

"Innovative practice of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) working with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town: An exploratory study"

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COMPULSORY DECLARATION

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works, of other people has been attributed and has been cited and referenced.

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ABSTRACT

The following study is an exploration of the innovative practice of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) that work with out-of-school, unemployed youth between the ages of 15 and 24 years in Cape Town. The current study meets three research objectives: describing the key characteristics of innovative practice; exploring the nature of NGO's engagement with out-of-school, unemployed youth (15-24 years) in Cape Town; and investigating the factors that promote or constrain innovative practice in these youth NGOs.

The first objective of the current study is met through a literature review. Key characteristics of innovative practice are reviewed and the views of NGOs as innovators, as well as the voices of the skeptics of this view, are presented. Two key organisational conditions of 'learning' and 'organic' organisations are presented as being optimum for innovative practice. The literature review also explores the issue of youth unemployment from a global to a South African context; policies and strategies that the South African government has put in place to promote skills development, training and employment creation; the promotion of small business development as a viable employment strategy; and the role of NGOs in youth development.

A survey among ten NGOs fulfils the second and third objectives of the current study. The survey's findings revealed that all the participating organisations considered their programmes to be innovative and to be providing both immediate and long-term benefits to their programme participants. It was one of the researcher's main findings that while these respondents claimed that their programmes were innovative and unique, some similarities could be found between them.

The main obstacles to innovative practice were found to be funding constraints and the lack of human resource capacity. Despite these challenges, most respondents felt that the NGO sector was more innovative in comparison with both the government of South Africa and the private sector. Based on the findings, recommendations are offered to government, NGOs working with unemployed youth and research bodies. Recommendations for the networking of youth NGOs (for improved service delivery) and a recommendation on further research into the area of out-of-school, unemployed youth (to facilitate appropriate interventions) were found to be fitting.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ABET:	Adult Basic Education and Training
AIDS:	Acquired Immune-Deficiency Syndrome
CASE:	Community Agency for Social Enquiry
CDE:	Centre for Development and Enterprise
CV:	Curriculum Vitae
DRC:	Democratic Republic of Congo
ECD:	Early Childhood Development
HSRC:	Human Sciences Research Council
HIV:	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ICT:	Information Communication Technology
IFS:	Institute for Fiscal Studies
ILO:	International Labour Organisation
LFS:	Labour Force Surveys
LRA:	Labour Relations Act
MLRA:	Marine Living Resources Act
NGO:	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPO:	Nonprofit Organisation
NRF:	National Research Foundation
NYC:	National Youth Commission
PMA:	Programme Manager A

- PPD:** People and Projects in Development
- SANCA:** South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence
- SMME:** Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises
- STATS SA:** Statistics South Africa
- UK:** United Kingdom
- UN:** United Nations
- UNDP:** United Nations Development Programme
- WYR:** World Youth Report

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This study firstly explores two key interconnected issues concerning youth, namely being out-of-school and unemployed, and, secondly, the nature of services offered by Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) to deal with these challenges. The study explores the different types of programmes and services made available to unemployed, out-of-school youth by NGOs and how through these services the NGOs endeavour to assist youth between the ages of 15- 24 years to participate more meaningfully in today's economy and to include the youth in various social activities.

This chapter will introduce the reader to the context of the study, the topic, the rationale for the study, the research questions, and the objectives. The key concepts used in the study are clarified and the ethical considerations will also be discussed. The chapter concludes with a layout of the entire report and some details of what is offered in the subsequent chapters.

1.2 Context of the study

The geographical context of the study is the city of Cape Town in the Western Cape Province of South Africa. The study took place in the year 2008, a year of socio-economic instability as well as various natural disasters in the Southern African region. Economically, a sharp rise in inflation was witnessed globally and in South Africa electricity costs, petrol tariffs, interest rates and food prices were continuously on the rise, placing great strain on consumers. Socio-political unrest characterised the country from early May 2008 when xenophobic-based attacks flared up, initially in two informal settlements in the Gauteng province of the country, and later spreading to other regions. Approximately 60 people died as a result of the attacks and an estimated 10,000 to 15,000 people were displaced. On 21 May the Mail and Guardian

online reported that with the death toll at 42, President Thabo Mbeki had finally agreed to involve the army to keep the peace in the affected communities. Disgruntled unemployed South Africans cited the competition for employment and poor service delivery as two of the reasons that they wanted the foreigners removed from their communities.

From a global perspective, youth unemployment has become a contentious issue. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2004) stated that youth unemployment had risen sharply, globally and that youth of 15 to 24 years represented nearly half of the unemployed globally. The youth unemployment problem was exacerbated by the fact that those youth who are employed also constitute 130 million of the world's 550 million working poor. This means that within the context of youth employment, one should also consider the type of work, the working conditions, the amount of work, the working hours and the appropriateness of the compensation.

Over time, societies' formal labour markets have failed to offer employment and absorb all graduates and school leavers (Lekena, 2006). In times of high unemployment, it has become increasingly apparent in countries such as Nigeria and Zimbabwe (which have high education levels) that even a full education alone is an insufficient guarantee of employment. New ways of thinking are required to solve the problem of unemployment. While entrepreneurship and self-employment are plausible responses to the unemployment problem, alone they are not a panacea and should be a complementary strategy to employment creation in the formal economy alongside skills development.

1.3 Motivation/rationale for the study

Several reasons led to the selection of this area of study. Firstly, the area of "youth" is of personal interest. Studying young people is very rewarding and despite the challenges, it is worthwhile.

Another compelling reason to do a study on youth and/or youth's problems was that the National Census of 2001 conducted by Statistics South Africa (STATS SA) (2001) revealed that 24% of those in the working age population of 15-64 years were unemployed, of whom

approximately 74% were in the 15- 24 year category. This signifies a high unemployment rate among youth of 15-24 years.

Thirdly, both a lack of education and employment have led to a continuous cycle of social and economic problems for the youth. This is particularly the case in low-income households where children drop out of school and then fail to secure employment, as they do not have any qualifications or experience. This cycle needs to be broken. The orthodox approaches (attending school, obtaining a qualification and then securing employment) have seemingly also failed to deal with the problem effectively over time (Lekena, 2006). Innovation and revision of existing practices have therefore become increasingly necessary.

While the research carried out was an academic requirement (which partially fulfils the requirements for the Master's degree in Social Science (social development)), it was hoped that the findings would stimulate the reader and that the recommendations offered for the consideration of youth agencies and public or private organisations that work with youth would be found useful.

1.4 Research problem

The research problem clarifies what the researcher intends to study. It explains whether the research explores new ideas or describes existing phenomena and the practical significance of the research (Babbie and Mouton, 2006).

The current research is both exploratory and descriptive. The **exploration** of innovative practice of NGOs working with out-of-school, unemployed youth of 15 to 24 years in Cape Town is an under-researched area and it is therefore anticipated that the current research will contribute findings that can be used for youth development work. A **description** of the youth programmes included in the current study will give recognition to the work being done by these NGOs with out-of-school, unemployed youth. NGOs worldwide are doing remarkable work, extending their services through innovative programmes and projects to youth and other vulnerable groups. Attention is given to the latter in the literature review.

1.5 Research questions

- 1.5.1 What are the key characteristics of 'innovative practice'?
- 1.5.2 What is the nature of NGOs' engagement with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town, who are not in trouble with the law, with regard to efforts to link them to the economy of the country?
- 1.5.3 What factors promote or constrain innovative practice of these NGOs that work with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town?

1.6 Research objectives

- 1.6.1 To describe the key characteristics of 'innovative practice' which will be gathered through a review of literature on innovative practice;
- 1.6.2 To explore the nature of NGOs' engagement with out-of-school, unemployed youth, who are not in trouble with the law, with regard to efforts to link them to the economy of the country. This will be approached through a literature review as well as a survey among NGOs in Cape Town;
- 1.6.3 To investigate what factors promote or constrain innovative practice of the NGOs that work with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town through the survey mentioned above.

1.7 Clarification of key concepts

Mouton (1996:65) notes that "conceptualisation involves at least two activities, namely the conceptual clarification or analysis of the key concepts in the statement, and relating the problem to a broader conceptual framework or context". The problem is located in a broader framework, in the following chapter. The main concepts/terminology that will be referred to continuously in the study are now clarified:

Innovative practice: A single succinct definition was difficult to establish. Dearing, Meyer and Kazmeirczak (1994) define an innovation as: “an idea, often with an associated technology or practice, that (a) is often a recombination of old ideas, (b) is perceived as new by the stakeholders involved, (c) has a high degree of conceptual uncertainty or represents a scheme that challenges the present order, and (d) often requires the adopting organisation to change its operations in significant ways”. A shorter definition which is in agreement with this one is offered by Patel (2005) who defines innovation as “the conception, design, adoption, implementation and evaluation of new ideas and new priorities” (Patel 2005:234).

The researcher’s own understanding of innovative practice is related to the above definitions and can be described as the ability (of an individual or organisation) to, in the first place, reflect on current and past practices/approaches to dealing with various situations, problems or needs. This reflection should lead to the necessary changes for improvement being identified and then implemented. The term also describes inventions, programs or processes that are not mainstream in approach and embrace doing things differently.

Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO): Davids, Theron and Maphunye (2005:67) define NGOs as “private, self-governing, non-profit organisations promoting people-centred development. They are responsible to their donors and to the communities they work for. Their primary objective is to render assistance to individuals or developing communities in order to promote sustainable development at grassroots”.

The Department of Social Development (2005:2) defines an NPO as “a trust, company or other association of persons”- (a) established for a public purpose, and (b) the income and property of which are not distributable to its members or office-bearers except as reasonable compensation for services rendered”.

Both definitions offered are relevant to the researcher’s understanding and use of the term ‘NGO’, as they all highlight the independence of the organisations (from government) and their developmental role.

Out-of-school: This term refers to youth not currently enrolled in a formal education system (including tertiary institutions such as colleges and universities) at the time of the research. The term was not restricted to ‘drop-outs’. It also referred to youth who had successfully completed the mandatory school attendance (for youth between seven to fifteen years of age) but who were not currently in a formal educational system.

Unemployed: According to Barker (2007:174), an unemployed person is one “who is without work, is currently available for work, and is seeking work or wanting to work”. This is a broad definition of unemployment. STATS SA (2001) uses an official measure of unemployment that limits the number of unemployed people to those who meet the following specific criteria: the unemployed are those people within the economically active population who: did not work during the seven days prior to the interview (Labour Force Surveys (LFS) which are undertaken in February and October each year), want to work and are available to start work within a week of the interview, and have taken active steps to look for work or to start some form of self-employment in the four weeks prior to the interview.

While Barker’s (2007) definition does not limit the unemployed to any specific age both definitions offered above are similar as they highlight one’s availability and willingness to work. The researcher used both definitions in the study but focused on the economically active population of 15- 24 years of age specifically.

Youth: Different South African policies use different definitions of youth, for example, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996) and the Child Care Act (No. 74 of 1983) define children as those between 0 and 18 years of age, while the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) defines youth as young people between the ages of 16 and 30 years.

The current research focused on youth 15-24 years of age; male and female. The minimum age of 15 years was selected in order to eliminate issues of truancy for out-of-school youth, since as mentioned, 15 years is the age at which it is no longer compulsory for learners to attend school in South Africa. Because youth are not a homogeneous group, a smaller age range was also desirable to limit the vast psychosocial differences that would result from a broader range, impacting negatively on the reliability of the study.

The reason why the study excluded youth who were in conflict with the law was that the study did not want to deviate from its main focus by having to bring in issues of criminal justice, probation, reintegration, diversion or rehabilitation.

Youth development: according to the National Youth Commission (NYC) (1997a) "Youth development" is “a process whereby young women and men are able to improve their skills, talents, and abilities, as well as to extend their intellectual, physical and emotional capacities;

it includes the opportunity for young men and women to express themselves and to live full lives in all social, cultural, economic and spiritual spheres. Youth development also refers to engaging young women and men in development activities as participants in the decision-making processes and as beneficiaries” (NYC, 1997a). The researcher utilises this particular definition because it is broad and does not limit development to economic improvement but also considers the emotional well-being of the youth.

1.8 Ethical considerations

There were four main ethical considerations, namely obtaining informed consent from respondents to participate in the study, the issues of confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents and their organisations, and the publication and dissemination of the findings.

Informed consent

According to Strydom (1998:25):

“...obtaining informed consent implies that all possible or adequate information on the goal of the investigation, the procedures which will be followed during the investigation, the possible advantages, disadvantages and dangers to which respondents may be exposed, and the credibility of the researcher be rendered to potential subjects or their legal representatives”.

The researcher ensured informed consent by attaching a page on ‘information about the research’ to the data collection tool (the questionnaires). The information page explained the risks, costs and benefits of participating in the research. The information page clearly explained that there would be no harm to respondents; neither was there any risk involved in participating in the study (see Appendices A and B). Only after reading this information was respondents’ participation sought by asking them to sign on the information page as proof of their agreement.

Confidentiality and anonymity

Confidentiality is another consideration the researcher took into account so that respondents felt that they could respond openly and honestly. Respondents' full consent was sought and they were assured that the information they provided would be treated as confidential. Throughout the report, the respondents' and organisations' identities are withheld as an ethical consideration; respondents and their NGOs remain anonymous through the use of pseudonyms. The alphabetical symbols A to J have been used to replace the names, allocated in the order that the questionnaire responses were gathered. The first organisation to complete the questionnaires therefore becomes Organisation A and the last becomes Organisation J. The identity of the Director of Organisation A thus becomes Director A and in similar fashion the programme manager of Organisation A becomes programme manager A, or 'PMA'.

Respondents' access to the findings

An electronic copy of the final report will be made available to all the participating organisations. The respondents were also notified that a hard copy of the dissertation would also be made available in the University of Cape Town library.

1.9 Layout of the report

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In any study, it is essential to review the relevant literature in order to acknowledge previous research work done and highlight the relevance of the current study. A review of literature can indicate the relevance of a fresh study by exposing missing links or gaps in the existing body of knowledge. The literature review also assists in constructing a theoretical and conceptual framework for the analysis of the data collected. De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delpont (2005:64) state that it is necessary to carry out a literature review as it contributes “towards a clearer understanding of the nature and meaning of the problem that has been identified”. What was identified as relevant to the focus of this study are the following issues:

- Youth: from a global, South African and Western Cape perspective; and the psychosocial development of youth 15-24 years.
- The education and employment nexus.
- Unemployment: definitions and measures; effects of; and youth unemployment in South Africa.
- Social exclusion.
- National Policy/strategies pertaining to youth in South Africa with regard to employment and skills development.
- Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and their role in youth development in South Africa; the nature of services offered by NGOs to unemployed youth in South Africa.
- Innovative practice in the human services field: the general characteristics of innovative practice; and the conditions that promote and constrain innovative practice.

The first discussion is on the youth, who form a major component of the current study. The approach begins from a more global perspective and then focuses on the South African context.

2.2 Youth

2.2.1 Youth: a global perspective

According to the United Nations (UN) (2005), there are signs that the present generation of young people faces even more complex challenges than the previous generation. The UN (2005) identifies South Asia, followed by sub-Saharan Africa, as having the largest number of young people living in poverty and it is within these regions that there is the largest concentration of undernourished young people. The UN (2005) also notes that although young people are increasingly being identified as a target group in many national poverty reduction strategies, more should be done to mainstream youth into these strategies. This suggests that more could be done with regards to the participation of the youth in both the planning and the implementation of these policies. Research on poverty among youth, focusing on the specific characteristics of youth poverty is also another step required to better comprehend youth poverty and it must be remembered that 'age disaggregation' is appropriate in all national data. This would mean closer analysis of the different causes of poverty in the different regions and not looking at youth poverty as homogeneous across the globe. Such a call is useful as different regions in the world have different socio-economic problems caused by different factors. Unemployment may be due to a lack of or poor education in one region and in another it may be caused by high migration, a large labour force and scarce jobs. The causes and effects of unemployment will be discussed in greater detail under point 2.4.3.

2.2.2 Youth in South Africa

The most comprehensive study of South African youth to date was conducted by the Community Agency for Social Enquiry (CASE, 2000). The survey reports on youth demographics, employment, gender, housing and other statistics.

Based on the 1996 National Census, CASE (2000) found that there was a total of 4,180,716 youth of 15-19 years in South Africa. In the 20-24 years category there were 3,982,352 youth. The total of these categories is 8,163,065 youth out of a total population of 40,583,574 people in South Africa.

Umsobomvu Youth Fund and the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (2004) are other sources of vital information on the youth of South Africa. Their 2003 status of the youth report asserts that in South Africa and other parts of the world, youth are spending more time in education systems (compared with previous generations) which lengthens the period of being a youth. High levels of unemployment among the youth, and a long waiting period between completing education and finding employment have contributed to further delays in the transition to adulthood, especially among young people who drop out of school at a young age. The more recent UN World Youth Report (WYR) of 2007 supports these views, stating that most youth in Africa today have spent more years in schooling than their parents and yet the employment prospects are far bleaker than those of previous generations.

The statistics gathered by CASE (2000) indicated that youth of 15-34 years made up 36% of the total population and comprising the largest age category of the South African population. It was also found that there were more youth concentrated in the urban areas, making up 39% of inhabitants as compared with the non-urban areas where 34% of the inhabitants were youth. A plausible reason for this is that youth migrate from rural areas to urban areas in search of employment.

2.2.3 Youth in the Western Cape

On 17 August 2004, the Office of the Premier of the Western Cape Provincial Government had the following statistics to offer, regarding the general status of the youth in the Western Cape:

It was established that approximately 65% of the Western Cape population of 4 504 609 was under the age of 35 years. This meant that the Western Cape had approximately 2 928 000 people between 0-35 years of age. Concerning education and learning, only 52% of the youth, who started Grade 1, finished Grade 12; only 26.6% of those who passed their matriculation examinations in 2003 obtained university exemptions and the overwhelming majority of them were white and Indian (Office of the Premier of the Western Cape, 2004). From these statistics it is apparent that the number of learners decreases significantly as the levels of education increase. This results in a province with a large population of poorly educated people.

2.2.4 Psychosocial development: 15-24 years

Youth in the ages of 15-24 years are not a homogeneous group. There will obviously be some notable differences between the development of females and males in this category. In addition, within the same gender categories, the development and maturity of the young person will be shaped by other factors such as parental and community influences.

Erikson (1963) proposed eight stages of psychosocial development throughout the life-span. The stages that are relevant to the youth in the current study (15-24 years) cut across two of these stages. Erikson categorises 12-18 years as 'early adolescence' and 18-24 years as 'later adolescence'. In early adolescence, Erikson (1963) characterises the development tasks as mainly physical maturation, emotional development and membership of a peer group. According to Erikson (1963), later adolescence is characterised by self-sufficiency or independence from parents, sexual identity, internalised principles and vocational choice.

Other than physical maturation and puberty, youth are undergoing other types of internal development. The psychosocial issue that is dealt with in the first stage of early adolescence is 'identity versus role confusion' and in the latter stage of adolescence 'intimacy versus isolation' issues. In the identity versus role confusion phase, the adolescents are anxious about how they appear to others and there is conflict if the adolescent is unable to settle on a school or occupational identity, which is unsettling. In the latter stage, Erikson states that if intimacy is not achieved at this time, the individual feels isolated. Adolescents have a fear of sharing themselves with another and at the same time, a fear of not achieving intimacy.

The above expectations in human development can be criticised as the youth Erikson (1963) observed and wrote about were of a different region, generation and culture and hence the psychosocial stages may be somewhat outdated considering the problems today's youth face. It is the researcher's opinion that today's youth cannot be expected to become autonomous and independent of their parents even at age 18 in a world characterised by high school dropout figures and the contemporary unemployment scourge. The researcher therefore sought to investigate the nature of the psychosocial issues faced by the youth in the current study.

2.3 Education and employment

Education is vital to human development and serves a functional purpose in the socialisation of individuals. The researcher finds it appropriate to discuss a number of issues related to education as it plays a vital role in the preparation of the individual for the workplace.

The education-employment nexus

According to statistics gathered by CASE (2000), only 1% of the youth sample of 16-35 years in 1999 in South Africa did not have any formal education and yet unemployment rates were still at an alarming 70% in this category of youth. These statistics strengthen the case that education does not guarantee employment; unemployment is high and is especially high among the youth, regardless of educational attainment. The previous statements would seem to suggest that education is not a significant factor to securing employment, however Borat (2006) states that youth in the 15 to 24 years age group with incomplete secondary school education have a 75% chance of being unemployed. This figure drops to 66% if the youth hold a Matriculation certificate. Youth who have a tertiary qualification but not a degree have a 50% chance, while those with a degree have a 17% chance of not having a job (Bhorat, 2006). This shows that the chances of unemployment are not altogether eliminated but are significantly reduced with higher educational qualifications.

2.4 Unemployment

On the reverse side of employment is the ugly face of unemployment. Unemployment is a complex issue with immense socio-economic consequences for individuals and entire communities and societies.

2.4.1 Measures and definitions of unemployment

As indicated in section 1.7 of this dissertation, STATS SA (2001) uses an "official" measure of unemployment that limits the number of unemployed people to those who meet certain criteria. According to Stats SA, the unemployed are: "those people within the economically active population who: did not work during the seven days prior to the interview; want to

work and are available to start work within a week of the interview; and have taken active steps to look for work or to start some form of self-employment in the four weeks prior to the interview” (www.statssa.gov.za).

Using this measure, there were 4,7 million unemployed people in South Africa in February 2002. When the number of people with jobs (11,4 million) was added to this figure, the total for the economically active population amounted to 16,1 million. The official unemployment rate was therefore 29, 4% in 2002.

Wilson (1999) states that unemployment is commonly measured as the percentage of the economically active population who are not employed. The economically active population is defined as all people in the country between the ages of 15 and 65 years who are working or who want to work. Full time students are excluded and people who are too sick to work. Unpaid family workers and parents or partners who work without pay in the home are also not regarded as part of the economically active population. This exclusion is based on sociologically defined notions of what ‘work’ is/is not. A broader definition would include discouraged workers who desire employment but have given up looking for work (Wilson, 1999). An inclusion of those discouraged from looking for work is more appropriate as unemployed people are not constantly actively searching for employment. Limiting the unemployed to those who have made some effort to look for work in the past seven days does not take into account the real feelings of despair and hopelessness that people go through when their rigorous search for employment is unsuccessful (Wilson, 1999).

If the problem of unemployment is to ever to be reduced in South Africa and other developing nations that face this problem, new approaches to the education-employment dichotomy are needed amongst several other reforms. One’s education and chances of employment are also affected by factors such as gender, race, geographical location and age. In these dynamics, the youth come out as the most adversely affected by unemployment. The worst affected however are young women in rural areas.

2.4.2 Theories and explanations of unemployment

The Institute for Fiscal Studies (IFS) (2005) provides the bulk of the following discussion on theories, explanations and effects of unemployment. There are several theories that seek to explain unemployment such as the Insider-outsider theory, Search theory, Contract theory, and Bargaining theory. Due to the limited scope of this study, the discussion does not delve

into explanations of all of these theories but briefly introduces two main views of unemployment. These are the distinct and opposing views of the Classical and Keynesian theories.

2.4.2.1 (Neo-) Classical theories

Classical theories revolve mainly around the function of markets in the economy. The claim is that if markets worked freely and nothing prevented their rapid clearing then the economy would prosper. It is the responsibility of government to deal with any imperfections that could prevent this process. According to Bannock, Baxter, and Davis (2003:55), unemployment from the classical perspective is “a situation in which the number of people able and willing to work at prevailing wages exceeds the number of jobs available... the real wage (the price of labour) is higher than that at which the market clears”.

2.4.2.2 Keynesian theories

Keynesian economists argue that unemployment is a result of several factors classified as structural, seasonal, cyclical, frictional and demand-deficiency. According to Bannock et al. (2003:214), Keynesian unemployment is “a situation whereby the number of people able to work at prevailing wages exceeds the number of jobs available and, at the same time, firms are unable to sell all the goods they would like”.

The researcher felt more inclined to use the Keynesian theories of unemployment in the current study, as they do not limit the causes of unemployment to a single factor; the causes of unemployment in South Africa are indeed multidimensional.

2.4.2.3 Types of unemployment

The IFS (2005) explains types of unemployment, in summary, as follows:

Demand-deficient unemployment occurs when there is not enough demand to employ all those who want to work. It is also often known as cyclical unemployment because it will vary with the trade cycle. When the economy is booming, there will be a high demand for employment and so firms will be employing large numbers of workers.

Seasonal unemployment is unemployment that is not constant and mainly tends to occur in certain industries such as the hotel and catering, tourism and agricultural/fruit picking industries.

Search unemployment is unemployment that occurs in between changing jobs or from the time one leaves school and is looking for employment. It is called 'search' unemployment because it is that period when one is unemployed and searching for work. Graduates/ school leavers are most likely to experience this type of unemployment.

Structural unemployment occurs when the structure of industry changes. As an economy develops over time, the type of industries may change as well. This may be because people's preferences have changed or it may be because technology has moved on and the product or service is no longer in demand. In the United Kingdom (UK) many industries that were once major employers have now all but disappeared. Shipbuilding and mining are prime examples of this sort of trend.

Cape Town youth are most likely to be affected by the first three types of unemployment (demand-deficient, seasonal and frictional or search unemployment). In the first instance there are not enough jobs to absorb new entrants into the labour market. Seasonal unemployment is most likely to affect youth because Cape Town is both a tourist destination and an agricultural region particularly growing grapes and apples. During seasons when these fruits do not need a lot of attention, seasonal unemployment will result. Globalisation has also heightened social mobility and hence the competition for employment. As a result, Cape Town youth may have to compete for available jobs with people from other parts of the country, region and the world. In addition to globalisation a skills mismatch worsens the situation in that the youth do not possess the skills required for any highly-skilled jobs that may exist.

2.4.3 Effects of unemployment

The IFS (2005) takes the position that while the main cost of unemployment is a personal one (to those who are unemployed), collectively and ultimately, an entire economy suffers. Individuals may become dispirited by unemployment; they may lose their self-esteem and confidence which may affect their motivation to find work. The longer they are unemployed, the more they may lose their skills and this is hazardous for the economy in the long run as new people may need training, at a cost.

Wilson (1999) looks at unemployment from three perspectives: the personal, the social and from an efficiency perspective. In all three, unemployment is seen as negative: from an efficiency perspective, unemployment results in a lower national output than is potentially

possible. From a personal perspective, unemployment leaves people vulnerable and unable to support themselves and their families. From the social perspective, unemployment creates divisions in society between those with and those without jobs.

Both the IFS (2005) and Wilson (1999) capture the effects of unemployment well. Both authors agree that unemployment has negative effects on the larger society. Wilson's (1999) perspective goes further to describe the effects on the individual, which are extensive. These effects include poverty, crime, poor health and poor housing. When people are unemployed they fail to provide for themselves and have to rely on others for financial support. This dependence can lead to feelings of inadequacy as a person and low self-esteem. One such negative psychosocial effect of unemployment is social exclusion. The causes and effects of unemployment discussed above are used as a theoretical framework for analysis in Chapter 4.

2.4.3.1 Social exclusion

Being out of school and unemployed is not only a socio-economic problem but has psychosocial manifestations as well. Feelings of exclusion are likely to result when youth are out of school and unemployed. This is because they do not belong to either of the main social settings (namely the school or the workplace) in which humans can interact - marginalisation and exclusion are the result.

Abrams, Hogg and Marques (2005) summarise the contexts of exclusion/inclusion as: transnational; societal; institutional; intergroup; interpersonal; and intrapersonal. This means that exclusion can take place at a macro level such as developed nations of the north excluding less developed nations of the south, or exclusion can take place in the small confines of a class of just a handful of students. According to Byrne (1999:1), 'exclusion' is a dynamic term; it "is something that is done by some people to other people".

Abrams et al. (2005:15) map out some of the psychological effects of exclusion, the motives invoked by exclusion, likely responses to exclusion and examples of potential interventions in social exclusion. Some of the psychological effects include: contraction of self; lowered self-esteem; anger; frustration; and emotional denial.

As mentioned previously, if youth in the age group 15-24 years are unemployed and out-of school, they do not belong to either of the 'usual' groups or social environments to which society has considered it 'normal' or desirable to belong at those ages. Abrams et al.

(2005:28) contend that “People go to extraordinary lengths to affiliate with others, be liked by others and belong to groups”. Failure to satisfy this need results in feelings of exclusion and as mentioned previously, these feelings may manifest themselves in mixed negative reactions.

The effects of unemployment have been discussed and now the next step is to examine youth unemployment in the South African context.

2.5 Youth unemployment in South Africa

According to the Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE), in 2005 four million young people between the ages of 15 and 24 were part of the South African labour force and available for a job. Of those, 65 per cent (2, 6 million) were unemployed. Research by the CDE (2005) confirms that youth unemployment in South Africa is extensive, dangerously entrenched and among the highest in the world. Maas and Herrington (2007) support these high youth unemployment statistics, stating that two-thirds of the population between 18 and 35 years of age are unemployed. Further, Maas and Herrington (2007) state that unemployment is primarily a problem relating to youth.

Several factors affect youth unemployment in South Africa. These factors include gender, race, age and location. Wilson (1999) states that in 1999 unemployment was highest in the Eastern Cape and the Northern Province which are both predominantly rural areas. Levels of education impact on the levels of unemployment.

2.6 Policies and strategies to curb youth unemployment

Because unemployment is a problem of huge proportions, governments around the world have to formulate policies and strategies to eliminate this problem or at least lessen its effects on individuals and society.

Education, training, skills development and employment concerns are addressed in strategies and policies such as the Employment Equity Act (No. 55 of 1998), the Adult Basic Education and Training Act (ABET) (No. 52 of 2000), the National Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998), the National Youth Policy 2000 (1997) and the National Youth Development Policy Framework (2002-2007). In the Western Cape, iKapa Elihlumayo (Growing the Cape), the Growth and Development Strategy (2006) of the Western Cape Province also incorporates job creation strategies and accommodates an array of youth issues. Each of these policies and strategies has merits and shortcomings. The National Youth Policy 2000 (1997) and the National Youth Service Strategy (2003) are discussed briefly below. These two have been selected for discussion as the researcher feels they are relevant and the best documented.

2.6.1 The National Youth Policy 2000 (1997)

The NYC (1997b) states that the National Youth Policy identifies eight priority target groups which are: young women; unemployed young men and women; out-of-school young women and men; young men and women at risk; rural young men and women; young men and women with a disability; young people living and working on the street; and young men and women with HIV/AIDS (NYC, 1997b). With regard to unemployment, the approach of the National Youth Policy (1997) focuses on the establishment and preparation of employment programmes for unemployed young people which cover “soft” (life skills) and “hard” (vocational) skills. The policy states that through the Department of Labour (in close consultation and cooperation with employers), there will be structured learnerships and apprenticeships (or traineeship opportunities) of a vocational orientation for unemployed young men and women.

The National Youth Policy 2000 (1997) also envisages youth enterprise as a major source of employment and proposes that self-employment and small business ownership should not be chosen as a last resort but pursued as a favourable career choice. The policy emphasises that

the barriers young people face to enter into small business (such as lack of experience and a perceived lack of reliability of the small business as an economically viable option by youth) should be addressed through the provision of information, training and practical advice. In addition, the policy calls for support to be provided for those youth that have already shown the initiative and who own/manage small businesses in order for them to become more competitive.

The researcher feels that this policy recognises the various marginalised youth groups and sets out strategies to include them in national development by trying to improve the youth's employment prospects. Further, this policy is comprehensive and addresses the unemployment problem offering practical solutions through engaging varied institutions and agencies for youth development. The policy is also inclusive as it prioritises vulnerable groups of youth and aims to accommodate them in national development.

2.6.2 The National Youth Service (2003)

This is a strategy of national government that was put in place to promote the service learning of young people. The initiative was designed in the context of a very high unemployment rate among young people in South Africa, with the aim of providing an opportunity for skills development and consequently a greater chance of accessing the labour market. According to Dr E. Pahad, Minister of the Presidency at the time (2006), the strategy envisions engendering a culture of nation building through service and volunteerism. The primary target groups are students in higher and further education and training (who will render their skills and training through compulsory community service as part of their formal education); unemployed youth (who will access opportunities for technical training, life skills and civic value development by providing a specific and tangible service to the community); and youth in conflict with the law (as part of the restorative justice process). The strategy's activities are not geared towards financial compensation.

The researcher's criticisms of the strategy are that because of its voluntary nature (lack of financial compensation), it may fail to attract youth who are unemployed, have skills and are educated who are only searching for employment for financial independence. The 'nation-building' culture may also be construed as political and therefore fail to attract youth who are not affiliated with the current dominant political party.

2.6.3 Small business development as an employment strategy

A major policy thrust in South Africa with regard to youth unemployment - and unemployment in general - has been the promotion of the generation of small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) for self-employment. While this approach has some advantages and has improved the socio-economic conditions for whole societies in countries in South-East Asia, it should not be pursued as an 'all-purpose' solution for the unemployment problems in South Africa. South Africa's conditions and culture are different from those of other developing countries that have gone the entrepreneurship route and it is the researcher's view that the crime rates in South Africa, for example, may be a limiting factor to entrepreneurial activity.

The advantages and constraints of the promotion of the generation of small, medium and micro enterprises for self-employment are outlined by the NYC (2000) and Ntsika Enterprise Promotion Agency (2000) below.

2.6.3.1 Advantages of the promotion of small business development:

- "It helps young men and women develop new skills and experiences that can be applied to many other changes in life;
- It creates employment - not only for the young person who owns the enterprise but also for those the business may employ;
- It provides innovation and development - it encourages young people to find new solutions, ideas and ways of doing things;
- It helps promote social change and cultural identity;
- It creates a sense of community – one where young people are valued and better connected to society; and
- It gives young people a sense of meaning and belonging - it can shape a person's identity and encourage others to treat them as an adult" (NYC and Ntsika Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2000:29).

2.6.3.2 Criticisms of the promotion of small business development:

These two agencies are also critical of the promotion of youth enterprise and state the following as the main criticisms:

- “It is only concerned with “keeping young people busy”;
- It sets young women and men up for failure by not providing sufficient support;
- It does not have some of the training or advisory mechanisms in place to assist young people overcome the gaps in their skills and experiences;
- It encourages young people to take high risks instead of looking at alternative ways of starting a business with a more manageable risk;
- It is presented as a solution to all the problems of the economy (e.g. “small business will save the economy”); and
- It is presented as a solution to all problems of young people (e.g. young people must address their problems themselves by starting their own businesses)” (NYC and Ntsika Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2000:29).

The researcher agrees that the promotion of enterprise creation among the youth can make a considerable impact on the unemployment problem, as those who successfully start up their own businesses can possibly also employ other people. The researcher is however more inclined to agree with the criticisms of the promotion of youth enterprise in the South African context as entrepreneurship is thwarted by many barriers. Access to funding and the regulatory environments in developing countries are major obstacles to small business development. Friedman (2005) states that it can take as little as two days to start a business in Australia but it could take as long as 203 days in Haiti and 215 days in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). Friedman (2005) states that a favourable regulatory environment should be in place for people to be able to start up businesses. CASE (2000) found the lack of start-up funding (for youth 16-24 years who were interested in starting a business) was the most important obstacle to developing small businesses among the youth in South Africa.

The above policies and strategies are the efforts of national government to solve youth unemployment problems. It is however also important to consider the contribution of other role-players such as NGOs and the private sector which also operate in this policy environment. The next section of the review is concerned with the contribution of NGOs to

the development of youth and their response to the plight of youth who are out-of-school and unemployed.

2.7 Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and youth development

Davids, Theron and Maphunye (2005) give the general characteristics of NGOs as organisations that are institutionally independent of government; the state does not initiate their establishment (they are privately set up); and they are usually under the supervision of an independent board of directors. Davids et al. (2005) add that NGOs do not have a profit motive which is why they are sometimes referred to as nonprofit organisations. The source of NGOs' funding is usually grants from donors although the government can also provide some funding. Swanepoel and De Beer (2006) state that NGOs are usually formed to tackle specific problems or several development-related problems such as health, education, and housing.

2.7.1 The role of NGOs in development in South Africa

NGOs play a crucial role in development processes in South Africa and offer a wide range of services, particularly social services addressing a broad spectrum of needs. The role played by NGOs in South Africa has come to be seen as "mid-way" between market and state provision. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2003) also states that NGOs fill in the gaps that the public sector fails to cover and are better at articulating community concerns. Youth development requires special attention and recognition of the plight of out-of school, unemployed youth who remain marginalised without intervention.

Swilling and Russell's (2002) research on the size and scope of the NGO sector in South Africa revealed that in South Africa, out of the 98 920 NGOs that were found to be operating in 1999, altogether 13 519 rendered social services. Of the latter number, 2 291 were concerned with youth services and youth welfare.

2.7.2 NGOs and youth development programmes

NGOs operating in the field of youth development offer services in areas such as: advocacy, entrepreneurship, family services, literacy, poverty relief, rehabilitation and sanitation to name but a few. Youth development programmes typically include: attempting to equip the youth with leadership skills; providing counselling for troubled youth; and training and developing the youth in life skills. Common life-skills activities would aim to promote development in areas such as: assertiveness and positive self-regard; stress and anger management; time management; communication skills; goal setting and future planning; job-seeking skills; and interview skills.

One way of investigating the nature of NGOs' engagement with out-of-school, unemployed youth is to explore the programmes they offer/ make available to their participants. This is the second research objective of the current study. Patel (2005:238) refers to a 'logical model' of programme development "which provides a useful framework for conceptualising and developing rigorous social development programmes". Patel (2005) refers to the stages set out by Alter and Egan (1997); Lewis, Lewis, Packard, and Souflee (2001) who state that the components of the logical model involve eight steps which are:

1. Defining the problem/need and identifying what needs to be changed as the first step;
2. Formulating goals as the second and formulating sub-goals (objectives) that will lead to the attainment of the main goals;
3. Formulating objectives which are the 'mini-goals' to attain the broader goals (set out in step two);
4. The third step involves the actual activities that are executed to attain the goals;
5. Identifying the necessary inputs (concrete and tangible resources) is the fifth step;
6. The next step is deciding the methods to apply; the service delivery intervention strategies;
7. The seventh step involves monitoring and observing the results or the short-term impact(s); and

8. The eighth and final step is measuring the outcomes which are concerned with the long term impact(s) of using the above intervention methods.

The researcher identifies two additional variables that are of importance in investigating the nature of NGO youth programmes: the duration of the programme and the different post-exit programme opportunities on completion of the programmes. The researcher included these variables in the data collection instrument she used for the empirical phase of this study.

The final section of this chapter discusses innovative practice which significantly influences programme conception, implementation and the changes that are/can be made to programmes.

2.8 Innovative practice

More and more, individuals, communities and whole nations need to innovate not as an option for prosperity but in order to survive. The competition for finite resources, jobs and materials requires new approaches to modes and patterns of socio-economic exchange. Innovation does not mean the total overhaul of existing conditions, as sometimes all that is required is a little change. Where innovation is applied, a little can go a long way.

According to Lewis (2007:153), "An ability to innovate is often claimed as a special quality or even as an area of comparative advantage of NGOs over other kinds of organisations, especially government agencies". This statement implies that an innovative ethic is inherent in NGO work culture. Lewis (2007:154) writes that "... there is certainly ample evidence to support the claim that certain NGOs have been able to develop alternative approaches to poverty reduction". Alternative, innovative approaches by NGOs are particularly evident in the fields of health and agriculture - clear examples are the use of irrigation drip-kits in the dry regions of Matebeleland (Zimbabwe) whereby produce is kept well moistured by drops of water mechanically-timed throughout the day and the advocating by NGOs of the practice of primary health care. Lewis (2007) gives other examples of new technologies introduced in the Philippines and innovative management practices such as the Grameen Bank credit model of India which has benefited poor rural Indian women by providing them with credit.

Mitlin, Hickey and Bebbington (2005) support the view that NGOs are innovative in their approaches and state that innovation is undeniably a central component of one of the key validations of why NGOs are viewed as a source of development alternatives.

2.8.1 Conditions that encourage innovation in the organisation

An obvious question one may ask if the above assertions are indeed valid is “what makes NGOs more innovative/what is it about NGOs that allows them to be more innovative”? One possible response to this question is offered by Clark (1991) who states that the ability to innovate may be as a result of NGOs being less constrained by orthodox ideas and structures compared to mainstream aid agencies and governments. His assertion was based on his review of NGO activity around the world which revealed organisational dynamics, for example that staff in NGOs had considerable room to experiment and try out new approaches to problem solving. In Clark’s (1991) view this was also boosted by the NGO size which he found to be smaller in scale than other organisations, having fewer staff and formal structures. Clark (1991) deduced that decision making would also be a relatively straightforward process and bureaucratic constraints would be minimal. With regard to experimentation, Clark (1991) was of the view that the culture of ‘voluntarism’ within NGOs is conducive to individuals developing their own ideas, experimenting and even taking risks.

The above are all factors that allow or encourage innovation to take place. These factors describe types of organisations that can be depicted as ‘organic’ and ‘learning’ organisations. ‘Reflective’ practice in a learning organisation is a key factor conducive to innovative practice. This will be discussed below.

2.8.1.1 Organic organisations

Organic organisations are models of organisations that are optimal for both an innovative ethic and innovative practice. In an organic organisation, there is joint specialisation: employees work together and coordinate tasks. This means that all employees can claim ownership of the final product/service and there is no disjointed service provision that would cause employees to point fingers at each other if something fails. In addition, because there is joint specialisation, employees can collectively brainstorm on how to improve a process as opposed to a single employee taking full responsibility and ownership for improving something in the organisation by themselves. Another characteristic is that there are complex integrating mechanisms: task forces and teams are primary integrating mechanisms. This

means that teamwork plays a pivotal role in operations. Teamwork creates conditions of cohesion and again brainstorming is favourable. The decentralised nature of organic organisations is another condition that makes them optimal for innovative practice. Because of decentralisation, authority to control tasks is delegated and employees do not have to seek authorisation for every small task from management or their head office. Because they can make decisions and implement them more rapidly, this means that service delivery is more expedient and any waiting times are reduced. The remaining characteristics which will not be discussed in detail are that most communication is lateral; there is mutual adjustment: face-to-face contact for coordination; work processes tend to be unpredictable; there is much verbal communication; the organisation is a network of persons or teams; and people work in different capacities simultaneously and over time.

2.8.1.2 The learning organisation

Pitts and Lei (1999) state that a learning organisation has the ability to respond to change because the staff in that organisation are more prepared to experiment and adapt. The key principles of a learning organisation come from the work of Senge (1990). Senge's five principles of learning organisations are complex, but some of the main points of his five principles that can foster innovative practice are outlined below.

Principle 1: Systems thinking

This first principle is based on the premise of viewing social problems in a systemic and critical way - as holistic and not disjointed or separate. Systems thinking would therefore lead development practitioners not to view social problems in isolation but as having a reciprocal influence on one another. This leads to more holistic solutions that do not merely treat the symptoms of the problem.

Principle 2: Personal mastery

Senge describes personal mastery as approaching one's life as a creative work. Patel (2005:237) states that personal mastery is about "continually clarifying and deepening personal and organisational vision, focusing energies, developing patience and maintaining objectivity". This means that there has to be some balance between an employee's personal vision and that of the organisation for which he/she works. Personal mastery speaks to the character of an employee within the organisation also stressing that there should be

simultaneous personal and organisational learning. The learning is achieved through building skills and a commitment by staff to learning from their experiences (Patel, 2005).

With personal mastery, individuals/employees feel that they are doing something that matters to them personally and to the larger community; and every individual in the organisation is somehow stretching/growing or enhancing his/her capacity to create (Senge, 1990). These characteristics highlight the importance of the individual, and their personal commitment to their work.

Principle 3: Shared vision

It is Senge's (1990) belief that when a vision is shared: people are loyal to one another, sharing in that vision; people have a similar picture of the vision which reflects their own personal vision; and people are bound together by a common goal. In order to maintain steam and to instil a shared vision, organisations may undertake strategic planning workshops annually or even bi-annually. Senge (1990) is critical of building a shared vision in this way, warning that such efforts tend to only be reactive and short term in their focus. Indeed the steam that employees have after strategic planning workshops dies down with time. Employees should constantly be motivated to be part of the organisation's shared vision by more regular and less formal strategic planning meetings.

Principle 4: Mental models

This principle is concerned with people's ideas, images, assumptions, stories and deeply held internal images of how the world works. These mental paradigms affect how one acts. Senge (1990) states that, at a deeper level, it is people's most basic assumptions and way of processing information that are the greatest sources of limitation. 'Mapping' mental models is about exposing mental models and questioning the thought processes and actions which lead to learning. Reflective processes are also useful for employees to identify what no longer works for the organisation.

Principle 5: Team learning

The fifth principle is based on the idea that people are more intelligent together than they are individually. As two popular sayings suggest, "two heads are better than one" and "none of us is as smart as all of us". The potential of many minds is tapped into and together people work towards creating the outcome they all truly desire.

According to Senge (1990), team learning has three critical dimensions: firstly, the need to think insightfully about complex issues, secondly, the need for innovative and coordinated action, and thirdly, the role of team members in their teams. Open dialogue and discussion play a role in successful team learning.

Lewis (2007) contends that collaborative mechanisms, such as partnerships can facilitate exchange and that learning with other organisations can encourage innovative practice. The support from experts and other contacts external to the organisation is also beneficial to the organisation's innovative practice (Lewis 2007). This factor therefore requires team learning in a broader context and not just internally within the organisation.

2.8.1.3 Reflective practices in the learning organisation

Patel (2005:235) asserts that "Innovation and the evolution of good practice take place in organisations that are reflective and that can be denoted as learning organisations". By this statement, it is apparent that certain organisations are more capable of dealing with change and therefore able to be innovative and likewise an innovative organisation would be better capable of dealing with change. Patel (2005) states that it is organisations in which a learning culture and renewal are valued that are best able to combine new knowledge, skills and values.

The application of innovative and good practice in organisations requires constant reflection, monitoring and evaluation of past and current practices and the assessment of what conditions or processes are ideal for promoting the objectives of the organisation and identifying the practices that constrain effective and efficient service delivery. Such reflection should come from all the key stakeholders: from staff at all levels of the organisation, volunteers, funders/donors and the 'recipients' of the products or services rendered. Through the involvement of all key stakeholders, organisations are better able to provide services that are "...authentic and appropriate in a changing local and global context" (Patel 2005:235).

2.8.2 Organisational conditions that thwart innovative practice

Lewis (2007) explains factors that discourage innovation as including the following: “active or passive resistance from colleagues, powerlessness in the form of an inability to command the necessary resources or technical information, and a lack of reward for experimentation, such as performance-related pay” (Lewis 2007:155). Extreme competition among colleagues in an organisation may be harmful and discourage risk-taking as employees fear that their ideas may not be as good as their colleagues’ ideas. If the organisation does not provide any incentives for experimentation, its employees will be comfortable delivering the same product or services, as they will not be motivated to review how they can do things better. The reverse side of Senge’s principles such as the absence of a shared vision and the absence of reflection could also contribute to the failure of innovative practice in an organisation.

2.8.3 Skepticism about ‘NGOs as innovators’

While many support the idea that NGOs are key players in developmental innovations, some are critical and skeptical of this position.

Some of the skepticism about the inherent innovative nature of NGOs includes the suggestion that NGOs are ‘innovative’ in that they can experiment more freely but this experimental nature also pans out as ‘amateurism’ as it “fosters idiosyncrasy, lack of continuity and poor learning abilities” (Lewis 2007:156). Clark (1991) is also of the opinion that many NGOs are not innovative and opt to use well-tested, familiar approaches but with new constituencies. This would mean that the newness of the programme or project is only as far as the beneficiaries are concerned but the idea would have already been applied elsewhere.

Smillie and Helmich (1993:19) support the above view arguing that a lot of the work that NGOs do is merely replication and duplication: “NGOs repeat the same types of projects time after time... NGOs pride themselves on, and are rewarded by donors for “innovation” but often innovation is simply a reinvention of old-wheels”. Their criticism adds that the pilot projects that NGOs carry out merely demonstrate the ability of the NGO to implement the projects but in actual fact “uptake by others is limited”. This failure to scale up is often because government cannot afford widespread replication of successful NGO programmes. The argument by Smillie and Helmich (1993) implies that NGOs are therefore starting up programmes that are practically non-replicable and that NGOs are only able to carry out

successful pilot projects because they are on a small scale which cannot be applied on a larger scale.

Other critics argue that NGOs' innovativeness comes from the relationships they have with other agencies and professionals/technical experts working within or alongside their institutions. These institutions are a source of strength for the NGOs and maintaining these relationships is vital for the success of NGOs' performance and programmes. An example of valuable relationships that enhance innovative practice may be an NGO that works with a church or a University. Many NGOs form partnerships with such organisations. The critics' point is therefore that NGOs can claim the credit for new ideas or an innovative approach to a problem but the idea could have been formulated and made possible through their partners.

The belief in NGOs' innovativeness and problem solving ability can become problematic. Lewis (2007) gives an example of countries such as Zimbabwe, which place enormous pressure on the NGO community to continuously come up with novel solutions to socio-economic problems, such as drought relief and food security, often under difficult circumstances. This belief in NGOs as innovative problem solvers creates unrealistic expectations and has been described as the 'magic bullet syndrome' whereby NGOs are viewed as an 'all-purpose solution'.

In sum, the barriers to innovation identified were the negative attitudes of colleagues, the lack of resources or information and no facilities in place within organisations to reward experimentation. While a level of competition among employees is conducive to innovative practice, fierce competition can thwart innovative practice as employees become scared or discouraged to try new things fearing their ideas are inferior to those of their colleagues. Skeptics have also argued against the belief that NGOs are innovators stating that NGOs often 'reinvent old wheels' – implement the same programme/service but in a different community. Skepticism has also been based on the fact that NGOs operate as well as they do because of the partnerships that they form with other organisations and that they could not perform as well without affiliations with experts and others.

2.9 Chapter summary

To conclude, the youth are in an unfavourable position with regard to employment. The failure of education to guarantee employment and the failure of the labour market to absorb new entrants contribute significantly to the problem of unemployment. Policies and strategies have been mapped out by the South African government to curb the unemployment problem but there are gaps between what is intended and what is happening on the ground. Youth enterprise on its own as a solution to the unemployment problem is marred by various problems and difficulties. Among the various role-players in development, NGOs are pivotal to the advancement of the position of youth worldwide. Finally, the literature discussion on innovative practice, and on the organic, learning and reflective organisations forms a useful conceptual framework for analysing the data in seeking to explore innovative practice by NGOs working with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology. The research design includes the approach, type of research, purpose of the research and the thinking that was applied in the research process. The methodology discusses the sampling, data collection methods and tools and data analysis. The researcher discusses the limitations of the research design and methodology and outlines the practical problems that were encountered during the data collection process.

3.2 Research design

The research design is the plan that indicates how the research will be conducted in order to address the research problem (Babbie and Mouton, 2006). The research design and methodology were also planned with the intention of meeting the research objectives which are:

- To describe the key characteristics of ‘innovative practice’;
- To explore the nature of NGOs’ engagement with out-of-school, unemployed youth, who are not in trouble with the law, with regard to efforts to link them to the economy of the country; and
- To investigate what factors promote and constrain innovative practice of NGOs that work with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town.

The research design components of approach, type, purpose and thinking process utilised, will now be discussed briefly.

3.2.1 The research approach

The approach that best fulfils the above research objectives is a quantitative approach. According to Fortune and Reid (1999:93), some of the characteristics of a quantitative approach are that: “the data collection procedures are applied in a standardized manner, for example, all participants may answer the same questionnaire; the researcher’s role is that of an objective observer whose involvement with phenomena being studied is limited to what is required to obtain necessary data; and studies are focused on relatively specific questions or hypotheses that remain constant throughout the investigation”. These characteristics are true for the current research in that the data were collected through the use of a questionnaire with specific questions set out for the respondents. The researcher found this to be desirable as she wanted to be able to quantify responses as opposed to analysing subjective responses.

The researcher’s choice of a quantitative approach was in anticipation of a large sample at the time that the research process was initiated. A survey was seen as the best method of data collection when working with a large sample. However, as the prospects of a large sample dwindled (see under point 3.3.1.3 below), the researcher modified the data collection tool to include the collection of more qualitative information through a number of open ended questions, so as to gather as much information as possible from the smaller sample. Therefore, while the main research approach is quantitative, there is a qualitative component.

3.2.2 Research type

The research type is ‘applied’. According to Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006:45), applied research aims to “contribute towards practical issues of problem-solving, decision-making, policy analysis and community development”. This holds true for the current study as there is an exploration of policy issues surrounding out-of-school, unemployed youth and the actual programmes offered to this category of youth by NGOs in Cape Town.

3.2.3 Purpose of the research

The purpose of the research is both exploratory and descriptive. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) state that the rationale for undertaking exploratory research would be to gain insight into a situation, phenomenon, community or individual. Exploratory research is also useful where there is a lack of basic information on a new area of interest (Bless and Higson-Smith 1995). Neuman (2000:510) supports this view by asserting that “exploratory research is

research into an area that has not been studied and in which the researcher wants to develop initial ideas and a more focused research question". This was true for the current study as literature on innovative practice in the corporate/private sector, information technology and banking is plentiful but literature on the NGO sector's innovative practice is not as plentiful.

The descriptive purpose of the design attempts to describe social phenomena accurately and in detail, through classification and measuring relationships (Bailey, 1994).

3.2.4 Thinking applied

The type of thinking that was used in this study is deductive. In deductive reasoning there is a shift from the "general to the specific" (Babbie 2001:35). Inductive thinking which implies the development and building of information based on new interpretations (Babbie and Mouton, 2006) was also used in the analysis of the qualitative data that was collected through the open-ended questions in the questionnaire.

3.3 Research methodology

The research methodology comprises the sampling method; data collection method and tool; and the data analysis methods used in the study. Data collection took various forms and was conducted in phases. A review of literature formed the first phase in which the researcher carried out a review of secondary data (desktop research) in order to describe the key characteristics of innovative practice, this being the first objective of the research. Both phases will now be discussed below.

Phase 1: Secondary data analysis

The first phase of the study involved a review of secondary data analysis and desktop research as methods of gathering background data. Desktop research refers to seeking facts, general information on a topic, historical background, study results and even opinions that have been published or exist in documents. The information can be obtained from various sources such as libraries, journals, newspaper archives and websites/the Internet (www.etu.org.za).

Phase 2: Empirical data collection

Phase 2 of the research was planned to meet the research objective of “exploring the nature of NGOs’ engagement with out-of-school, unemployed youth, who are not in trouble with the law, with regard to efforts to link them to the economy of the country”, and the third objective which sought to “investigate what factors promote and constrain innovative practice in the NGOs that work with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town”.

3.3.1 Sampling

3.3.1.1 Criteria for selection for the study

NGOs were selected for inclusion in the sampling frame using the following specific criteria: that the NGO works with unemployed, out-of-school youth who fall in the 15- 24 years bracket, who are not in trouble with the law. Further, the NGO must operate in Cape Town. The programme objectives of the NGO must meet the following broad criteria, or be in line with the following: assisting youth to generate an income, or linking the youth to the economy of the country by offering services that train youth to engage in economically viable activities and/or activities that improve inter- and intrapersonal skills.

3.3.1.2 Development of sampling frame

After developing these criteria, three NGO directories were sourced. These were Bridge (1995); People and Projects in Development (PPD) (2004/5); and the PRODDER Directory which is an electronic NGO directory website (2008). These three sources were selected as they appeared to be the most comprehensive and reputable sources listing NGOs in South Africa.

Sample from Bridge (1995): From this source in the Western Cape section, a total of nine NGOs were listed as operating in the category of youth work but only three appeared to meet the research criteria discussed above.

Sample from PPD (2004/5): This directory’s listings were according to province and in the Western Cape section of the Directory, all NGOs were considered and NGOs that indicated their focus area as “youth services and youth welfare” were selected. The total was 76 NGOs.

Sample from PRODDER (2008): Firstly, the key words “Western Cape; Youth and NGO” were typed in for the search. Western Cape was typed in to gain an idea of the number of NGOs working with the youth. This resulted in the identification of 64 records. Next, these records were individually assessed to see what specific work the NGO did. Only 18 NGOs (out of the 64) appeared to meet the research criteria. Eleven NGOs which did not have a website had to be contacted telephonically to determine if they met the criteria. From PRODDER the possible sample total was 18 but one NGO was also represented in another sample so that the total number came to 17.

The total number of NGOs in the sampling framework (Bridge, PRODDER and PPD) was therefore 96 (3+76+17). As will be discussed below, the telephonic interviews and Internet research carried out ultimately determined which of the 96 NGOs indeed met the research criteria.

3.3.1.3 Finalisation of sampling frame and sampling

In order to investigate whether all 96 NGOs met the research criteria forming the sampling frame for the study, the researcher made telephonic contact and conducted an Internet research on these NGOs. For financial reasons the researcher first used the Internet to investigate whether the NGOs met the research criteria.

The initial contact with the 96 NGOs via the Internet research was conducted between 14 and 17 March 2008. Not all the NGOs had websites or any information on the Internet. The investigation resulted in five NGOs being identified as meeting the research criteria. From the Internet contact, the researcher managed to establish that eight NGOs did not meet the research criteria.

Telephonic contact was then made with the five NGOs that appeared to meet the criteria based on the Internet investigation for further confirmation. Telephonic interviews were then conducted with the remaining 83 NGOs that did not have websites or had vague Internet profiles. This second contact was made between 18 and 19 March 2008 and from 5 to 7 May 2008. Telephonic contact and Internet research were selected as they best provided a general idea of the activities of the NGOs. These methods were also chosen as they were seen as the most expedient in gathering general information quickly and informing the intended respondents of the study.

The researcher used an interview schedule to guide the telephonic interviews (see Appendix C). Where it was established that the NGO met the criteria, the researcher would ask whether the organisation was willing to participate in the study at a later date. All NGO respondents were thanked for the time they had taken to speak to the researcher. The researcher also used each contact as an opportunity to ask whether the NGO could refer the researcher to other NGOs that met the researcher's criteria.

Availability sample

The researcher's efforts to identify a rigorous sampling frame culminated in a small sample of nine NGOs. However, because one NGO was unwilling to participate in the study, the researcher was left with an availability sample of eight.

Snowball sample

From the contact with the seven NGOs to which the researcher was referred during the aforementioned telephonic contacts, three qualified for the study and were willing to participate.

Therefore, by the end of the 90 (83+7) telephone calls, a total of only 11 NGOs were confirmed as meeting the selection criteria and therefore qualifying for the study, and being willing to participate.

3.3.2 Data collection methods

In the first phase of the study, data to describe the key characteristics of innovative practice were gathered through a literature review mainly doing desktop research. In the second empirical phase of the study, the data were collected by means of a survey. The survey plan was to conduct the study among the abovementioned 10 NGOs with two respondents from each organisation (namely the Director and a programme manager) after conducting a pilot with the eleventh, randomly selected.

A survey was seen as the best method for gathering data from the 10 NGOs in the sample as, according to Bell (1999:13), "the aim of a survey is to obtain information which can be analysed and patterns extracted and comparisons made". The main emphasis of a survey is fact-finding. The other reason for selecting a survey was the 'flexible' nature of surveys which, according to Babbie and Mouton (2006:263), allows the researcher to ask several

questions on a given topic. One major critique of a survey is that while it may find answers as to “what, where, when and how”, it is not easy to find out the “why”? (Bell 1999:13). The researcher found this to be true in developing the questionnaire which had to endeavour to explore all the possible responses.

3.3.3 Data Collection Tools/Instruments

The data collection tools were questionnaires. De Vos et al. (2005:166) describe a questionnaire as “a set of questions on a form which is completed by the respondent in respect of the research project”. Questionnaires were selected as they provide a way of collecting data that can be quantified for reflection, thereby making comparisons and describing the phenomena.

The researcher designed two different questionnaires, one for the attention of the Director/CEO and the other for the attention of the programme manager at each NGO. The researcher chose to direct the questionnaires to the Director and programme manager as she believed they would be in the best position to respond to questions about the organisation, innovative practice and the programmes offered by their organisation.

The questionnaires were typed out, given a specific layout and each question had clear instructions on how to respond. The questionnaires were structured to include closed and open-ended questions. The structured questions were in the form of lists whereby the respondent was asked to select from a list of given options, and scales whereby the respondents had to rate their responses. Questions to elicit quantity were also included whereby exact or approximate figures were required. The rationale for the inclusion of open-ended questions was to allow the researcher to explore and investigate specific programme activities and variables.

The logical model (Alter and Egan, 1997; Lewis, Lewis, Packard, and Souflee, 2001) was used as a framework in order to establish the nature of engagement of the NGOs with the target population. This model was used in the questionnaire construction to explore the problem/needs; the objectives/purpose; the actual activities that are executed to attain the goals; the short-term impact(s); and the long-term impact(s). The logical model was also useful for data analysis purposes.

The questionnaire for the Director's completion (refer to Appendix A) comprised four sections: The Organisation; The Programme Participants; The Programmes; and Youth Policy and Youth enterprise as an employment strategy. The questionnaire for the programme manager's completion (refer to Appendix B) comprised similar sections but with different questions and more emphasis placed on the sections on the programmes activities.

The pilot was conducted in order to test the effectiveness and appropriateness of the two questionnaires. This was done with one NGO that was randomly selected from the availability sample of 11 NGOs. Necessary changes were made such as shortening the questionnaires and further clarifying questions such as asking the respondent to respond only to programme questions that directly pertained to the current study's target group.

All ten Directors from the NGOs responded to the questionnaire but two of the ten programme managers were unavailable at the time during which the survey was conducted. In both these cases, the researcher successfully negotiated with the Directors of these NGOs to obtain some of the crucial programme information such as the programme activities directly from them. In the end the researcher therefore had a total of 18 participants.

The researcher's initial plan was to administer the questionnaire to each programme manager and have the Director at each organisation respond to the questionnaires in their own time to allow them flexibility and convenience. In the end, however, the researcher had to go out and administer questionnaires to five Directors as she detected some reluctance to respond to the questionnaires. The researcher also allowed programme managers to choose whether or not they preferred to have the researcher administer the questionnaire to them and six out of eight programme managers had the questionnaire administered to them. The researcher's flexibility with regard to allowing respondents to choose their preferred method of response ensured an acceptable response rate to the survey.

During the administration of the 11 questionnaires, the respondent was provided with a sample questionnaire so that they could think about the questions and see the format, and have an indication of the amount of detail that was required in their response. The researcher was the person who wrote out the responses to allow the respondent to speak freely.

The administration of the questionnaires was done at the respective organisations at the confirmed appointment times. The researcher began by providing a verbal introduction about herself and the study. The researcher then directed the respondents to the structured

'information about the research' page in the questionnaires and allowed the respondents to ask any questions. The respondents were then asked to sign the consent form, after which the administration process began. The average administration time was one hour and at the end of each interview, the respondents were given an opportunity to raise any issues they felt were relevant to the matters that had been discussed.

3.3.4 Data Analysis

The researcher analysed the quantitative data manually. The 18 responses were manageable for the researcher to collate without making errors. Once the data were analysed manually, tables and figures were used to present the data. The programme Microsoft Excel 2007 was used for the formulation of graphs and tables. The construction of tables was guided by Babbie and Mouton (2001) who outline the following considerations in constructing and reading tables: firstly the cases (responses) are divided into groups according to their attributes; secondly each subgroup is described and thirdly the table is read by making a comparison of the variables in relation to one another.

The qualitative data gathered is analysed by categorising similar responses and identifying similarities and patterns among the responses. This process is guided by Tesch's (1990) eight steps for analysing qualitative data. The process begins by reading through all the transcripts/questionnaires leading to the selection of one questionnaire and making notes from the emerging themes and ideas. The remaining questionnaires are then read through, grouping ideas according to similarity thereby forming categories and sub-categories that fit into these ideas.

3.4 Limitations of the research methodology

3.4.1 Limitations of the sample:

The sample was small. It is likely that some NGOs doing innovative work with unemployed, out-of-school youth in Cape Town were not listed in any of the three sources from which the sample was drawn and were therefore excluded from the study. The researcher attempted to address this problem through the use of snowball sampling so that whichever NGOs were not

listed - but whose existence was known - could also be included in the study. This approach to sampling did not generate as many NGOs as hoped for, as indicated under point 3.3.1.3 above. In retrospect, the researcher feels that the selection criteria were appropriate and that the only change she could have made to include a larger number of NGOs to participate in the study was to include NGOs from a larger geographical area. This too would have presented challenges during the data collection process.

3.4.2 Limitations of data collection methods and tools:

The survey method requires an optimal response rate and the researcher had to strive to ensure this by constant contact with the respondents. The researcher also changed her initial strategy of self-administration for the Director respondents and decided to ask the Directors if they preferred the questionnaire to be administered to them; likewise two of the eight programme managers who could not confirm appointments were allowed to complete the questionnaire in their own time. The researcher did not feel as if the difference in administration impacted on the quality of the research as both the administered and self-administered responses contained sufficient data for analysis. Where the researcher felt the response was insufficient or incomprehensible, she contacted the respondent for further elaboration. The researcher stands by her data collection methods and tools but feels that a mixed approach (quantitative and qualitative; whereby the researcher carried out the process in two phases beginning with a survey and then following up with in-depth interviews) could have generated more meaningful data with regard to the programme areas. The programme areas were very descriptive and categorising programme areas reduces them to mere numbers.

3.4.3 Limitations of data analysis:

The main limitation that was experienced was analysing data generated through open-ended questions. The inclusion of qualitative questions meant that this data had to be analysed qualitatively, likewise presented qualitatively. The researcher dealt with this by categorising similar responses and including an 'other' category for responses that could not be categorised.

3.4.4 Limitations of self:

The only previous experience with research that the researcher had was at Honours level. The topic of the current research was new to the researcher. In addition, the researcher did not have any experience in conducting survey research or creating a questionnaire. This limitation was dealt with by reading up on surveys and by conducting a pilot study before administering the survey to the actual sample.

3.5 Practical problems encountered during the study

Some of the practical problems encountered were in contacting the organisations to set up appointments. The researcher found that in the larger organisations there was a lack of clarity about whom to approach regarding the programme manager's questionnaire. Because the data collection took place at a time when NGOs were assisting with flood and xenophobia victims in Cape Town, several NGOs indicated that they were quite busy and therefore found it difficult to meet for the interview or to complete the questionnaire. Giving the respondents the option to respond to the questionnaire themselves and scheduling appointments far in advance helped to deal with this problem.

3.6 Chapter summary

The research design and methodology of the current study have been described. The secondary data analysis and the survey method were adopted in order to gather data to reach the research objectives. The rigorous efforts of the researcher to establish a sampling frame resulted in eleven NGOs being identified and agreeing to participate. To ensure the appropriateness of the questionnaires, the researcher randomly selected one of the eleven NGOs for a pilot study which resulted in a few changes being made to the questionnaires. Eighteen respondents completed one of the two questionnaires. In retrospect, the researcher faced some challenges with the research methodology such as her rigorous efforts to identify

a sample culminating in a small sample. The findings of the survey are presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the survey that was carried out among ten Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) working with out-of-school, unemployed youth (15-24 years) in Cape Town. The chapter comprises the findings related to the organisations themselves; their programme participants and their programmes; and findings on innovative practice.

Regarding the research objective that explored the key characteristics of innovative practice, the researcher carried out a literature review (Chapter Two). For the second and third objectives, the researcher pursued a quantitative approach and employed a survey as the data collection method. The two objectives of the study which led to a survey being carried out were:

1. To establish the nature of NGOs' engagement with out-of-school, unemployed youth.
2. To explore the conditions that constrain or promote innovative practice within the aforementioned organisations.

4.2 Conceptual/Theoretical Framework

The findings of the survey will be presented in accordance with the research objectives. The logical model (Alter and Egan, 1997; Lewis, Lewis, Packard and Souflee, 2001) was used as a framework in order to establish the nature of the engagement of the NGOs with the target population. Unemployment theories were applied to explore the different causes of unemployment among the youth. The latter theories are discussed in section 2.4.2 of Chapter 2.

For the second objective, the researcher referred to characteristics of learning, organic and reflective organisations as a conceptual framework to try to determine the extent to which innovative practice can thrive in the ten organisations concerned. This conceptual framework is discussed in section 2.8 of Chapter 2. It is also used to analyse the findings in Chapter 4.

4.3 Reflexivity

Reflexivity, according to Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006: 482) is the “explicit recognition and examination of the researcher’s role in the research process including the assumptions with which they operate, their identifications and dis-identifications and their possible influence on the research process”. The researcher was concerned that her assumptions about NGOs doing remarkable work in general, as well as in the context of youth work, would lead her to make positive conclusions and to have more positive findings as compared with criticisms. To circumvent this, the researcher attempted to be constructively critical and objective at all times.

4.4 The Survey Findings

The findings are presented in three sections. The first section, Section A, offers details of the ten organisations that participated in the study. Section B presents the programme participants and the programmes of the NGOs in an effort to reflect the nature of the NGOs’ engagement with out-of-school, unemployed youth. Finally, Section C presents the findings with regard to innovative practice in the ten organisations.

4.4.1 Section A: THE ORGANISATIONS

This section reports on the research findings regarding the participating organisations. The following are presented: a profile of the participating organisations; sources of funding; the problems and constraints that the organisations are facing with regard to service delivery; policy influencing the organisations’ approach to youth unemployment; NGOs that are doing

similar work and partnerships with such NGOs; and what makes the NGO distinctive from other organisations.

4.4.1.1 Profile of organisations

The researcher felt that providing a general background to the participating organisations would facilitate a clearer understanding of the findings related to the objectives of the research.

Table 1 below depicts the year in which each participating organisation was established, the number of professional staff employed and the geographical location of the organisation.

Table 1: Profile of organisations

Organisation	Year Established	Number of professional staff	Location
A	1980	7	Observatory
B	1988	4	Mitchell's Plain
C	2003	8	Mowbray
D	2001	13	Belhar
E	1994	23	Plumstead
F	1986	46	Hout Bay
G	1992	76	Woodstock/District Six
H	1994	16	Kenilworth
I	1987	4	Observatory
J	1996	4	Cape Town

Organisation A was the 'oldest', having been established 28 years ago and Organisation C was the 'youngest', established in 2003. The organisation with the largest staff complement was G, with 76 professional staff. Three organisations had four professional staff members each, which was the lowest number among the 10 organisations (Organisations B, I and J).

4.4.1.2 Sources of funding

The Directors were asked about the sources of their organisations' funding. The responses are set out in Table 2.

Table 2: Sources of funding (approximate percentage) at each organisation

Source of funds	A (%)	B (%)	C (%)	D (%)	E (%)	F (%)	G (%)	H (%)	I (%)	J (%)
Self-funding (organisation generates own funds)	5	10	5	20	25	5	10	10	10	20
State-funded (rely on government funding)	-	-	-	65	40	50	90	50	40	-
Privately funded (funded by private sponsors such as individuals and trusts)	-	-	30	-	25	-	-	38	20	10
Funded by international organizations	95	90	15	10	10	-	-	2	30	70
Other sources	-	-	50	5	-	45	-	-	30	-
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

From Table 2, it is apparent that all the organisations generate some of their own funding, although in eight of the ten cases, this constitutes a small percentage of the total funding, namely ten percent or less. Only Organisation E generated a significant 25% of its own funds. Six NGOs relied on government funding. Organisations G and D received a substantial amount of funding from the government (90% and 65% respectively). Private sponsors (such as individuals, trusts or the corporate sector) were responsible for the funding of half the organisations, contributing a minimum of 20% to two of the five organisations and a significant 38% in the case of Organisation H. Organisations C, F and I stated that they each received funding from 'other' sources such as once-off donations from the corporate sector. International sponsors were another major source of funding with eight out of ten organisations generating their funding from this source.

4.4.1.3 Problems and constraints the organisations are facing with regard to service delivery

Both the Directors and the programme managers identified problems their respective organisations were facing with regard to service delivery. These responses have been grouped into five main categories, namely: financial; access to and retention of participants; employment of their participants on completion of programmes; capacity limitations; and location problems. A sixth 'other' category is included for four different problems whose nature could not be categorised.

Figure 1: Problems and constraints the organisations are facing with regard to service delivery



Financial constraints

Four respondents from four different organisations made mention of finances as a constraining factor with regard to service delivery. Two respondents stated their organisations needed more money, one mentioned the issue of competition for funds and the fourth described delays in the approval of business plans by funders such as the Department of Social Development as their service delivery financial constraint.

Access to and retention of participants

Two respondents identified access to and retention of participants as an obstacle to effective service delivery in their respective organisations. The first respondent stated that accessing some of its street youth (homeless participants) was a problem because of their constant mobility. This also caused irregular attendance of programme activities and dropping out by the participants. The nature of the second problem was keeping young people on the training programmes and limiting the number of dropouts due to various reasons such as a lack of motivation and transport problems.

Employment problems

One respondent stated that trying to get their participants employed at the end of the programmes was the major problem they were facing. Failure to do so made the success of their programmes questionable and therefore reduced the ‘credibility’ of the NGO among its participants.

Capacity limitations

Two respondents stated that they always had long waiting lists of participants at any given time wishing to engage in the programmes they offered and could not cater for all the participants who needed access to their programmes.

Location constraints

Two respondents cited location constraints as an obstacle to service delivery. In the first instance, the location of some of the coastal fishing communities with which the organisation worked was a major constraint. These communities were isolated and therefore there was a lack of economic opportunities. In the second case, the respondent cited that their organisation was located in an impoverished ward and therefore the participants came from impoverished backgrounds and were not familiar with the Information Communications Technology (ICT) culture and services that the NGO offered.

Other constraints

Apart from financial problems, Director F also highlighted another constraint that “the expectations of our clients are at times beyond our means”. Director I cited cultural ‘alienation’ as a constraint. The situation was that Americans and Norwegian nationals

managed the organisation and the participants were mainly South African, Xhosa young males who originated from informal settlement locations. These cultural differences sometimes caused problems, as the participants were not familiar, or initially comfortable with the way the programmes and activities were run. The staff at the organisation therefore had to spend a significant amount of time building rapport.

4.4.1.4 Policy that influences the organisation's approach to youth development, youth unemployment and linking marginalised youth to the economy

NGOs operate in a legislative and policy environment. The government is responsible for putting into place policies to guide developmental concerns.

Directors A and F were the only Directors to name policy or legislation that influenced their approach to youth development, youth unemployment and linking marginalised youth to the economy. Organisation A was guided by the Marine Living Resources Act (MLRA) (No. 68 of 2000) concerned with environmental affairs and the National Youth Service (2003). Organisation F was guided by various South African labour laws such as the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (No. 75 of 1997) and the Labour Relations Act (LRA) (No. 66 of 1995) for their youth employment placements.

Four out of the 10 Directors (B, C, D, and E) stated that they were not influenced by any official policy in their approach to dealing with youth unemployment. Director B for example, stated that they were guided by 'God's word'.

Directors G, H and I did not state any policies that were influential in their approach to tackling youth unemployment. Director I stated that their organisation merely responded to whatever developmental needs existed such as providing skills training for the youth so as to obtain funding from the government.

The tenth Director (J) was vague but cited that 'broadcasting and media legislation' were their guide but they implemented their own ideas as long as they did not violate any laws.

From the above responses it is evident that the ten organisations included in the current study may be aware of the prevailing policies that influence and regulate youth development, youth

unemployment and linking marginalised youth to the economy but only three organisations were knowledgeable with regard to the exact policies and how these policies impact on their work.

4.4.1.5 NGOs doing similar work and partnerships with these NGOs

The researcher sought to find out whether the participating NGOs were aware of organisations doing similar work to theirs and if they were in any sort of partnership with these or other organisations to the extent that the partnership significantly contributed to their ability to be innovative.

Seven of the ten Directors stated that there were no organisations doing similar work to theirs in Cape Town. Three Directors stated that there were organisations doing work similar to theirs in Cape Town but only one of these three stated that they did not work with these organisations in any sort of partnership.

The two Directors who stated that there were organisations doing similar work and that there was some form of partnership in place with these organisations did not elaborate any further.

It is the researcher's finding that while some organisations stated that there were no other organisations doing similar work to theirs, there were in fact some similarities between the programmes of organisations. For example, organisations B, F and I all offered residential programmes for young unemployed men. This finding supports Smillie and Helmich's (1993) view that some NGO programmes are a reinvention of 'old wheels', that the programmes are similar and are just introduced to new communities/participants. It can therefore be said that NGO youth programmes are similar and, at most, have some unique features but not so many.

4.4.1.6 What makes the organisation distinctive from other organisations

Seven respondents stated that there were no organisations doing work similar to theirs and to verify this, the researcher asked all ten Directors what made their organisation distinctive from other organisations. The responses below illustrate why the respondents believed that their organisation was unique in its approach to working with out-of-school, unemployed youth.

Director A felt that their organisation was unique from other youth NGOs because it offers youth development work which builds socio-political awareness in the communities in which it works. In its training programme the NGO strives to incorporate activities that foster national pride. Director B stated that their nine month residential programme holistically endeavours to make a positive impact on the lives of young at-risk men. The programme covers a wide spectrum of activities and workshops which include giving the participants lessons in French. Director C's organisation offers support to vulnerable groups and to youth with no support systems. This was done through providing residential care for youth of 17-25 years and meeting their basic needs such as meals and travel allowances.

Director D stated that their organisation "runs a holistic social development model called the "WE CAN" campaign, underpinned by the following key turnaround strategies: use of Information Communication Technology (ICT) for improved communication for the participants' utilisation; entrepreneurship for job creation and economic growth; agriculture for food security; and an agro village for housing and tourism". The Director felt that the ICT component in particular made their organisation's services distinctive.

Director E stated that the 'rites of passage' programme for youth-at-risk was unique as it addresses a particular need, namely youth "reaching their full potential by learning from their own life experiences". The way in which learning took place (experiential and outdoors) therefore made the organisation distinctive. Director F responded that the services offered by this organisation to vulnerable youth are holistic and practical as they lead to employment. Director G felt that their organisation takes a holistic approach to development, offering an opportunity for re-education and that it is not 'patriarchal'.

Director H stated that their organisation offers its out-of-school, unemployed female participants a specific ECD (Early Childhood Development) teacher training qualification to become qualified teachers. Director I stated that their organisation is distinct from other organisations because it operates in a 'family-setting' and offers its participants opportunities to either return to school or learn informal skills. Lastly, Director J said that unlike most NGO activities, their youth participants take part in media and broadcasting-related opportunities which is an area overlooked by many NGOs.

From the above responses the researcher gathered that all the NGOs offered their participants distinctive programmes. Some of the objectives of the programmes however highlight

similarities as opposed to distinctive features. Two organisations make mention of 'youth-at-risk'. Three NGOs offer educational/training opportunities and three NGOs use the word 'holistic' in explaining their programmes. These similarities are explored further in Section B where the findings on the programmes are presented.

The researcher found only two NGOs to be clearly distinct from the rest, namely Organisations A and J. Organisation A's incorporation of socio-political components to instil national pride in its participants was unique and Organisation J's broadcasting-related activities were also distinctive.

4.4.2 Section A: CONCLUSION.

The ten participating organisations' profiles have revealed that the organisations varied greatly with regard to size, for example with the range being the employment of 4-76 professional staff. The oldest organisation was 28 years old and the most recently established was five years old. The sources of funding also varied with five out of ten organisations receiving at least 40% of their funding from government. Each organisation was facing different constraints but the majority cited financial constraints as the main problem to service delivery. Only two organisations stated the exact policies that influence their approaches to youth development, youth unemployment and linking marginalised youth to the economy. The majority of the respondents could not name any guiding policy. Each NGO felt that their organisation was distinct from other NGOs that worked with out-of-school, unemployed youth, but some similarities were found among eight of the ten NGOs. The next section presents the findings related to the programme participants and the programmes, which highlight the nature of engagement by the NGOs with their participants.

4.4.3 Section B: PROGRAMME PARTICIPANTS AND THE PROGRAMMES

This section presents a profile of the programme participants; the programmes offered by each organisation (number and duration of programmes); the different programme areas; how the programmes are advertised; and whether the programmes have been replicated. The logical model (Alter and Egan, 1997; Lewis, Lewis, Packard and Souflee, 2001) is used to identify the problems/need of the programme participants; the purpose of the programme (s); the programme activities; the immediate and long term benefits of the programmes; and the outcomes: options available to participants on completion of the programmes. The Directors' opinions on the strategy of small business development promotion are also presented in this section.

4.4.3.1 The programme participants

The researcher obtained information about the youth who participate in the programmes of the ten organisations from the ten Directors and the eight programme managers. None of the ten organisations worked exclusively with the researcher's target group of youth of 15-24 years and so the various age ranges that included this range are indicated in Table 3.

Organisation G had the highest number of participants (360), and was working in the largest number of communities in Cape Town. Organisation B had the lowest number of participants (14). Three organisations (B, C and I) worked specifically with male participants and only one exclusively with female participants (Organisation H). Organisation J worked with the greatest age range of youth participants from as young as 7 years to 35 years of age. The organisation with the smallest age range (F) worked with participants of 12-18 years of age. The only organisation that worked with an age range nearest to the target group of the researcher was organisation I which worked with youth of 16-24 years of age.

Table 3: Profile of NGO programme participants

Organisation	Age range (years)	Total number of participants in indicated age bracket	Racial groups	Gender (s)	Geographical areas in which organisation conducts its programmes
A	13-35	300	Black, Coloured	Female and Male	19 coastal communities in the Western Cape
B	18-30	14	Black, Coloured, White	Male	Langa, Gugulethu, Mitchell's Plain, Stellenbosch
C	17-25	25	Black, Coloured	Male	Khayelitsha, Cradock
D	18-35	150	Black, Coloured, Indian	Female and Male	Ward 12 of Cape Town Metropolitan Council, Adelaide Thambo Sub-Council 23, Belhar Telecentre
E	15-35	250	Black, Coloured, Indian, White	Female and Male	Throughout the Western Cape (South Africa and Southern Africa region as well).
F	12-18	38	Black, Coloured	Female and Male	Imizamo Yethu and Hangberg
G	18-39	360	Black, Coloured, Indian, White	Female and Male	Over 31 communities across Cape Town, including: Woodstock, Delft, Salt River, Mowbray, Du Noon, Joe Slovo, Kwa 5, Gardens, Walmer Estate and Philippi
H	18-26	25	Black, Coloured, Indian, White	Female	Throughout the Cape Metropolitan area
I	16-24	24	Black, Coloured	Male	Cape Town, Tulbagh and Worcester
J	7-35	18	Black, Coloured	Female	Cape Town

4.4.3.2 The programmes

By exploring the programmes, the researcher managed to establish the nature of engagement of the organisations with their participants which provided a response to the second research question of the current study. Some of the main components of interest to the researcher were: the number of programmes for youth of 15-24 years that the organisation offered; the duration of each programme; what the different programme areas were; governmental policies impacting on the programmes; and how the programmes were advertised. Programme replication by the organisation (of other organisation's programmes) and by other organisations of that organisation's programmes is also presented.

Table 4: NGO programme details

Organisation	Number of programmes that target youth between 15 and 24 years	Duration of programmes
A	1	3 months- 2 years
B	1	9 months
C	1	3 years (ongoing cycles)
D	4	All on-going, minimum one week
E	3	6 month minimum-18 months (on-going cycles)
F	2	Residential care till youth is 18 years, rehabilitation maximum 12 months
G	30	2 semesters per year (courses last one year and one semester is 4 months)
H	1	12 months
I	2	1 week- 24 months
J	1	One programme at a time and at variable durations

Organisation G had the highest number of programmes, offering out-of-school and unemployed youth 30 different programmes. Half of the NGOs (five out of ten) each had just one programme (please see Table 4).

4.4.3.3 Programme areas

The Directors were asked to select from 32 programme area options (such as Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET), capacity building, community development, entrepreneurship, HIV/AIDS and an 'other' option) what programme areas the youth programmes of their organisations covered and of the 33 options, 30 were selected (please refer to Table 5). While five NGOs only offered their out-of-school, unemployed 15-24 year old participants one programme (Organisations A, B, C, H and J), the single programme could cover more than one programme area.

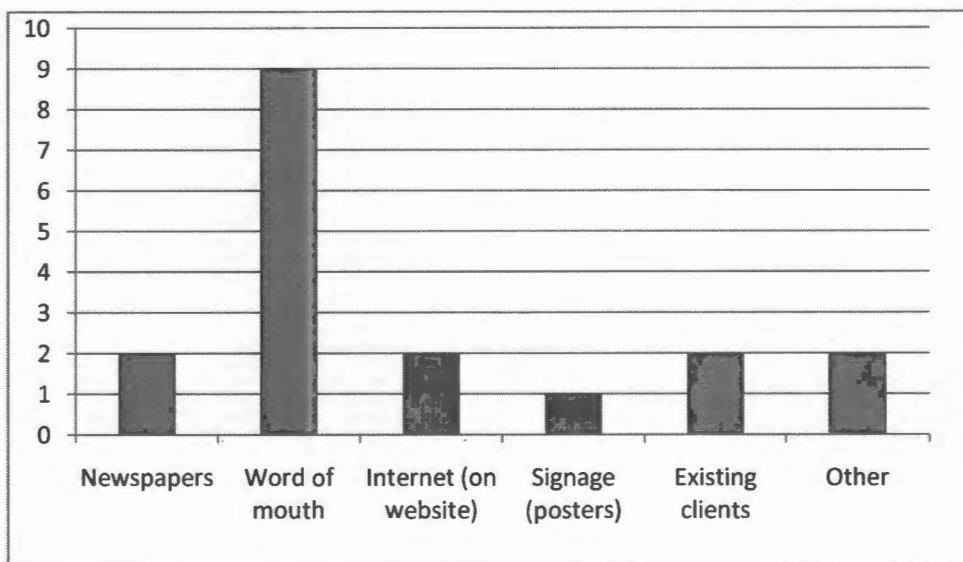
Table 5: NGO youth programme areas

Programme area	O R G A N I S A T I O N									
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
1. Adult Basic Education				X						
2. Agriculture				X		X				
3. Capacity Building				X	X			X		
4. Community development	X			X	X	X		X		
5. Counselling and therapy		X	X		X					
6. Early Childhood Development				X				X		
7. Economic development	X			X						
8. Education		X		X	X	X			X	
9. Entrepreneurship	X	X		X						
10. Family services			X			X		X		
11. Gender				X						
12. HIV/AIDS				X	X	X		X	X	
13. Housing				X				X		
14. Income creation	X			X		X	X		X	
15. Information									X	
16. Job creation	X		X	X		X				
17. Life skills										
18. Micro credit	X									
19. Micro Enterprise	X			X						
20. Media and communications				X			X			X
21. Research				X						X
22. Rehabilitation				X		X			X	
23. Religious projects				X					X	
24. Sport				X					X	
25. Sports development				X						
26. Street children			X		X					X
27. Substance abuse		X							X	X
28. Tourism		X							X	X
29. Welfare				X						
30. Women's issues				X		X				

4.4.3.4 Recruitment of programme participants

To find out how the organisations attracted participants to their programmes, respondents were asked to choose all the applicable methods from five options. The options for selection were: newspapers; word of mouth; the Internet; signage; or 'other' methods of advertisement. Two out of ten organisations recruited their participants by advertising in newspapers. Only one organisation did not make use of the 'word of mouth' method. Using the Internet via their websites was used by two organisations and one organisation used signage (posters). Two organisations made use of their existing clients to recruit participants. The 'Other' modes of participation made use of by two other organisations were through approaching and speaking to the leadership in local communities who then spread the news and through sending out brochures.

Figure 2: Recruitment of programme participants



All the organisations stated that they felt that their advertisement methods were sufficient and one stated that it had a waiting list of participants up to the year 2011. The researcher found that two organisations stated that they had the capacity to cater for more participants than the current number, which may indicate that there are youth who have not heard about the organisation or its programmes through its current advertising methods.

4.4.3.5 Programme replication

A question on programme replication was asked to investigate the originality of the programmes offered by the organisations and to explore whether any of the programmes had been taken on by other organisations elsewhere.

Organisations replicating programme from elsewhere:

Eight organisations stated that they had not replicated a programme from elsewhere to make it their own. Two organisations, namely Organisations A and G, stated that they had borrowed some elements of other programmes to include in their own. Organisation A takes elements from the National Youth Service by trying to instil national pride among the participants. Organisation G stated that it had replicated a project from an organisation in London that ran an apprenticeship scheme but the organisation had also implemented some of its own original ideas.

Replication of programme(s) by other organisations:

Again, eight organisations responded that to the best of their knowledge their programmes had not been replicated elsewhere. The two organisations that stated that their programmes had been replicated by other organisations stated that other organisations had taken elements of their programmes and adapted them. Organisation E stated that other organisations had replicated its experiential learning component and Organisation G stated that some of its life skills modules had been replicated with modification by other organisations.

Eight out of the ten NGOs stated that their programmes were not a replication of existing programmes. However, based on her knowledge of and experience with youth development programmes, the researcher is of the opinion that while these programmes might have had unique features, they were not entirely new programmes. That NGOs are innovative in their approaches and leaders in development alternatives is a view supported Mitlin, Hickey and Bebbington (2005). Smillie and Helmich (1993) on the other hand argue that a lot of the work that NGOs do is merely replication and duplication. The researcher found this to be true as several programmes of the NGOs were indeed similar.

4.4.3.6 Nature of engagement: The Logical model

As mentioned previously, the logical model (Alter and Egan, 1997; Lewis, Lewis, Packard and Souflee, 2001) was incorporated into the data collection tools and into the analysis in order to fully explore the nature of engagement of NGOs with their out-of-school, unemployed participants. Aspects of the logical model that were incorporated into the data analysis as a conceptual framework include: the problem/need; objectives (purpose); activities; immediate and long term benefits of the programmes; and outcomes: the opportunities on completion of programmes.

4.4.3.6.1 The problem/need

The problems/needs that all ten NGOs are working to resolve are youth unemployment, linked to a lack of skills for employment and inadequate education that can lead to employment. Three of the NGOs, namely Organisations B, F and I, deal with the problem of homelessness by providing accommodation to their participants.

Through the survey, the 18 respondents identified three main causal factors of unemployment, namely: lack of skills and experience necessary for employment; insufficient or no education; and personal causes.

Lack of skills and experience: Three out of the 18 respondents were of the view that a lack of skills and experience were main causes of unemployment among youth.

Poor, little or no education: Three out of the 18 respondents felt that low grades in school; low intellectual capacity (causing failure to cope and therefore inevitably dropping out) and no education at all led to youth unemployment.

Personal/ self-inflicted causes: One respondent stated that youth are not proactive enough to go out and seek employment that is appropriate for whatever skills and education they do have. The respondent stated that whatever effort is made is often minimal, “youth just drops off CV (Curriculum Vitae) and waits; they do not follow up” (Director I).

Poverty and apartheid were also identified as causing unemployment. A lack of resources to access employment opportunities (such as a lack of bus fare to go on a search for work and no access to sources of information such as newspapers and the Internet to see current vacancies) were the characteristics of poverty. Apartheid was seen to have exacerbated

poverty so much that the youth born into disadvantaged homes feel hopeless and do not bother to search for employment.

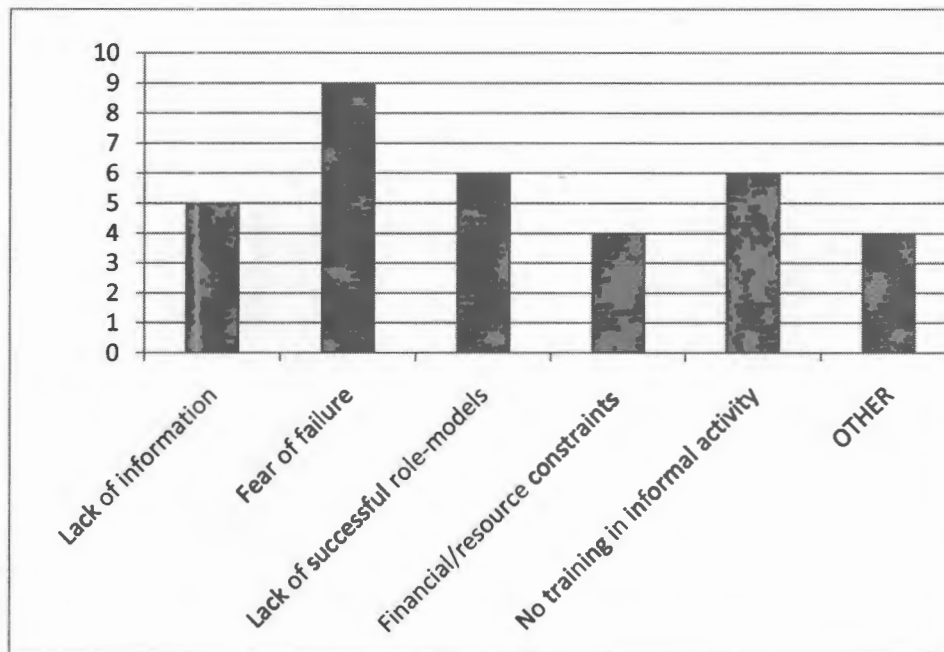
Interestingly, the researcher found that none of the respondents cited unemployment being the result of demand deficient unemployment (the unavailability of jobs for those who want to work). The unemployment problem was identified mainly as a deficit of the individuals' own making. The causes identified are not only due to personal deficit (for example lack of skills, dropping out of school and not being 'proactive') but also caused by historical conditions such as apartheid which the youth had no control over. The main causes of unemployment explored in Chapter Two (literature review) offered four main types of unemployment and their causes: demand-deficient unemployment; seasonal unemployment; search unemployment; and structural unemployment. The causes of unemployment offered by the respondents are broader, including poverty and historical reasons, for example, and do not automatically point to the four above-mentioned causal factors.

Other than reasons for the failure to secure employment, the researcher enquired about the nature of the obstacles experienced by youth in Cape Town regarding starting their own business.

4.4.3.6.2 Obstacles to small business development for youth in Cape Town

The findings reveal that there is an acknowledgement of the real obstacles that prevent Cape Town youth from starting their own businesses. Nine of the ten Directors cited the fear of failure among the youth as a reason why youth do not venture into their own small businesses. The second most frequently acknowledged reasons with six out of ten Directors citing them as obstacles, were 'a lack of successful role-models' and 'a lack of training in informal activity (please see Figure 3).

Figure 3: Obstacles to small business development for youth in Cape Town



The research that was conducted by CASE (2000) found the lack of start-up funding among youth of 16-24 years who were interested in starting a business as the most important obstacle to developing their own small businesses. Contrary to CASE's (2000) finding, the Directors in the current study cited a fear of failure as the main reason for Cape Town youth not starting their own businesses.

4.4.3.6.3 Objectives/purposes of the programme(s) and related activities

The different objectives and purposes of the programme(s) run by the ten organisations in the survey were established through the questionnaire completed by the Directors. Responses about the different activities involved in the programmes were provided by the programme managers. Please also refer to Table 5 for the findings on the different programme areas that each NGO covers for all their participants (not exclusive to youth of 15-24 years).

Organisation A: objectives were to provide 'life' skills (confidence building, time management, budgeting and saving) and 'hard' skills related to the fishing industry in order for participants to be able to seek employment or become self-employed in the fishing sector. The activities were mainly experiential and involved group interaction in the natural environment.

Organisation B: to “develop young men into becoming leaders, able to effectively function in every sphere of life”. The activities to achieve this were diverse. Amongst several other activities, participants attend lectures and workshops in debt management, leadership skills, physical wellness and learning a foreign language (French).

Organisation C: “to develop life skills through training. To have sufficient skills that can lead to employment”. The activities were also diverse and included teaching participants how to write up Curricula Vitae (CVs) and helping them to develop other job-seeking skills.

Organisation D: to equip participants with ICT skills that can significantly improve employment prospects; and to promote organic food farming as a healthy, sustainable option for food security. Participants were engaged in computer training, and practical training in organic farming.

Organisation E: to foster capacity building and skills development through experiential learning. Experiential learning was best achieved in an outdoor environment and participants would camp and go through various other rigorous outdoor exercises such as canoeing, hiking, swimming and abseiling.

Organisation F: to provide residential care, rehabilitation and skills training for youth in need of improving their lives from a position of vulnerability to advancement. Programme participants are provided with residence at the organisation and attend classes, workshops and training projects on site or travel to different training project sites.

Organisation G: the overarching objectives of the programmes were for holistic youth development achieved through the enhancement of their hard skills and advancement of life skills: coping mechanisms; communication skills; and time management. The objectives were met by engaging the youth in diverse activities such as metalwork/welding, computer literacy, pottery, sound engineering, catering, painting and decorating.

Organisation H: to train young women to become Early Childhood Development (ECD) teachers. Activities involved full-time training; and doing practical placements at best practice ECD Centres, carrying out work placements, assignments, tasks and research. Life skills training was also part of the activities.

Organisation I: “to develop and groom competent young men who could become gainfully employed or expert craftsmen, consequently becoming positive role models in their

communities”. The organisation enrolled the young men in various training courses of their choice to gain skills. Participants were involved in making the organisation’s own brand of crafts such as T-shirts, cushions and caps. The youth also went out on the weekends to sell these products at popular Cape Town flea markets.

Organisation J: out of nine organisational objectives, the two that are most relevant to youth development work are “Fostering self-confidence, self-reliance and self-esteem in youth and women through gaining proficiency in technical and creative skills” and “Providing education and training to disadvantaged youth and women to assist them to develop audio and visual literacy skills, and to impart the technological skills necessary to utilise and participate in the production of such media and art”. The activities included learning to write scripts, photography and videography, and teaching participants the important fact-finding research component that went into developing a film documentary.

It is the researcher’s finding that the purposes/objectives of the programmes were quite similar. Three organisations made mention of equipping their participants with ‘life skills’ and five organisations made mention of the word ‘skills’ in different contexts such as leadership skills, creative skills and ICT skills. There was also a similarity with regard to activities in that, for example, two organisations both made mention of computer training (D and G). Two organisations’ participants (A and E) also both carried out learning in the natural environment/outdoors. Each NGO did however have a unique activity. The unique activities could not be explored in greater detail and again the reader is referred to Table 5, which indicates the range of areas that the organisation’s programmes cover.

4.4.3.6.4 Immediate and long-term benefits of programme for participants

The Directors and programme managers gave similar responses as to the immediate and long-term benefits (rewards) of participating in the programmes. The outcomes (which are the end-results) are presented in section 4.4.3.6.3.2.

4.4.3.6.3.1 Immediate benefits

The immediate benefits have been categorised into benefits of a psychological, social and economic nature.

Psychological

One out of 18 respondents mentioned a greater sense of self-confidence, moving away from substance abuse and the ability to save (money), which indicates a level of discipline and maturation.

Social

Four out of 18 respondents mentioned immediate social benefits. Friendships formed among and between the participants were one such immediate social benefit mentioned. There was an opportunity for group work and interaction whereby participants can talk openly about the challenges they face. Safety and accommodation in a healthy environment were mentioned by Director I.

Economic

Six organisations offered their participants some immediate form of economic benefit. Two organisations (A and H) offered their participants a monthly stipend. From this amount, in the case of Organisation A, participants were required to learn to save some of the money. Organisation H participants could use the allowance for stationery and travel expenses. Organisation G offered its participants that were in need of a meal, breakfast and lunch. Female Organisation G participants from poorer socio-economic backgrounds were provided with vouchers from Clicks to obtain sanitary necessities and deodorants. Participants who expressed difficulty in finding bus fare to get to Organisations C and G could obtain bus tickets from the organisation's administration. Organisations B, F and I stated that participants in their programmes received the immediate benefit of accommodation, including meals.

These findings indicate that these youth NGOs were doing more than trying to achieve their broad programme objectives by providing psychological, social and economic rewards to their participants. The organisations that provided meals, stipends and bus fare to their

participants were fulfilling their participants' most basic needs and not just focusing on the long-term goals of future employment.

4.4.3.6.3.2 Long-term benefits

The long-term benefits are presented in the categories of personal, social, economic and political.

Personal

Three out of 18 respondents stated that their participants would, in the long run, develop leadership skills, self-confidence and 'good decision making' capabilities.

Social

One respondent (Director A) envisioned that young people would not leave their communities in search of employment. This long-term benefit of their programme would significantly reduce migration.

Economic

Both respondents from seven out of the ten organisations all made mention of at least one long-term economic benefit. These benefits were identified as: the stimulation and growth of local economies by local residents; 'economic growth' at the community level; youth becoming 'employable'; opportunities for youth to pursue a career in ECD/Education; work placements for its participants; breaking the cycle of poverty through securing employment; 'skills attainment'; and career prospects. The researcher found that the long-term benefits offered were mainly economic with employability being the main benefit.

4.4.3.6.5 Outcomes: options available to participants on completion of programmes

The researcher wanted to find out what the specific outcomes were of the programmes the NGOs offered the youth who participated in or engaged in these programmes. The options available to choose from were enterprise creation; formal employment; further education; and an 'Other' option.

Figure 4: Opportunities and options available to participants on completion of programmes



It is clear that six out of the ten NGOs hoped that on completion of programmes, participants would aspire to further education. This was an interesting finding for the researcher as the NGOs participants were out-of-school and some were over 16 years of age. A probe into the type of further education that the NGOs had in mind was unfortunately not feasible due to the limited nature of the current study. Six out of the ten NGOs envisaged the formal employment of the participants and only four of the ten NGOs are geared towards youth starting their own business on completion of the programmes. All these opportunities were in line with the NGOs' main objectives for youth development.

The next section presents the researcher's inquiry into the Director's opinion of the promotion of small business development as an employment strategy.

4.4.3.7 Opinions on the promotion of small business development as an employment strategy

These opinions were elicited to investigate the personal opinions of the Director on the promotion of small business development as an employment strategy and how these opinions could possibly link, if at all, to the objectives of the organisation, the programme activities, and the approach the organisation adopts to address youth unemployment. The Directors were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with nine statements on 'the promotion of small business development' on a scale of one to five. The highest possible score of 45 would represent a Director's strong belief in the promotion of small business

development as a viable employment strategy. The lowest possible score of nine would represent the converse.

Figure 5 reveals that Director I had the highest score of 39 out of a possible 45. The lowest opinion of the promotion of small business development as an employment strategy was that of Director G with a score of 22 out of 45. Interestingly, Director I (who held a strong belief in the promotion of enterprise creation as an employment strategy) did not select 'enterprise creation' as one of the opportunities or options available for their participants on completion of their programmes and yet Director G whose belief in the promotion of youth enterprise (as an employment strategy) was below average stated that enterprise creation was one of the available options for youth on completion of the organisation's programmes. It can generally be said that the Directors' opinions were in support of the promotion of small business development. However, while only three organisations (A, B and D) stated that entrepreneurship was an area of focus in their programmes, four organisations stated that enterprise creation was an option available to participants on completion of their programmes (organisations A, D, G and H). It is therefore perplexing to understand how the NGOs which do not cover entrepreneurship in their programme areas expect their participants to engage in entrepreneurial activity on completion of their programmes.

Figure 5: Opinion of Directors on the promotion of small business development as an employment strategy



It is the researcher's finding and conclusion that there were tenuous links between the Directors' opinions on the promotion of small business development as an employment strategy and enterprise creation as an organisation's objective on completion of its programmes. Clearly, other than the Director's outlook on the promotion of small business development, other factors (such as funding) were possibly driving the particular approach adopted by the organisation to youth development.

4.4.4 Section B: CONCLUSION

The findings of this section are that the ten organisations in the current study work with youth that include the researcher's target group but the range was as broad as from 7 to 35 years of age. The programmes of all ten NGOs included black youth participants. Five of the organisations offered one programme for youth of 15-24 years and the organisation that ran the most programmes offered over 30 programmes to youth in over 31 communities in Cape Town. None of the respondents stated that their programmes were a replication of an existing programme. Two respondents stated that their programmes had borrowed elements from existing programmes but that original ideas had been added to make the programme unique. Two respondents claimed that elements of their programmes had been replicated by other organisations.

Using the framework of the logical model it was confirmed that unemployment was the major problem that the youth participants of their programmes face. The unemployment was caused by different factors. In addition, there were five factors identified as obstacles to small business development by the youth. The major obstacle was fear of failure, selected by nine out of ten Directors. The purposes of the programmes were presented, with skills-training being identified as a popular objective among the NGOs. The immediate and long-term benefits of the programmes, as well as the outcomes on completion of the programmes were presented. Finally the Directors' opinions on the promotion of small business development were offered. The next section will present the findings on innovative practice of the participating organisations.

4.4.5 SECTION C: INNOVATIVE PRACTICE

This section presents the findings of the survey on innovative practice of the ten organisations in the current study. The respondents' definitions of 'innovative practice' and what they believe constitutes an innovative programme are the starting point. The section then looks at the conditions that promote innovative practice within the participating organisations and those conditions that would hinder innovative practice. The section ends with a presentation of the respondents' opinions in comparing NGO innovativeness with that of the private sector and the government.

4.4.5.1 Definitions of Innovative Practice

Only one of the 18 respondents (PMD) could not define the term. Respondents used one of the following words or terms in their definitions: "adjusting, creative, transform, new things, different(ly), out-of the box, ground-breaking". Some of the definitions are presented below.

Adjusting/adapting:

Director F: "Adjusting accordingly to socio-economic and political environment in which one operates".

Creativity:

Director G: "The need to be creative and transform. Don't have to do everything by the book".

PME: "When someone is able to be creative".

PMC: "The practice of being creative".

Difference/Newness:

Director B: "Something new, not used before. A different approach, a developmental approach. Building the plane as you fly it".

Director C: "Trying to do something differently. Having a dynamic system that changes".

Director D: "Think out of the box, think innovatively".

PMH: "Doing things differently without compromising quality and remaining focused".

Director H: "Practice that is new and ground-breaking, not been done before".

Director I: "Thinking out-of-the-box, being creative. If something works for a long time you don't have to keep doing it - criticise. With a lack of finance you have to be creative".

Learning:

Director A: "To create as you go along. Learning as you are doing. Self-creation".

It was the researcher's finding that all the respondents offered a satisfactory definition of what innovative practice entailed. Patel (2005: 234) defines innovation as "the conception, design, adoption, implementation and evaluation of new ideas and new priorities". The definitions of innovative practice offered by the respondents picked up on aspects of the above definition by Patel (2005) and were in line with the researcher's understanding of innovative practice.

4.4.5.2 What constitutes an innovative programme(s)

The 18 respondents were asked what they thought constituted an innovative programme and whether they regarded any of their own programmes as innovative. All the 18 respondents stated that their organisation's programmes were innovative. The respondents' definitions and justifications are captured below.

Director A: "One that has personal impact and relevance on the individuals taking part. A programme that changes individuals in the context of a collective". Director A felt that their programme was innovative because of its 'savings component' which he said was quite unique. "Participants receive a stipend and have to learn to save from that".

PMA: regarded their programme as innovative as it was not offered anywhere else.

Director B: "A programme that equips someone with different skills/unique skills". Director B felt that their programme was innovative because due to the training their participants had received, they had the opportunity to serve as youth leaders at Scripture Union camps.

PMB: regarded their 'New birth programme' as innovative because it was holistic.

Director C: "A programme that adapts according to the needs of its participants". Director C felt that their programme was innovative as it changed according to the needs of its participants.

PMC: felt that their programme's focus on health, which was an area neglected by other NGOs' youth programmes, made their programme innovative.

Director D: Incorporating innovative ideas into the programmes. Director D stated that their programme was innovative for using Information Communication Technology (ICT) for improved communication in training and in business in the organisation.

PMD: felt that their 'five turn-around strategies' of their 'WE CAN campaign' were an innovative component of their programmes.

Director E: "Something that is new, out-of-the box, does not conform to the norm or traditional way of doing things. A programme that offers other options to explore which is proven successful through monitoring and evaluation". The Director stated that all their programmes were innovative and addressed transformational leadership issues. The Director stated that leadership programmes are not a new domain to NGOs but adopting the developmental approach and administering the programmes experientially made the programmes different and innovative.

PME: stated that their outdoors programmes were innovative because they were creative and thrilling yet still had an important educational component.

Director F: "A programme responsive to the socio-economic and political environment". The Director stated that their programmes did just that - responded to the socio-economic issues of unemployed youth and youth problems.

Director G: Stated that an innovative programme was "A unique and special programme". All the NGO's programmes are regarded as innovative as they are different in their implementation and "are open to people for redefining".

PMG: felt that all their programmes were innovative and gave the example of their audio-visual project which allows disadvantaged youth to learn skills in an exciting area to which they would not normally be exposed.

Director H: This Director referred the response back to the definition of innovative practice that he provided (practice that is new and ground-breaking, not been done before) and stated that their programme was innovative because the programme integrated a range of services.

PMH: stated that their programme was innovative in that they offered their ECD training programme to their participants in a way that was different to any other organisations offering ECD training. Further, there was a guarantee of work placement at no cost to the participant.

Director I: This Director's definition of an innovative programme was "A programme that is creative, new". The Director stated that their programme is innovative because many organisations did not offer family reunification in the residential setting. The organisation embraced its participants as family (which she stated was often criticised by the Department of Social Development). The programme involved "great free-time activities which were very innovative".

PMI: felt that the 'Mekasi' brand of one of their programmes was unique, fashionable and marketable.

Director J: Defined an innovative programme as "A creative programme which is exciting". The programme is innovative in that they "offered participants the opportunity to showcase their talent and tell their stories which led to the publishing and documentation of some of them".

All the explanations given by the respondents are satisfactory for what can be defined as an 'innovative programme'. None of the justifications offered for why the respondents viewed their programme(s) as innovative were similar, even within the same organisation. This finding strengthens the finding that respondents define innovative practice differently and therefore view what can be called innovative differently. Despite the differences in

justification, there were no major differences in opinion between the responses from the Directors and their programme managers.

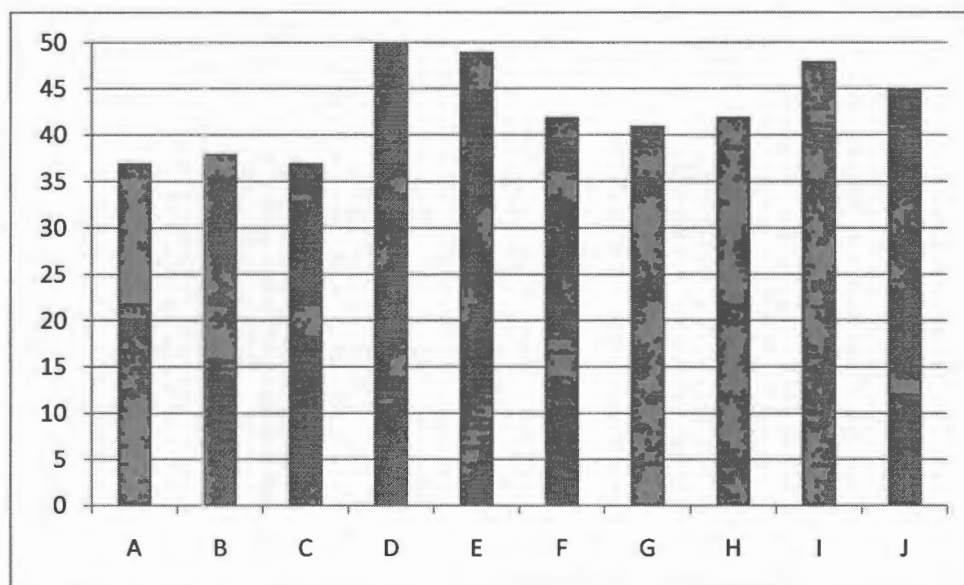
4.4.5.3 Conditions that promote innovative practice within the organisation

The researcher investigated conditions that promote innovative practice within the organisation by using characteristics of a learning organisation and an organic model of organisations as frameworks for questions.

4.4.5.3.1 Learning organisation characteristics

The Directors were asked to rate how applicable 10 statements about learning organisation characteristics as given by Senge (1990) were to conditions in their own organisations (refer to Appendix A). The ratings were on a scale of one to five whereby one represented 'highly inapplicable' and five represented 'highly applicable'. A top score of 50 represents a Director's perception that all of the learning organisation characteristics statements presented are highly applicable to his/her own organisation.

Figure 6: Applicability of learning organisation characteristics



The responses of all directors indicated that their organisations had most of the characteristics of learning organisations. The lowest score was 37 out of 50 for Organisations A and C. Organisation D had the highest possible score of 50, which translates to Director D asserting that their organisation has characteristics that are highly conducive to innovative practice. The researcher's finding is that all the Directors therefore viewed their organisations as learning organisations which provide a context conducive to innovative practice. Patel (2005:235) asserts that "Innovation and the evolution of good practice take place in organisations that are reflective and that can be denoted as learning organisations". The Directors' rating of the 'learning organisation' conditions therefore illustrates the great extent to which the Directors felt that their organisations were contexts in which innovative practice could flourish.

4.4.5.3.2 Reflective practice

In order to explore how 'reflective' the organisations were, both respondents in each organisation were asked how frequently employees met to discuss change strategies. The researcher asked this as it can illustrate an organisation's commitment to identify and provide services and programmes that are responsive to the changing needs of its participants. The respondents in each organisation gave consistent answers. The researcher found that the majority (four organisations: A, B, C and J) held strategic planning meetings twice a year, followed by two organisations which met once a year for the same reason. All the organisations stated that they met for less formal meetings on a more regular basis, for example at the end of every week.

Patel (2005) states that organisations that are reflective are favourable for innovative practice. Holding regular meetings was one way of ensuring constant reflection and ensuring that a 'shared vision' (Senge, 1990) is created through strategic planning meetings. This was exactly what the participating organisations did.

4.4.5.3.3 Teamwork

The programme managers were asked what their preference was, to work in teams or individually. All eight respondents stated that they preferred to work in teams. Some of the motivations given for this were that: better ideas are generated in teams; it is more exciting to work in a team; a difficult task is better accomplished in a team; and that colleagues can offer each other support in areas of weakness. Senge's (1990) principle of team learning is that teamwork as a practice can lead to the attainment of organisational goals and build cohesion among employees. The researcher found these reasons to be true of why teamwork is promoted in organisations.

4.4.5.3.4 Organic model characteristics

Question seven of the Director's questionnaire was a six-part question whereby the Directors were asked to select one of two options which was most applicable to the internal operations in their organisation. One option represented operations that are 'organic' in nature while the other represented a 'mechanistic' way of doing things (please refer to question 7 of Appendix A).

Figure 7: Applicability of organic model characteristics

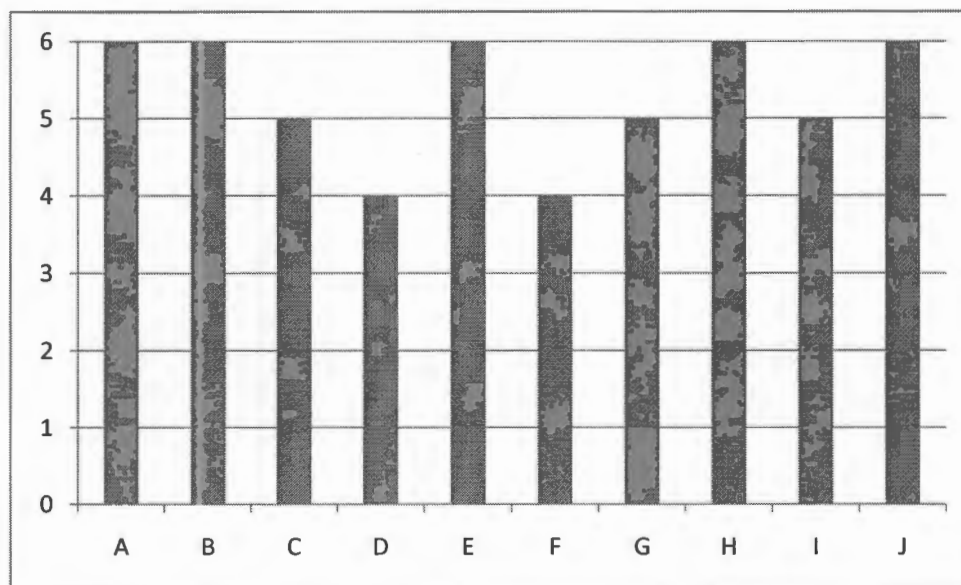


Figure 7 indicates that all the organisations scored four or more out of six which reflects dominant organic conditions in these organisations.

Clark (1991) claimed that an NGO's ability to be innovative was heightened by organic characteristics of organisations, such as having fewer staff and therefore less formal structures. Not all the NGOs had small staff complements and contrary to Clark's (1991) assertion, even the large organisations (such as Organisation G which had a complement of 76 professional staff) still claimed to be organic. In all the organisations there was an indication of the absence of formal structures as all respondents claimed that there was more verbal communication as opposed to written communication. These characteristics all pointed to a context conducive to innovative practice in the organisations in the current study.

4.4.5.3.5 NGOs' partnerships with other organisations that improve effectiveness of service delivery

Asked whether their organisations were in any sort of partnership with other organisations, the combined responses of the Directors and programme managers in each organisation are as follows:

Eight organisations: A, D, E, F, G, H, I and J stated that they did not have any partnerships they recognised as significantly improving the effectiveness of their programmes.

Organisation B: partnered with "You and Your Money, Impact Direct and the South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence (SANCA)". The programme manager elaborated on the role that SANCA played in providing rehabilitative support for the organisation's participants.

Organisation C recognised: "The Homestead, Nyabonga, Mosaic, Umtha Welanga and Beth Uriel" as some of the organisations it partnered with. The nature of these partnerships was complex and not discussed in great detail but the main partner was The Homestead which was where the participants of Organisation C were sourced.

The researcher's finding is that it was clear that the majority of the NGOs wanted to claim the success of their programmes as their own and did not believe that the effectiveness of their programmes was dependent on other role-players. This finding is not reflected by Lewis

(2007) who wrote that the relationships NGOs have with other agencies and professionals or technical experts working in or alongside their institutions can significantly promote innovative practice and increase the effectiveness of an organisation's performance.

The conditions that promote innovative practice in organisations have been presented (learning and organic organisation characteristics; and partnerships with other institutions). A brief section on the conditions that could constrain the implementation of a 'good idea' within the organisation follows.

4.4.5.4 Conditions that could constrain the implementation of a 'good idea' within the organisation

To explore some of the reasons why a good idea would not be implemented in the organisation, this question was directed at all the respondents. From the 18 responses, it was found that financial constraints (lack of funding) were the main reason that would stop a good idea from being implemented. Human resource constraints (no capacity and time) were constraints cited by respondents of three organisations (A, C and I). One organisation (D) identified another separate constraint, which was 'bureaucratic constraints' of the government before the NGO could implement the 'good idea'.

These financial and human resource constraints are similar to the 'powerlessness' or inability to acquire resources that Lewis (2007) describes. The respondents all cited 'external' reasons (government bureaucracy for example) as possible blocks to the implementation of a good idea.

4.4.5.5 Comparison of NGO innovativeness to that of the private sector and government

Over the past few years, as part of their 'corporate social responsibility', the developmental role of the private sector (such as banks, supermarket chains and other retail giants) in impoverished communities has been increasing. Questions elicited all 18 respondents' opinions on the innovativeness of the NGO sector in comparison with the private sector and government's involvement in the development field.

4.4.5.5.1 Comparison of NGOs innovativeness with private sector

Fifteen respondents indicated that NGOs are more innovative compared with the private sector. The respondents gave similar justifications for their position. The main points that were highlighted were that private sector initiatives were bent on maintaining the status quo, while NGO changes were more deep-seated; NGOs pay more attention to the actual needs of their participants compared with the private sector; NGOs are on the ground and constantly monitoring progress; they establish and maintain close relationships with their participants.

There are similarities between these findings and the views of Davids et al. (2005) who state that NGOs are able to articulate and meet the needs of communities at the grassroots level.

The three respondents who were of the opinion that NGOs are less innovative compared with the private sector justified this position with explanations such as that NGOs are doing 'more of the same type of work' and not diversifying (Director C); that NGOs merely "dictate what type of development should take place" (lack of consultation with their participants/beneficiaries) (Director D); and their funding constraints restrict NGO innovations (Director J).

These three opinions reiterate the positions of Clark (1991) and Smillie and Helmich (1993) who state that NGOs' work is merely replication and duplication in new communities; a 'reinvention of old wheels' (Smillie and Helmich, 1993:19).

4.4.5.5.2 Comparison of NGOs' innovativeness with that of government

Once again, the majority of respondents (17 out of 18) were of the position that NGOs were more innovative than government. The foremost justification cited by the respondents was that NGOs are less bureaucratic compared with government. Other reasons given were that the government does not diversify its programmes or approach to problems; NGOs focus on the quality of the service they offer while government is more concerned with numbers (quantity).

Director B felt that "bureaucratic constraints in government are not conducive to innovative practice". The opinions of the respondents with regard to bureaucratic constraints hampering innovative practice in government are supported by Clark (1991) who states that the ability to

innovate may be as a result of NGOs being less constrained by orthodox ideas and structures compared with mainstream aid agencies and governments.

Only one respondent was of the opinion that NGOs are less innovative than the government. This respondent's (Director D) justification for this position was that "Human development, particularly job creation is expensive and costly and NGOs don't have enough resources to address the problem head on". Director D's view was therefore based on government having more resources compared with the NGO sector. The lack of funding was previously cited by other respondents as a reason why innovative ideas could not be implemented and therefore this respondents' view holds water as NGOs often experience funding constraints.

The popular position of NGOs being more innovative compared with the government and the private sector reflects the overwhelming belief in NGOs as innovators in youth development. This is also the view of the researcher who agrees that while NGO programmes are often replication and duplication, NGOs are still far more innovative and responsive to youth development problems. Government lacks the flexibility and while the private sector may have the financial ability, social spending and investments are not the primary objectives.

4.5 Chapter summary

To conclude, it is evident from the findings of the survey that working with out-of-school unemployed youth is complex. Out-of-school, unemployed youth face many challenges to securing employment; not only do they lack skills but many are lacking in self-confidence as well. The NGOs that are working with such youth strive to offer their participants various services they foresee as providing the participants with immediate benefits and ultimately equipping them with life-changing opportunities in the longer term on completion of the programmes. Various reasons were identified as to why youth in Cape Town are unemployed. Further, a fear of failure is seen as the main reason why unemployed youth do not start their own businesses. While NGOs strive to offer their participants opportunities that would lead to their overall development, numerous challenges to service delivery affect the ability of the organisations to innovate.

All the participating organisations stated that they offer innovative programmes and the responses given point to all the organisations having conditions that are conducive to innovative practice. The majority of the respondents also felt that the NGO sector was generally more innovative in their approach to youth development compared with the government and the private sector.

In the final chapter conclusions on the current study are drawn and recommendations offered, both of which are based on the findings.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This final chapter offers conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of this study. The conclusions are presented according to the objectives of the study which were to describe the key characteristics of innovative practice; to explore the nature of engagement of NGOs working with out-of-school, unemployed youth; and to identify the various factors that promote or constrain innovative practice within these organisations. The researcher also concludes on the research methods used. Based on the findings and conclusions, recommendations are offered for the consideration of NGOs working with the youth, research institutes and the South African government.

5.2 Conclusions

5.2.1 The key characteristics of innovative practice

From the literature reviewed, the key characteristics of innovative practice were identified. These characteristics include reflective practice, a learning culture in the organisation, an ability to adapt to changes in the development climate, and working in partnerships with other organisations and experts/professionals. Innovative practice involves the renewal of existing programmes and/or processes or the introduction of totally new programmes. Innovative practice is likely to emanate from a learning organisation. Creativity has been associated with innovative practice as it involves the formulation of ideas that are not mainstream in their approach.

That this research objective was met in the current study is of considerable significance, especially when taking into account the limited amount of literature on innovative practice in the human services professions.

5.2.2 Nature of engagement of NGOs working with out-of-school, unemployed youth

With regard to the nature of engagement of NGOs working with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town, the researcher concludes that the ten organisations included in the study have, to a great extent identified the needs and problems that this category of youth face. The problem of unemployment was seen as stemming from a lack of skills and experience; poor, little or no education; and personal or self-inflicted causes. This identification of needs and problems has led to the NGOs developing programmes that strive to meet these needs and engage youth in activities that aim to improve their psychological and socio-economic status.

It is the researcher's conclusion that the nature of engagement of NGOs working with out-of-school, unemployed youth between 15 and 24 years old in Cape Town is of great importance as the contribution to offering youth immediate and long-term benefits is invaluable. Because of their involvement with these NGOs, the programme participants of each NGO realise some form of immediate benefit. Shelter, meals and stipends are some of the immediate benefits offered by some of the participating NGOs and social benefits in the form of peer relationships were also valuable.

The researcher further concludes that while the programmes may be available, in some organisations, programme advertisement can be improved and is currently insufficient. While some NGO programmes no longer need advertising as they are well known and have waiting lists of participants for the next couple of years, other NGOs have participants below the capacity/number that they can accommodate.

The research objective of exploring the nature of engagement of NGOs working with out-of-school, unemployed youth from 15 to 24 years old in Cape Town has to a large extent been met. The nature of the activities of the programmes could not be fully explored due to the highly divergent programmes offered by each NGO.

5.2.3 Conditions that promote or constrain innovative practice in NGOs working with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town

5.2.3.1 Conditions that promote innovative practice

It is the researcher's conclusion that within the ten organisations in the current study, similar conditions were found to be promoting innovative practice. The learning, reflective and organic organisation characteristics were found to be applicable to all ten organisations. Internal teamwork was one such condition that promotes innovative practice that was confirmed by all the respondents as being of great value and a preferred way of carrying out tasks.

Regular meetings for reflection and planning were carried out, and considered necessary in case there were matters that required more immediate attention.

While the literature states that partnerships are vital to NGOs' ability to innovate, only two of the ten NGOs recognised partnerships with other organisations as improving the effectiveness of their programmes. The respondents' understanding of the nature of innovative practice was also satisfactory and only one respondent did not know how to define innovative practice.

5.2.3.2 Conditions that constrain innovative practice

There were similarities between the literature and the responses of the research respondents regarding the conditions that constrain innovative practice. Respondents cited two main reasons why innovative practice would fail to flourish in the NGOs, namely the lack of funding and the lack of human resource capacity. Similarly, according to Lewis (2007), "...powerlessness in the form of an inability to command the necessary resources or technical information" can hinder innovation. The other conditions such as extreme competition among employees and active or passive resistance from colleagues were not found to threaten innovative practice in the participating organisations.

The researcher concludes that within these organisations there are prevailing learning, organic and reflective organisational conditions that allow innovative practice to flourish. The organisations do not see any obstacles to innovative practice other than financial and human

resource constraints. Only one organisation felt that bureaucracy on the part of government could also thwart innovative practice.

5.2.4 Research methods employed

The researcher's conclusion on the research methods that were used in the current study are that the methods were adequate and facilitated the fulfillment of the exploratory and descriptive purposes of the study. The literature review explored the important issues of unemployment, youth development policies and innovative practice. The flexible nature of the survey method (Babbie and Mouton, 2006) allowed the researcher to ask several controlled questions. Similar to Bell's (1999) assertion the researcher found it to be true that the survey finds answers as to "what, where, when and how", but poses difficulties establishing "why"? (Bell 1999:13). The researcher countered this problem by including open-ended questions and allowing respondents to justify their answers.

5.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on the experiences gained in carrying out the study, the main findings of the survey and the above conclusions.

The recommendations are offered to NGOs working with the youth, research councils/foundations and government.

5.3.1 Recommendations for NGOs working with the youth

Recommendation 1: Networking of youth NGOs

The first recommendation is for the consideration of NGOs working in the area of youth unemployment. The recommendation is for them to form some sort of network in order to exchange knowledge. NGOs can further be of use to each other by providing services to one another such as the NGOs that offer residential services could house some of the homeless

participants from other NGOs and NGOs that offer ICT training could outsource this service to other NGO programme participants.

Recommendation 2: Making use of volunteers

NGOs that feel that they do not have the capacity to carry out some innovative ideas should consider making use of volunteers. Volunteers could be trained and their services could be called upon as required. This could go some way to addressing the human resource constraints of organisations that are failing to roll-out good ideas for this reason.

Recommendation 3: Constant information updates

The researcher recommends that NGOs constantly update the information they send out to the public. The researcher had difficulty establishing contact with some of the NGOs because their websites provide outdated information on contact numbers or people. It is likely that youth who may require the services of the NGOs experience the same difficulty. The NGOs can also consider broadening their modes of advertisement and clearly making it known when specific programmes start and the number of current vacancies.

5.3.2 Recommendations for research councils/foundations

Recommendation 1: Re-compilation of NGO data

The re-compilation of data on NGOs working with youth is required. Foundations such as the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) and the National Research Foundation (NRF) could fund this re-compilation. This recommendation is also open to the business/profit-making sector. In the update, compilers should consider including unregistered NGOs, even if it is just listing/mentioning them without greater detail. The current available data exclude some NGOs which work with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town and the researcher only managed to find out about some of these NGOs through snowball sampling.

Recommendation 2: Further research

A follow-up in-depth interview with the NGO Directors included in the current study would enrich the data collected particularly concerning the nature of the programmes which were difficult to categorise due to their differences.

The researcher also recommends that a survey be conducted among the programme participants of the NGOs included in the current study to validate the programme activities and benefits that were claimed by the Director and programme manager respondents.

Further research is needed into the nature of NGO engagement with out-of-school, unemployed youth on a case-by-case basis. A survey alone can never fully do justice to the magnitude of the work being done by each organisation. For example, while Organisation A may have been found to have just one youth programme, like Organisation B, the Director (of Organisation A) reiterated several times that it was a million-rand programme of a wide scope, working with approximately 300 youth, whereas Organisation B, also offering just one youth programme, caters for just 14 youth. Further research would be useful to explore and describe the magnitude of these programmes, perhaps in the form of case studies. This information would be useful to potential funders, youth in need of the services, and anyone interested in aspects of youth development.

5.3.3 Recommendations for government

The researcher recommends that the government department/persons responsible for approving (or rejecting) NGOs' proposals for funding do so with haste. Delays in approval of NGOs' business plans by government were found to be a constraint with regard to service delivery. Delays in approving funding leave the NGOs incapable of running their programmes effectively.

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APPENDIX A: NGO DIRECTOR'S QUESTIONNAIRE

University of Cape Town



Department of Social Development

NGO DIRECTOR'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Name of Researcher: Nyasha Mutongwizo (MSoc Sc Social Development).

Contact details:

Cell phone number: 071 444 5444

Email address: nymutongwizo@yahoo.com

Name of Supervisor:

Dr M. Booyens

Title of Research:

“Innovative practice of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) working with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town: An exploratory study”.

Information about participating in the research

Risks:

There are no risks involved.

Benefits:

Although no immediate benefits will be received, participating in this research will result in the compilation of a report which will provide potentially useful knowledge for future appreciation.

Costs and Payment:

There is no cost for participating in the research, other than the time spent completing the questionnaire.

There will be no payment for participating in the research.

INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH

AND

RESPONDENT CONSENT FORM

Your organisation was purposively selected for this research as it works with out-of-school, unemployed youth (15-24 years) in Cape Town. I request you to take 40-50 minutes to honestly and openly respond to the questions set out in the questionnaire.

As Director, you are requested to respond to the questions posed, which seek to generate information mainly about your programme participants and the programmes your organisation runs. The questionnaire will be administered by the researcher or self administered should this be more convenient for you. In the case of self-administration and upon completion, please leave the questionnaire with your receptionist for my collection. I shall contact your organisation within 3-5 days after submitting the questionnaire to find out if it has been completed and to speak with you in case you may require clarity on any issues.

Questionnaire layout: The questionnaire comprises 3 main sections, namely: Section A: The Organisation; Section B: The Programme Participants; Section C: The Programmes; and Section D: Youth Policy and Enterprise as employment strategy.

Agreement to participate:

I agree to participate in this research study.

I have read this consent form and the information it contains and had the opportunity to seek clarity/ask questions about the research.

I agree to my responses being used for educational and research purposes on condition that my privacy will be protected.

I understand that my personal details (such as age, gender and occupation) may be included in the research but will be used in aggregate form only and that a pseudonym shall be used so that the Organisation and I will not be identifiable.

I understand that I am under no obligation to take part in this study.

I understand that I have the right to withdraw from this study at any stage.

Name of Respondent (or pseudonym): _____

Name of Organisation (or pseudonym) _____

Capacity at organisation (e.g. Director) _____

Signature of Respondent: _____ **Date:** _____

Thank you for your time and co-operation!

SECTION A: THE ORGANISATION:

1. In what year was your organisation established?

2. For how long have you worked in this organisation?

3. Please briefly describe your role in this organisation.

4. How many staff members (professional) does your organisation employ?

Permanent staff:

_____ Full time

_____ Part time

Temporary staff:

_____ Full time

_____ Part time

5. How applicable are the following statements to your own organisation - on a scale of 1 to 5 whereby 5 represents highly applicable and 1 represents highly inapplicable? (Please circle one number per statement).

- 5a) Employees feel that they are doing something that matters to them personally. 1 2 3 4 5
- 5b) Employees feel that they are doing something that matters to the larger community. 1 2 3 4 5
- 5c) Every individual in the organisation is somehow stretching, growing or enhancing his/her capacity to create. 1 2 3 4 5
- 5d) People are more intelligent together than they are apart. If you want something creative done, you ask a team to do it- instead of sending one person off to do it on their own. 1 2 3 4 5
- 5e) The organisation continually becomes more aware of its underlying knowledge base - particularly the store of unspoken, unarticulated knowledge in the hearts and minds of employees. 1 2 3 4 5
- 5f) Visions of the direction of the organisation emerge from all levels. The responsibility of top management is to manage the process whereby new emerging visions become shared visions. 1 2 3 4 5
- 5g) Employees are invited to learn what is going on at every level of the organisation, so they can understand how their actions influence others. 1 2 3 4 5
- 5h) People feel free to enquire about each others' (and their own) assumptions and biases. There are few issues that cannot be discussed openly. 1 2 3 4 5
- 5i) People treat each other as colleagues. There is mutual respect and trust in the way they talk to each other, and work together- no matter what their positions may be. 1 2 3 4 5
- 5j) People feel free to try experiments, take risks and openly assess the results. No one is punished excessively for making a mistake. 1 2 3 4 5

6. In relation to each pair of options, please tick the one option that is most applicable to the internal operations of your organisation.

There is individual specialisation: employees work separately and specialise in one task
There is joint specialisation: employees work together and coordinate tasks.....

There are simple integrating mechanisms: the hierarchy of authority is well-defined.....
There are complex integrating mechanisms: task forces and teams are primary
integrating mechanisms.....

Decentralisation: authority to control tasks is delegated; most communication is lateral.....
Centralisation: decision-making is kept as high as possible; most communication is vertical

Standardisation: extensive use is made of rules & standard operating procedures.....
Mutual Adjustment: face-to-face contact for coordination; work processes tend to be
unpredictable.....

Much verbal communication.....
Much written communication.....

The organisation is a network of positions, corresponding to tasks (each person
corresponds to one task).....
The organisation is a network of persons or teams. People work in different capacities
simultaneously and over time.....

TECHNOLOGY:

7. What technology plays a role in the successful running of your organisation?

FUNDING:

8. From where does your organisation get its funds?

Source of funds	Approximate percentage of total funding
Self-funding (organisation generates own funds)	
State-funded (rely on government funding)	
Privately funded (funded by private sponsors)	
Funded by international organisations	
Other sources (please state):	

NETWORKING:

9. Are there NGOs doing similar work to yours in Cape Town?

- Yes.
- No.

If yes, are you in any sort of partnership with these NGOs?

- Yes.
- No.

If yes, please describe the general nature of the partnerships.

POLICY:

10. What are the main government policies, legislation and/or strategies (national, provincial and/or local) influencing this organisation's approach to youth development, youth unemployment and linking marginalised youth to the economy?

PROBLEMS AND CONSTRAINTS:

11. What are the main problems and constraints to service delivery to youth that your NGO is facing?

SECTION B: THE PROGRAMME PARTICIPANTS

12. What is the age range of the youth who participate in your organisation's youth programmes? (E.g. 15-18 years).

13. What is the gender of your participants?

Male

Female

Both

14. From what geographical areas do your participants come?

15. What are the main causes of unemployment among your participants?

16. How do you advertise your programmes/services to your participants? (*Please tick all that are applicable*).

- Newspapers
- Word of mouth
- The Internet
- Signage
- Other:

SECTION C: THE PROGRAMMES

17. How many programmes for out-of-school, unemployed youth (15-24 years) does the NGO run?

18. In what programme areas does your organisation render services to the (15-24 years participants)? (Please indicate with a tick the programme areas).

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| Adult Basic Education_____ | Gender_____ | Religious Projects_____ |
| Agriculture_____ | HIV/AIDS_____ | Rehabilitation_____ |
| Capacity Building_____ | Housing_____ | Trade & Industry_____ |
| Community Development_____ | Income Creation_____ | Sexual Orientation_____ |
| Counseling and Therapy_____ | Information_____ | Sport_____ |
| Early Childhood Development_____ | Job Creation_____ | Sports Development_____ |
| Economic Development_____ | Labour_____ | Street Children_____ |
| Education_____ | Micro Credit_____ | Substance Abuse_____ |
| Entrepreneurship_____ | Micro Enterprise_____ | Tourism_____ |
| Family Services_____ | Media & Communications_____ | |
| Research_____ | Welfare_____ | Women's Issues_____ |
| Youth_____ | | |

Other (please specify):

19. What are the names of your youth programmes and what is the main purpose of each programme?

NAME OF PROGRAMME	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN PROGRAMME	MAIN PURPOSE OF PROGRAMME (brief description, please start with DURATION)
1.		DURATION: _____ _____ _____ _____
2.		DURATION: _____ _____ _____ _____
3.		DURATION: _____ _____ _____ _____ _____
4.		DURATION: _____ _____ _____ _____
5.		DURATION: _____ _____ _____

20. What options are available to participants on completion of your programmes?
(Please tick all that are applicable).

- Enterprise creation
- Formal employment
- Further education
- Other:

21. What are the immediate and long-term benefits that your youth programmes offer the programme participants?

Immediate:

Long term:

22. Have your programmes been replicated elsewhere?

- Yes.
- No.

If yes, by whom and where?

23. Has your organisation replicated a programme?

- Yes.
- No.

If yes, from whom and where?

INNOVATIVE PRACTICE:

24. What is your understanding of the nature of 'innovative practice'?

25. What, in your opinion, constitutes an 'innovative programme'?

26. Do you regard any of the programmes offered by your organisation as 'innovative'?

Yes.

No.

If yes, please name the programme that you regard as (most) innovative and explain what it is about the programme that you regard as innovative.

27. In your opinion, do you think that NGOs are more or less innovative with regards to youth unemployment problems COMPARED TO THE PRIVATE SECTOR? Please motivate your answer.

More innovative

Less innovative

Motivation:

28. In your opinion, do you think that NGOs are more or less innovative with regards to youth unemployment problems COMPARED TO GOVERNMENT?

Please motivate your answer.

More innovative

Less innovative

Motivation:

29. What, in your view, does this (your) NGO offer out-of-school, unemployed youth that other youth NGOs do not?

30. How often does staff meet to discuss change strategies within the organisation?

31. For what reasons would a good idea not be implemented in this (your) organisation?

[REDACTED]

32. What are the main policies, laws and strategies of provincial government (Western Cape) to link out-of-school, unemployed youth to the economy?

33. What is your general opinion on the effectiveness of these provincial policies laws and strategies?

34. The following are statements with regard to youth enterprise (self-employment and youth starting their own business). On a scale of 1 to 5, (1 being strongly DISAGREE and 5 being strongly AGREE), to what extent do you agree with the statements? (Please circle one number per statement).

- 34.1 It helps young men and women develop new skills and experiences that can be applied to many other aspects of life: political, social and economic. 1 2 3 4 5
- 34.2 It creates employment- not only for the young person who owns the enterprise but also for those the business may employ. 1 2 3 4 5
- 34.3 It provides innovation and development - it encourages young people to find new solutions, ideas and ways of doing things. 1 2 3 4 5
- 34.4 It creates a sense of community - one where young people are valued and better connected to society. 1 2 3 4 5
- 34.5 It gives young people a sense of meaning and belonging - it can shape a person's identity and encourage others to treat them as an adult. 1 2 3 4 5
- 34.6 It is only concerned with "keeping young people busy". 1 2 3 4 5
- 34.7 It sets young women and men up for failure by not providing sufficient support. 1 2 3 4 5
- 34.8 It encourages young people to take high risks (e.g. by taking huge loans) instead of looking at alternative ways of starting a business with a more manageable risk. 1 2 3 4 5
- 34.9 It is presented as a solution to all the problems of the economy (e.g. "small business will save the economy") or of young people (e.g. "young people must address their problems themselves by starting their own businesses"). 1 2 3 4 5

35. In your opinion what are the main obstacles to small business development and entrepreneurship by youth in Cape Town? (Please tick all that are applicable)

- Lack of information
- Fear of failure
- Lack of successful role-models
- Financial and resource constraints
- Lack of training in informal activity

- Other:

Please make any general comments you would like to add below

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND PARTICIPATION!

APPENDIX B: NGO PROGRAMME MANAGER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

University of Cape Town



Department of Social Development

NGO PROGRAMME MANAGER/ FACILITATOR'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Name of Researcher: Nyasha Mutongwizo (MSoc Sc Social Development).

Contact details: Cell phone number: 071 444 5444

Email address: nymutongwizo@yahoo.com

Name of Supervisor: Dr M. Booyens

Title of Research: "Innovative practice of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) working with out-of-school, unemployed youth in Cape Town: An exploratory study".

Information about participating in the research

Risks: There are no risks involved.

Benefits: Although no immediate benefits will be received, participating in this research shall result in the compilation of a report which will provide for potentially useful knowledge for future application.

Costs and Payment: There is no cost for participating in the research, other than the time spent completing the questionnaire.

There will be no payment for participating in the research.

**INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH
AND
RESPONDENT CONSENT FORM**

Your organisation was purposively selected for this research as it works with out-of-school, unemployed youth (15-24 years) in Cape Town. I request you to take approximately 50 minutes to one hour to honestly and openly respond to the questions set out in the questionnaire.

As a programme manager/facilitator/coordinator, you are requested to respond to the questions posed, which seek to generate information mainly about your programme participants and the programmes your organisation runs. The questionnaire will be administered by the researcher or self administered should this be more convenient for you. In the case of self-administration and upon completion, please leave the questionnaire with your receptionist for my collection. I shall contact your organisation within 3-5 days after submitting the questionnaire to find out if it has been completed and to speak with you in case you may require clarity on any issues.

Agreement to participate:

I agree to participate in this research study.

I have read this consent form and the information it contains and had the opportunity to seek clarity/ask questions about the research.

I agree to my responses being used for educational and research purposes on condition that my privacy will be protected.

I understand that my personal details (such as age, gender and occupation) may be included in the research but will be used in aggregate form only and that a pseudonym shall be used so that the organisation and I will not be identifiable.

I understand that I am under no obligation to take part in this study.

I understand that I have the right to withdraw from this study at any stage.

Name of Respondent (or pseudonym): _____

Name of Organisation (or pseudonym) _____

Capacity at organisation (e.g. Manager) _____

Signature of Respondent: _____ **Date:** _____

Thank you for your time and co-operation!

SECTION A: THE ORGANISATION:

1. For how long have you worked in this organisation?

2. Please briefly describe your role in this organisation.

3. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 representing a low extent and 5 representing a great extent) please indicate to what extent staff have flexibility to experiment, adapt and try out new approaches to problem solving. (Circle one number).

1 2 3 4 5

4. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 representing a low extent and 5 representing a great extent) please indicate to what extent employees feel that they are doing something that matters to them personally. (Circle one number).

1 2 3 4 5

5. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 representing a low extent and 5 representing a great extent) please indicate to what extent employees feel that they are doing something that matters to the larger community. (Circle one number).

1 2 3 4 5

6. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 representing of no importance and 5 representing of great importance) please indicate the importance of team work in your organisation. (Circle one number).

1 2 3 4 5

7. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 representing a low level and 5 representing a very high level) please indicate the level of coordination of tasks in the organisation. (Circle one number).

1 2 3 4 5

8. What is your preference: working in a team or as an individual?

In a team

As an Individual

Please motivate:

9. Does your organisation work with other organisations to increase the effectiveness of your youth programmes?

Yes.

No.

If yes, what other organisations do you work with to increase the effectiveness of your youth programmes? (Please name some of them).

10. What does your NGO offer your youth programme participants that other youth NGOs do not?

SECTION B: THE YOUTH PROGRAMME PARTICIPANTS

11. To what racial groups do your youth programme participants belong to? (Please tick all that are applicable).

African

Coloured

Indian

White

12. Please describe who your programme participants are.

13. What are the main causes of unemployment among your programme participants?

SECTION C: THE YOUTH PROGRAMMES.

14. What are the main activities involved in each of your youth programmes?

NAME OF PROGRAMME	ACTIVITIES
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

15. Have your programmes been replicated elsewhere?

- Yes.
- No.

If yes, by whom and where?

16. Has your organisation replicated a programme?

- Yes.
- No.

If yes, from whom and where?

17. What are the immediate and long term benefits that your programmes offer the programme participants?

Immediate:

Long term:

MONITORING AND EVALUATION:

18. How often are programmes reviewed?

19. At what points in the programmes can changes be made?

20. What difficulties to making necessary changes to the programmes does the NGO experience?

SECTION D: INNOVATIVE PRACTICE

21. What is your understanding of the nature of 'innovative practice'?

22. What, in your opinion, constitutes an 'innovative organisation'?

23. Do you regard any of the programmes offered by your organisation as 'innovative'?

- Yes.
 No.

If yes, please name the programme and explain what it is about the programme that you regard as innovative.

24. In your opinion, do you think that NGOs are more or less innovative with regard to youth unemployment problems COMPARED TO THE PRIVATE SECTOR? Please motivate your answer.

More innovative

Less innovative

Motivation:

25. In your opinion, do you think that NGOs are more or less innovative with regard to youth unemployment problems COMPARED TO GOVERNMENT?

Please motivate your answer.

More innovative

Less innovative

Motivation:

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND YOUR PARTICIPATION.

APPENDIX C: TELEPHONE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

A. INTRODUCTION:

Good day, my name is Nyasha Mutongwizo and I am a student at the University of Cape Town, with the Department of Social Development.

Please would you kindly direct my call to someone who can answer a few questions I have about the type of work your organisation is involved in...

A. WHEN CALL IS DIRECTED:

Repeat first part of introduction, then...

I will be carrying out research on the nature of the work NGOs are doing with unemployed, out-of school youth in the Cape Town and just wanted to find out, very quickly the following from you:

Whether your organisation works with out-of-school, unemployed youth 15 to 24 years?

(If YES- I would also like to find out if the youth are not in conflict with the law)

(If YES- what is the overall purpose of the services, programmes or projects that you run?)

If NO- Would you be able to assist me with the names and contacts of any NGOs you know of that do work with out-of-school, unemployed youth 15 to 24 years in Cape Town?

C. IF FROM RESPONSES GIVEN NGO APPEARS TO MEET SAMPLE CRITERIA:

May I contact you at a later date to set up an appointment with you to have a few more questions answered?

If YES- ask for contact names (Director and Programme manager).

If NO- Thank you so much for your time, have a pleasant day further.

Lastly, would you be able to assist me with the names and contact details of any NGOs you know of that do work with out-of-school, unemployed youth 15 to 24 years in Cape Town?

D. CONCLUDING REMARKS: Thank you so much for your time, have a pleasant day further.