention at the national level but in a haphazard and disorganized manner. Various projects reflect neglect, support, and suppression all at the same time. Small enterprises, for example, play an important part in the 2012 National Development Plan (NDP) scenarios and objectives. According to the NDP's optimistic solution, 11 million new employments will be produced by 2030, with small and expanding businesses accounting for 90 percent of these new positions. According to the NDP The informal sector (including domestic work) will generate between 1.2 million and 2.1 million additional employments. However, there is no mention of plans for the informal sector in the NDP's economic chapter, how current operators in the informal sector will be supported, and how obstacles to entrance will be addressed to help produce new jobs, (Skinner et al, 2017). A

recent review of Cape Town's response to street traders reveals deliberate limitation and exclusion from the inner-city. Long-term neglect is also a feature of township trading. The city authority in Khayelitsha had spent very little in infrastructure for street traders and had delegated control of street commerce to a small group of traders, with significant implications for many others. Although the policy context in Cape Town differs depending on where you live and what sector of the informal economy you work in. The modernist image of a "world-class metropolis," with its antagonism for informality, predominates, and informal space and activity are unfairly stigmatized. (Skinner et al, 2017). The effectiveness of the informal sector and survival tactics methods for comprehending African urban economies has been weakened by changes in urban livelihood strategies brought about by the continent's economic crises and neoliberal economic reform policies, (Owusu, 2007). To achieve a comprehensive understanding of street traders' everyday livelihood strategy, we draw on ideas from urban livelihood methods, everyday politics, and covert resistance literatures, (Turner and Schoenberger, 2011). This approach enables us to analyse livelihoods made on Cape Town's streets. Thus, conceptualizing regular politics allows us to investigate the daily reality of Cape Town Street vending, as well as the links between them and the larger political and economic system of which they are a part of, (Turner and Schoenberger, 2011).

Using such a framework, we show that officials in subordinate positions possess some degree of decision-making authority and agency. Street trading spatial control is a common feature in cities, but the lack of transparency and the due process which is implemented puts enormous expenses on traders, (Roever and Skinner, 2016). The problem for cities is to balance the social and economic advantages of street trading with the private sector demands for access to valuable urban land and space. More powerful players frequently resist the use of public space for livelihood activities, claiming that it contributes to privatization of public space, (Roever and Skinner, 2016). This approach gives the poor agency (to the extent that they can strategize) and emphasizes their dual reliance on numerous activities and multiple assets, particularly social capital, for survival. Some scholars have suggested that this approach exaggerates the poor's capacity to sustain and improve their livelihoods, particularly their ability to profit from social capital. (Lyons and Snoxell, 2005).

3.5. Conclusion

All interventions aimed at assisting individuals with their livelihoods should have procedures in place to get a continuous awareness of how well it is doing as well. This can be done by discovering how any policy or action truly influenced people's lives after the fact. Since this is so uncommon, there is far less previous research to serve as a guide than there should be. It is only by integrating personal and household perspectives that outcomes can be fully comprehended. This makes it impossible to use simple survey approaches on their own. It is critical in any study to have a consistent point of view across the whole chain. (Levine, 2014). In contrast, livelihoods, and sustainable livelihoods (SL) are notions that have developed more from open-ended fieldwork than from the limited concerns of surveys and statistics. As we have seen, the factual reality that they are attempting to capture is not straightforward. To summarize, sustainable livelihoods are defined as those that are both environmentally sustainable and have a positive impact on the lives of others. There are numerous dimensions to Sustainable Livelihoods, as well as various causalities. They assume diverse shapes for different people in different contexts. They are difficult to quantify or estimate, as one might expect. In the real world, however, criteria and methods of thinking that may be applied to make decisions about what to do and how to accomplish it are required. (Chambers and Conway, 1991). Therefore, this theoretical approach is pertinent to analyse the study of social protection intervention for informal street trade as the study aims to improve the lives of informal street traders. In an approach whereby it will expose certain risks, challenges, and shocks that have affected this sector, it can be applied accurately to improve the outcomes in future.

CHAPTER 4

“Research methodology, Design, Techniques”

4. Introduction

This chapter will discuss and elaborate on the research method techniques and procedures that have been used to obtain data and to review some of the hypotheses relating to studies of this nature. This research study is based on secondary analysis, and this will be done by reviewing and understanding the contextualisation of findings of other qualitative studies, (Irwin, 2013). There is great importance in elaborating on the type of methodology that have been applied on the research projects and how findings were achieved with these techniques and procedures. These projects will be chosen and explored individually but will be brought together to correspond due to a variety of related substantive interests in biography, sequence and life development changes, familiarity, connection, and intergenerational dynamics, (Irwin, 2013). I will be exploring qualitative or mixed approaches on longitudinal studies that relate to social processes as sequential and dynamic, (Irwin, 2013). This is applied to a range of methodologies for investigating time in different dimensions, such as experiential, biographical, and historical research, (Irwin, 2013). As I draw on a secondary analysis of qualitative longitudinal evidence on the assessment of social protection interventions in Cape Town. I will seek clarity by looking into qualitative studies that have addressed the objective of my study and explored some of my research questions. Therefore, it is vital to discuss some of the qualitative research techniques and procedures to ascertain how findings were concluded by primary researchers.

4.1. Qualitative Secondary Research

Secondary research is a method of gathering and analysing data from the publication of social scientists and other authors. It is also known as a literature review, (Curtis, 2017). Qualitative secondary analysis is the process of using previously collected data to build new social scientific or methodological understandings, (Irwin, 2013). There are various advantages to using existing data to test new hypotheses or answer new research questions. Secondary Research usually requires less time and money, poses no risk to participants, and provides access to big data sets and longitudinal data, (Irwin, 2013). Given these benefits, there are some disadvantages, such as a lack of awareness about rich data sets and how to access and evaluate

their contents, insufficient or obsolete data, and a lack of funding to recruit staff to assist with the project. Secondary data analysis examples applying both public and private data sets are shown, as well as the abilities required to undertake this type of study, (Dunn et al, 2015)

Secondary research obtains material that is physically stored in libraries, archives, and other public and private collections, although a rising amount of information is accessed online on the internet, in local area networks (LAN), and on stand-alone databases, (Curtis, 2017)

4.2. What is Research Methods

The term "methods" refers to how qualitative researchers are required to gather their data to substantiate their argument. All qualitative research methodologies have common properties, irrespective of paradigm preference. They take place in a real-life setting with actual individuals. In addition to conduct, they concentrate on the meanings provided by participants in the research context. They also consider the social, cultural, and physical environments in which people live, work, and interact. All types of qualitative research, including ethnography, are known for their commitment to learning about and understanding other people's perspectives rather than enforcing the researcher's own biases and assumptions in explaining variations in beliefs and behaviours among populations or communities. Most qualitative researchers feel that people's ideas and behaviours, regardless of whether different to their own, are sensible and give meaning in their environment. Making sense of things through people's minds and living experiences is at the core of successful qualitative research, (Givens, 2012).

Participant observation (PO), for example, is central to qualitative research. PO recommends interacting with people who live in communities such as neighbourhoods, towns, schools, clinics, self-help groups, or other gatherings that share a common history, goals, and directions; developing relationships with them; learning from them; and documenting their behaviours. Alternative methods, such as interviewing, are used by qualitative researchers who may not necessarily need to be in the field (where people live and work), but rather rely primarily on respondents' verbally and in writing reports of their lives and experiences, (Givens, 2012).

There are a variety of approaches to techniques (or data collection) that can be grouped together under this umbrella terms. Instead of discovering and interpreting the meanings that people bring to their own actions, quantitative research focuses on those aspects of social behaviour that can be quantified and patterned. Interviews with potential respondents or local experts

regarding community or advocacy group issues or dynamics, for example, as well as in-depth interviews or stories with individuals about their own personal beliefs, behaviours, and experiences can be conducted using each of these methodologies. The size, composition, and behaviours of social networks are all examined through network interviews or informal conducted in the context of daily observations in study settings and may emphasize on people's beliefs and experiences, as well as their life histories and social networks. Finally, while surveys are really not perfect, they can be useful. (Givens, 2012).

Three components make up research methods: (a) the forms of data collection; (b) analysis; and (c) interpretation that the researchers propose for their studies. To obtain the overall results, the researcher may use quantitative methods of collecting data such as closed-ended questions or numeric data, as well as statistical analysis and interpretation approaches. Alternatively, a researcher could collect data using qualitative approaches like open-ended questions or interviews, then analyse it using text and image analysis or interpret themes and patterns to get the final results. Finally, in order to obtain their results, researchers may combine diverse methodologies for data collection, analysis, and interpretation., (Abutabenjeh and Jaradat, 2018)

4.3. Methodology

The term "research methodology" refers to a method for solving a problem in a systematic manner. (Allen, 2017). It can be thought of as a discipline that studies how scientific research is conducted. It examines the numerous processes that a researcher often takes to investigate his or her research problem, as well as the logic behind them, (Kothari, 2017). The researcher must understand not just the research methods and procedures, but also the methodology. Researchers must not only understand how to create specific indices or tests, how to calculate the mean, mode, median, standard deviation, or chi-square, but also how to apply specific research procedures, (Allen, 2017). They must also understand which of these methods or approaches are significant and which are not, as well as what they signify and what they imply and why. Researchers must also be aware of the assumptions that underpin methodologies, as well as the criteria by which they can determine whether certain techniques and processes are appropriate for specific problems, and which are not. (Kothari, 2017)

Choosing a methodology is an essential part in the research process since the approach used has an impact on the findings that can be obtained. The researcher's method of choice should be based on the questions he or she intends to answer, so that the approach chosen is ideally matched to answering the project's primary questions, (Allen, 2017). Secondary data researchers are interested in a wide range of study problems, and as a result, they employ a wide range of approaches. Apart from the study topics, issues like levels of access, resource limitations, academic practices, and ethics can all influence technique selection. After explaining methodology, this item looks at the aspects that influence research methodology selection. The option of whether to use mixed methods is also considered, (Pandey, 2021). Methodology is a broad research plan that specifies how research should be carried out. It involves a set of beliefs and philosophical assumptions that impact how the research topics are understood and how research methodologies are chosen. The research methodology section of a dissertation or thesis helps to ensure that the tools, procedures, and underlying philosophy are all consistent, (Melnikovas, 2018)

4.4. Characteristics of Research Design

In the social sciences, like in other fields, research design is a method of planning a research project or program from the start to optimize the possibility of obtaining data that offers a warranted answer to the research questions for a given amount of resource, (Gorard, 2015). A research design is a set of steps that a researcher follows to answer questions in a legitimate, objective, accurate, and cost-effective manner. A research design is the method of organizing and guiding research in a logical and methodical manner, (Nayak and Singh, 2021). A research design allows you to make decisions for yourself and convey them to others about what study design you want to utilize and how you want to collect data from your respondents, (Kumar, 2016). It is how you're going to choose your respondents, how you're going to analyse the data you've gathered, and how you're going to present your results. In addition, the logic and justification for each decision that impacts your replies to the 'how' of the research journey must be detailed in your study design. When presenting your rationale and justification, you must provide significant support from the literature reviewed. You must also guarantee yourself as well that the path you have proposed will produce valid and reliable results, (Allen, 2017)

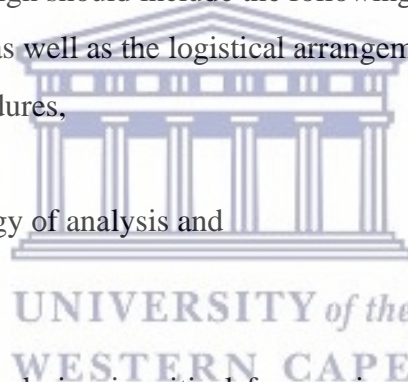
The design is the outcome of applying a broad scientific approach to a variety of research problems. However, in most circumstances, it is simply a study plan, which is usually unclear

and provisional. (Nayak and Singh, 2021). As the study proceeds and new insights are gained, it undergoes several adjustments and changes. In an empirical research project, research design is a complete plan for collecting data. It is a "blueprint" for conducting empirical research to address specific research questions or test certain hypotheses, and must list at least three different steps; (Nayak and Singh, 2021)

- the data collection process,
- the instrument development process, and
- the sampling process, (Nayak and Singh, 2021)

Research entails a systematic, controlled, valid, and rigorous study and description of what is unknown, as well as the identification of correlations and causality that allow for accurate outcome predictions under a particular set of conditions, (Nayak and Singh, 2021). It also entails discovering knowledge gaps, verifying what is currently known, and identifying previous errors and limitations. The quality of what you find is mainly determined by how it was discovered. A research design should include the following:

- the study design itself, as well as the logistical arrangements you want to make,
- the measurement procedures,
- the sampling strategy,
- the research methodology of analysis and
- the timeframe.



The choice of a suitable study design is critical for any investigation to arrive at accurate findings, comparisons, and conclusions. A flawed design produces misleading results, resulting in the waste of human and financial resources. The strength of an empirical investigation is primarily assessed in scientific circles in terms of the research design used, (Allen, 2017). The aim and objectives of a research study are inextricably tied to the research design. A study may have multiple objectives, such as exploring a new topic as well as describing a social phenomenon. Several researchers have used the terms exploratory research design or descriptive research design to describe their research. (Nayak and Singh, 2021)

4.4.1. Explorative Study

When a study is carried out with the purpose of either exploring an area which little is known or investigating the feasibility of carrying out a specific research study, this is referred to as exploratory research, (Kumar, 2017). A feasibility study or a pilot study is a study conducted to examine the viability of a project. It is generally used when a researcher wishes to investigate areas in which he or she has little or no knowledge on the subject. A small-scale study is conducted to determine whether a thorough examination is required. A comprehensive study may be conducted based on the findings of the exploratory investigation. Exploratory investigations are often carried out to develop, improve, or test measurement instruments and techniques, (Allen, 2017). Exploratory studies are used to evaluate specific in preparation for a more detailed examination or to test hypotheses. Although exploratory research produces uncertain results, it can provide valuable insight into a situation. An exploratory study can also be done to familiarize the researcher with the phenomena he or she desires to explore. When there is little knowledge about a topic and past hypotheses do not explain the phenomenon, researchers use an exploratory study design. (Nayak and Singh, 2021)

4.4.2. Descriptive Study

A descriptive study aims to characterize systematically a scenario, problem, phenomena, service, or program, or provides information with regard to, the living conditions of a community, or describes views toward an issue. For example, it may seek to describe the types of services given by an organization, the administrative structure of an organization, people's living conditions, community needs, and what it means to go through life events and obstacles, (Kumar, 2016). The primary goal of such investigations is to describe what is common in relation to the issue/problem under consideration, (Allen, 2017). Descriptive studies, as the name implies, attempt to define as precisely as possible the correlation between the features of a group of people or a society and their opinions/beliefs/feelings/attitudes, etc. A descriptive study design is used by a researcher who already has some knowledge about a phenomenon but wishes to learn more about it. As a result, descriptive research investigations must include a hypothesis., (Nayak and Singh, 2021)

4.4.3. Causal Study

In empirical research, the causal assumptions in the study design, as well as the data, are essential aspects for scientific reasoning. Only when all these factors and their relationships are fully documented can the research be adequately communicated, (Karvanen, 2015). Causal models with design define the study design as well as the missing data mechanism and the causal structure, allowing for direct application of causal calculus in the calculation of the causal efficacy. (Karvanen, 2015). According to Rubin (2008), carefully constructed and executed randomised experiments are widely considered to be the gold standard for producing objective causal inferences that have the best possibility of exposing scientific truths.

4.5. Research Process

The research process consists of four interconnected components: epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology, and methods. According to Crotty (1998) , these four elements consists of the following:

- Epistemology: The theory of knowledge is incorporated in the theoretical perspective and thus in the technique.
- Theoretical Perspective: The philosophical perspective that informs the approach, giving a framework for the process and establishing its logic and standards.
- Methodology: The strategy, plan of action, procedure, or design that guides the selection and application of certain methods, as well as the relationship between method selection and desired outcomes.
- Methods: The methods or procedures used to collect and analyse data to answer a research question or test a hypothesis.

The first component, epistemology, is defined as "a way of looking at the world and making sense of it" and is inherent in the theoretical perspective. Major types of epistemologies are; objectivism, constructionism, and subjectivism, (Crotty, 1998).

The second component, is a theoretical perspective, provides the philosophical stance that underpins the approach of choice. It establishes the fundamental principles underlying methodology selection. The following are the main forms of theoretical perspectives: positivism (and post-positivism), interpretivism, critical inquiry, feminism, postmodernism, (Crotty, 1998).

The third component, research technique, represents the strategy and plan of action, referring to the study design that influences the research methods employed, (Crotty, 1998)

Methodology gives a reason for the selection of methods as well as the specific forms in which the methods are used. Major types of methodology are experimental research, survey research, ethnography, phenomenological research, grounded theory, heuristic inquiry, action research, discourse analysis, feminist standpoint research, etc., (Crotty, 1998).

The final component, research methods, refers to the strategies or procedures that include specific actions to gather and analyse data based on research questions or hypotheses. Some of major research methods involve: sampling measurement and scaling, questionnaire, observation, interview, focus group, case study, life history, narrative, visual ethnographic methods, statistical analysis, data reduction, theme identification, comparative analysis, cognitive mapping, interpretive methods, document analysis, content analysis, conversation analysis, (Crotty, 1998)

4.6. Research Strategy

The research strategy is a general approach for answering the research question(s), which includes identifying research objectives, specifying data collection sources, and considering research restrictions., (Al-Ababneh, 2020).

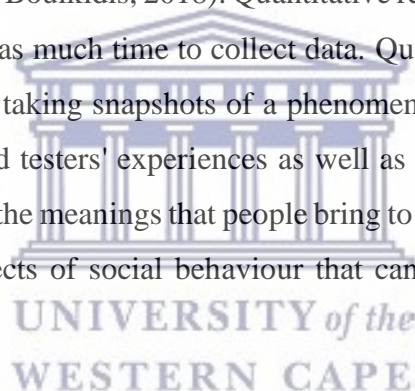
4.7. Choice of Research Methodology

Qualitative and quantitative research approaches and methods are commonly used in a variety of educational fields such as sociology, psychology, history, and so on. In terms of research methods, there are still paradigm wars, in which academics are divided into two camps: interpretivism and positivism, (Rahman, 2016). To comprehend the dominating approach in the field of study, it is necessary to highlight the history of paradigm emergence, (Rahman, 2016). The positivist approach dominated social and educational research for the first half of the twentieth century, emphasizing the use of standardised testing, systematic observation, experimentation, survey data, and statistical analysis. To put it another way, the quantitative research method was highly effective, In the domain of language testing and assessment research, the quantitative paradigm is prominent among these two research paradigms, (Rahman, 2016). However, when a topic is not well understood and there is a need to fully investigate it, qualitative research methodology is commonly used, (Rutberg and Bouikidis,

2018). In qualitative research, a rich narrative is typically constructed through participant interviews and then examined to answer the research question. There are several disagreements over the superiority of research methodologies, as well as the paradigm wars. Either qualitative or quantitative evidence is superior, or vice versa. To understand the dominating approach in the field of study, it is necessary to highlight the history of paradigm emergence. (Rahman, 2020).

4.7.1. Quantitative

Quantitative research is carried out in a more organized setting where the researcher has more control over study factors, the environment, and the research questions. (Rutberg and Bouikidis, 2018). To obtain numeric data in quantitative investigations, the researcher uses standardized questionnaires or experiments. Quantitative research can be used to figure out how variables and outcomes are related. Quantitative research involves the construction of a hypothesis, which is a statement of the predicted result, relationship, or outcome from the research question. (Rutberg and Bouikidis, 2018). Quantitative research methods have a greater sample size and do not require as much time to collect data. Quantitative research approaches have some limitations, such as taking snapshots of a phenomenon rather than going in-depth and overlooking test-takers' and testers' experiences as well as what they mean by it. Instead of discovering and interpreting the meanings that people bring to their own actions, quantitative research focuses on those aspects of social behaviour that can be quantified and patterned, (Rahman, 2016).



4.7.2. Qualitative

Qualitative research appears to be a broad term that encompasses a wide range of concerns, and it includes both positive and negative aspects, (Rahman, 2016). Qualitative research is adaptable, allowing the researcher to become engaged in the investigation and adapting to new information depending on the data collected. It also provides a holistic view of the topic of study. The researcher serves as a research tool, and data is constantly analysed to determine when the study will begin. (Rutberg and Bouikidis, 2018).

In qualitative research, choosing who is eligible to participate in the study based on the research question is the first step in selecting a sample population, (Kumar, 2017). The researchers will ask open-ended questions and conduct semi-structured interviews with the subjects. Interviews are frequently conducted in the participant's natural environment or in a calm

setting, such as a meeting room, (Allen, 2017). When a topic is not well understood and there is a need to learn more about it, qualitative research approach is normally used. In qualitative research, a rich narrative is typically constructed through participant interviews and then examined to address the research questions, (Rutberg and Bouikidis, 2018).

4.7.3. Mixed Methods

A mixed methods study is one that includes both quantitative and qualitative methodologies into a single investigation. (Rutberg and Bouikidis, 2018). A segregated design involves conducting two or more discrete sub-reviews at the same time to cover various areas of the same review question, and then comparing the results. A segregated design involves conducting two or more discrete sub-reviews at the same time to cover various areas of the same review question, and then comparing the results. In most cases, reviews are necessary to be both broad and deep. As a result, they can investigate a wider range of the research problems than a more focused single method review. They are time and resource intensive and cannot be completed fast since they are significant initiatives involving what would ordinarily be considered the work of numerous systematic reviews., (Zawacki-Richter et al, 2020).

4.8. Time Horizon

The research time horizon may be chosen from the long-, medium-, or short-term future as well as from a point in the past, depending on the goals of the study., (Melnikovas, 2018). Cross-sectional studies and longitudinal studies are the two methods for gathering data in terms of time horizons. The cross-sectional approach is a positivistic methodology used to collect data from multiple contexts at the same time, (Al-Ababneh, 2020). Data is collected only once over a brief period with this method, which provides a glimpse of an ongoing situation. As a result, the cross-sectional technique is the most popular approach in the literature for investigating the existence of correlations among variables in large samples. The longitudinal approach, on the other hand, seeks to explore the dynamics of the problem beyond time. This method enables researchers to analyse changes in the problem under investigation throughout the given period. (Al-Ababneh, 2020).

4.9. Techniques and Procedures

Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques were presented in the first edition of “The Basics of Qualitative Research”, written by Anselm Strauss and Juliet Corbin in 1990. This was a popular handbook based on the constructionist interactionist paradigm. The Basics, included axial coding and a more procedural emphasis, were added to the existing Grounded Theory research toolbox. (Parker-Muti, 2009). Grounded Theory is a great resource for students who are just learning about qualitative research in general, and who intend to use a qualitative technique to answer their research questions in a number of fields, (Parker-Muti, 2009). The theoretical foundations of situational analysis are appropriately drawn from Straussian Grounded Theory; Chicago School ecologies and symbolic interactionism, with a special focus on Strauss's social worlds/arenas theory, (Clarke, 2020).

Situational analysis is an important aspect of the social or the restructuring of relativism in the social sciences and humanities, manifesting itself in both quantitative and qualitative methodologies, (Clarke, 2020). This dispersion 'turn' has encompassed a diverse and much-needed theoretical and methodological reconceptualization of the social in general. Historically, research data and analysis were thought to be centred on three levels: micro (interpersonal), meso (social/organizational/institutional), and macro (broad historical patterning such as urbanization and industrialization). 'The micro and (perhaps) meso levels were assumed to be dominated by qualitative research. (Clarke, 2020). Making three different types of maps to describe and analyse various aspects of the scenario of inquiry is part of a situational analysis. To generate these maps, the method is empirically open to the use of a variety of materials. Interviewing, ethnographic methods, and document analysis can all be used to obtain information, Clarke, (2020)

4.9.1. Coding

Coding is the process of deconstructing a story so that it may be reassembled, and categories and qualities can be seen, (Belgrave and Seide, 2022). This is, after all, the first step. The second phase entails combining categories and properties. Here, the researcher shifts from comparing episodes to comparing incidents with category characteristics. This process 'causes the acquired knowledge pertaining to a property of the category to readily begin and become integrated, different properties themselves begin to become integrated, and categories begin

to become integrated with each other, (Belgrave and Seide, 2022). The third stage, is theory delimitation, entails exploring underlying uniformities in the initial collection of categories or their attributes, allowing the researcher to lower the number of categories which he or she is working with while progressing to higher-level concepts. The categories become potentially saturated at the same moment, (Belgrave and Seide, 2022). Writing theory is the last stage. At this stage, you have a theory to work with as well as coded facts and memoranda. (Belgrave and Seide, 2022). Strauss and Corbin (1990) liberated open coding by recognizing that researchers may code paragraph by paragraph, line by line, phrase by phrase, or even single words that stand out as essential, this is called micro-analysis.

4.10. Population

The population or universe refers to the full mass of observations that will form the community group from which a sample will be produced. The terms population and universe have distinct significance than the standard meaning, (Allen, 2018). Population refers to the number of people (men, women, and children) counted in a census survey. However, in Research Methodology, the term "population" refers to the characteristics of a specific group, (Pandey, 2021). A population is defined as the collection of all relevant individuals, items, or data. This is the group that scientists will make broad generalizations about. The term "population parameter" refers to a property that is usually numeric that describes a population. Greek letters are commonly used to indicate population data. The true worth of population figures is difficult to determine and uncertain. It is, nevertheless, feasible to make a reasonably accurate estimate of the true value. This entails taking a random sample from the entire population of interest, (Nayak and Singh, 2021).

4.10.1. Target Sampling population

In human subjects' research, a sample is a small group of people chosen to represent a larger group of people or a population. Sampling is the process of selecting a small group of people to represent a broader group or community, (Allen, 2012). The approach of collecting a sample is the same whether the researcher intends to use the sample on the overall population or a specific population. In any situation, the researcher must establish the sample size and sampling technique that will give the most representative sample of the population. The key distinction is that sampling a special population is more complex and time-consuming than surveying the

entire population, (Allen, 2012). The sampling process should be done in such a way that the estimation error is kept to a minimal, (Pandey, 2021). Its goal is to collect accurate and reliable information about the environment with the least amount of money, time, and energy possible, as well as to define the accuracy boundaries of these estimations. It enables thorough and intense research with significantly less time, money, and resources. It is more commonly used in research. Inductive reasoning is used to direct research. The researcher progresses from distinctiveness to generalization. The sample observation is a specific experience that is applied to the entire population; it is the overall condition. Statistics refers to measures of a sample, while parameter refers to measures of a population, (Pandey, 2021)

4.11. Measuring Instrument

A researcher will need a variety of data collection methods or procedures. Tests are measurement instruments that help researchers collect data and evaluate their findings. The complexity, interpretation, design, and management of the tools might all be different, (Pandey, 2015). Each instrument is best suited to a specific sort of data collection. The researcher must choose from among the various tools that will produce the data needed to test a hypothesis. It's possible that existing research instruments may not work in a certain case, therefore the researcher will have to alter them or build his own, (Pandey, 2021).

4.11.1. Interviews

Interviews are commonly done in a naturalistic way and qualitative research allows for the collection of contextualized and personalised data, (Frey, 2018). Although interviews are usually associated with qualitative methods, it is imperative to highlight that they are also employed in quantitative and mixed-methods research approaches. The goals of interviews differ depending on the study's research questions and focus. Interviews can be used to learn about people's own experiences, thoughts, and opinions on a particular event or issue, (Frey, 2018). When the goals of the research questions and study are to understand how participants understand events and phenomena. Developing detailed and contextualized descriptions of individuals' perspectives, integrate the views of different participants, and describe participants' experiences and realities holistically. Interviews are typically used as a form of data collection, (Frey, 2018). An understanding between the interviewer and the interviewee is established during an interview. Not only is the physical gap between them vanished, but so is the social

and cultural barrier, allowing for a free flow of ideas to and from each other, (Pandey, 2021). Both parties leave an impression on the other. The interview gets them both to the same level, and an emotional relationship develops between them. In an interview, all protocols are established, and the door is opened to deliver into the interviewee's intellectual, emotional, and subconscious reverberations. As a result, the subject depth can reach the absolute bottom of his emotional pool, allowing him to examine his responses for veracity, (Pandey, 2021). When interviewing a responder, you, as the researcher, have the flexibility in determining the format and substance of questions to ask, the formulation of your questions. The way you wish to ask them, and the sequence in which they should be asked. This technique of asking questions can be quite flexible, allowing you as the interviewer to think about and construct questions as they arise in your mind concerning the topic under investigation, or it can be very rigid. or inflexible, in which you must rigorously adhere to the questions that have been pre-determined, including their phrasing, sequence, and way of presentation, (Kumar, 2016).

4.11.2. Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a prepared list of questions to which respondents must respond and record their responses. Respondents read the questions in a questionnaire, interpret what is anticipated, and then write down their answers, (Allen, 2017). The main difference between an interview guide and a questionnaire is that in the former, the interviewer asks the questions and records the responses on an interview schedule, whereas in the latter, the respondents record their own responses on a questionnaire, (Kumar, 2016). This differentiation is critical in determining the strengths and shortcomings of the two approaches. Since there is no one to explain the meaning of questions to responders in the case of a questionnaire, it is necessary that questions are clear and simple to grasp., (Kumar, 2016). In addition, the form of a questionnaire should be easy to read and pleasing to the eye, and the order of questions should be simple to follow. A questionnaire should be designed in an interactive format, and this means that respondents should have the impression that someone is speaking to them. A sensitive topic or a question that respondents may be hesitant to answer in a questionnaire should be preceded by an interactive statement clarifying the purpose of the question. To differentiate these statements from the real questions, it's usually a good idea to use a different style of writing for them. (Kumar, 2016).

The objective of the questionnaire is to collect data from a variety of sources. This is mostly applied when a person is not able to see all of the individuals he wants to hear back from in

person, (Nayak and Singh, 2021). Unstructured or structured questions are acceptable. Unstructured questions require respondents to react in their own terms, whereas structured questions require respondents to choose an answer from a predefined set of options. (Nayak and Singh, 2021). Individual answers to questions on a structured questionnaire can be combined into a composite scale or index for statistical analysis. Quantitative research, or research that is focused with numbers, that includes (how many? how often? how satisfied?), is generally coupled with structured questionnaires. Questionnaires can be used in a range of survey settings, including postal, electronic, face-to-face, and telephone surveys. (Nayak and Singh, 2021).

4.12. Validity of the Measuring Instrument

To accomplish a full and accurate secondary analysis, all aspects of the data set must be considered to maximize reliability, validity, and generalizability. It is critical that the data set chosen is in great accordance with the theoretical framework that will guide the secondary analysis and that it is appropriate for answering the research objectives. The data quality should be checked by examining the study objectives for both primary and secondary data analysis, the data coding and input processes, the occurrence of missing data, and how missing data values were handled. If research questions are changed, the amended research questions must stay relevant to the data collection and the state of the science. Secondary analysis may comprise a review of a whole current dataset, a subset of study participants within the data set who share features of interest, or a review of two or more merged data sets. Data must be sorted and merged in a precise and timely manner, (Dunn, et al, 2015).

When a measuring equipment or instrument measures what it is supposed to measure, it is said to be valid. For example, an intelligence test used to determine IQ should solely evaluate intelligence and nothing else, and the questionnaire should reflect this. (Pandey, 2021). Construct validity is a more advanced method of determining an instrument's validity. It is established on statistical methods. It is also calculated by determining how much each construct contributes to the total variance observed in a phenomenon, (Pandey, 2015). According to the proposed study, the objective is to measure social protection intervention for informal street traders in the Cape Town area. Therefore, you assess working conditions, the nature of the trade, and remuneration to be the three most essential indicators of social protection requirements and develop questions to determine the importance of each issue for social

protection among the street traders. You apply statistical approaches to determine the contribution of each concept after the pre-test or data analysis. (Working conditions, the nature of the trade and remuneration) to the total variance (social protection), (Pandey, 2021). The proportion of these components that contribute to total variance is a measure of the instrument's validity. The stronger the validity of the instrument, the greater the variation attributed to the constructs. One of the key disadvantages of construct validity is that you must be familiar with the necessary statistical procedures, (Pandey, 2021).

4.12.1. Reliability

When we say that someone is reliable, we imply that they are trustworthy, consistent, predictable, stable, and honest. The term "reliability" has a similar meaning when applied to a research tool, (Pandey, 2021). A research tool is said to be reliable if it is constant and stable, which makes it predictable and accurate. The more consistency and stability there is in an instrument, the more reliable it is. (Kumar, 2016). The degree to which measurements differ when the same set of data is collected multiple times with the same instrument under the same or comparable conditions. This degree of discrepancy in the various measurements indicates the degree of its inaccuracy. This error is an indication of how unreliable an instrument is, (Kumar, 2016). As a result, the degree of accuracy or precision in the measurements made by a research instrument is referred to as reliability. The less error in an instrument, the more reliable it is. (Pandey, 2021). It refers to a sequence of measures that are consistent. For example, if a respondent makes a response to a specific item, he is expected to give the same response to that item regardless of how many times he is asked about it. The consistency will be lost if he changes his response to the same subject. As a result, the researcher should construct a questionnaire in such a way that the items are consistent and reliable. (Pandey, 2021).

4.12.2. Pretesting

Survey pretesting can be thought of as product testing prior to the commencement of production fielding of the survey - whether fielding comprises of administration in houses, business entities, over the phone, via the Internet, or in some other way, (Willis, 2016). Survey pretesting refers to a variety of empirical methodologies aimed at either (a) the questionnaire instrument or (b) additional survey administration components such as advance materials,

participant selection procedures, interviewing procedures, and other operational elements. (Willis, 2016). Survey pre-tests and pilot surveys, which can range from a few cases to hundreds or thousands of samples, are intended to detect and correct problematic questions prior to data collection. (Ornstein, 2014). Large pre-tests and pilot surveys are simply surveys with a methodological intention that are subject to standard data analysis. Small and affordable pre-tests are the norm because of cost and time considerations, but also because they are regarded to be sufficient, (Ornstein, 2014).

Pretesting is not primarily experimental; rather than developing new measurements of a concept or deciding between alternative questions, the goal is to improve the current ones. (Ornstein, 2014). It is essential to evaluate your research instrument, whether it is an interview schedule or a questionnaire, before using it for actual data collecting. A critical analysis of each question and its meaning as understood by a respondent is required when pre-testing a research instrument, (Ornstein, 2014). A pre-test should be conducted on a sample of participants who are similar to your research population in real life scenarios. The goal should not be to collect data, but to figure out what challenges potential responders might have understood when interpreting a topic. (Kumar, 2016). Your goal is to figure out if there are any issues with how a question was phrased, the appropriateness of the meaning it expresses, whether different respondents interpret a question differently, and whether their interpretation differs from what you were attempting to communicate. If there are any issues, you should reconsider the wording to make it clearer and plainer. (Kumar, 2016).

4.12.3. Pilot Study

A pilot study is a research study that evaluates the feasibility of a method that will be utilized in a bigger project. Pilot studies are carried out in both quantitative and qualitative research, (Frey, 2018). They can be highly helpful in justifying or testing strategies for a larger future study, (Frey, 2018). Pilot studies can help researchers save time and avoid issues in subsequent experiments by serving as a "practice run", (Frey, 2018). Pilot testing is an essential component of the research process that is sometimes disregarded. (Nayak and Singh, 2021). It assists in the detection of possible issues in your research design or instrumentation as well as making sure that the measurement instruments used in the study are reliable and valid measures of the constructs of interest. A small subset of the target population is frequently used for the pilot sample, (Nayak and Singh, 2021).

Pilot studies are more than just exploratory in nature. They are intended to establish some findings and push a research field or foreseeable problem where reformulation or the production of new researchable issues can occur, (Given, 2012). As a result, pilot studies should begin with a solid approach. There are similar concerns with certain sample, data collection techniques, instruments and artifacts, and data storage which are quite common in some quantitative and qualitative studies. The results of the pilot study may help in selecting the kind or types of study sites, (Given, 2012).

4.13. Types of Data Sources

A researcher must be aware of various sorts of information sources accessible, which range from textbooks to journal articles and conference papers to research theses and dissertations, (Ford, 2012). A researcher must be aware of the conditions under which each of these several sources of information is appropriate. Finding the sources that are most suitable for the kind of work you are doing and the level at which you are doing it is fundamental., (Ford, 2012). A researcher must also be knowledgeable about the variety of search tools available. Some are better suited to obtaining specific types of information than others, and you must be able to choose those that are best suited to finding the information you require at any given time. (Ford, 2012). In this research project certain data sources will be used to obtain information, and these include the following:

- General (not specifically academic), e.g., web-based directories and search engines
- Academic databases search engines
- Academic sources e.g., multi-source (journals, conferences, academic books, articles)
- Review of research
- Research theses and dissertations
- Public datasets
- Government publications

4.14. Data Collection Process

The most time-consuming and costly part of primary research is data collection. Existing data analysis can provide answers to critical research issues in a relatively short time. Secondary data analysis often takes less time and money to complete since data sets are often received for little or no cost, data is easily available and so takes less time from technical staff, and there is no need to give participants in the study any incentives, (Kothari, 2017). When dealing with any real-world situation, it is common to discover that the available data is insufficient, necessitating the collection of more applicable data. There are various methods for gathering relevant data, each method may differ significantly in terms of cost, time, and other resources available to the researcher. Primary data might be gathered through an experiment or a survey. When a researcher conducts an experiment, he takes note of some quantitative measurements, or data, with which he verifies the truth of his hypothesis. However, in the case of a survey, data can be collected in one or more of the techniques listed below, (Kothari, 2017)

- (i) **Observation:** This strategy entails gathering data through the investigator's own observations rather than questioning respondents. The information gathered is relevant to what is currently occurring and it is unbiased by the respondents' past behaviour or future or views. This technique is certainly, costly, and the information it provides is also rather limited. As a result, this approach is unsuitable for investigations involving large samples, (Kothari, 2017)
- (ii) **Personal interview:** Through personal interviews, the investigator follows a strict method and seeks answers to a series of pre-conceived questions. This technique of data collection is usually done in a systematic manner, with the outcome relying heavily on the interviewer's ability, (Kothari, 2017)
- (iii) **Through telephone interviews:** This type of data gathering involves making direct phone calls to the respondents. This is not a most used method, but it is critical in industrial surveys in developed countries, especially when the survey must be completed in a short period of time, (Kothari, 2017)
- (iv) **Mailing of questionnaires:** If this form of survey is used, the researcher and the respondents will meet each other. Respondents are sent questionnaires with instructions to return them once they have completed them. In many economic and business studies, it is the most widely utilized method. Prior to implementing this technique, a Pilot Study is normally conducted to test the questionnaire and identify

any shortcomings. The questionnaire that will be used must be properly written in order for it to be effective in collecting the necessary data, (Kothari, 2017)

- (v) Through schedules: The enumerators are appointed and trained using this technique. They are provided with schedules containing relevant questions. These enumerators go to respondents with these schedules. Enumerators fill out schedules based on responses provided by respondents to collect data. This strategy is strongly reliant on the ability of enumerators, Occasional field inspections on the work of the enumerators may assure genuine effort, (Kothari, 2017)

4.15. Ethical Consideration

“An ethical consideration for use of secondary data is the process by which the participants provided informed consent”, (Windle; 323, 2010). All professions are regulated by a code of ethics that has changed over time to reflect the evolving ethos, values, requirements, and expectations of people involved in them. Some professions have evolved further than others about the development of their code of ethics. Some organizations have very strict regulations and effectively monitor behaviour and take appropriate action against people who do not follow the rules. Most professions have a general code of conduct that also controls how they do research. Furthermore, several research organizations have developed their own code of ethics for research. (Kumar, 2016). Considering these concerns, the subject of ethics must be explored. Each profession's approach to serving society evolves over time in response to societal requirements and expectations, as well as the technology available for service delivery. The ethical rules that regulate how a service is supplied must also be updated. What was once deemed ethical may no longer be so, and what is presently considered ethical may no longer be so in the future. Any decision on whether a specific behaviour is ethical is based on the code of conduct that is relating to that time. Since the nature of the service and how it is delivered differ per profession, no consistent code of conduct can be applicable throughout all professions. Though there are some similarities, each profession has its own code of ethics, (Kumar, 2016).

4.15.1. Informed Consent

It is deemed unethical in every discipline to collect information without the participants' awareness and expressed willingness and informed consent. Informed consent means that participants are adequately informed about the type of information you are looking for, why you are looking for it, how it will be used, how they will be asked to participate in the study, and how will it affect them directly or indirectly. It is necessary that the consent be given voluntarily and without any form of coercion. (Kumar, 2016). Data is gathered through human encounters with participants, which frequently entails the researcher's trust and a responsibility to protect the information of the participants. This has raised concerns about the use of such data by others, as well as shaping discussions about ethics and informed consent. When the future use of data is unknown, informed consent can be obtained by making general comments about the potential uses of the data. For instance, the data will be accessible for research and educational purposes. (Irwin, 2013).

4.15.2. Anonymity and Confidentiality

It is unethical to share information about a respondent with others for reasons other than study. In order to put your findings into context, you may need to identify the study population. In such a case, you must ensure that at least, the information provided by responders remains anonymous, (Kumar, 2016). Identifying a specific respondent and the information he or she submitted is unethical. As a result, you must ensure that the source of information cannot be identified after it has been obtained, (Kumar, 2016). You may need to visit respondents' multiple times in certain types of studies, in this case you must identify them until all your visits are completed, (Kumar, 2016). In such cases, you must take further precautions to ensure that no one else has access to the information. It is also unethical to be careless with the confidentiality and anonymity of the data you collect from your respondents. If you are conducting research for someone else, you must ensure that the anonymity of this party is also protected, (Kumar, 2016).

4.16. Data Analysis Procedure

Secondary analysis has the advantage of examining variables, correlations between variables, and subgroups within a sample that have not previously been addressed, which may result in

valuable new results that contribute to existing research programs and improve the science, (Irwin, 2013). Secondary data analysis may be the ideal option for some studies because rich data sets may not be able to be acquired by a single researcher or research team, even with large money, especially if it involves longitudinal data, (Irwin, 2013). Secondary data can be obtained from a variety of sources, the most common of which is the Statistics Department. These data sets often represent national or state populations, have large sample sizes, tend to oversample minority groups, and contain participants from a variety of geographic regions., (Dunn, et al, 2018). In "secondary data analysis," the person or group who analyses the data does not get involved in the experiment preparation or data collection. This analysis can be done using data from published articles, statistical information, data from the text, tables, graphs, and appendices of published articles, or original data, (Goldberg & Russel, 2003) In primary data analysis, the people who collect data also analyse it; in meta-analysis, a researcher quantitatively merges the statistical results from several studies of a phenomenon to make a conclusion. Secondary data analysis involves analysing data collected by people who were not responsible in data collection. Secondary data analysis might be based on previously published data or on unpublished data, (Goldberg and Russel, 2003).

4.16.1. Statistics

The purpose of statistics in research is to serve as a tool for designing studies, analysing data, and formulating informed conclusions, (Kothari, 2004). Most research investigation produce a significant amount of raw data, which must be appropriately reduced to make it easier to interpret and use the data for extensive analysis, (Kothari, 2004). Statistics are essential for determining the relationship between variables, especially when there are more than two of them. It is simple to read the link between two variables from a table with experience, but hard to quantify it. (Kumar, 2016). You can use statistics to determine the strength of a relationship. They corroborate or reject what you read in a piece of information, and they indicate the strength of a relationship and the level of confidence that may be placed in findings, (Kumar, 2016). Statistics are also useful when there are more than two variables to understand, they have interrelation and contribution to a phenomena or event indirectly. Understanding statistics can benefit you at every stage of the research process, (Kothari, 2004). In a research project, understanding the challenges associated with data analysis, the sorts of statistical tests that may be applied to specific types of variables, and the calculation of summary statistics in relation to the measurement scale used is fundamental. However, a completely valid study can be

conducted without the use of statistical techniques. This is determined by your research's objectives. (Kumar, 2016).

4.17. Conclusion

This chapter provides several ideas about the application of research techniques and procedures as well as the research design of the study. Since this is a Qualitative Secondary Research study, it is imperative to discuss literature based on qualitative method studies from primary researchers. It is important to understand how investigations were carried out for that study and which qualitative measures were used to discover their findings. A significant experiential component is required to master secondary research. This indicates how critical it is to build a thorough comprehension of the literature as well as a unique perspective. This has offered some insights on how a search might be organised and some basics on data sources and ethics in terms of acquiring data, (Curtis, 2017)

Social science is always carried out in terms of clear objectives, there is a reason why researchers conduct their studies. Finding gaps in the literature and comparing it to or with other sources is what secondary research comprises to gauge how well the material is sourced and to comprehend what is currently known about the subject at hand. (Curtis, 2017)

Secondary research employs a variable-centric methodology and eventually functions as a type of hypothesis testing, (Curtis, 2017). It is vital to construct validity and acquire reliable sources of primary data to have achievable findings for secondary research study.

CHAPTER 5

“Informal Trading and Economy Discussions and Perspectives”

5. Introduction

Subsequent to the 2008 global financial crisis, the international community decisively reaffirmed the basic right to social security by adopting the International Labour Organization's (ILO) Social Protection Floors Recommendation, (2012, No. 202). Countries promised to provide at least a basic measure of social security, including access to health care and income security throughout life, as part of their national social protection systems, and to gradually provide higher levels of social protection. (Razavi et al, 2020). Informal workers, who account for more than 60% percent of the worldwide working population and much more than that in most low-income countries, represent social protection's "missing majority", (Alfers et al, 2017). Excluding informal employees for social assistance contradicts international human and labour rights norms, and it is likely to hinder economic recovery, particularly in low-income nations where informal employment is prevalent. (Barca and Alfers, 2020).

Since the apartheid era in South Africa, informal street trading has been a feasible method for employment development for the many jobless black people. It is currently classified as a Small Medium Micro Enterprise (SMME) on the micro scale. (Ayandibu and Houghton, 2017). Due to the diversity of work and income in the informal economy, social protection programs should integrate components of both social assistance and social insurance to offer coverage for this population, (Ayandibu and Houghton, 2017). This necessitates expanding development efforts beyond the current focus on social assistance alone and thinking about how to make social insurance and other contributing programs more inclusive of employees outside of a formal job relationship and how to make social assistance and insurance programs more closely integrated, (Barca and Alfers, 2020). To implement a coordinated policy response to worldwide pandemics and severe recessionary crisis, social protection mechanisms have become essential. (Sabates-Wheeler, 2019). Many States have taken decisive action to guarantee that individuals may obtain health care effectively, without experiencing additional hardship, and to help those most in need of employment and economic stability. (Razavi et al., 2020). Recent COVID-19 pandemic has been a wake-up call, informing the international community on the urgency of accelerating progress in developing social protection systems, in particular social protection

floors to ensure that everyone has access to at least a basic level of social security (ILO, 2012, No. 202). Prepare societies for future crises, most urgently the risks posed by climate change, resource depletion, and environmental degradation (Razavi et al., 2020).

5.1. Socio-economic challenges of informal street trade

Street trade is regarded to be a major part of the informal economy in most nations, however domestic economic statistics do not account for it and do not recognize it. (Mitullah, 2003). The above statement demonstrates that street traders make a substantial contribution to African countries' urban and national economies but is unaccounted for. Roadsides, other public areas, landfills, construction sites, and informal settlements are just a few examples of settings where informal employees typically lack access to a safe working environment and are exposed to serious environmental and occupational hazards, (Alfers et al, 2017). The city regulations that govern them do not recognize them as workplaces, thus the people who work there have no protection. Most municipal bylaws, particularly those dealing with health and sanitation, are aimed at protecting the public; however, informal laborers are frequently considered as one of the frustrations from which the public must be protected. As a result, informal laborers who work in public settings may be exposed to all the regular risks associated with such environments, (Alfers et al, 2017).

In Africa, street dealing is seen as a financial activity for those with a poor degree of education, (Mitullah, 2003). Mainstream economics have nothing significant to say about street trading, which is likewise perceived as a non-vocational trade. In all cities and countries, there is very little financial measuring coverage of street trading. (Mitullah, 2003). Even the municipal authorities, who receive substantial sector revenues, do not maintain records of the sector statistics and contribution to the urban economy, (Rogerson, 2017). Since they operate in several places and lack a structured workforce, those engaged in informal street trading are generally disorganized and invisible, which limits their bargaining power to negotiate with employers and/or governments, (Holmes et al, 2016)

This study seeks a way forward to implementing social protection that comprises of a much broader strategy that is not only designed for contingencies. Also, as part of the informal worker's benefit to income. It should also strive to support income security by providing social protection for risk factors relating to health, disability, and death. Finding a method to stop income depreciation would be necessary if social protection's goals were to be expanded beyond risk mitigation to risk eradication, (Alfers et al, 2017). To modify the environment

structure in which the informal sector operates, this would need transformational initiatives, (Unni & Ranni, 2003). Local government should implement strategic assessments when regulating the informal economy for those participating in this sector not to become invisible. (Rogerson, 2018). Most informal workers do not work as employees but rather as economic agents in an unequal economic system, (Unni & Ranni, 2003). While it is true that informal workers want and need governmental recognition, many also find it difficult to establish direct connections with companies in the legal sector and capital owners, (Alfers et al, 2017). It is crucial to identify all accessible social protection programs to fully examine this study. Moreover, to determine if extending social protection measures to an unregulated informal economy is realistic.

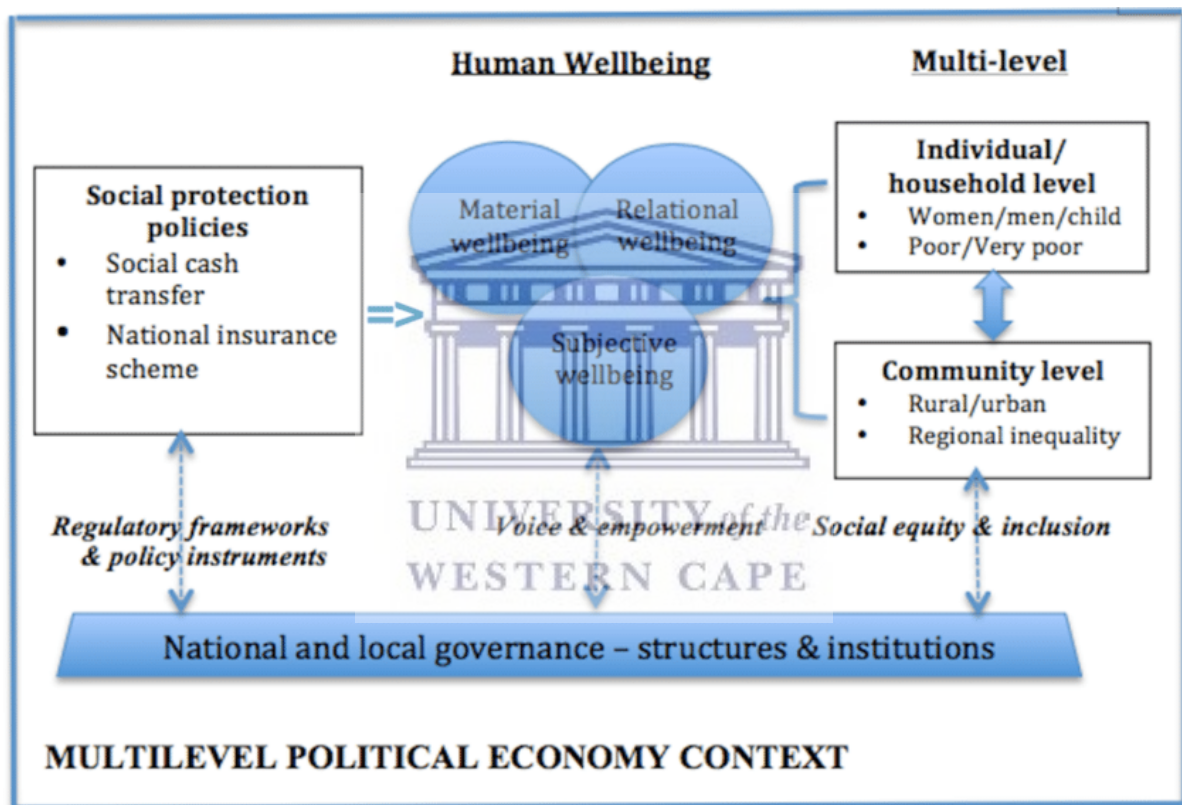


Figure 6: An inclusive development framework for analysing social protection, Source; N. Pouw, K. Bender, 2022

5.2. Discussion of Informal Economy in the City of Cape Town

In the city of Cape Town, informality plays a considerable role in economic structure. The city recognizes the relevance of the informal sector and its contribution to jobs and opportunities for economic progress, (Rogerson, 2018). The number of people entering the informal sector is increasing in developing urban cities and towns across the world, (De Villiers, 2022). The informal sector also has minimal entrance barriers and functions as a social safety net, often supporting the livelihoods of foreign immigrants fleeing conflict nations. As a result, the informal sector is both socially and economically significant, (Rogerson, 2018). Understanding how the City of Cape Town classifies informal commerce is significant. Trading in public open areas such as streets, pedestrian malls, markets, and transportation hubs is included in this, (De Villiers, 2022). A person or business that participates in informal trading however not registered or incorporated under South African corporate law is described as an "informal trader" under the by-law. A demarcated section inside a trading area that is specified as such in a trading plan, and which is administered in a coordinated manner" is the definition of "a market", (De Villiers, 2022). Informal commerce is permitted on area designated as a road reserve or designated by the city as a potential road reserve, providing that the following is observed: - (a) no permanent structures are erected on the land, (City of Cape Town, 2015b) (b) there is no interference with pedestrian or vehicle movement, or with any municipal utility services; and (c) there is no threat to public health or safety, (City of Cape Town, 2015b). Informal trading shall only be permitted on sites demarcated for informal trading in terms of the City's by-law on informal trading.

According to the city all applications for an informal trade permission must be submitted online, according to the municipal regulations. The city has set up a procedure wherein traders can receive assistance from the District Area Coordinator's office by completing the online application., (Rogerson, 2018). The applicant must first sign up for an e-Services account before applying for an informal trade license. Additionally, this process has helped to prevent those who live in rented or unregistered housing as well as foreigners who do not have proper residency visas, (Rogerson ,2018; Crush and Tawodzera, 2019). In the assessment of street sellers, more than half were non-South African citizens. Some might find immigrants from Angola, Burundi, the Central African Republic, Congo Brazzaville, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Rwanda, Malawi, Mozambique, Nigeria, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe among them, (Crush and Tawodzera, 2019). Many South African vendors approximately 26 percent were raised in rural communities, and 8 percent of vendors were born

in a different South African city, (Crush and Tawodzera, 2019). Overall just 15% of the sample was born in Cape Town, while 85% were from inside or outside of the country, (Crush and Tawodzera, 2019). According to a General Household Survey in 2013 the total employment in the informal sector consisted of 185 984, which is 11, 84 percent (City of Cape, 2015b). However, there are less statistical records found on street trade, which is the key concept of this research study. Therefore, this thesis will be conducted in a qualitative method approach using secondary research.

5.3. St George's Mall in Cape Town

This research study will be conducted in Cape Town in the St George Mall area. The informal trade business to be assessed includes all registered informal business in the City of Cape Town's municipality. These informal businesses range from clothing/material/textile, food produce, beverages, and electronics and so on. Cape Town has helped to make South Africa the third largest financial hub and a key driver of economic growth and development in Africa and South Africa, (City of Cape Town, 2015b). Informal trading in St George's Mall includes street/curbside trading, trading in public open spaces, and public markets. Public markets include flea and handcraft fairs, among others, that are held on public property, (Dewar, 2004). The initiatives of the Cape Town City Council aimed to improve the image, reputation, and operational efficiency of the Central Business District (CBD), from 1994 which was essentially ad hoc and uncoordinated. Significant developments included the pedestrianization of St. George's Mall in conjunction with the creation of an open market in Greenmarket Square. Cape Town became the first city in South Africa to institute a legally binding improvement district. In June 1999 the Cape Town Partnership, was established as a special purpose vehicle to achieve similar goals in Cape Town. Managing informal trading and encouraging growth of Small Micro Medium Enterprises (SMMEs) in the CBD (Dewar, 2004, 96).



Figure 7: St George's Mall in Cape Town

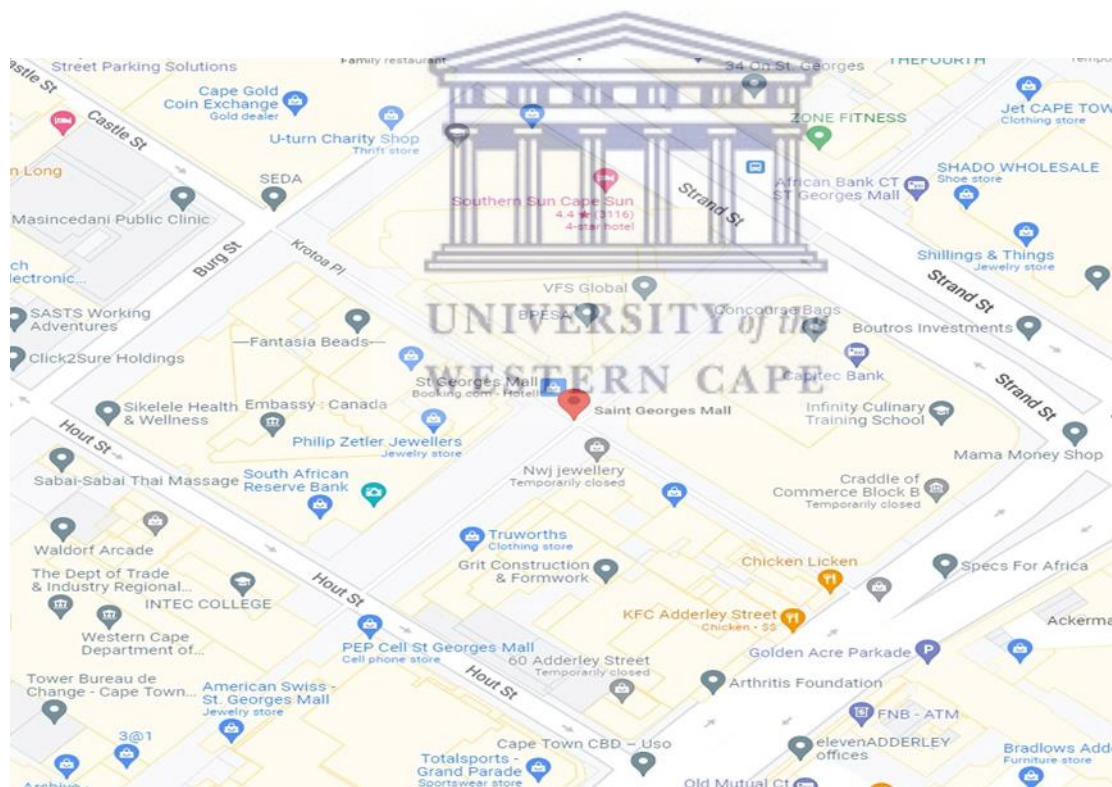


Figure 8: St George's Mall, Cape Town, (Google Maps)

5.4. Discussion of Social Protection Interventions

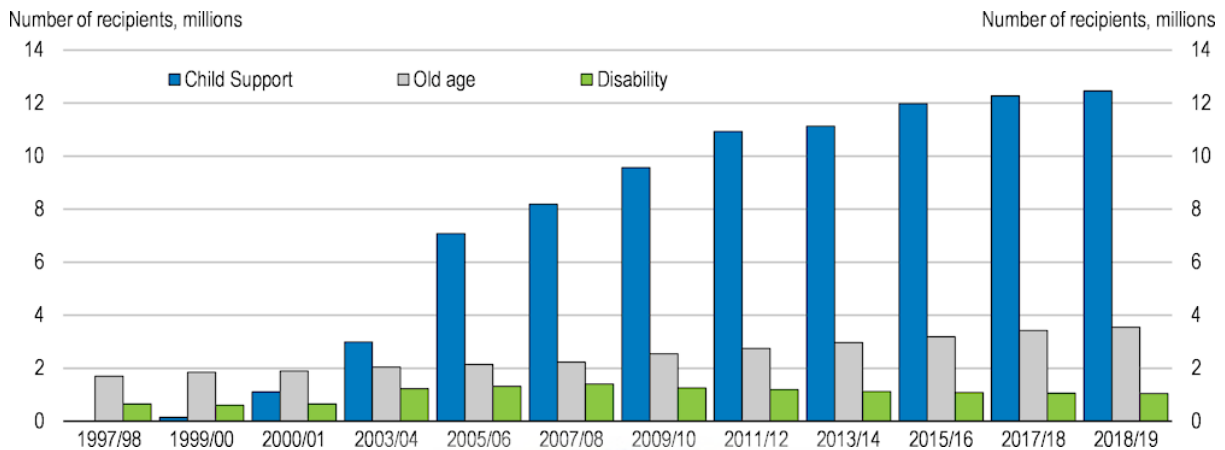
Cash transfers, such as pensions for the aged, grants to children and households, cash for food, and public works programs, are examples of social protection measures in the African continent. (Taylor, 2008). In its broader role as social protection, measures could include the access to food, health care, housing, and education. Social protection can refer to a variety of public (government-funded) programs that assist all people and assist individuals, households, and communities in better managing risks and participating effectively in all aspects of life. (Taylor, 2008)

The social grant system in South Africa gives the country's poorest citizens a vital source of income and has prevented millions from going hungry and becoming impoverished. (Ferguson, 2015). The South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) distributes almost 18 million social grants each month, at a cost of 3.4% of the GDP. (South African Social Security Agency, 2020). In South Africa, the most notable social grants are child support grants, disability grants, old age pensions and currently the COVID relief grant., (Bassier et al, 2021). These are prevalent since they have been a dependable source of income for most unemployed individuals and those informally employed individuals.

According to knowledge, no research conducted concerning how these social grants may also be implemented to reach households who rely on often-minimal income from informal labour. The underlying presumption of South African social protection architecture is that "assistance is only needed for 'dependent' groups such as the elderly, those caring for children, and the disabled." (Ferguson, 2015, p. 17). These informal employees are disproportionately concentrated in poor and vulnerable households. They lack access to contributory social insurance, and work for enterprises that are less likely to be eligible for government assistance, (Bassier et al, 2021). There is no established structure in place to provide targeted aid to informal employees. The initial economic relief measures in South Africa were concentrated on tax-registered firms and the officially employed. However, South Africa has a substantial non-contributory social assistance system that consists of a variety of means-tested unconditional cash transfers, like many other middle-income nations, (Bassier et al, 2021). As a result, it is essential to consider the diversity of the informal sector when developing social protection programs for informal workers.

The figure below shows the number of social grant transfers that were paid for applicable South Africans between the years 1997 until 2019. The graph is showing an increase in numbers as years are continuing. Unemployment has been rife and informal jobs are not providing for social insurance for their workers.

Figure 9: Source (SASSA Annual report 2018/19)



5.4.1. Impact of social protection on informal street trade

In South Africa, social assistance has a long history that dates to the colonial era. In the 1920s, social pensions were implemented, but with racial discrimination. (Devereux, 2007). As part of the political settlement reached after the democratic transition in 1994, the succeeding ANC (African National Congress) government inherited a series of social assistance systems that were revised to eliminate racial, gender injustices, and provide help to the previously disadvantaged Black majority. Significantly, the Child Support Grant (CSG), which now covers two-thirds of all children and is one of South Africa's most successful social policy solutions to the country's extremely high levels of poverty, unemployment, and inequality.

In 2020 the reaction to COVID-19, President Ramaphosa launched R500 billion (USD 3 billion) social relief and economic assistance package effectively in May 2020. This constituted 10% of GDP. A loan guarantee plan to support 700,000 major, small, and medium firms with 3 million employees was one of the business protections measures. The Department of Social Development distributed food parcels and introduced new social assistance programs,

including the Temporary Employee/Employer Relief Scheme (TERS), a Special COVID19 Social Relief of Distress (SRD) award for six months, and a distribution of food packages.

A literature study regarding social protection interventions for informal sector was analysed through the empirical study of Melis Guven, Himanshi Jain, and Clement Joubert (2021). Due to the many dangers that employees must deal with and the various ways in which they can handle shocks, various safety nets, social insurance, and economic inclusion initiatives are required, (Guyen et al, 2021). An informal sector that is more stable and productive and places employees on a long-term road to better livelihoods and increased human capital development would be the result of a set of social protective measures put into place with the backing of coordinated policies, (Guyen et al, 2021).

5.5. Social Assistance Coverage in the City of Cape Town.

The City of Cape Town is South Africa's oldest city, situated in the Western Cape, (Vanheerden, 2011). With significant populations of Black Africans, Asians, Indians, Coloureds, and White people residing in the metropolitan region, Cape Town is one of the most racially divided towns in South Africa. (City of Cape Town: 2010a). The economic structure of Cape Town is also quite diversified, however not by sector. (Vanheerden, 2011). According to a Statistics Survey report conducted by Stats SA using Computer-Assisted Telephonic Interviews (CATI). There are at least people 60 years and older receiving old-age grant in the City of Cape Town, (Stats, 2021). The percentage of persons 60 years and older receiving old-age grant is 99.4%. A percentage of people 60 years and older who received social grants is 50,2%, (Stats SA, 2021). A percentage of learners in schools receiving social grants is 46,5% in the City of Cape Town, (StatsSA,2021). A percentage of households receiving social grants for which the usual place of consultation is a public facility is approximately 47,5%. (Stats, SA, 2021).

Table 3: Social Protection Coverage for the Informal Sector

Providing Agencies	Type of Programme	Coverage	Benefits
	Social assistance:	Demographics for SP	Cash transfer amount
South African Social Security Agency	Child support grant	- Primary caregiver of a child - Child must be less than 18 years - South African citizen	R480 per month per child
South African Social Security Agency	Old Age Pension (State Pension)	- 60 years old and above.	R1,980 per month for 60-74 years R2000 per month for 75 years above
South African Social Security Agency	Care dependency grant	- Primary caregiver of a child - Children with special needs especially children with AIDS-related illnesses should qualify - South African citizen	R1,980 per month
South African Social Security Agency	Foster care grants	- Children in foster care must be less than 18 years	R1,070 per month per child
South African Social Security Agency	Disability grants	- Over 18-year-old - Permanently incapacitated due to physical or mental illness - Must be South African citizen	R1,980 per month
South African Social Security Agency	Social relief of distress	- Temporary assistance to households in dire need	Cash, food parcels or vouchers
Department of Health, Government hospitals /clinics	Public Health Care	- All citizens	Access to various services at public health institutions
South African Social Security Agency	War Veterans Grant	- Individuals who served in the 1 st and 2 nd and Korean War	R2,000 per month
South African Social Security Agency	COVID relief grant	- COVID-19 Relief Grant for the unemployed - South African Citizen	R350 per month
Road Accident Fund /Law Attorneys	Road Accident Fund	- The RAF provides compensation for losses incurred due to injuries caused by the wrongful or negligent driving of another vehicle; and - Funds covers both RSA citizens and foreigners	Claim benefits are determined by conditions of the case
	Social insurance:		
Department of Labour	Unemployment Insurance Fund	- Short-term relief for unemployed workers, maternity benefits, adoption, death. - South Africa introduced Sectoral Determinations' that extend UIF coverage to domestic workers (2002) and taxi industry workers (2005) their employers are responsible for registering them for UIF	Claims and Benefits are determined by the level of contribution to the fund

5.6. Street trade Bylaws

Local municipalities established informal trade by-laws based on the Business Act, 1991 to regulate informal trading. Most by-laws governing informal trade are based on the following municipal regulations: Traders must not obstruct pedestrians or traffic; Traders must avoid obstructing delivery vehicles.; Traders are not permitted to utilize gas, electricity, or other equipment in a way that endangers the public.; Traders must not obstruct fire hydrants or road signs; and Traders are required to maintain their trading stands clean, (Selepe, 2019). However, the Business Act made it clear that a separate department had to be established to oversee regulation of street vendors because, prior to the Business Act's promulgation, this was the responsibility of the Traffic Department. Following the Business Act, no clear authority boundaries were established, resulting in a regulatory-free chaotic situation. Due to the absence of a regulatory body, a hostile relationship between the local administration and the street vendors grew and persisted until 1999. After 1999, it was decided that better control of street trading in the Cape Town CBD should be enforced. (Vanheerden,2011; Rogerson, 2018). This type of regulation resulted in the formalization of the procedure by which traders were given permits/licence to conduct business in the CBD.

Street trade was viewed as a viable way to make a livelihood after the Business Act of 1991, because city residents had previously seen it as a nuisance. However, the changes in perspective of street trading had an influence on how it was generally perceived in urban environments, (Vanheerden, 2011). The informal street traders are mostly concentrated in areas with heavy pedestrian movement. (De Villiers, 2022). Other significant obstacles include crime and corruption, uncertain income, growing expenses, greater competition, a lack of capital and access to formal financial institutions, and little or no assistance. Most of these challenges were exacerbated by the recent COVID-19 pandemic, which has created an unpredictable trade environment. (De Villiers, 2022). Furthermore, a lack of protection exposes traders and their goods to harsh weather conditions such as rain, wind, and direct sun, which, when combined with insufficient storage facilities, can diminish the shelf life of some items, (Rogerson, 2018). Several respondents highlighted wind and rain as significant challenges (particularly in the winter season) this frequently prohibits them from working, due to lack of shelter in their informal operations, (Rogerson, 2018). Some of the traders also stated that they were occasionally compelled to throw away merchandise. This is made worse by inadequate protection, which exposes the merchants and their goods to severe weather, as well as a lack of suitable storage facilities, which can shorten the shelf life of some merchandise. The lack of

changing rooms for clothing businesses, inadequate restrooms, waste disposal, and parking space are some other infrastructure-related challenges, (Rogerson, 2018).

5.7. Economic challenges of informal trade business

Economic challenges include expensive registration and transaction expenses of beginning or managing a business; poor income or a lack of consistent revenue when home spending competes for the use of business earnings; as well as limited access to technology, (Selepe, 2019). The main expenses incurred by informal street traders are those related to transportation, salary and wages, license fees, and storage expenses, (De Villiers, 2022). External economic and health shocks like the recent COVID-19 pandemic have a negative impact on the informal sector as well, (De Villiers, 2022). In addition to the challenges mentioned above, a number of respondents claimed they lack assistance for accessing official financial institutions, and adequate capital, (De Villiers, 2022)

Following alert levels during COVID saw a rise in permitted economic activity, but informal traders continued to face restrictions on the types of goods and services they could sell, where they could do business, and when they could do it, (De Villiers, 2022). Additionally, a significant drop in pedestrian traffic was caused by the social and physical distance restrictions connected with the pandemic, (De Villiers, 2022). High levels of pedestrian traffic are a necessary condition for the development of informal street trade businesses. These factors have a severe impact on the capability of informal street vendors to develop a stable source of income, (De Villiers, 2022). For local governments, the economic status of merchants is a tricky issue since traders hesitate to divulge financial information for fear of attracting unwelcomed attention from the South African Revenue Services (SARS), (Vanheerden, 2011). Local government has attempted to obtain this information from traders in the past but has been unsuccessful. However, the significance of such financial information cannot be underestimated, since it is a critical component in driving policy addressing street trading. Financial information must be kept on record in some way for the benefit of the traders, since adopted regulations may be income-specific, assisting those traders who are struggling to stay afloat. (Vanheerden, 2011)

5.8. The level of safety for street traders

According to the respondent crime, particularly robberies and pickpocketing, was recognized as the second most significant concern. The high rate of crime in locations outside of the CBD also has a negative impact on informal traders. For instance, some of the traders have been robbed while traveling to or from work, so they are forced to shorten their trading hours to avoid robbery after dark. The high crime rate and demand for "protection money" also prevent informal traders from developing their businesses in certain areas. A few respondents also mentioned corruption as a related issue, stating that certain security personnel appeared to be working with criminals and doing inadequate checks that had consequence for traders operating without permits. (De Villiers, 2022).

5.9. The Level of skills and education

Street traders who are immigrants are reported to have a greater level of education than local traders who trade alongside them. This is because immigrant traders have frequently left their home countries because there are not enough job opportunities for people with training in highly specialized fields of work, and their native countries may not necessarily have the infrastructure to accommodate them in high-tech industries, (Vanheerden, 2011). However, respondents from countries other than South Africa (36.96%) scored lower than their South African counterparts which was (56.0%) in terms of pre-matric qualification levels. These figures indicate that non-South African traders have a greater education level. Thus, the traits of Cape Town's Street traders in terms of education levels are consistent with international trends in street trading. The lack of education among South African traders is concerning since foreign traders have an advantage over their South African counterparts but are unable to fully take use of that advantage, (Vanheerden, 2011). Furthermore, education levels vary according to age and gender. Street traders are generally poor, unskilled people at the lower end of the socio-economic spectrum. According to the interviewee, they also collaborate with the city on a leadership development course that members may send their top executives. People lack the necessary skills to operate an enterprise. "We have some programs supported by the city" (Interview by Horber and Trader association leader, 4 September 2017, (Horber, 2017). "They currently hold these workshops on bylaws". "We believed that the bylaws protected the city better than we did". "However, it is open to amendment for the next 2 years, so they can still revisit it", (interview, Trader association leader, 4 September 2017), (Horber, 2017).

5.10. Local Economic Development for informal street trade

The emphasis of a local development plan must be on either the creation of jobs or the formalization of informal enterprises, with informal firms serving as its central focus. The Department of Human and Economic Development in the City of Cape Town has highlighted the informal economy's potential to solve unemployment. As a result, such initiatives would be needed and to be put in place to ensure that traders have access to resources they need to start, expand, and eventually formalize their enterprises. (Vanheerden, 2011). Financial gains were highlighted by more than half of the respondents as one of the main benefits and successful outcomes of informal street trade. It makes it possible for them, among other things, to send remittances and pay for their children's education. In some cases, the informal business offers the trader and some of his family members' chances for work and income generation. (De Villiers, 2022). The sensation of freedom and "being your own boss" is seen as the second most significant benefit. It gives respondents greater decision-making control over enterprise-related decisions, particularly business hours. As a result, more flexible working hours allow individuals to spend more time with their children and families. (De Villiers, 2022).

5.11. The bargaining power street traders have with government /state

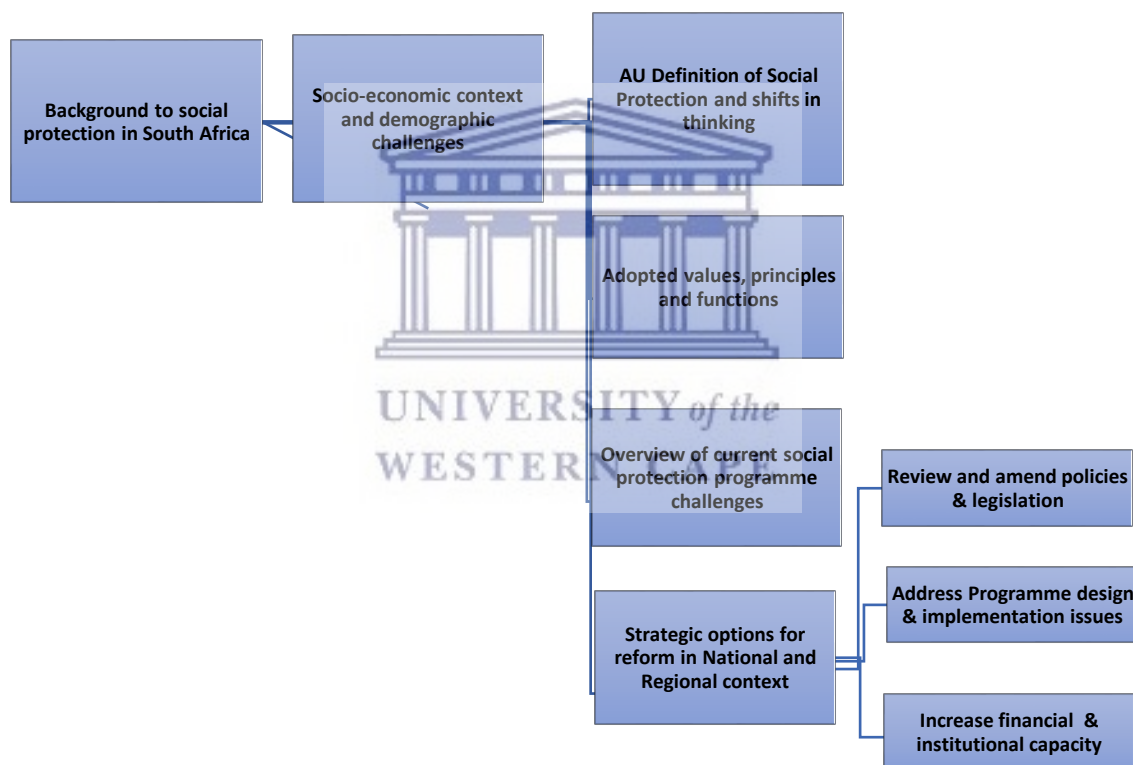
Since there are no established forums for collective bargaining and most informal workers do not fall under the legal definition of "formal workers," they lack the rights and protections that formal workers have. (Bonner and Spooner, 2011). This is a particular problem for traditional unions because collective bargaining is a distinctive aspect of trade union functioning. In the context of own account workers, such as rubbish collectors or street traders, there is also no job relationship, or there is an uncertain or concealed employment relationship. (Bonner and Spooner, 2011).

The National Development Plan (NDP) acknowledges that the "most serious deficiency" in South Africa's social security system is the exclusion of informal employees (i.e., any worker without a contract) from formal social security, (Deveraux and Cuesta, 2021). The developing social protection agenda in the developing world is still not responsive enough to urban issues. First, it is unusual for urban policy objectives and programs that clearly include social protection. Secondly, urban poverty and vulnerability are typically not considered in national

programs. One explanation for this is the global absence of such commitments. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) make no mention of city dwellers or urban surroundings in relation to social protection, (Deveraux and Cuesta, 2021)

In South Africa, people operating informal businesses must abide by a complex system of national and local rules, and regulations. These might be in relation to locations to do business from, the kinds of trading activities authorized, business hours, or any other matter that the authorities think necessary to control. (Crush and Tawodzera, 2019). Therefore, it is important to understand the social protection floor of a particular region in order to give social assistance and security for the informal sector. Below is a conceptual framework by author Vivienne Taylor, which can be used to assess important elements to consider for social protection:

Figure 10: A Conceptual Framework for Social Protection in Africa



Source: (Vivienne Taylor: 2008).

5.12. Conclusion

At a societal level, social protection is regarded as a basis for reducing intergenerational poverty, advancing social justice and social cohesion, fostering the development of human potential, and supporting economic dynamism and social entrepreneurship. It takes into consideration ways to address the utmost poverty and the most vulnerable people, (Taylor, 2007). This is how the informal sector can survive shocks that impact their business operations especially street enterprise whereby several environmental, social, political, and economic risks factors can hinder the informal trade business to be unsustainable. During the recent pandemic some informal enterprises were unable to keep afloat as running businesses due to losses they encountered during lockdown. However, some SMMEs survived with the Covid relief fund and some still recovering, this is how social assistance from government becomes an ideological requirement for all informal business to survive including micro enterprise such as street trading. That have no form of economic statistical records. This can be ongoing Social assistance by government if it can be monitored and evaluated by the regulator of city informal trading. It is imperative for the city regulators of informal trading to assist street trade businesses that have been complying with informal trade bylaws this will encourage them to become resilient to certain shocks. Social security or social assistance are two forms of social safety. Since Social security are mostly provided for through private sector entities, and they work accordingly with formal work system such as they payroll systems and bank systems. This makes it harder for the informal sector to benefit for social security insurance, due to their financial stability and viability. Which has no contingencies when their livelihoods have been impacted by certain shocks. According to (StatsSA, 2021), Old age pension is approximately 99,4 percent and this means only a small proportion of the population in Cape Town is covered by pension schemes. Coverage is lacking in part because standard contribution pension plans are not addressing the demands of the informal sector. As a result, a considerable proportion of the adult population in the region does not have access to contributing pension systems during their working careers. (Guyen, 2019). Social registries serve as the main hub for coordinating registration and eligibility procedures. They are frequently used to determine needs for a variety of social protection programs, such as cash transfers, social pensions, labor and employment benefits and services, social services, emergency assistance, and programs that provide in-kind assistance, as well as providing services outside the scope of social protection. Like housing benefits, utility subsidies, education and training programs, subsidized health insurance, productive inclusion programs, and legal services, (Guyen et al, 2021).

CHAPTER 6

“Recommendations and Conclusion “

6. Introduction

The South African government has long encouraged individuals to launch their own enterprises to increase employment possibilities and boost economic growth. In South Africa, the number of informal street vendors has considerably increased. (Selepe, 2019). In most South African cities and towns, there is a challenge posed by an increase in the number of unauthorized street vendors in areas that are under the control of regional municipalities., (ibid, 2019). Local governments are also obligated to make sure that street trade does not take place in violation of the law. To regulate informal trading, local municipalities have developed by-laws based on the Business Act, 1991. (Selepe, 2019). Where regulation does exist, such as in the areas of urban planning or transportation, it typically imposes barriers or leads to harassment from law enforcement authority for informal workers rather than assisting in improving their condition. While bullying or unkind employers may serve as the motivation for organizing and taking collective action, they may also create an anxiety of organizing: risk of losing jobs or means of livelihoods, (Bonner and Spooner, 2011). Workers in the informal economy might not be aware of their rights to social insurance, such as health insurance, pensions, and unemployment insurance. The lack of knowledge may be caused by employers withholding information, inadequate social protection institutions, or unions running ineffective social protection communication campaigns. (Miti; Perkiö; Metteri and Atkins, 2021). The major obstacles to successfully entering informal street trade are "economic barriers. Ownership rights must be guaranteed as security for bank loans. Without collateral, informal street traders are unable to receive formal credit from bank. Savings or loans from unverified sources, like family or moneylenders, can be used as alternative forms of financings, (Willemse, 2011). The activities of informal street vendors become less sustainable and more vulnerable because of informality, which is exacerbated by market imperfections. Their capability to compete in the market is limited, especially when compared to other formal sector goods and services that frequently receive preferential treatment from the regulatory framework. They are not able to diversify their output or reduce costs. They have minimal incentives to invest money, learn new skills, and advance technologies, (Willemse, 2011). When shocks occur, such as pandemics, or death of an income-earning household member, or inflation shocks, households typically turn to

coping mechanisms. There are no informal social arrangements because public social protection mechanisms are either non-existent or insufficient to provide the necessary assistance to households. (Oduro, 2010). The main obstacles that the informal traders confront are like those described in the literature and include operational, political, and administrative limits as well as economic, governmental, and other factors. However, there are several restrictions that are not as well discussed in the literature, (Willemse, 2011). There are different survival challenges faced by street vendors. Unfavourable working conditions, low wages, the need for price reductions, expensive start-up costs, high costs of items from suppliers, and a lack of financial start-up help, were some of the issues that have been noted. Without adequate shelter, street vendors were exposed to environmental hazards as well as the extreme weather conditions, putting their goods and themselves at risk. Based on the intense competition among traders, it is necessary to lower prices to draw in customers. In addition, there was no regulation of the kinds of goods that could be sold, (Nkrumah-Abebrese and Schachtebeck, 2017). There is organizational framework whereby a social contribution networks offer informal social protection. These contribution networks could be categorized as networks within the same working group, for example stokvels. Family networks are made up of people who are related. The different social networks that offer mutual support and assistance may be categorized by place of residence, racial group membership, occupation, or friendship. An example of a social network that is not family based that provides social protection are burial or funeral societies, (Oduro, 2011). Large amounts of traffic and scattered patterns of urban growth have a big impact on city pollution. In recent years, photochemical pollution levels in Cape Town have drastically increased. (Turok and Watson, 2001). This has the greatest impact on the respiratory system, causing emphysema, asthma, chronic bronchitis, and cancer. Pollution and traffic congestion also harm the city's image, facilities, and natural assets. (Turok and Watson, 2001). Having wellness sites by Government in the CBD occasionally for informal workers to access health care would improve the state of their social security for healthcare systems. For example, testing stations for Covid, Hypertension etc. There is also a need for local authorities to improve trading site conditions in partnership with street traders. This is for the betterment of control as well as safety of informal traders' livelihoods. Exposure to extreme weather conditions could be mitigated by providing protected trading areas. Due to safety concerns mentioned by several respondents, it is critical to improve the safety of street vendors through more visible policing. Safety and security are very important in the informal trade business since many do not have insurance should any damage occur in their businesses and shutdown is the only option for their trade. Priority should also be given to providing free sanitation facilities nearby trading

sites. (Nkrumah-Abebrese et al., 2017). It is vital for any work environment to have basic sanitation services for better working conditions.

6.1. Conclusion

Finally, it is critical to acknowledge that significant barriers to large-scale implementation of comprehensive social protection programs remain. Several African countries have only implemented social protection programs because of donor advocacy and financial and technical help. Many governments continue to be uncertain of social protection, particularly rights-based measures, claiming that they are fiscally unsustainable, and it can lead to "dependence," despite the lack of evidence for this claim, (Deveraux ,2012). The Social Protection Framework initiative was certainly a "global social policy" because it was accepted by several intergovernmental and other international organizations, or at a "global" level, but it was not truly global in terms of creation, ownership, and impact., (Seeking, 2019). In Africa, extending social protection to informal workers is increasingly a top priority on the development policy agenda. Focus should be workers who are informal and not covered by traditional social protection, without employment contracts, savings accounts, or pensions, (Dalufeya, 2017). To successfully expand jobs and social protection to those employed in the informal economy, this intervention must be innovative and carefully made. While it is necessary to recognize the diversity of the informal economy and the possibility that their needs vary from one country to the next when assessing the extension of labour and social protection, an integrated strategy is recommended. (Fourie, 2018). Targeting social protection based on personal characteristics (like age, disability, or income) essentially offers an autonomous form of assistance that doesn't call for agency or collective action, undermining the cooperative basis of social insurance efforts between workers, businesses, and governments, (Deveraux and Cuesta, 2021). A rights-based approach to social protection with two main goals can be used to close coverage gaps while considering the various requirements. One is to provide social support to all demographically vulnerable groups, without distinguishing between urban and rural people, including universal school food programs, social pensions, disability payments, and child benefits. To provide social insurance to all workers without distinguishing between salaried (formal) employees and unpaid (informal or self-employed) employees, and fund it from general resources rather than by taxing employees' wages, (Deveraux and Cuesta, 2021). Recognize the working poor's contribution to the informal economy. Their access to skills, livelihoods, and other types of support services, legal and social protection, working conditions

and economic stability, as well as a voice and representation, should all be improved, (Arias, 2019)

6.2. Overview of Chapters

The first chapter contains the abstract, the basic introduction to the topic, which was part of the initial proposal for this thesis. It also includes the contextualization and background of the research topic. It also includes the background of the research area, the research problem, research objectives, brief literature review on social protection and the informal sector in South Africa and Africa and the brief discussion of the research methodology. This chapter also includes the definition of terms, and the research study timeline that indicates research goals to be achieved within a specific period.

The second chapter is a review of the literature. This is the part whereby the literature on the topic is thoroughly reviewed and deliberated. A comprehensive definition of social protection, in the Sub-Saharan Africa and in South Africa. This chapter also includes a comprehensive discussion about the informal economy and informal street traders in Cape Town. The chapter also deliberates on social protection interventions for informal workers as well as conceptual functions of social protection. In addition, this chapter also contains the regulatory framework addressing informal economy in South Africa.

The theoretical foundation for this thesis is presented in the third chapter. This includes the theoretical framework of this study by analysing two theories, i.e., Social Capital and Sustainable Livelihood Theories. Therefore, it contextualizes the Social Capital theory in-depth, as well as the contextualization of Sustainable Livelihood. Furthermore, in this chapter I had to indicate a theory that would be applicable to my study and therefore SL coping, and adaptive strategies were discussed as well as the role of the state on sustaining poor livelihoods of the informal sector.

The research methodology approach used to conduct this research was covered in the fourth chapter of this thesis. To have a deeper knowledge and complete this at the highest level of comprehension, it looks closely at what the concept of research methodology is. It contextualizes Qualitative Secondary Research, Research Methods the differences between Qualitative and Quantitative and various ways in which research can be carried out, and

choosing which method is applicable to this study. It also investigates the many data sources that were used to put up the research. This part also includes the ethical considerations and finally the data analysis procedures.

Chapter five consists of the key discussions of this thesis . This chapter outlines the difficulties that this research study encompasses while also highlighting its primary points and advantages. This chapter outlines the difficulties of informal workers and street trade in the Cape Town context. This research study includes the concept of social protection interventions in South Africa and social protection coverage in Cape Town, while also highlighting challenges of the informal sector.

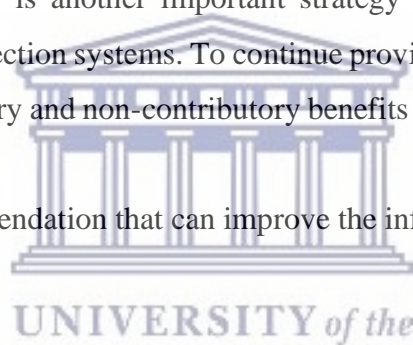
Chapter 6 is the final chapter, and it examines the conclusions and recommendations, presents the concluding justifications, and considers the possibility for further research.

6.3. Recommendations for Social Protection Interventions

Social protection programs for the informal sector should have components of both social assistance and social insurance due to the variety of work and income types in the informal economy. To do this. It is necessary to go beyond the present development focus on social assistance alone and investigate how to make social insurance and other contributing programs to be more inclusive. For employees who are not in a formal employment relationship how can one make sure that social insurance and social programmes are more closely incorporated (Barca and Alfery, 2021). "All South Africans have the right to social security, including, if they are unable to support themselves and their dependents, sufficient social assistance," according to the constitution.' (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, Section 27). The National Development Plan (NDP) recognizes that the "most major gap" in South Africa's social protection system is the exclusion of informal employees (defined as any worker without a contract) from official social protection, (Deveraux, 2017). The kind of social protection that addresses the risks faced by informal working people are necessary for matters such as unemployment, maternity and work injury, this level of coverage and adequacy of support is more common in work-related government contributory systems than in social assistance. (Barca and Alfery, 2021). Better social protection for employees increases labor productivity and competitiveness through improving access to health care, lowering absenteeism, increasing employee retention, and increasing motivation. It also allows for the merging of company

financial risks, as well as all the trickle/second-order effects of any social program. (Barca and Alfery, 2021). It is crucial to understand the heterogeneity of the informal sector when developing social security programs for solo workers. (Barca and Alfery, 2021), The contrast between self-employed workers and informal wage earners is crucial. Through the extension and implementation of current regulations, those in wage employment, such as domestic workers, may be more readily integrated into work-related programmes, (Barca and Alfery, 2021). Self-employed individuals, who comprise most employees in low-income nations, must make more significant adjustments since they do not have an employer. (Barca and Alfery, 2021). Social protection systems must be well equipped to handle crises, whether they are brought on by disasters, economic shocks, or climate change. To achieve this, ongoing expenditures must be made to improve the scope and effectiveness of the systems for universal social protection. However, some national social protection programs have significant coverage gaps. (Bassier, Ihsaan, et al, 2021). The development of social assistance programs that do not specifically exclude informal employees or that may flexibly extend to informal workers. When the need arise is another important strategy for the strategic inclusion of informal workers in social protection systems. To continue providing workers with benefits, is crucial to coordinate contributory and non-contributory benefits effectively. (Barca and Alfery, 2021).

Below are some of the recommendation that can improve the informal sector according to this study:



6.3.1. Recommendation 1: Preserving and expanding social health protection measures during the crisis

Most nations limit medical care based on financial means or unequal access to health insurance. Subsidizing health insurance and waiving fees are two ways to make sure that those who are most vulnerable are not denied access to necessary medical treatment. (Deveraux, 2021). Providing universal health coverage, including financial risk protection, access to high-quality essential healthcare services, and access to critical medicines and vaccinations to secure, reliable, high-quality, and affordable for everyone, (ibid; 2021).

Income loss during illness can significantly reduce an individual's resistance to health shocks. Firstly, a loss of income can make it harder for someone to get healthcare since it makes it harder for them to pay for medical bills. Secondly, a loss of income can make a person and

their household more vulnerable to future health problems by making it more difficult to maintain a nutritious diet, comfortable living conditions, and sufficient resources for household dependents. (Thorpe, Viney, Hensing, et al, 2020). This highlights how crucial it is to continue protecting people impacted after the crisis has passed, even if that means providing long-term disability benefits for the worst affected., (Razavi et al. 2020)

6.3.2. Recommendation 2: Improvement of infrastructural challenges in terms working conditions: -

Poor infrastructure services like transportation, storage facilities, water, electricity, a lack of working spaces, inadequately established physical markets, restrooms, and storage facilities are linked to infrastructure difficulties, (Selepe, 2019). For informal vendors, street or outdoor locations without a formal building structure are typical, e.g. such as tents, boxes, or mobile food trailers, (Sepadi and Nkosi, 2022). Local government should invest through local economic development by improving the working environment of street trade enterprise. This can be done by improving, e.g. ablution facilities, proper shelter for business, storage facilities as this would preserve their stock and safe from criminals.

6.3.3. Recommendation 3: Preventing job losses and offering individuals who have lost their jobs unemployment insurance:

Unemployment insurance systems have been widely adopted to deal with disastrous employment crisis impact. This has included measures to help businesses keep employees with the goal of reducing unemployment. These steps have included employment retention advantages like short-term job benefits or partial unemployment payments, (Razavi et al. 2020) To improve job creation, enable labour reallocation, and safeguard employees and their families from financial hardship, a variety of different policy measures can be collective. To establish public investment initiatives that will also give jobless people work experience and skill development, one straightforward strategy is to take advantage of the low opportunity cost of recruiting in the public sector, (Costa Dias, Monica, et al, 2020). Additionally, it is possible to support the reallocation of labour and provide families with insurance by providing salary subsidies, hiring subsidies, benefits, and job search aid for the jobless. However, it can be extremely challenging to execute those measures effectively. Since there might be not enough

data to make informed decisions and there might be too many factors to consider at once, (Costa Dias, Monica, et al, 2020).

6.3.4. Recommendation 4: Extending coverage to protect informal workers through informal schemes: -

There is a need to discover additional building elements since it is impossible to create a pension plan for the informal sector by depending solely on formal employee-employer agreements. (Guyen, Jain, & Joubert; 2021). First, expanding pension coverage to the uninsured demographic groups can be directly related to financial inclusion. Extending pension coverage to the informal sector may be possible because of efforts to enhance financial inclusion. (Guyen et al., 2021). Advanced technologies like digital payments and mobile money can be useful to achieve the expansion of pension coverage. Pension coverage initiatives can benefit from microfinance institutions' effective outreach capabilities. (Guyen, 2019). Secondly, national identification system can assist in the functioning of pension schemes. Improving pension coverage in the 6 informal sectors will also help with financial inclusion. Informal savings systems have an influence on saving for retirement. (Ibid, 2019) Wealthier nations in Africa with established social protection programs, like South Africa, were in a good position to expand their current programs, create fresh social assistance programs, and mobilize humanitarian aid by borrowing money from the government and utilizing its fiscal resources. South Africa's experience revealed that vertical expansions delivering additional funds to beneficiaries already registered for social security programs using existing payment methods were the simplest and most effective measures, (Deveraux, 2021).

6.3.5. Recommendation 5: Extending protection to migrants and the forcibly displaced:

An estimated 244 million individuals are now residing in a nation other than their native country. This comprises 21.3 million refugees fleeing wars and persecution, as well as those groups displaced by instability, natural disasters, or the consequences of climate change. (Sabates-Wheeler, 2019). Furthermore, an estimated 38 million internally displaced persons' have been forced to flee their homes. The scale of vulnerability for these groups is clear, simply because of their vast and growing numbers, as well as the high degrees of insecurity that these people frequently experience, such as a lack of family and community networks and the difficulty to access and/or settle in secure places. (Sabates-Wheeler, 2019). Forcibly displaced

people confront a variety of vulnerabilities, some of which are related to their motives for migrating and others to their legal position. Other vulnerabilities are not displacement-specific but related to the places and sectors in which people find themselves. Access to social protection provision is particularly important as a tool for addressing vulnerability for those individuals and populations who are made vulnerable by persecutory acts, armed conflict, and/or relocation., (Sabates-Wheeler, 2019).

6.3.6. Recommendation 6: Social Protection Coverage for the Urban Informal Sector

The distinctive vulnerabilities of the urban poor, who suffer greater living expenses and more uncertain livelihoods, must be reflected in urban-sensitive social protection. (Deveraux and Cuesta, 2021). Urban poverty is more complicated because of many factors such as low and fluctuating incomes which must be considered, as well as inadequate water supply and sanitation, poor housing quality and overcrowding, inadequate access to basic services like health care and childcare, high prices for necessities like food, incapability, and lack of voice within local political and bureaucratic structures and limited or no safety nets for those with inadequate incomes. (Satterthwaite and Mitlin, 2013:3). To properly represent the characteristics of urban poverty, social protection in urban contexts must be reconsidered through and reformed, not only expanded from rural villages into urban informal communities. Urban dwellers make up the majority of South Africa's informal workforce, (Deveraux and Cuesta, 2021).



6.3.7. Recommendation 7: Bridging the Social Protection Knowledge Gap

There is a need to undertake deliberate programmes to sensitize informal economy workers about social protection in general and their right to social protection, and the way in which social protection can meet their needs, whether in the agricultural or other sectors. This will allow the general citizenry to claim benefits where necessary and register for contributory schemes. Awareness raising opens spaces for people to raise their voices to ensure social protection meets their needs, (Miti; Perkiö; Metter and Atkins; 2021). Several ideas for narrowing this gap have been discussed, including the establishment of a National Social Security Fund (NSSF) and making contributions to the NSSF compulsory for both informal and regular workers. Establishing a voluntary social security system for self-employed workers

with government additional funds to encourage participation; and formalizing informal social safety mechanisms such as savings clubs and funeral societies, (Deveraux and Cuesta, 2019).

6.3.8 Recommendation 8: Adequate social protection for women in the informal sector

Women employees in the informal economy do not have enough social protection mechanisms; these exclusions leave these vulnerable women workers unable to defend themselves against risks such as unemployment and maternity, and therefore they remain poor. (Fourie, 2018). Maternity protection and access to quality childcare services are among the top obstacle's women working in the informal market must overcome. An approach that recognizes multiple factors also supports the importance of the legal and economic empowerment of these women. To ensure adequate labour and social protection and support their well-being, an integrated and holistic approach is required to ensure that all aspects of their lives are considered including for example also access to education and property rights, (Fourie, 2018).

6.3.9 Recommendation 9: Collective Bargaining Power for Informal Workers

Informal laborers hardly ever have the opportunity of engaging in negotiations. However, they join for the purpose of exercising collective voice and participating in various forms of collective negotiation, (Horn, 2015). Bargaining over labor concerns has required a framework with some rules (legal or conventional/customary) that provide a sense of procedure and relative predictability for worker groups that can access it, (Carré, Horn and Bonner, 2020). Informal workers and their associations, as we all know, would want to have it. Informal workers must first be organized into associations or other groups and develop alliances with organizations that represent related trades in order to interact with strong actors, but this is not the case in the majority of nations and circumstances. Cohesion is required for success in any agreement, as well as for monitoring the implementation of the negotiated agreement effectively, (Carré et al., 2020).

6.4 Future Research

This study assessed social protection interventions for informal traders in the city of Cape Town, in South Africa. Since the fundamental function of social protection is to ease economic poverty and to control vulnerability. Typical livelihood constraints that impact on the informal business trade were found to be based on all the assets of the Sustainable Livelihood framework and these include human assets, financial assets, social, natural, and physical assets. The risk and vulnerabilities of informal trade required more than a contingency plan from government and other agencies. The social assistance and social security requirement must enable their livelihoods to be sustainable when they suffer from shocks. Therefore, in terms of these livelihoods assets which were found to be challenging for the informal sector. For them to remain resilient future research should be conducted to explore these assets that can better address the needs for social protection in the informal sector. Future research should focus on finding solutions that can help alleviate livelihood challenges for the informal sector with inadequate social security and social insurance. Further research is certainly required to analyse the distinctiveness of the South African experience, (Seekings, 2019). Developing a long-term social protection floor by boosting security, assisting households and communities in maintaining their livelihoods in the face of shocks, and minimizing the possibility of such shocks occurring. This can be achieved by promoting levels of livelihood sufficient to ensure enhanced equal opportunity (i) allowing all households to obtain basic education for their children, as well as health and nutrition standards necessary for human development); and (ii) increasing the poorest households' consumption and livelihood. (iii) Stimulating growth by ensuring that all households can be provided for with basic human development, (i) ensuring a skilled, productive workforce; (ii) reinforcing social solidarity and thus contributing to levels of social cohesion required for long-term economic development; and (iii) providing an environment in which individuals and households can adapt and change livelihood strategies without fear of calamity should such strategies fail.

6.4.1 Other areas of research that could be explored in the future include

- Examine and analyse the various role players (public and private), and then decide what role they should play in developing an enabling framework to extend labor and social protection to informal workers.
- An analysis on the long-term effect of social protection for children and young adults and how they benefited from cash transfers to obtain an education
- An analysis of key factors to ensure social protection programmes are more ‘adaptive’ and able to respond to increasing risks posed by climate extremes conditions and disasters



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