

An exploration of how non-governmental organisations market their skills training programmes to marginalised youth living in Cape Town

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ABSTRACT

The high levels of poverty among marginalised youth in South Africa are a source of grave concern. Studies have shown that one of the main contributions to this phenomenon is unemployment, largely resulting from low skills levels, lack of experience and minimal job opportunities. Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) play a vital role in bridging this gap by providing Skills Training Programmes (STPs) to broaden youth's access to employment, as well as to open up opportunities for entrepreneurship. However, a previous study conducted among marginalised youth in Cape Town showed that large numbers were unaware of these STPs. The question arose in the researcher's mind as to what NGOs were doing to market their services. The purpose of the study, therefore, was to explore marketing tools and mechanisms that NGOs use to market their STPs to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.

Qualitative research was conducted with four managers and four marketing staff of four NGOs and 15 young people enrolled in STPs at these organisations. Data was analysed using Tesch's eight-step approach. The study revealed that participating NGO staff had a limited understanding of the term, marketing. As a result, the NGOs did not have documented marketing plans in place, resulting in haphazard marketing. The study also revealed that participating youth had found it very difficult to obtain information about the participating NGOs and their STPs, clearly illustrating that the marketing was not effective in reaching many who are in need of these services.

Recommendations included, among others, the need for: NGOs to devise marketing plans targeted at marketing their STPs to marginalised youth; NGOs to send PFMs in their organisations on staff development programmes which are focused on the development of

basic marketing skills and/or provide in-service training on basic marketing skills; NGOs to see donors and beneficiaries (youth) as equally important in order for them to put the same effort into the marketing of STPs to both; and, government and the private sector to work in an integrated manner by providing resources in order to establish Internet facilities in libraries in communities where the most disadvantaged youth live.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CBD:	Central Business District
DSD:	Department of Social Development
DTI:	Department of Trade and Industry
ESL:	Early School Leavers
FETCs:	Further Education and Training Colleges
ICT:	Information and Communication Technology
MCLRSASS:	Ministerial Committee on Learner Retention in the South African School System
M&E:	Monitoring and Evaluation
NGOs:	Non-Governmental Organisations
NPOs:	Non-Profit Organisations
NYDA:	National Youth Development Agency
NYP 2009:	National Youth Policy 2009
PFM:	Person Facilitating Marketing
PMs:	Programme Managers
SA:	South Africa
Stats SA:	Statistics South Africa
STCs:	Skills Training Centres
STPs:	Skills Training Programmes
WC:	Western Cape

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Lack of access to various opportunities and, information in particular, is what prevents many young people from learning for life and work, starting a productive working life and transitioning to full citizenship. South Africa (SA) has around 2.8 million youth aged between 19 and 24 years who are neither in school nor in employment (Motimele, Mahlangu, Tsotetsi, Nhlapo & Magongo, 2011). In SA, just as in many other countries, youth such as these experience many challenges, including a poor level of education, a lack of skills and work experience, unemployment and poverty (Barrar, 2010; Bhana, Swartz, Taylor, Scott, Dlamini & Vawda, 2011; Department of Social Development (DSD), 2007; Motimele et al., 2011). Poverty traps are created and it becomes extremely difficult for youth to realise their full potential and attain their full citizenship.

This chapter presents the following: context of the study, rationale and significance of the study, key concepts, main research question and sub-questions, study objectives, summary of the research design and, lastly, the layout of the report. This introductory chapter sets the backdrop to explore how NGOs market their skills training programmes to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.

1.2. Context of the study

The study was conducted in the City of Cape Town, the metropolitan city of the Western Cape Province (WC), South Africa. In 2011, the population stood at 5 822 734 (Statistics (Stats) SA, 2013), comprising 39% youth aged 15-34 and four population groups: 32.8% Black Africans (henceforth, Blacks), 48.8% Coloureds, 1% Asians/Indians (henceforth, Asians) and 15.7% Whites (the remaining 1.6%, Other) (Stats SA, 2011). Migration of people to Cape Town – mainly Blacks from Eastern Cape – in search of improved employment, basic services and education opportunities, contributes to the city's ever-growing population (Small, 2008; Western Cape Government, 2006).

As in other parts of SA, the majority of youth in Cape Town are living in communities that are characterised by inequality, poverty, poorly qualified teachers, and schools with physical structures that do not encourage teaching and learning (Bloch, 2009; 2010). In Cape Town,

280 of its 737 schools are no-fee schools, which have been identified by government as poor, and the majority of learners cannot afford to pay tuition fees, therefore fees are subsidised by government (Western Cape Government Provincial Treasurer (WCGPT), 2010). Another critical issue is that most youth in disadvantaged communities leave school early, especially in grades 10, 11 and 12; these are youth aged 16 – 18 (Ministerial Committee on Learner Retention in the South African Schooling System (MCLRSASS), 2007). In the WC, early school leaving was rated at 50% (Western Cape Education Department (WCED), 2005). The WCED (2005:6) notes that between 1999 and 2004, only 50% of learners who enrolled for grade 1 reached grade 12. This education situation of marginalised youth greatly impacts on their employability and, in most instances, they are excluded from employment (Barrar, 2010; Bhorat, 2007; Boda, 2005; Motimele et al., 2011). In order to counteract this situation, fifty Further Education and Training Colleges (FETCs)¹ have been established in South Africa, of which six are in Cape Town (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010; WCED, 2011). FETCs have been established as an alternative to increase education qualifications and skills development among youth who are not and who may not want to be in the formal system of education (Motimele et al., 2011). The aim is to increase young people's chances of getting into the labour market, where skills and educational qualifications are a prerequisite.

The labour force of Cape Town is estimated at 2 349 000 and the unemployment rate (using the expanded definition) stood at 24.3%, according to Labour Force Survey, 4th Quarter, 2011 (Stats SA, 2012). Most people within the labour force remain unemployed mainly because the economy fails to absorb and employ them for various reasons, including low skills levels, lack of experience, and lack of employment opportunities (WCGPT, 2010). In Cape Town, as in SA as a whole, unemployment patterns are strongly based on ethnic groups, age and gender. Census 2011 shows that 71.7% of Blacks, 44.8% of Coloureds, 24.2% of Asians and 11.9% of Whites are unemployed. The worst affected are youth, especially those in lower cohorts, with unemployment rates for 15-19 years at 60%, 20-24 years at 42% and 25-34 years at 27% (WCGPT, 2010:18). The most likely to be hit by unemployment within these age groups are early school leavers (ESL) (NYP, 2009:14). Youth unemployment is worsened by the fact that most youth are excluded from employment for many years (Barrar, 2010; Boda, 2005; Motimele et al., 2011). It thus appears that the need for second-chance learning

¹ FETCs exist as a mandate of the FETCs Act, 2006 (Act No. 16 of 2006). The aim is to provide qualifying learners with applied competence to help them in the transition from school to work and to provide qualifying learners with a basis for further learning.

opportunities, together with the need for education qualifications and skills for employment, are the main reasons for the establishment of youth STPs within the public and the NGO sectors in Cape Town and SA. The existence of these STPs creates the need for NGOs to find more ways of reaching out to the majority of the youth who need these services.

1.3. Rationale and significance of study

From a few studies, it appears that NGOs that provide STPs to marginalised youth do not market their programmes effectively (Paseluikho & Magnusson, 1992; Youth Development Network (YDN), 2008). In a study conducted in Calgary, Canada, Paseluikho and Magnusson reported that youth services were not well marketed. A study conducted by the YDN (2008) in SA confirms the findings of that study. The YDN study discovered that, even though there were many organisations and institutions active in providing youth with second chance opportunities, very few youth benefited from them in reality. This could partly be due to limited marketing, which contributed to youth having little information about these institutions, which, in turn, resulted in few young people accessing the training services.

Findings from Mulenga's (2011) study, conducted in Mitchell's Plain, Cape Town, support Paseluikho and Magnusson (1992) and YDN (2008). The study revealed that youth participants had little information about the existence of youth development programmes available to them, or of the non-governmental organisations (NGOs) which provided them. These shocking findings inspired me to further investigate these specific circumstances of marginalised youth and triggered the current study. My desire is, thus, to explore how NGOs market their STPs.

1.4. Research problem

Only one study seems to have been conducted into how NGOs market their services to marginalised people, in general (Dhake et al., 2010), and none on how NGOs market their STPs to marginalised youth. Information about these STPs does not seem to reach the majority of the youth, as most of them remain unaware of them (Mulenga, 2011; Paseluikho & Magnusson, 1992; Youth Development Network (YDN), 2008). This study sought to bridge this gap, focusing specifically on Cape Town.

1.5. Research questions

MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

How do non-governmental organisations market their skills training programmes to marginalised youth living in Cape Town?

1.5.1. Main research sub-questions

- How do NGOs perceive youth marginalisation and youth development in South Africa and in particular Cape Town?
- How do NGOs define marketing?
- What marketing tools and mechanisms do NGOs use in reaching marginalised youth?
- How do marginalised youth (those currently in training) perceive marketing tools and mechanisms used by participating NGOs?

1.6. Research objectives

- To ascertain NGOs' perception of youth marginalisation and youth development in SA and, in particular, Cape Town
- To ascertain how people in the NGO sector define marketing.
- To explore the marketing tools and mechanisms that NGOs use to reach marginalised youth.
- To explore marginalised youth's (those currently in training) perceptions of marketing tools and mechanisms used by NGOs.

1.7. Clarification of terms and concepts

The key terms and concepts used in this study are contested. For this reason, in this section, the researcher defines and clarifies them and indicates how they are applied in the current study.

1.7.1. Marketing plan

A marketing plan is a communication tool that combines marketing tools and mechanisms in a coordinated programme (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008). The plan makes clear who will do what, when, and where, and how to achieve its objectives.

1.7.2. Youth

Here, youth is defined by age as relevant to the study. The National Youth Policy (NYP) 2009-14 inclusively defines youth as those in the age range of 14-35 years (NYP, 2009). For the purpose of this study, youth are defined as young people aged 17-24 years, as in SA, they are within the group most affected by unemployment, mainly due to lack of skills and

experience (Arendse & Gunn, 2010; Barrar, 2010; Borat, 2007; Motimele, Mahlangu, Tsotetsi, Nhlapo & Magongo, 2011; National Planning Commission, 2010; NYP, 2009).

1.7.3. Non-governmental organisation (NGO)

NGOs are private organisations that pursue activities to reduce suffering, promote the interests of the poor, provide basic social services, or undertake community development (Aall, 2000). Moyo, Makumbe and Raftopolulos (2000), define NGOs as non-state organisations that usually operate as not-for-profit organisations, which have specific developmental objectives and are committed to providing social services in various sectors, including the youth sector. Other scholars (Dhake et al., 2010) define NGOs as agencies devoted to managing resources and implementing projects with the goal of addressing social problems. This dissertation will apply all of the above definitions of NGOs because they encompass most of the characteristics of the NGOs participating in the current study.

1.7.4. Youth development

The NYP (2009:10) defines youth development as a deliberate inclusive approach that provides space, opportunities and support for youth to maximise their personal and collective creative energies for individual development and the development of the society of which they are an integral part. This study applies this definition as it is comprehensive and clarifies what and how youth development should be done in the SA context in which the current study was conducted.

1.8. Summary of research design and methodology

This study adopted a qualitative approach. It is also of an explorative nature, i.e. the focus is exploring how NGOs market their STPs to marginalised youth living in Cape Town. To this end, a phenomenological research design was adopted. This research design aims to understand and interpret the subjective meaning that people being studied attach to their daily lives (Fouche, 2005; Robson, 2002). Therefore, an interpretative way of inquiry through in-depth interviews was applied in order for the researcher to thoroughly understand the participants' perception of marketing used by NGOs. An inductive approach was applied to data analysis, meaning that the researcher entered the field with an open mind and identified vital themes as they emerged during the one-on-one and focus group interview processes. In addition, a basic approach was adopted, as the knowledge acquired could fill an important

gap in current knowledge and might later be used to address specific needs (Carey, 2009). The detailed research methodology of the study is discussed in Chapter 3.

1.9. Layout of the report

This study consists of six chapters:

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2: Literature review

Chapter 3: Empirical study

Chapter 4: Research findings: interviews with non-governmental organisations

Chapter 5: Research findings: interviews with the youth

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

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CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a holistic theoretical framework for the study, particularly for the analysis of the data collected (Fouche & Delpont, 2005). The researcher consulted the materials available in the University of Cape Town (UCT) Libraries and on the internet, which provided all of the following sources of information: scientific books, journal articles (print and online), standard reference material such as statistical information, policy documents, research reports, and conference papers, and dissertations.

A combination of the social exclusion theory and capability approach provide a lens which provides insight into, and understanding of, the condition of youth in SA – exclusion and social marginalisation which are effects of, and contributing factors to, widespread unemployment and poverty. Proponents of both this theory and the approach have identified lack of access to education and training as major contributors and have singled out lack of access to information as a significant factor. Thus, the review includes an in-depth examination of the state of education and training in SA, including Cape Town, where this study was conducted. A survey of the national policies and Acts in SA relating to the youth reveals that NGOs play a major role in providing skills training to marginalised youth. The literature also confirms that marginalised youth lack information on these programmes, a situation that has been attributed to ineffective marketing on the part of NGOs, which is the focus of the study. Therefore, in order to establish the quality of their outreach, an outline of the principles of marketing was also undertaken.

2.2. Theoretical frameworks

This section discusses the theoretical frameworks that underpin this study, namely the social exclusion theory and the capability approach.

2.2.1. The social exclusion theory

“Social exclusion refers to the fact that despite welfare and general wealth, there still remains a group that is excluded from the mainstream benefits of society and is prevented in some way from fully enjoying the general prosperity” (Davids, Theron & Maphunye, 2009:39). Lack of access to vital opportunities in life puts people, including youth, in positions where they are unable to contribute to, and benefit from, the prosperity of society and they are

therefore, unable to better their lives (Hilker & Fraser, 2009). Social exclusion is a multidimensional process in which various forms of exclusion are combined (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008). Walker & Walker (1997:8) define social exclusion as “the dynamic process of being shut out from any of the social, economic, political and cultural systems which determine the social integration of a person in society”. This dynamic process leads to marginalisation where people or specific groups of people such as youth, children, women, are excluded from all mainstream systems such as education, the economy, and civic participation. Many youth are excluded geographically, socially, economically and politically and it is for this reason that the social exclusion perspective utilises complex indicators to highlight these elements of poverty and inequality (Davids et al., 2009).

This perspective underlines the risk of both material inequality and inequalities of power, which implies that addressing social exclusion would require, among other solutions, income redistribution and radical changes in the structures of the society (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008). In socially excluded societies, most people’s basic needs may have been met and income poverty may be lessened but there may still be deprivation and marginalisation. This theory therefore refers to the relational elements of poverty (Davids et al., 2009). Unemployment, poor skills, low incomes, poor housing, high crime, family breakdown and a lack of information, which affect people (including youth), are attributes of socially excluded communities (Ward, 2009). In addition, Mulenga (2011:30, 43) reported that prolonged exclusion of youth from the economy, *inter alia*, contributed to their experience of low self-esteem and frustration. Similarly, McCrystal, Higgins and Percy (2007:2), in their study conducted in Northern Ireland, *Exclusion and marginalisation in adolescence: the experience of school exclusion on drug use and antisocial behaviour*, discovered that excluding youth from employment led them to become dependent, resulting in their becoming helpless and hopeless, which, in turn, led to frustration, as they could not develop themselves. Certain young people in poor communities live in households where all members are unemployed and, to survive, they sell drugs (Mulenga, 2011). Similarly, Sylvester (2002) and Williams (2007) report that unemployment in Mitchell’s Plain, leads some people to commit various illegal activities to survive.

Social exclusion is promoted through various factors, including lack of provision of economic and livelihood opportunities, insufficient and unequal education and skills, lack of participation and mismatch of public policies to people’s needs, and lack of provision of

public information (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008; Hilker & Fraser, 2009; Klasen, 1998; Ward, 2009). Lack of opportunities to learn – low availability of education and training – and the poor quality of education are arguably the most critical drivers behind poverty and social exclusion. Skills are progressively important in contemporary labour markets, such that, without them there is a high risk of unemployment (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008). There is a strong argument in the social exclusion theory that when people, including youth, are excluded from education, employment and civic participation, they become isolated and lack access to information that can assist them to improve their lives (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008; Hilker & Fraser, 2009). In another school of thought, Sen refers to this lack of education, employment, public participation and lack of access to information as capability deprivation, which prevent individuals from making choices about the lives they want to lead and, on reflection, they have reason to value (Sen, 1999).

2.2.2. The capability approach

The capability approach is relatively new in development theories – mostly pioneered by philosopher and Nobel Prize winner in economics, Amartya Sen. This approach provides a framework for evaluation which is broad enough to capture all aspects of human wellbeing and development (Sen, 1999). Robeyns (2005) claims that this approach is holistic and humanistic in measuring and analysing people's situations, including those of the youth. Similarly to the social exclusion perspective, this approach intends to provide certain benchmarks for governments, institutions, social development practitioners, researchers and individuals to enhance people's wellbeing (Sen, 1999). Most vital is that this approach looks at people's real opportunities and possibilities to live the life they want; in other words, Sen (1999) argues that how well individuals are able to function with the goods and services ("capabilities/freedoms/real opportunities") which are made available to them in order to change their lives, is determined by the quality of those goods and services. Capabilities are referred to as opportunities/means – education, employment, community and societal participation – that enable people to achieve their goals, which are referred to as ends/doings/beings/functionings, and thus, live as they wish (Robeyns, 2005; Sen, 1999).

Robeyns (2005:94) argues that policies should focus on what people are able to do and be, on the quality of their life, and on removing obstacles in their lives so that they have more reason to live the kind of life that they value. The main idea of this approach is that social arrangements should aim at enhancing people's capabilities, that is, their opportunities to achieve their functionings (Sen, 2000). The model argues that a person should be provided

with the power to avoid diseases or harm through preventable measures which include education, employment, good nourishment, health care, participating in public activities and basic human rights (Wigley & Akkoyunlu-Wigley, 2006:291). This approach further argues that people are cut off from mainstream systems when freedoms such as education (including training), employment and access to information are not made available. The absence of these freedoms promotes devastating conditions, including lack of education, unemployment and poverty, which prevent marginalised youth from being able to change their lives, and keep them trapped in poverty (Sen, 1999).

In conclusion, it is clear that the social exclusion theory and capability approach show that access to information is central to enabling marginalised youth to find ways in which they can participate in learning, training, work or business, and/or in the community and thereby be able to contribute to transforming their lives and the communities in which they live. This calls for NGOs that offer youth skills development programmes to take the challenge of lack of access to information seriously and therefore, market their programmes effectively to ensure that information about those particular programmes reaches the marginalised youth.

2.3. Policy context

The SA government has shown that the challenges that youth experience are severe and require urgent and holistic interventions. This is evident from the numerous policies, Acts and programmes which have been formulated and enacted in order to respond to these challenges. The Further Education and Training Colleges Act of 2006 (Republic of South Africa, 2006), National Youth Development Agency (NYDA) (NYDA, 2013) and NYP 2009-2014 (NYP, 2009) have been identified as particularly relevant to this study. They are discussed in order to provide an understanding of what interventions are available and what their existence means to the young people in this study. It is important to note that, despite these initiatives, there are still challenges that youth face, which could be due to gaps in these initiatives, ever-changing social and economic conditions which influence young people's lives, and a lack of effective implementation and M&E of these initiatives on the ground.

Further Education and Training Colleges Act of 2006 provides qualifying learners with applied competence to help them in the transition from school to work and to provide qualifying learners with a basis for further learning. For prospective learners to enroll in a FETC they should have at least grade 9 and therefore, be holders of the General Education and Training Certificate (Republic of South Africa, 2006). As much as FETCs have

experienced an increase in enrolment numbers between 2010 and 2012 – from 345 566 to 657 690 students, these enrolment levels are still low (SA Government News Agency, 2013).

National Youth Development Agency is an entity which gives significance to youth development in SA, as it encourages youth development, thereby promoting expansion and high impact in the provision of youth services (NYDA, 2013). The NYDA-Parliamentary Monitoring Group (2013), however, criticises the NYDA's work. It argues that NYDA is not doing enough to reach out to the majority of the youth, as most of its offices are not functioning and those that are, are inaccessible. In addition, the funds that the NYDA receives from government have been insufficient to make a considerable impact in the lives of most youth (NYDA- Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2013).

National Youth Policy (NYP) 2009-2014 is a vital planning tool, which guides the country's approach to youth development. It calls for integrated interventions from all sectors – public, private and civil society, towards the holistic development of all youth with strong emphasis on those marginalised from the mainstream. This policy regards education as a key to unlocking the future of SA (Republic of SA, 2009) and promotes education and economic participation; thus it upholds basic values of human development and social inclusion.

2.4. Marketing

“It is marketing that drives [an organisation], nothing else” Richard F. Gerson (1991)

Marketing is a complex process and does not only mean formulating and handing out brochures (Shanker, 2002). Some key features of the marketing process include knowing the needs of the target group, formulating a marketing plan, setting objectives, identifying strategies, formulating action plans and, monitoring and evaluation (M&E) of marketing activities (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008; Westwood, 2013). The current study concentrates on certain marketing features which aid in the analysis of the findings, namely: the term, marketing; marketing plan, objectives, promotion and advertising as aspects of marketing strategies; monitoring and evaluation.

Marketing in the commercial business sense is finding out customers' wants and comparing a company's service to meet those needs while, in the process, making a profit for the company (Westwood, 2013). Unlike marketing to create profits as understood in business, in an NGO setting, the goal is promoting change in people's lives (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008; Pandey,

1996). Marketing includes making sure that identified customers are aware of the service/product being offered (Westwood, 2013). The marketer needs to clearly know the different characteristics of markets and identify the actual market to receive services; for example, in the current study, the service would be the skills training programmes (STPs) offered. The marketer needs to be well informed about the market and able to identify the best techniques that would enable him/her to effectively reach a particular market (Kotler & Amstrong, 2008).

Planning for marketing is essential to efficiently and effectively reach the target audience. Through developing a marketing plan, a communication tool that combines marketing strategies in a coordinated programme is formulated (Kotler & Amstrong, 2008). The plan makes clear who will do what, when and where, and how to achieve its objectives. Setting objectives is an important step in the whole process of formulating a marketing plan (Westwood, 2013). Marketing objectives are outcomes that a marketer wants to achieve. Objectives must be clearly defined and quantifiable so that achievable targets can be set (Westwood, 2013). In this way the performance of the implemented marketing plan can be measured against its objectives.

But how do we achieve these objectives? Marketing strategies enable the marketer to achieve marketing objectives. Marketing strategies form the fundamentals of a marketing mix – the four Ps: product, price, promotion and place. Marketing strategies should be turned into action plans that would provide the marketer with instructions on how to conduct the marketing activities. An action plan requires establishing (1) current position – on where you currently are, (2) aims – what to do, (3) action – what needs to be done to get to the market, (4) person responsible – who will do it, (5) starting and finishing dates, and (6) budgeted costs (Westwood, 2013). The strategies that this study focuses on are promotion and place, which concentrate on reaching organisations' potential customers/beneficiaries with the aim to create awareness (Westwood, 2013). Budgets are set and defined for promotions and the entire marketing plan. Budgets clarify resources needed to implement the plan and quantify the cost and expose the financial risks involved.

Promotion means getting the right message to the right market, including through direct or personal selling and advertising. Marketers need to identify marketing tools and mechanisms before planning direct selling and advertisements (Gerson, 1991). Advertising is done through print, radio or television to inform, persuade and reinforce. Direct selling is done in

many ways, including handing out brochures and flyers, referrals, testimonials, workshops, word-of-mouth, service quality, expos, websites, and print calendars (Gerson, 1991; Westwood, 2013).

M&E is essential in marketing and it is important to note that this activity needs to occur on a continuous basis for the process to be effective (Panday, 1996; Westwood, 2013). Panday (1996) further observes that M&E establishes whether the specific market – in the current study, this refers to marginalised youth – is being served well and determines if the particular organisation is meeting its marketing objectives efficiently.

2.5. Tools and mechanisms that NGOs use to market their services

Literature shows that there is limited research on critical management tasks such as targeting and recruiting, selection processes and intake practices (critical components of marketing) within programmes targeted at the youth (Hahn, 1992), whether or not in the NGO sector. This author further acknowledges that targeting and recruiting of young people is difficult regardless of how good the context is (Hahn, 1992). From the social exclusion perspective, reaching (recruiting) marginalised youth is even more difficult because they live in isolation. They have few social networks and obtaining information material is difficult, as, in most cases, they are geographically removed from the main centres of information and social networking focal points (Gewe, 2010). From the few studies on recruitment and targeting (marketing) promotions that work best, direct selling in the form of outreach appears to be highly effective (Feldman, 1988 cited in Hahn, 1992).

In a more recent study conducted in India by a team of students from the SIES College of Management Studies in Nerul, Mumbai on exploring and understanding marketing strategies used by NGOs, it is argued that NGOs are significantly valuable in India (Dhake et al., 2010). This can also relate to SA settings where NGOs demonstrate a substantial role in finding solutions to various social issues faced by the youth (NYP, 2009). This validates the need for NGOs, including those that provide youth STPs to have marketing plans. Dhake et al. (2010) argue that having a marketing plan would assist NGOs in reaching large populations and making people aware of the services they provide. NGOs employ various marketing principles and mechanisms to market their services, however, while this is true, many NGOs find it difficult to gather funds and to carry out their social activities, including marketing (Dhake et al., 2010). Although this study was conducted in India, the findings are critical to

the current study, conducted in Cape Town; they add value and give substance to the study, particularly since there is limited literature on how NGOs market their programmes aimed at youth.

It is important for NGOs to identify tools and mechanisms of marketing based on the characteristics of target groups/markets. In their study, Dhake et al. (2010) discovered that the tools and mechanisms mainly used by NGOs were brochures, workshops, local/community newspapers, advertisement, local/community radio and television channels and websites. Radio and television are utilised, but to a minimal extent. In addition, word-of-mouth is one of the most effective marketing tools (Gerson, 1991). Referrals have also been seen as central to marketing, as they play a significant role in referring clients to you (Gerson, 1991). Referrals are core in every organisation and can be built through networking with other organisations. Testimonials, in the form of letters, are also a powerful marketing tool; they add credibility to the services that the organisation provides (Gerson, 1991). Prospective clients always like to read about what people who are similar to them think about a service provided by a particular organisation (Gerson, 1991).

Other marketing mechanisms identified in Dhake et al.'s (2010) study that appear simple, but unique and useful, are road shows and street plays that can be conducted at malls or other public places; partnering with community newspaper agencies for distributing leaflets and brochures together with newspapers; the use of mascots to distribute brochures and any other marketing material in public places believed to be occupied by most members of the target group; exhibitions at community forums and printing calendars with logos and the mission of the NGO. Despite the fact that many NGOs use marketing mechanisms to make their services accessible to their target groups, Dhake et al. (2010) show that the majority of the participating NGOs experienced challenges in marketing their programmes, as they lacked funds and experienced a staff shortage.

2.6. Defining and profiling youth

The term, youth, is understood in various ways in different societies and at various times (Ansell, 2005). This statement implies that youth is not a homogeneous group and therefore, should be defined according to the contexts in which they find themselves. The term, youth, has different definitions, which include: legal, political, cultural, youth as a series of transitions and youth as enthusiastic and creative (Ansell, 2005; Everatt, 2000; World Bank,

2006). However, society has to exercise caution about how it defines youth because these different definitions have different assumptions. In the sections below, the focus is on defining youth by age and as a series of transitions.

2.6.1. Defining youth by age category

Definitions of youth in international binding agreements on youth interventions are varied and based on age. There is a problem with defining youth using a broad definition. It creates sub-categories of youth who are likely to have different needs, life experiences and expectations, aspirations and situations (Everatt, 2000). Booyens (2012) asserts that clear definitions are vital because they underpin and have a direct impact on policy, programmes, research and statistics. World Bank (2006) defines youth as people aged between 15 and 24 and the African Union Charter, as those between the ages of 15 and 35 (African Union, 2006). Guided by these international binding agreements, most countries in Southern Africa, including SA, have formulated national policies, Acts and programmes that reflect their definition of youth. These include the Botswana National Youth Policy (NYP) 2010, Mauritius NYP 2010-2014, Namibia NYP 2006, Zambia NYP 2006 and Zimbabwe NYP 2000 – updated 2012 (YouthPolicy.org., n.d.).

In SA, NYP 2009-2014 (2009) inclusively defines youth as those who are in the age range of 14 to 35 (NYP, 2009). The policy states that the reason for a broad definition is to include both historical and current conditions of the youth. The policy acknowledges that youth still face challenges due to the apartheid legacy and this justifies the upper age limit of 35 years (NYP, 2009). For the purpose of this study youth are defined as those aged between 17 and 24, as they are within the group most affected by unemployment, mainly due to low education levels, lack of skills and experience (Arendse & Gunn, 2010; Borat, 2007; Motimele et al., 2011; NYP, 2009; Stats SA, 2012b).

2.6.2. Youth as a series of transitions

Attempts have also been made to define youth as a series of key transitions between childhood and adulthood (Ansell, 2005). This definition depicts changes that occur in the process of moving from being a child to becoming an adult, a stage which Ansell (2005) portrays as critical, as young people are more vulnerable socially and psychologically while trying to establish their identity. Transitions are pathways that young people make when they leave school to enter different labour market, housing and family conditions as they proceed to adulthood (Furlong & Cartmel, 2006). There are five main transitions: to learn for life and

work, to start productive working lives, to adopt a healthy lifestyle, to have family, and to become an active citizen (World Bank, 2006). Transitions occur at different times in different societies and along different routes across gender and class (World Bank, 2006), and, in SA, also across population groups. In the following sections, the focus is on two of the five key transitions, which relate specifically to the current study, namely: young people learning for life and work, and starting a productive working life.

2.6.2.1. Young people learning for life and work

To become productive employees or business owners, good parents, and active citizens, youth need to obtain the correct knowledge and skills. Learning happens in different environments, including at home, school and at work, although most critical values are learnt at school (World Bank, 2006). The following are different kinds of knowledge and skills that youth require in order for them to transition successfully: thinking skills – critical and creative thinking; behavioural skills – perseverance, self-discipline, teamwork, problem solving and risk management; specific knowledge – including numeracy and literacy; vocational skills; and a mix of specific knowledge and skills to perform jobs that rely on clearly defined tasks (World Bank, 2006).

2.6.2.2. Starting a productive working life

When youth enter the labour market, they begin to realise the gains of their earlier investment in education and health, and work towards advancing the skills needed for a productive livelihood (World Bank, 2006). If most youth thrive in their transition to work, with a proper distribution of their labour, they can hasten the reduction of poverty and boost economic growth. Some youth though, encounter obstacles; for instance, some leave school early to go to work (some factors that lead to this are discussed in 2.5), others cannot enter the labour force for reasons that include a lack of skills and experience (World Bank, 2006).

2.6.3. Profiling South African youth

Youth, defined by Stats SA as between the ages of 15 and 34, comprise almost half of the country's population – 19.4 million of a total population of 51.8 million (Stats SA, 2012a). The majority of these young people experience various socio-economic challenges that prevent them from active participation in the reconstruction and development of the country (DSD, 2007). Among many key challenges are poverty, poor education, lack of skills for employment, and unemployment (Barrar, 2010; Boda, 2005; Bhana et al., 2011; DSD, 2007; Motimele et al., 2011). The immensity of the problem is a source of serious concern. The

youthful characteristic in the SA population is consistent with that of the global population where one-fifth is between the ages of 15 and 24 (Selvam, 2008). Ansell (2005) points out that developing nations, of which SA is one, account for 90% of 0-17 year olds and 85% of 15-24 year olds. Of the 19.4 million SA youth, Black youth constitute 83%, Coloureds, 8.3%, Asians, 2.5% and Whites, 6.2% (Stats SA, 2011).

It is clear that the developing world has a high youth population and therefore a great need to plan for youth inclusion and development. This need is crucial in SA because “one third of all youth live in poverty, including 16 per cent as part of the ultra-poor, with the highest levels of poverty and ultra-poverty, in younger ages of the youth category, amongst 18-24 year olds” (Status of the Youth Report (2005) cited in DSD, 2007:5-6; Richter et al., 2003). Youth in SA are more likely to be found in rural areas, and, in urban areas, they live in townships, geographical locations strongly characterised by poverty, using both narrow and broad definitions (Ansell, 2005; National Planning Commission, 2010). In addition, Barrar (2010) and Mulenga (2011) claim that most youth in Cape Town live in communities where poverty and unemployment are huge problems and where motivation, mentorship and encouragement from elders are absent because the elders themselves were ESL. Therefore, it appears these youth experience two major challenges – prolonged exclusion and marginalisation.

2.7. State of education of young people

It has now been 34 years since apartheid’s Bantu Education System based on the notion of ‘separate development’ was scrapped in 1979 to form a consolidated national education system (Bhana et al., 2011). Much, however, remains to be done in order to eradicate inequalities and poverty in the current education system (Bhana et al., 2011). Today, there are many young people (14-18 year olds) who enrol into secondary school education (Department of Basic Education (DoBE), 2010). Enrolment numbers are in line with the NYP 2009-2014 statement that *‘[e]ducation remains a key to unlocking the future of South Africa’s youth’* (2009:19). Early school leaving, however, is still strongly prevalent in SA despite documented proof of high government funding into the education system (NYP, 2009). Venter (2010:5) argues that the Department of Education in SA spends more per child on education and resources than 75% of the rest of the world.

Despite this level of government funding, schools in disadvantaged communities are characterised by infrastructure inequality and poverty, teachers who are under-qualified, and

dilapidated physical structures which deter young people and teachers from being at school (Bloch, 2009). The majority of schools experience an infrastructure backlog. Based on figures provided by the Education Department, 17% of schools have no access to electricity, 79% of schools have no library facilities, 60% of secondary schools have no laboratory facilities, 68% of schools have no computers, and 31% of schools depend on boreholes or rainwater for their water supply. Of the 9 461 schools with municipal water services, 60% depend on mobile tankers and 30% on communal standpipes and 61% of schools have a bucket or pit latrine system and, thus, no sewerage disposal system in place (Bloch, 2009; 2010). These facts confirm what Blank (2007) has demonstrated in her film, *Testing Hope*, based on four young South Africans about to write Matric in Khayelitsha, Cape Town; that schools in poor communities are indeed in a poor condition.

Blank (2007) argues, and reaffirms Bloch (2009), that a lack of resources has implications for the school performance of the young people. She argues that the education system, in particular schools in poor communities, reproduces poverty and social exclusion in the sense that youth are served with poor quality education hence, they leave school early due to poor performance or complete school with poor skills and qualifications (Blank, 2007). When this happens, young people are prevented from enrolling in higher education institutions, obtaining employment or starting their own businesses (Bloch, 2010). This, in many cases, leads to long-term unemployment, which has been stressed as one of the main causes of poverty and exclusion among the youth (Bloch, 2010; Haralambos & Holborn, 2008; Motimele et al., 2011). In addition, Stats SA (2011:56) argues that poor performance, lack of money to pay schools fees and leaving to go and work are some of the main reasons for youth dropping out of school.

Bloch (2010: 70-74) asserts that poor quality education predominantly affects Black youth in rural and township schools, which greatly reduces their chances of improving their lives. Making resources available to youth is crucial in assisting them to make choices and plans that could have a positive effect on their lives (Gewe, 2010). The NYP (2009) calls on government and civil society organisations to increase, and provide to vulnerable and marginalised youth – in particular, the unskilled and poorly educated or uneducated – second-chance opportunities that would widen their social networks and employability. Second-chance opportunities, together with other supportive actions, would form the basis for youth reintegration into the educational, social and economic mainstream (NYP, 2009). In SA, FETs and youth skills training centres contribute to the provision of second-chance

opportunities. NGOs have been, and remain, a key role player in finding solutions to various youth development issues, including youth unemployment (NYP, 2009).

There appear not to be any in-depth studies on how these opportunities are marketed to the youth who need them or youth up take of these opportunities, locally or internationally. This seems to be an area for future research.

2.8. Youth unemployment

In SA, as in any other part of the world, employment is a vital source of livelihood for the majority of the economically active. In 2010, however, SA was among ten countries perceived to have the lowest level of employment in the world (NYP, 2009). Young people are the most affected 2.8 million youth aged between 19-24 by unemployment, with almost years who are neither in school nor in employment (Motimele et al., 2011), in particular, Black and coloured youth (Schoer, Rankin & Roberts (2010). According to the Labour Force Survey, 4th Quarter 2011, 70.9% of youth are unemployed (Stats SA, 2012b). Motimele et al. (2011) point out that, over a number of years, Stats SA's Labour Force Surveys have continuously reported that youth constitute above 70% of the unemployed. The most likely to be impacted by unemployment within this group are those who drop out of school (National Planning Commission, 2010; NYP, 2009:14).

The main reasons for being out of employment are lack of education, poor skills and lack of experience, which make it difficult to find work (Bhorat, 2007; Arendse & Gunn, 2010:11). Youth remain unemployed for many years (Barrar 2010; Boda, 2005). Motimele et al. (2011) further argue that the most disturbing statistic is that 60% of the unemployed have never been in employment. Youth tend to live in marginalisation as they are poor and excluded from mainstream systems (Motimele et al., 2011). These worrying observations emphasise the need for the provision of STPs and other second-chance interventions that would give these young people another opportunity to acquire the skills and knowledge needed to enter the labour market and develop themselves. The NYP (2009: 14) notes that if these youths are provided with second-chance opportunities that appropriately support and encourage them, they could become an asset to themselves, their families and society at large.

The lack of sufficient job opportunities contributes to high levels of youth unemployment. Entrepreneurship, which would enable youth to start own small businesses, has been emphasised among the youth in SA (Department of Trade & Industry, 2005; Manpower

Group, 2012; NYP, 2009, Steenekamp, van der Merwe & Athayde, 2011). Just as youth require work skills and knowledge to enter in the labour market, success in this area also requires youth to have entrepreneurial skills and knowledge.

2.9. Role of NGOs in contributing to youth development

Since a description of NGOs was presented in Chapter 1, it will not be repeated here. The focus is on the specific social problem addressed by NGOs which is relevant to this study, namely, the development and training of youth.

Acknowledging the skills deficiencies that most SA young people have after leaving school, especially ESLs, there remains a crucial need for STPs in order to provide them with a second chance of bettering their lives (Bhana et al., 2011). NGOs play a significant role in young people's development. The DSD (2007) explains that NGOs are generally part of the key role players of the youth development "machinery" in SA. The NYP (2009:31, 33) also acknowledges that youth work in SA has been predominantly practised by NGOs. For this reason the NYP (2009) advocates for strengthened partnerships between the NGOs, the public and private sectors, and civil society at large. Partnerships and enhanced financial support improve sustainable interventions of youth development programmes (NYP, 2009). Also noted by the NYP (2009) is that partnerships within the NGO sector would enhance service delivery. Still, there seem to be many youth who are not aware of NGOs and the services provided by these organisations in SA, including Cape Town. The majority of marginalised youth have little information and in some cases, no information at all, about the existence of youth development programmes (Mulenga, 2011; Youth Development Network, 2008).

2.10. Conclusion

From the literature, it is clear that the condition of youth in SA, and Black and coloured youth in particular, is dire and the problem immense, with 15 to 24-year-olds being hardest hit by marginalisation, as a result of, and resulting in, large-scale unemployment and poverty. The main contributing factor of this situation has been identified as extreme lack of access to education, and a key intervention to target it thus is increased opportunities to acquire the human resources to improve both their own lives and the society in which they live.

What too is clear is that NGOs in SA have played, and continue to play, a significant role in contributing to youth development. Poor youth seem to be the main beneficiaries of the services and programmes provided by NGOs, however, there remain a substantial number of young people who cannot access information either on NGOs or their programmes. This situation exists mainly because poverty isolates them from the mainstream, including isolating them from vital information. Also, NGOs seem not to market their programmes well, which has triggered the current study to inquire into how NGOs market their STPs to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.

University of Cape Town

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In order to illustrate the trustworthiness of this qualitative study, the empirical process that was followed is presented. This chapter will present an outline of the research design and methodology, the ethical aspects relevant to the study, a section on reflexivity, the limitations of the study, as well as practical problems experienced.

3.2. Research approach

This study adopted a qualitative approach, which is useful to explore and gain insight into novel issues and to investigate hard-to-reach groups to determine how they interpret their daily experiences and the meaning they give to the things they come in contact with (Engel & Schutt, 2010). Engel and Schutt (2010:226) argue that the main goal of this approach is to seek and hear answers in the respondent's own words. This approach allowed the researcher to understand and interpret the subjective meaning that participants attached to the ways in which NGOs marketed their STPs (Fouche, 2005; Engel & Schutt, 2010). The researcher applied an inductive approach to data analysis, which means that she entered the field with an open mind to identify vital themes as they emerged during the interview processes, which were included in the conclusions in order to give a holistic picture of the participants' perceptions (De Vos, 2005).

3.3. Research type

This study adopted a basic approach as it was concerned with generating knowledge by means of an exploratory design. Hence, the research tried to gain an understanding of how NGOs marketed their STPs. Basic (pure) research intends to fill the gap of the existing body of knowledge and may later be used to solve practical problems (Carey, 2009).

3.4. Research design

As this study adopted a qualitative approach and was of an explorative nature to investigate a problematic issue, a phenomenological strategy was followed using one-on-one and focus group (FG) interviews (Fouche, 2005; Robson, 2002). How NGOs' marketed their STPs to

marginalised youth living in Cape Town was the phenomenon in question, from the perspectives of NGO staff and youth participants in their STPs.

3.5. Research methods

This section presents and discusses the following: identifying the population; sampling methods; criteria for selection of the service providers; criteria for selection of the participants; the process of selecting the participants and the sample size; data collection; the pilot study; data analysis and data verification.

3.5.1. Population

Population is the total set of persons or units who/that possess specific characteristics from which the sample of the study is chosen (Strydom, 2005). The characteristics the researcher was interested in are set out clearly in 3.5.3. For the current study, the population included all NGOs in the Cape Town Metropole which provide STPs to marginalised youth living in Cape Town. There is no comprehensive database for NGOs that offer STPs in Cape Town. The sample, however, was drawn from this population using sampling methods discussed in 3.5.2.

3.5.2. Sampling method

Being a qualitative study, the sampling procedure that was followed was non-probability sampling and thus, the sample was not selected randomly (Strydom, 2005). This study applied snowball and convenience sampling methods, both of which, according to Coyne (1997), are types of purposive sampling. Snowball sampling happens when the researcher approaches one participant who assists the researcher to identify other similar people or units that could make up the sample (Strydom, 2005). Lunsford and Lunsford (1995:110) argue that convenience sampling is easy, fast, often inexpensive and leads the researcher to select participants who are conveniently accessible to the researcher. Section 3.5.4 describes how these sampling methods were applied in the current study.

3.5.3. Criteria for selection of service providers

The service providers included in the study were four NGOs that offered STPs to marginalised living in Cape Town. They were registered NGOs and formally operated under an NPO number as mandated by the Non-profit Organisation Act (No. 71 of 1997), which demonstrates that an organisation is registered as an organisation that renders services to the public and that the Department of Social Development approves that its services are credible (DSD, 2011).

3.5.3.1. Selection process of service providers and sample size

In April 2012, the researcher started the process of searching for service provider participants, which turned out to be a challenging one. Possibilities were sourced from PRODDER (the online NGO help directory in SA) (PRODDER, n.d.), Cape Town NGO Guide (n.d.) and a professional friend. Contact with the first 15 NGOs did not yield results as they assisted youth with various services, but not with skills training. Some NGOs were not reachable, as the telephone numbers seemed not to be functioning and others did not answer; also, most of these NGOs did not advertise email addresses through which they could be contacted.

Once the researcher recognised that the above process was becoming problematic, using a convenience sampling method, she approached the programme manager (PM) of organisation/4, with whom she already had a relationship, having worked there as a volunteer for some months. She introduced her study and indicated her desire to include the organisation in the study, to which he agreed.

After securing organisation/4's participation, organisation/2 was approached using convenience sampling. The researcher approached one of their training instructors, with whom she had built a professional relationship while volunteering at organisation/4. She met with the PM of organisation/2, introduced the study and secured his approval for the organisation's participation.

Organisation/3 was selected through snowball sampling following a suggestion by the instructor at organisation/2. At organisation/3, the researcher met with the social worker, to whom she was referred by the receptionist. She agreed that her organisation would participate in the study, but stated that the PM still had to give her approval. At a later date, the researcher met with the PM and was given the necessary permission.

Organisation/1 was selected using convenience sampling. A professional friend working in the NGO sector suggested this organisation. The researcher and her friend approached the PM, who was informed about the study and agreed to participate.

After gaining entry to each of the four organisations and securing a verbal agreement to participate in the study, the researcher formalised their participation by giving the PM a letter from the DSD, UCT (see Appendix A).

3.5.4. Criteria for selection of the participants

3.5.4.1. NGO staff

The selection criteria for the NGO staff included: one PM and one person facilitating marketing (PFM) from each of the four participating NGOs. She believed that the staff in these two positions would be most able to answer questions about how NGOs marketed their STPs.

3.5.4.2. Youth

The selection criteria for the youth participants were set as follows: 20 youth between the ages of 17 and 24; early school leavers (ESL) (not having completed grade 12); unemployed; and in training at the participating NGOs at the time of conducting the interviews.

3.5.5. Selection process of participants and sample size

3.5.5.1. NGO

The researcher selected the PMs and PFMs purposively. At the same time that she sought their organisations' participation, she also requested the PMs' participation and asked them to identify the PFMs that she could interview. She approached the PFMs as instructed by the PM, introduced the study to each of them, informed them that she had permission from the PM to conduct the study in the organisation and that the PM had highlighted that he/she was the PFM of STPs. She then requested each PFM's participation and included them when they agreed to be interviewed. The total number of NGO staff who participated in the study was thus eight. The researcher had contact with all the participating NGO staff prior to interviewing them in order to arrange times for the interviews.

3.5.5.2. Youth

The selection process for the youth participants occurred through the PFMs. Each PFM was informed about the researcher's intentions to hold a FG interview with five current trainees. She asked the PM to select the trainees based on the set criteria as in 3.5.4.2. The first time the researcher had contact with these trainees was on the day of the interview.

A total number of 15 trainees was interviewed instead of the proposed 20. Only trainees from organisations/1, 2 and 4 participated. A FG did not take place at organisation/3 because, at the time of conducting the interviews, trainees were completing their courses and it was pointed out that the organisation was understaffed and could not manage to organise five young people for the researcher to interview.

Because of circumstances, not all the participants in the FGs met the set criteria. They included six young people who were aged between 25 and 32, as most youth in training in the participating NGOs were within this age range. This could indicate that most youth within the age range of 17 to 24 were not in training for various reasons, among them, possibly because information about STPs reached more youth in the higher than in the lower age cohorts, or because the latter were not interested in this kind of training. Three young people who had completed grade 12 were included, as they were among the trainees available at organisation/4 at the time the FG was conducted. Others had already been placed for their in-service training.

The total number of participants was thus 23 (15 youth and eight NGO staff). The profiles of these participants are offered at the start of Chapters 4 and 5 respectively.

3.5.6. Data collection

In this section, the researcher describes how data was collected in the current study. The researcher has to clearly describe the procedure that was followed to collect data in order to demonstrate the trustworthiness of the study (De Vos & Fouche, 2005).

3.5.6.1. Data collection methods

Two qualitative data collection methods were applied in the current study, namely, one-on-one interviews with PMs and PFMs, and FG interviews with learners. One-on-one interviews created an open platform where the participants shared detailed information (Greeff, 2005). This method was valuable, as the researcher developed a thorough understanding of the contexts in which the NGO operated and was able to see things from the participants' point of view (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). One of the limitations of using interviews as a data collection method that the researcher had to work on in this study was the fact the she had to establish trusting relationships with all the participants in a short period of time in order to obtain information (Greeff, 2005).

The researcher opted to conduct group interviews (FGs) with the youth, which helped the researcher to generate a substantial amount of data from 15 young people in a short period of time, which would not have been the case if one-on-one interviews were conducted with all of them (Engel & Schutt, 2010; Robson, 2002). FGs are groups, formed by the researcher, of individuals who have as many of the characteristics required for the study as possible; also, they may or may not know each other (Engel & Schutt, 2010; Strydom, 2005). In this study, they were all trainees, but might not have known one another. There seems to be no

consensus on what number of participants a FG should comprise (Engel & Schutt, 2010; Greeff, 2005; Robson, 2002). The FGs of five participants each allowed for in-depth discussion on the research problem. These smaller groups enabled the researcher to control and to lead the group effectively (Greeff, 2005). One of the shortfalls of FGs is lack of confidentiality (Greeff, 2005; Robson, 2002); the researcher, however, encouraged confidentiality among participants by asking them not to talk out of the group.

3.5.6.2. Data collection instruments

The data collection tools were two semi-structured interview schedules. The schedules led the researcher and the participants into in-depth and detailed conversations that revealed important and original information. They also assisted the researcher to be consistent in the way she asked questions, which allowed objective comparison of the results. Thus, the researcher was guided and not dictated to by the schedules during the interviews. Semi-structured interview schedules are ideal for collecting comprehensive and comparable data (Greeff, 2005:292). The schedule directed at PMs and PFMs and the schedule for youth in training are included in Appendices B and C, respectively.

As the current study was explorative and investigative, all the questions included in the interview schedules were open-ended and were arranged thematically. They also contained probing questions that elicited more information and clarified responses. The researcher changed the order of the questions based on her discretion of what was most necessary and important at any particular moment (Robson, 2002).

3.5.6.3. Data Collection Process

The collecting of data took place between 22 October 2012 and 25 March 2013. The longest one-on-one interview was 2 hours 17 minutes, while the shortest was 30 minutes; on average the length of the interviews was 1 hour 30 minutes. The longest group interview was 1 hour 28 minutes, while the shortest was 1 hour 11 minutes. The average length of the group interviews was 1 hour 14 minutes. All the interviews took place at the respective participating NGOs. The space in which all the interviews were held was conducive in that they were free from disturbances, such as noise, there was privacy and all the participants were comfortable.

At the beginning of each interview, the researcher introduced herself to the participants. She then reminded them of the aim of the study and pointed out that the study was conducted

under the supervision of the DSD, UCT, with the permission of the PM of the particular NGO.

The researcher then discussed ethics that were applied, including: that participation was voluntary and they could leave at any time, anonymity, confidentiality, the audio recording of the interviews and publication of findings. These ethics are discussed in detail in 3.6. The researcher asked the participants to sign the consent form (see Appendices F and G, respectively). They then completed the biographical details form. Thereafter, the researcher asked the participants if she could proceed with the interviews. All the interviews were audio recorded, with the permission of the participants. They were also told that they could stop the recorder if they no longer felt comfortable with it. Only after permission was granted was the recorder switched on. The advantages of using the digital recorder are described in 3.5.6.5., below.

At the end of each interview, the researcher thanked the participants for engaging in the study and for sharing their information. The researcher asked the participants if there was anything else that they wanted to share about the topic before she closed the interview. She then debriefed the participants on how they had experienced the interview. The researcher also shared the positives of her experience of the interview. She reassured the participants that the information they had shared would be kept confidential and that they would remain anonymous. Lastly, the researcher reminded the participants about the purpose of the study and the access the participants would have to the report.

3.5.6.4. The factsheet

The researcher collected the biographical information using two factsheets, which had categories including age, gender, levels of education, etc.; one was completed by the NGO staff and the other by the youth (see Appendices D and E). The factsheets assisted the researcher to have an idea of the kind of the people that participated in the study, in order to understand them better and to see that the participants' characteristics were in line with the selection criteria.

3.5.6.5. The digital recorder

All the interviews and focus group discussions were audio recorded. The researcher requested permission from the participants to use the digital recorder. Greeff (2005:298) argues that a recorder allows the researcher to focus on the proceedings of the interview and thus, take note on the observable objects and behaviour, such as gestures, and to concentrate on establishing

rapport. Recording the interviews was advantageous because data was permanently recorded and the researcher was able to listen to the audio conversations several times for more clarification during the transcribing process (Robson, 2002).

3.5.7. Pilot Study

A pilot study is conducted prior to the main study in order to determine its feasibility. A draft version of a measuring instrument – an interview schedule – is developed, and interviews with participants, who have similar characteristics to those to be included in the main study, are held (Strydom, 2005).

The researcher conducted a pilot study that aided in the careful planning of the research. One NGO participated, i.e. two staff, a PM and a PFM were interviewed individually, as well as five trainees from the organisation, in a FG setting. The organisation was selected using the set criteria for selection of service providers, and a professional friend introduced the researcher to this organisation.

This study allowed the researcher to test whether or not the questions prepared for the interview schedule would yield significant findings. For example, after the pilot study, the researcher took out questions about the participant's personal information and instead asked about this in a separate factsheet, as it did not seem appropriate to include such questions in the interview schedules. Organisational information was also removed from the schedules directed at NGO staff so as to keep the questions focused on the main research question. The researcher also rearranged the numbering of the questions in the schedules so that there was a logical flow in the way questions were set. The study also assisted the researcher in establishing a logical and systematic manner in which the participants, particularly those who participated in the FGs, would respond to the researcher's questions.

3.5.8. Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted immediately after the one-on-one interviews and FG discussions, for which purpose all digital recordings of the interviews were transcribed. The researcher carefully managed the data generated from the 23 participants and analysed it manually. In so doing, an inductive approach was applied, as the researcher identified themes as they emerged to create a set of statements in order to develop and form concepts (Carey, 2009; Engel & Schutt, 2010). The concepts helped her to understand and explain what it was

that she had discovered. In order to conduct a logical and thorough analysis, the researcher used Tesch's eight-step approach (Tesch, 1990). The steps were as follows:

- The researcher began with reading the transcripts to have a holistic understanding of the data collected.
- After reading all the transcripts, the researcher then selected and read one outstanding transcript with the view to understanding the respondent's answers in relation to the objectives of the study.
- Transcripts were searched and notes were made against text that explained, described and raised questions.
- The researcher labelled notes that seemed to be linked to each other using similar colours.
- The researcher then took all transcripts and repeated step three in a cautious manner to clarify categories and sub-categories by looking for the interrelationships between them.
- The researcher finalised categories and sub-categories that emerged.
- The researcher then assembled data under explicit themes, sub-themes and categories.
- Finally, the researcher compared categories to transcripts and thus looked for data that had been left out.

Once data analysis was completed through these carefully formulated steps, data were presented qualitatively in text with the use of quotes where necessary.

3.5.9. Data Verification

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the "trustworthiness" of a qualitative study can be established on a set of criteria: credibility (an alternative to internal validity), transferability (an alternative to external validity), dependability (an alternative to reliability) and conformability (an alternative to 'objectivity').

3.5.9.1. Credibility

The researcher ensured credibility by strictly setting out the selection criteria and processes for the three layers of the sample, i.e. the NGOs, the staff and the youth. The participating staff and youth best answered the research questions because the researcher believed that they were the relevant people to do so. The findings and conclusions of the study were linked to literature thereby upholding credibility. Data are regarded as credible when there is a strong

relationship between the participants' views and those that are attributed to them (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:277). Credibility was also ensured through the researcher's exercise of reflexivity (De Vos, 2005); Section 3.7 demonstrates how reflexive the research was.

3.5.9.2. Transferability

Transferability will always present a problem in a qualitative study because of small sample sizes. In the current study, the sample consisted of 23 participants, therefore findings cannot be generalised. NGOs vary and work under different circumstances, and marginalised youth live in different contexts and experience life differently. Babbie and Mouton (2001:277) assert that participants' views are defined by the specific contexts in which they occur and thus are not homogenous.

3.5.9.3. Dependability

Dependability was ensured (a) by the use of semi-structured interview schedules to collect data, (b) the provision of a detailed account of the research methodology together with the questions and themes and (c) a description of how the researcher analysed data. Dependability means that a study must provide its audience with evidence that if it were to be repeated with a different group of participants although in a similar setting, the same data collection instrument would be used (De Vos, 2005).

3.5.9.4. Conformability

Conformability refers to whether or not the findings can be confirmed by another (De Vos, 2005:347). In the current study, the researcher was very much aware of her own biases and, consequently, she presented an objective study where findings were linked to literature and thus, the study can be evaluated without subjection to the researcher. To further avoid subjection, the researcher recorded the interviews, which were transcribed verbatim.

3.6. Ethical considerations

This study adhered to ethical standards of social science research. By so doing, the researcher's aim was to protect the participants and ensure that the study yielded credible results. The onus to identify specific ethics to be considered in a particular study rests on the researcher (Strydom, 2005). The ethics that were considered in this study are discussed below.

3.6.1. Deception of subjects

The researcher shared the aim of the study with the participants when they were approached for the first time and she reminded them of the aim at the start and end of the interview. Participants were informed that the study was being conducted for academic purposes. The researcher did not disguise the real aim of the study, nor conceal possible negative feelings that the participants could experience during the interview process (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The youth participants could, inter alia, have felt hopeless and frustrated, being poor and unemployed. The participants did not show that they experienced any of these negative feelings.

3.6.2. Voluntary participation

Permission was obtained from the participating NGOs and the *bona fides* of the study confirmed by the letter from UCT. On recruitment, the researcher explained that participation was voluntary and, at the beginning of each interview, she reminded them of this, and that no one had forced them to participate in the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Particularly, youth participants were told that there would be no negative consequences if they decided not to participate. Thereafter, the researcher provided the participants with consent forms and, after they had read and understood the nature of the study, they signed as proof of their agreement to participate. The researcher proceeded with the interviews only once this had been done.

3.6.3. Anonymity

Participants are regarded as anonymous when the researcher is unable to link responses to specific respondents. In this study, the researcher asked the participants to choose a pseudonym at the beginning of each interview so that their real names remained unknown to her. Thus, the identities of the participants remained anonymous, as pseudonyms were applied throughout the course of interviews, during data analysis and in the research report (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

3.6.4. Confidentiality

The researcher emphasised the principle of confidentiality at the beginning and end of each interview. She informed the participants that the interview would be kept strictly confidential and would be available only to her (Strydom, 2005). The confidentiality of the interviews was protected by being loaded, immediately afterwards, onto the researcher's computer where it was password-protected, and deleted from the recording device. The researcher informed the participants that her academic supervisor would have access to transcriptions. The

participants were informed that extracts from the interviews would form part of the final research report; however, under no circumstances would the names of the participants, including the names of the agencies, or any identifying characteristics be included in the report or any other publications related to this research. Participants were informed that a copy of the report would be kept in the UCT Libraries to allow its use only for academic purposes (Engel & Schutt, 2010; Strydom, 2005).

3.6.5. Interview recording

The researcher ensured that permission for the recording of the interviews was obtained at the start of the sessions and proceeded only once this had been done.

3.6.6. Participants' access to the research report

Participants were informed that an electronic copy of the final report would be made available to their NGOs and another copy could be found in the UCT Library.

3.7. Reflexivity

Reflexivity is a concept that is central in qualitative research such as the current study, as it adds credibility (Dowling, 2006). The researcher in this study was reflexive, as she was aware of how her own experience could have influenced the research process. She realised that the fact that she had worked (as a volunteer) in one of the participating NGOs could have an influence on how she analysed and interpreted data. The researcher was thus enabled to be as objective as possible throughout the research process and this report is evidence of how the researcher upheld objectivity.

It was also evident that during the FG interviews the researcher's status, i.e. being a UCT student and a foreign national, may have somewhat influenced how the participants responded to the questions, as they showed signs of feeling intimidated. To counteract this situation, throughout the interviews, the researcher worked on developing a rapport with the participants by being relaxed and friendly to the participants, for instance, she referred to them as "guys" and she joked and laughed with them as appropriately, which led to their being more at ease.

3.8. Limitations of the study

The constraints to this study are fourfold. Below, the researcher explains limitations in the research design, sampling and data collection method and instrument.

3.8.1. Research design

The qualitative research design posed the limitation of recording and managing large volumes of data obtained from the in-depth interviews and FGs. The challenge would also be seen in data analysis as the researcher had to analyse voluminous data to try and make sense out of it.

3.8.2. Sampling

Findings of this study were based on a small purposive sample, which included snowball and convenience sampling methods, of 23 participants. Therefore findings are not representative of all NGOs in Cape Town and, as a result, they cannot be generalised. Engel and Schutt (2010:96) assert that although purposive sampling adequately represents the setting or issues studied, it does not produce a sample that represents the broader population.

3.8.3. Data collection method

This method posed a challenge because the number of questions covered was lower compared to if one-on-one interviews had been conducted with the young people (Robson, 2002).

3.8.4. Data collection language

The use of the English language posed a limitation to the current study. The researcher felt that, during the FG interviews, the youth participants could not express themselves fully because the discussions were held in English, which was their second language and also because they had low education levels (see table 4). The English language was used to collect data because it was the language that the researcher had in common with the participants.

3.9. Practical problems experienced

Some PMs and PFMs were too busy to be available for interviews, even though the date and time had been arranged and agreed upon with them timeously. This delayed the data collection process, as the researcher had to postpone the interviews.

3.10. Summary statement

This chapter discussed the research design and methodology in detail. It described the ethical aspects relevant to the study, a section on reflexivity, the limitations of the study, and the practical problems experienced. Chapter 4 and 5 respectively, will present detailed discussions of the main findings in relation to the study objectives.

University of Cape Town

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS: INTERVIEWS WITH NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS

4.1. Introduction

The findings of the study are set out in two chapters. This chapter presents the findings generated through one-to-one interviews with eight staff members of the four participating NGOs: four programme managers (PMs) and four persons facilitating marketing (PFMs). The findings from the FGs comprising youth engaged in STPs at the four NGOs are presented in Chapter 5. Both chapters are arranged as follows: first, the profile of participants, followed by the framework of analysis and finally, findings are presented and discussed, including being compared and contrasted with literature in Chapter 2, and in the case of Chapter 5, with the findings in this chapter.

4.2. Profile of the participating organisations

The participating organisations offered STPs including other services. They were training/development centres and institutes which operated as part of bigger organisations and as small individual NGOs. All were registered NGOs and operated under an NPO number as mandated by the Non-profit Organisation Act (No. 71 of 1997). NGOs' years in operation ranged from 25 to 103 years.

Table 1: NGO years in operation & courses offered

	Organisation/1	Organisation/2	Organisation/3	Organisation/4
Years in Operation	25	103	32	41
Courses offered	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No life skills • Pottery • Sewing • Welding • Woodwork 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Life skills • Bricklaying & Tiling • Computer Maintenance & Repair • Computer Literacy & Office Management • Leather & Wood Craft • Panel Beating 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Life skills • Carpentry • Car Valeting • Driving Lessons • Hairdressing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic English & Life skills • Commercial & Public Area Cleaning • Food and Drink Services • Food Preparation • Housekeeping • Micro MBA (Small Business Management).

	Organisation/1	Organisation/2	Organisation/3	Organisation/4
In-service training	• No	• No	• Yes	• Yes

4.2.1. NGOs' training services

The skills training offered was diverse. Some participating NGOs offered the same skills as others. Two of the NGOs included in-service training as part of the STP. In-service training occurs when trainees are placed in the workplace, for a particular period of time, in order for them to gain practical experience on the type of work they are being trained for. Only organisation/4 had its courses accredited by the National Qualifications Authority. Duration of training offered differed, varying from two to six months.

4.2.2. Scope of NGOs

The NGOs varied in size, particularly in terms of services offered. Apart from skills training, social work and social development services were also offered by Organisations/2, /3 and /4.

4.2.3. NGOs' Location

Location of the participating NGOs is crucial; it plays a role in the way some marginalised youth access information about them. Three of the NGOs are located in the Cape Town Central Business District (CBD), far away from townships where most marginalised youth live. Only one is situated in a township, Khayelitsha.

4.2.4. Profile of participating NGO staff

Table 2: Demographic characteristics of the participating NGO staff

VARIABLE	NUMBER
Gender	
Male	4
Female	4
Education	
Master's degree	1 (PMO)
Bachelor's degree	1 (PMO)
Diploma	3 (2 PMOs & 1 PFMO)
Matric	3 (PFMOs)

VARIABLE	NUMBER
Length of employment (in years)	
Less than 1	1
1 – 5	3
6 – 10	1
11 – 15	2
More than 15	1

4.2.4.1. Age and gender

The age of the participants ranged between 30 and 59. Among them were four males and four females. Three PMs were male; one, female. On the other hand, three PFMs were female; one, male.

4.2.4.2. Levels of education

Participants' education levels varied. The highest qualification was a Master's degree while the lowest was Matric. The PM of organisation/4 (PMO/4) had a Master's degree. PMO/2 had a Bachelor's degree, while PMO/1 and PMO/3 had diplomas. One of the PFMs, PFMO/1, had a diploma, while PFMO/2, /3 and /4 had Matric.

4.2.4.3. Length of employment

Participants' length of employment at their respective NGOs varied. Participants would have different perceptions of marketing tools that their NGOs use/have used to market their STPs according to their length of employment.

4.3. Framework for data analysis:

Table 3 presents the framework that aided the further analysis process. Two things should be noted: Firstly, main research question 1 is not posed to PFMs because, unlike PMs who mostly do strategic thinking and planning, PFMs are practical and therefore execute the plans. Secondly, the findings of one of the four broad research questions are presented and discussed in Chapter 5, as they focus on the youth.

Table 3: Framework for data analysis: interviews with non-governmental organisations

Broad Research Themes	Sub-Themes	Categories Arising Through Analysis of Data
<i>4.4. NGOs' perceptions of youth marginalisation and youth development in South Africa and particularly in Cape Town</i>	<i>4.4.1. NGO's perceptions of youth marginalisation</i>	<i>4.4.1.1. Youth and the education system 4.4.1.2. Youth and the economic system</i>
	<i>4.4.2. NGO's Perceptions of Youth Development</i>	<i>4.4.2.1. Defining youth development 4.4.2.2. Factors that hinder youth development 4.4.2.3. Factors that promote youth development 4.4.2.4. Linking NGOs' STPs to youth marginalisation and youth development</i>
<i>4.5. NGOs and Marketing</i>		<i>4.5.1. What is marketing in an NGO setting? 4.5.2. NGOs' marketing plan 4.5.3. Challenges in marketing STPs 4.5.4. The importance of marketing by NGOs</i>
<i>4.6. Marketing tools used by NGOs to reach marginalised youth</i>		<i>4.6.1. Tools and mechanisms used 4.6.2. Participants' suggestions of marketing tools that could assist in marketing STPs</i>

4.4. To ascertain NGOs' perceptions of youth marginalisation and youth development in South Africa and in particular, Cape Town

4.4.1. NGO's perceptions of youth marginalisation

4.4.1.1. Youth and the education system

Factors leading to social exclusion from the education system

All PMs demonstrated awareness of factors that contribute to exclusion from education, including drug abuse, gangsterism, unemployment, poverty and geographical location. For example:

“Youth grow up in poverty and gang related areas. This pressures them to be in gangs, which leads them to drop out of school. Unemployment among parents also excludes from education.” (PMO/2)

“Intergenerational poverty excludes youth from education. The geographical location of youth sometimes disadvantages them...” (PM)/4)

Haralambos and Holborn (2008) argue that exclusion from education is promoted through many factors, including poverty, lack of economic opportunities, unequal education opportunities, and geographical location.

Income poverty seems to be one of the main factors leading to youth’s exclusion from education. Findings show that poverty due to little or lack of income prevents households from acquiring basic household goods and sending their children to school. For instance, PMO/1 discloses:

“The majority of our people live in poor households where they can’t even put food on the table for their children. So you find that they don’t even have money to send their children to school.”

The researcher asked PMO/1 to comment on “No-Fee Schools” in order to understand his perception of the role of the No-Fee Schools Policy 1996 as amended, in assisting youth to remain in school. His response is as follows:

“Yes, there are schools that you don’t have to pay fees but the problem is that in some instances you find that the young person is not the only one in the family, so he/she has to leave school early to go and work in order to support other children because of lack of income.”

Similarly, Blank (2007) and Stats SA (2011) argue that income poverty is the main cause of youth exclusion from education. Income poverty not only leads to youth exclusion from education but it is also an effect of it. When youth experience poverty, they fail to develop themselves either in their youth or adulthood (Sen, 1999).

The education system itself seems to be another factor that contributes to youth’s exclusion from education. The system does not appear to equip learners with good basic skills in writing and reading. As PMO/2 reveals:

“The education system has also failed. The system is not working in that it is not preparing learners with basic skills such as reading and writing while in primary, which prevents them from progressing when in high school.”

Likewise, Blank (2007) argues that the education system, specifically in poor communities, reproduces poverty and social exclusion as youth are provided with poor quality education. Youth then leave school early or complete school with poor skills and qualifications. It is for this reason that NGOs such as those participating in this study, act as second chance opportunities, which promote the inclusion of the youth in question, into the education system through training.

Effects of exclusion

PMs revealed that excluding youth from the education system has many unfavourable consequences. They highlighted the following effects: poor job skills, alcohol and drug abuse, crime, gangsterism, frustration, lack of self-control and early pregnancy among girls.

All PMs in this study were of the opinion that a low level of skills development as a result of dropping out of school plays a major role in preventing youth from finding employment. For example:

“Excluding youth from education has devastating effects because it’s not until they can get skills that they can become employable...” (PMO/3)

Likewise, Motimele, Mahlangu, Tsotetsi, Nhlapo and Magongo (2011) and the World Bank (2006:96) argue that lack of work skills among most youth prevents them from participating in the labour market.

The research participants stated that the other main problems among school drop-outs in Cape Town are drug abuse, crime and gangsterism. For example, PMO/2 reveals:

“I think one of the ways in which exclusion affects youth is through getting involved in gangs. So because of this, unfortunately they are also involved in crime and drugs, which is a massive problem in Cape Town.”

The problem of drug abuse seems to deepen when youth become dealers, which makes it difficult to stop.

“Youth do not only use drugs but also become dealers because the drug dealers use them to infiltrate schools.” (PMO/2)

Similarly, in a study conducted in Cape Town, Mulenga (2011: 27) discovered that some youth in disadvantaged communities live in households where all family members are unemployed and sell drugs to survive. There is a high possibility that these youth become drug dealers themselves as they are exposed to drug dealing at an early age. Thus dealing in drugs may seem normal to young people (Sylvester, 2002; Williams, 2007).

Excluding youth from the education system seems to result in frustration among youth as they cannot find work, which may lead to the intake and abuse of alcohol at an early age. PMO/1 discloses:

“They end up being frustrated because they can’t find work. You find that they end up drinking at an early age.”

This finding supports Barrar (2010: 24) and Mulenga (2011: 24) who argue that, when youth drop out of school, they find it difficult to become employed. For this reason, they experience prolonged unemployment, which leads to frustration among them (Barrar, 2010; Motimele et al., 2011).

How role players can promote inclusion

The participants’ ideas of how inclusion could be promoted by different role players, including youth themselves, government, businesses and NGOs is summed up in the following quote by PMO/4:

“Youth have to empower themselves and own their own development. Government wise, interventions have to be realistic to break down intergenerational poverty. They could assist people to have money and to be able to send their children to better schools. Also government could improve and strengthen Further Education and Training Colleges. The private sector should try to invest more in skills training. This way they will assist in the skilling of youth. NGOs should try and open more skills training centres. Opening more centres would mean that more youth would be included in training.”

The capability approach stipulates that in order for people, including marginalised youth, to change their lives, they need to be provided with opportunities/means to be able to do so (Robeyns, 2005). Practical youth development interventions that relate to their education and training need to be intensified. Youth should be empowered to avoid poverty through education and training (Sen, 1999; Wigley & Akkoyunlu-Wigley, 2006).

4.4.1.2. Youth and the economic system

Factors leading to exclusion from the economic system

The participants reported that it was difficult for youth with low education and skills levels to find work, which prevents them from participating in the economy:

“Young people who don’t have skills to offer won’t really find employment. Leaving school before the school leaving qualification is achieved limits them from getting employment...” (PMO/3)

Lack of, or little, education and training is arguably the most critical driver behind poverty and social exclusion. Without skills, there is a high risk of unemployment in contemporary labour markets (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008). There is a strong link between low education and unemployment (Bhorat, 2007; Motimele et al., 2011).

Some of the PMs in the current study believe that a lack of self-motivation among some young people is a problem that prevents them from participating in the economy:

“[It] is a real lack of motivation in many instances that prevents youth from finding employment. If they could be at home and somebody is providing for them, they are quite happy.” (PMO/3)

In contrast, Barrar (2010:30) argues that most marginalised youth live in communities where unemployment and poverty are prevalent not only among the youth, but also among adults. In this kind of situation, youth live without role models to motivate and guide them on what to do in order to find work (Mulenga, 2011). The absence of positive role models contributes to their exclusion from the economy.

Some respondents argued that a lack of experience among youth is what excludes them from the economic system. For example:

“Youth are excluded because they lack that type of experience that would enable them to find work.” (PMO/4)

This finding resonates with Arendse and Gunn (2010), Bhorat (2007), Motimele et al. (2011) and NYP (2009), who argue that youth face high unemployment rates because they have no work experience.

Geographical location is another factor that seems to exclude youth from the economy. Most marginalised youth in Cape Town live far away from the economic hubs, making it difficult for them to access central areas where economic activities happen. As PMO/4 points out:

“In Cape Town, the problem is that most youth live far from industries and places of work that need to be available for them to get jobs.”

This finding is in line with the social exclusion theory, which states that when youth are geographically excluded and live in disadvantaged communities, they are also likely to be excluded from the economy (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008; Hilker & Fraser, 2009).

Some economic systems do not enhance young people’s capabilities through providing them with enough work opportunities (Sen, 1999; World Bank, 2006). This is true also of Cape Town, as revealed by two PMs:

“I would say that one of the big social problems in Cape Town is lack of employment opportunities.” (PMO/2)

Another factor seen by a participating PM as leading to youth’s exclusion from the economic system is that government turns a deaf ear to what youth say about wanting job opportunities. He says that government does not try to find solutions to the problems that youth experience, despite the fact that there is a comprehensive NYP (2009) that is supposed to guide role players, including government, on what needs to be done and how they can contribute to youth development:

“Government is not responding to the problems that youth are experiencing because it’s not really listening to the youth. Youth are saying we need work opportunities but government is not making these opportunities available.” (PMO/2)

Two PMs also revealed that certain youth agencies, such as the NYDA, have failed to promote youth development sufficiently in townships. For example, (PMO/1) disclosed:

“...although there is the National Youth Development Agency, it’s not doing enough to develop the majority of our youth. More especially in townships as most youth are still unemployed.”

This finding is critical in that it questions the work of government, specifically the NYDA, a key role player in youth development. The current findings contrast with one of the NYDA’s objectives, namely that it gives significance to youth development in SA by intensifying youth development and thereby promoting expansion and high impact in the provision of youth services (NYDA, 2013). With reference to two PMs, there appears to be a contradiction between the claims of the NYDA and the actual experiences of marginalised youth on the ground. It seems NYDA is not doing enough to reach out to the majority of the

youth. One of the reasons for this could be that most of its offices are not functioning and those that are, are inaccessible (NYDA-Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2013).

Effects of exclusion

In the view of the four PMs in the current study, most of the effects that youth experience when excluded from education are similar to effects they experience when excluded from the economy. For example, most PMs believe that one of the effects is that some youth take crime as a survival strategy:

“If they can’t get a job, they are pushed into poverty and crime, so they steal in order to survive.” (PMO/4)

This resonates with the views of Ward (2009), who writes that one of the effects of excluding people from the economy is that they experience poverty and, in order to have a livelihood, they commit crime.

Frustration is another effect of youth exclusion from the economy. As PMO/2 explains:

“We have seen a lot of violent protests as unemployed youth take out their frustrations. The other year we saw youth’s frustrations in the violent London riots where most of those involved were unemployed youth. This should be a wake-up call for our government.”

This finding is similar to that of Mulenga (2011:30, 43) who found that youth who remain unemployed for a long time, become frustrated. The researcher argues that one reason for frustration is that prolonged unemployment negates youth’s ability to be self-reliant and to have control over their lives. Their frustrations can also be linked to the fact that because of unemployment, their transition to adulthood is prevented or prolonged as they are unable to be independent and *inter alia* entre housing and family conditions (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008; World Bank, 2006).

The findings of the current study also revealed that, in the view of the NGO participants, youth excluded from the economy lose self-confidence. When this happens, youth lack the drive to think critically about what they can do in order to change their standards of living:

“[S]ocially, their morale and self-image is lower than those that are working because they look at themselves as nobodies. They can’t compete. So their whole life is affected negatively.” (PMO/4)

Similarly, McCrystal, Higgins and Percy (2007:2) argue that when youth are excluded from the economy, they experience low self-esteem. These authors argue that unemployment, which may lead to dependency, makes youth feel helpless and hopeless because they are unable to change their lives.

How role players can promote inclusion

This section presents the views of the four PMs on what youth, government, the private sector and NGOs can do to promote youth inclusion into the economic system. Findings show that PMs seemed to be conversant with the challenges that youth face through being excluded from the economy. PMs also appeared to know what the role of their NGOs is in trying to contribute to the integration of youth into the economy. For example, PMO/2 explained:

“Through life skills, we teach them about basic values, for example on what they should do to find work. Also on how they are supposed to behave when they get a job in order to keep that job. So as NGOs we teach them the kind of values that would prepare youth for work.”

PMs however, argue that lack of funding for NGOs from government and businesses impacts negatively on skills training. For example, PMO/1 points out:

“It is the role of the government to support the NGOs. Government and private businesses however, are giving little funds to NGOs so they are closing down. So if government and the businesses can come together and focus more on skills training centres, it would help many young people.”

This finding questions the extent to which government and the private sector implement the NYP-2009. According to NYP (2009:6, 7), government and the private sector should work in an integrated manner in order to enhance youth development. This includes the manner in which they fund youth development programmes.

PMO/2 also revealed that his NGO found it difficult to source funding from the NYDA.

“We’ve tried to get funding from the National Youth Development Agency but it has been very difficult to get it. Despite following the agency’s criteria for applying for funding, our organisation still can’t get funding.”

This finding is affirmed by the NYDA-Parliamentary Monitoring Group (2013), which reports that the funds that the NYDA receives from government have been insufficient to make a considerable impact on the lives of most youth.

On the other hand, the role of young people themselves in trying to enter the economic system was also seen to be important by all participating PMs. One of the four PMs revealed that one way through which youth can include themselves in the economic system is by becoming entrepreneurs:

“...youth have a lot of creativity. I would say entrepreneurship is one of the main ways in which youth can help themselves, you know. They can start their own small businesses...” (PMO/2)

With levels of unemployment high and few job opportunities, entrepreneurship, through which youth start own small businesses, has been emphasised in SA as well as globally (Department of Trade & Industry, 2005; Manpower Group, 2012; NYP, 2009; Steenekamp, van der Merwe & Athayde, 2011).

4.4.1.3. Summary: NGOs’ perceptions of youth marginalisation

The findings in this sub-theme illustrate the multidimensional nature of, and interrelationship between, the factors that lead to and are reinforced by marginalisation. In respect of the capability approach, these interlinked forms of exclusion are referred to as capability deprivations. Deprivations prevent marginalised youth from being able to change their lives and keep them trapped in poverty. Participants revealed that intergenerational poverty (including income poverty), geographical exclusion, drug abuse, gangsterism and the poor education system are some of the factors that lead to youth exclusion from education. Participants also made clear that these factors can also be effects of excluding youth from education. Effects include poor skills, alcohol and drug abuse, crime, gangsterism, frustration, lack of self-control and early pregnancy. Thus, factors are both cause and effect, such as drug abuse and gangsterism, and the vicious cycle of income poverty.

The participants highlighted various factors that lead to youth exclusion from the economy, including poor skills, lack of job opportunities, experience, and self-motivation, geographical exclusion, government’s lack of responsiveness to the needs of the youth and the failure of certain existing youth programmes. They disclosed that among the effects of excluding youth from the economy are poverty, crime and gangsterism, lack of job opportunities, frustration and loss of self-confidence. Once again the complex nature of marginalisation was revealed.

The NGO participants' view of the roles of youth, government, the private sector and the NGOs in promoting inclusion both in education and the economy were reported. They offered a number of clear suggestions on how each role player could contribute. It seems, though, that government has the greatest power and resources to accelerate the solutions to the challenges of marginalised youth, but is for the most part, ineffective.

4.4.2. NGOs' perceptions of youth development

4.4.2.1. Defining youth development

Youth development is a term that is defined differently by different stakeholders. From an NGO perspective, all four PMs defined the term similarly. They revealed that youth development entails changing young people's lives by prioritising their needs and empowering them in different ways, including socially, economically, intellectually and health wise. Here is the description given by PMO/2:

"It's a holistic approach, on how to uplift the youth, not just academically, but also thinking wise, psychologically and health wise..."

PMO/4 defined youth development as bringing about change in the lives of the youth. He emphasised the change that is supposed to take place in the process of developing youth:

"Youth development is all about change, as development is a change; thus, a change in an individual and a change in the society. So the more you train youth that never had training, skill youth that never had skills, up-skill youth with lower skills, help youth go back to school, you know. All this enables, empowers and capacitates those youth."

The current findings affirm the NYP (2009:10), which argues that youth development is a comprehensive way of making space, opportunities and support available through which youth would empower themselves and better their lives.

4.4.2.2. Factors that hinder youth development

PMs from all four participating NGOs identified many obstacles to youth development, including youth's lack of access to information on education and training, policies that exclude youth, few youth development programmes, media's encouragement of negative behaviour, and poverty and unemployment. The quotes below illustrate what some PMs disclosed about certain obstacles.

PMO/4 explained that government policies that exclude youth hinder them from developing:

“Policies that only aim at supporting children and the elderly and neglect the youth can be a great hindrance to their development.”

This finding is supported by Haralambos and Holborn (2008), Hilker and Fraser (2009) who stipulate that policies that exclude certain groups of the population, prevent their development. The capability approach stipulates that policies should be inclusive in order to cater for all people in a given society and enhance their livelihoods (Sen, 1999).

A lack of access to information contributes to exclusion and to a lack of development. PMO/4 explains:

“Lack of information on training can also be a hindrance. Opportunities can be available but if the young person doesn’t have information on them, he/she can’t access them.”

Klasen (1998) and Ward (2009) also argue that exclusion which hinders development happens when youth are not provided with information that can help them to make decisions about how they can lead their lives.

In turn, PMO/1 emphasises the lack of NGO funding as a hindrance to youth development:

“I think it is lack of funding that prevents youth development. Lack of funding is what most NGOs are facing and because of this we can’t expand our programmes.”

These findings demonstrate that there are many factors that hinder youth development, making it a complex and multifaceted process.

4.4.2.3. Factors that promote youth development

PMs identify a range of factors that promote youth development, the main ones being education; parental support, guidance, coaching and mentoring; entrepreneurship; and including youth in the economy. For example, PMO/2 discloses:

“...factors would include providing good education to the youth. By education, I mean teaching them basic values such as having respect for life, property and respect for all sorts of things. Also vital is guidance, coaching and mentoring, which assist them along the way.”

This finding concurs with the NYP (2009) which argues that education, guidance, coaching and mentoring are critical in promoting youth development.

Two PMs see entrepreneurship as a way of promoting youth development. For instance, PMO/1 explains:

“...youth development can be promoted through entrepreneurship. Like young people being self-employed, you know. So it is right to encourage entrepreneurship among the youth so that they can start own businesses.”

The NYP (2009:14) also notes that if youth are provided with alternative opportunities that appropriately support and encourage them, they could become an asset to themselves and society.

4.4.2.4. Summary: NGOs’ perceptions of youth development

This sub-theme highlights NGOs’ perceptions of youth development in SA. Participants defined youth development as an inclusive approach that focuses on providing youth with the necessary opportunities and assistance so that they are able to find solutions to various challenges, such as lack of skills, work experience and unemployment. It is clear that youth development is a multifaceted process. According to participants, factors that hinder youth development include government policies that exclude youth, lack of information on education and training, few youth development programmes, media’s encouragement of negative behaviour and, poverty and unemployment. Participants believe that promoting youth development involves integrating youth into education and training; providing mentoring, coaching and guidance; and encouraging entrepreneurship among them. Lastly, current findings reveal that, through STPs, marginalised youth are empowered with skills that may assist them to develop economically.

4.4.3. Linking NGOs’ skills training programmes to youth marginalisation and youth development

Through STPs, marginalised youth are given the opportunity to obtain training in different skills that may assist them to develop economically. All PMs appeared to be aware of the role they play in including marginalised youth into the economic system. For example:

“...we address most issues that affect marginalised youth. We are trying to address unemployment, school-drop out and poor skills. So there is a definite connection. We try to empower youth through skills training programmes.” (PMO/2)

The current findings illustrate that NGOs try to address unemployment and thereby attempt to bring about economic development among the youth through skills training. Similarly, Dhake

et al. (2010) argue that NGOs are agencies that are devoted to managing resources and implementing projects with the goal of addressing social problems to bring about development. The findings further show that the participating NGOs play a role of linking marginalised youth to development. Through these NGOs, youth are given second-chance opportunities in the form of skills training, which enables them to develop job skills, which enable them to enter the economic mainstream as they are capacitated to find employment or to start own businesses. In most instances, economic independence helps youth to make choices that would bring about change in their lives.

4.5. To ascertain how people in the NGO sector define marketing

The focus in this section is on how the participating NGOs perceive marketing. The analysis is based on the description of marketing set out in Chapter 2.

4.5.1. Marketing in an NGO setting

The staff of the participating NGOs seemed to have a limited understanding of the term, marketing. Their comments inclined towards one aspect of marketing: promotion. For example:

“...it basically means promoting projects that youth can benefit from...” (PFMO/2)

“...marketing is whereby you promote what you are doing.” (PFMO/1)

These findings reveal that NGOs have an idea of what marketing is; however, they do not seem to appreciate how complex the marketing process is. As discussed, promoting organisational products/services is just one of the four aspects of marketing strategies (Shanker, 2002; Westwood, 2013).

Findings show that certain key elements in the marketing process, such as planning, do not appear to be happening in some NGOs, particularly in respect of marketing skills training to youth:

“We actually haven’t got a specific planning in place but I think it’s something we should consider.” (PMO/3)

Other participants also revealed that no planning was done in terms of marketing of STPs to youth:

“To be honest, we don’t do that.” (PFMO/4)

“We don’t plan for marketing.” (PFMO/2)

However, there seem to be disagreements on what was and was not done in certain participating NGOs regarding marketing. For example, while PFMO/4 said that no planning was done, PMO/4 claimed that planning for marketing formed part of organisational planning:

“Planning for marketing is done during the review and planning period of the entire organisation. So this review and planning includes marketing because it looks at different portfolios that have to fulfil different roles.”

This development may highlight that there was limited clarity and coordination in planning for marketing of STPs in organisation/4.

Some participants show that planning is done, but only partially, with a narrow focus on how skills training can be advertised. In this sense, the planning is very basic, as these participants confirm:

“...we are the ones that design brochures. So we sit down and we try to strategise on how we would advertise our courses.” (PMO/1)

“...we already have our year planner for next year set up on workshops and outreach programmes...” (PFMO/2)

Holistic marketing planning implies, *inter alia*, that a documented marketing plan is formulated to guide and direct the whole marketing process of STPs (Westwood, 2013). The next section sets out findings related to a marketing plan of this nature.

Findings demonstrate that marketing done by the participating NGOs concentrated more on creating awareness to the funders than to the beneficiaries. For example, PMO/2 describes the purpose of marketing in NGOs as follows:

“I would say our main purpose in terms of marketing would be generating awareness of our programmes to funders and generating funds. Our budget is quite huge and we need to sustain it. If we can’t sustain it then training can’t continue, which means that a lot of youth would miss out on training opportunities.”

The researcher argues that sustaining the STPs financially but not informing youth adequately about them is similar to not having training opportunities for the youth. Youth’s lack of access to information about STPs hinders them from accessing them. What is the use of sustaining programmes that do not fulfil the intended purpose: to provide marginalised youth

with skills training? Marketing STPs to funders is crucial, but marketing to prospective beneficiaries is of equal importance.

4.5.2. NGOs' marketing plan

In this section, the researcher presents findings about NGO participants' views of a marketing plan. Different aspects of a marketing plan, including marketing objectives, budget, and monitoring and evaluation, are discussed. The challenges that participating NGOs experience in marketing their STPs and the significance that participants attach to marketing are also discussed.

4.5.2.1. What is a marketing plan?

Some participants did not understand the role of a marketing plan in marketing STPs to the youth. Of the four participating PMs, two of them had an understanding of the work of the plan. For example PMO/4 explained:

"I think a marketing plan is a set of guidelines that should guide the way we should market our organisation. What we should do, what we should not do, how we should do it, what should be the procedure, what should be the content of the marketing material."

A marketing plan is indeed a plan for marketing the services of an organisation (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008). It outlines who will do what, when, and where, and how to achieve its objectives.

It is alarming that, despite some participants knowing the purpose of a marketing plan, none of the participating NGOs appeared to have one. All four PMs were open and revealed that their NGOs had no marketing plans. For example:

"Well, to be honest with you, we don't really have one [marketing plan]." (PMO/1)

This finding illustrates that NGOs did not have marketing plans in place despite some of the PMs seeing them as something that could guide and direct them in marketing their STPs. Other possible reasons, however, for not having a plan, could be as the result of the challenges that most participants have highlighted in 4.5.3, which include staff shortage, lack of staff with basic marketing skills and lack of funds. In this regard, critical questions need to be asked. How do participating NGOs intend to reach marginalised youth if they have no proper guidance in the way they plan for the marketing of their training? Do PMs understand the basics of marketing? The researcher also argues that, if participating NGOs do not have

marketing plans, marketing of their training to youth may not be differentiated from marketing their programmes to potential funders. This situation may hinder these NGOs from putting equal effort into the marketing of their training to both the funders and beneficiaries. Inadequate marketing to the beneficiaries may mean that many people, including the youth, may lack access to information on training opportunities, which, in turn, means that they would experience difficulty in accessing training and other opportunities (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008).

4.5.2.2. Marketing objectives

The fact that no marketing plans appear to have been developed by the participating NGOs, communicates that there could be no marketing objectives either. Of the four PMs, only PMO/4 claimed that, in his NGO, the setting of marketing objectives took place annually when the organisation did planning for the entire organisation.

“So during this review and planning, objectives are set. It also includes planning for marketing because it looks at different portfolios that have to fulfil different roles and objectives are set.” (PMO/4)

The manager however does not differentiate between setting objectives for the entire organisation and setting objectives for the marketing of its STP. From this, the researcher deduces that there are no specific marketing objectives set or, if they are, they are ambiguous. Marketing objectives are outcomes that a marketer wants to achieve (Kotler & Amstrong, 2008). Objectives must be clearly defined and quantifiable so that achievable targets can be set in a specified time frame (Westwood, 2013). This enables the performance of the implemented marketing plan to be measured against the objectives.

4.5.2.3. Marketing budget

To achieve marketing objectives, a cost-effective budget should be set and defined for promotions and the entire marketing plan (Westwood, 2013). While Westwood (2013) writes about marketing in the business sector, the principles of marketing may also apply in the NGO sector.

The findings point to a small budget allocated for marketing. For example PMO/1 disclosed:

“The money allocated for marketing is not much. To be honest with you, we’ve a small budget.”

Similarly, PMO/4 related that an amount of R1 500 per annum is set for marketing:

“Yeah, there is, because the amount of brochures that we produce has to be budgeted, you know. ... The maximum amount that is put aside for marketing is R1 500.”

PMO/2 revealed that there was no specific budget allocated to marketing per se, but to the recruitment division:

“The money wouldn’t be for marketing as such but since marketing is part of the work that they [recruitment division] do, the money can also be used for marketing purposes.”

It is hard to tell if there is clarity within the NGOs about the resources needed to conduct marketing promotions, as participating NGOs do not have set plans to show what promotions should be focused on, where and how. Talking from her experience in the marketing and recruitment division of an NGO, the researcher argues that it would be difficult to know how much should be spent on marketing if there is no marketing plan and no budget. Setting a budget for the entire plan would include allocating funds for logistics, the implementation of promotions, and for monitoring and evaluation. Budgets clarify resources needed to implement the plan, quantify the cost and promote the cost-effective use of funds (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008; Westwood, 2013).

4.5.2.4. Monitoring and evaluation

M&E is a continuous marketing activity, which establishes whether NGOs meet their marketing objectives efficiently (Panday, 1996). In the case of the participating NGOs, M&E would show how well the marginalised youth are being served. However, three of the four PMs in the current study plainly articulated that they did not monitor and evaluate their marketing activities. For example:

“No, we have never done monitoring and evaluation, as much as I can see the importance of it.” (PMO/4)

The researcher argues that the absence of marketing objectives could be one of the reasons that the participating NGOs did not monitor and evaluate their marketing activities. A marketing plan is monitored and evaluated on its quantifiable objectives (Westwood, 2013).

PMO/1 explained that his organisation did monitor and evaluate its marketing activities:

“...we try by all means to go to different places where we ask young people about how they heard about us.”

But how useful is this question that Organisation/1 asks if it is not informed by an objective/s? Moreover, how, and with which objective, does Organisation/1 measure the data it collects? The researcher argues that Organisation/1's M&E exercise has limitations, as it is not based on measurable objectives.

The researcher concludes that it is difficult for participating NGOs to effectively reach marginalised youth if they are not sure of how and what marketing promotions work best for their target groups (Panday, 1996).

4.5.3. Challenges in marketing STPs

Formulating marketing plans and marketing seem to be a challenge for the participating NGOs. Findings highlight various challenges that all of them experienced in marketing their STPs to marginalised youth. The challenges include shortage of staff, no specific staff to carry out marketing activities, financial constraints, and youth not being interested. For example:

"...for marketing to take place we need to employ more people [laughs] and find more funding [laughs]. The problem we also face is that you find that most of the Coloured young stars do not want to come on training. I mean, I am Coloured myself, so I know them." (PFMO/3)

From these findings it is clear that participating NGOs lacked resources to market their STPs. These findings confirm the views of Dhake et al. (2010), who argue that NGOs mainly lack funds and qualified personnel to administer the marketing of their programmes. Findings also show that marginalised youth's lack of interest in training is a challenge to marketing. Therefore the researcher argues that, to an extent, NGOs' commitment to market their STPs is undermined if youth are not interested and do not respond positively to the information that is made available.

Despite the challenges that NGOs experience, some participants admitted that they did not do enough to market their STPs:

"We are not doing enough in terms of marketing. So it's not really something that we are vigorously using in trying to reach the youth." (PMO/1)

"What is happening currently is not a more focused way of marketing. Maybe that explains why we've got little amount of learners in other courses." (PMO/4)

These findings show that marketing of STPs to marginalised youth is done, but to a limited degree. It seems all participating NGOs are aware of the fact that they put little effort into the marketing of their STPs. The question is how do these participating NGOs market their programmes? The different ways used by these NGOs to market their programmes to marginalised youth are discussed in 4.6. Below is the discussion of the significance that the participating NGOs attach to marketing.

4.5.4. The importance of marketing by NGOs

As seen in 4.5.3 above, participating NGOs experience various challenges in marketing their STPs. Findings in this section, however reveal that, despite these challenges, all NGOs perceived marketing as critical. For example:

“I think marketing is very important. So it is very important that we market our training so that youth from disadvantaged communities can know about us and come and train.” (PFMO/4)

Some participants link marketing to increased enrolment in skills training. For instance:

“If we didn’t do marketing, I mean the little part that we are doing, we wouldn’t have filled up the class for the current intake...” (PFMO/3)

This finding demonstrates that making information about training accessible to marginalised youth helps them to enrol for training. However, as discussed elsewhere in this chapter, not having a marketing plan, marketing objectives and a budget undermined the marketing process and its importance in the participating NGOs.

4.5.5. Summary: NGOs and marketing

Participants in the current study had a limited understanding of marketing. They understood that marketing STPs to the youth was vital but they illustrated that their understanding of marketing was inclined more to creating awareness to the funders than to the youth. Most participants also revealed that their organisations did not have marketing plans. In this regard, no marketing objectives and budgets were set and no M&E was done on the marketing of STPs. One reason for this is that funding is the lifeblood of NGOs and marketing the STPs is thus regarded as secondary. The other reason was that NGOs experienced staff shortage. Findings on how these NGOs market their STPs to the youth are presented in the next section.

4.6. To explore the marketing tools and mechanisms that NGOs use to reach marginalised youth.

Marketing tools are used to inform a target population about a service. Tools have to be selected carefully in order to ensure that information reaches the intended group. All participating NGOs seem to use outreach marketing tools to market their STPs to marginalised youth. It seems there are tools and mechanisms that are common among all four NGOs, while other tools are used by one or two NGOs.

The participating NGOs used a number of marketing tools and mechanisms to market their STPs to marginalised youth. Findings showed that the main ones included marketing through partners, word-of-mouth, websites, brochures and Facebook. Other marketing tools used by one or two NGOs included community newspapers and radio stations, marketing to people other than youth themselves, and marketing to youth by attracting them to other benefits, such as offering them support to start their own businesses when they completed the training, signage on vehicles, youth organisational tours, exhibitions at carnivals, churches, and community workshops.

4.6.1. Tools and mechanisms used

4.6.1.1. Marketing through partners

All four participating NGOs used partners to market their STPs. The benefits are two-fold: NGOs are able to utilise forums as platforms for marketing their STPs and partners also referred youth to them.

For example, PFMO/3 said:

“We market our courses through forums such as the Street People’s Forum, Youth Development Forum and Field Worker’s Forum. At these forums, we network with a wide range of NGOs...”

Similarly, the NYP (2009) stipulates that partnerships within the NGO sector would enhance service delivery. Also in support of this current finding is Gerson (1991:74), who argues that referrals that are built through networking with other organisations are core in every organisation as they create awareness of your services to their clients.

PMO/1 pointed out:

“...we market our training at the Khayelitsha Development Forum, which is a structure for the development of Khayelitsha and holds meetings every two months.

This finding affirms Dhake et al. (2010) who show that exhibiting at community forums is a useful way of marketing NGOs' programmes to the people.

4.6.1.2. Word-of-mouth

Word-of-mouth is a common and useful marketing tool employed by the four participating NGOs.

"...our ex-learners market our courses through word-of-mouth. If they see that our training has changed their lives, they tell and send their friends here." (PFMO/2)

Similarly, Gerson (1991:80) argues that word-of-mouth is a useful tool in that, when people are satisfied with the service/training they receive from a particular organisation, they are likely to refer others to that organisation. Word-of-mouth marketing, however, can also harm an organisation if the quality of service/training that youth receive is poor (Singhvi, 2002).

PFMO/4 disclosed that word-of-mouth worked partially in her NGO:

"Here, word-of-mouth is only working for one part and that's on the part of foreigners. Most youth who come to register are foreigners and they say that they knew about us through their friends and other people..."

This finding implied that more foreign youth knew about the STPs of organisation/4 through word-of-mouth than SA youth. Youth are not a homogeneous group (Ansell, 2005), i.e. service providers such as the participating NGOs should understand their situations differently in order to devise marketing tools and mechanisms that are suitable for SA youth who are not reached by word-of-mouth.

4.6.1.3. Websites (Internet)

A website was another mechanism through which all four participating NGOs marketed their STPs:

"There are some young people who have come to know about us through our website. Some have downloaded the application form from the website..." (PMO/4)

This finding revealed that websites seemed crucial in marketing STPs. Likewise, Dhake et al. (2010) claim that most NGOs use websites for marketing purposes.

Of the four NGOs, two had outdated information on their websites, although they used them to market their STPs. For example:

“At the moment we have a website but it is not up-to-date so we need to update it...”
(PMO/1)

These outdated websites might have information that is not very useful to the youth, for example, they may not include information on new courses on offer with an explanation of all elements of the training, including requirements for enrolment and the cost of the training.

Other participants questioned the use of websites/Internet and other social networks, such as Facebook and Twitter, for marketing purposes. For example, PFMO/3 disclosed that it could have been inappropriate to market STPs via the Internet because the youth that her organisation targeted did not have easy access to the Internet.

“We are not working with youth who have access to the Internet at all times. I don’t think our youth who are disadvantaged and marginalised have access to that.”

In this regard, the researcher asked PFMO/3 to comment on the fact that some of the marginalised youth had cell phones that had Internet access. PFMO/3 responded:

“But are they [marginalised youth] going to be searching for our organisation’s page? I don’t think so. They don’t know our name, so they won’t search for it on the Internet.”

This finding does not negate the effectiveness of websites as a marketing tool to youth. Rather, it reveals a lack of knowledge on the part of this participant, who was unaware of the many ways there are of searching for things on the Internet, including training centres, using search engines.

Like PFM0/3, PFMO/1 maintained that certain marginalised youth had no access to the Internet. For this reason, his organisation also used other marketing tools in order to reach more youth:

“Certain youth are not educated, so you can’t expect them to have access or to use the Internet. So, if we only use the Internet, other youth won’t know about us.”

These findings point to the fact that some of the youth that organisation/1 targeted had no access to ICT. Even if Internet cafés might have been available, most youth did not have access to them, as they could not afford the fees. Some of the youth were also unable to access computer and Internet services that were offered by other NGOs for free, as these NGOs were geographically distant from where they lived. The findings imply that focusing

solely on ICT as a marketing tool would prevent many youth from accessing information on STPs.

4.6.1.4. Brochures

Three of the four NGOs, organisation/1, /2 and /4 used a brochure, while organisation/3 did not. PMO/4 reveals that a brochure dominates all other marketing tools in his organisation:

“...brochures have been the dominant ones every year and I assume they will continue to be.”

The researcher asked PMO/4 to explain why the use of a brochure is critical to organisation/4. His response is as follows:

“A brochure is easy to produce. It is easy to disseminate detailed information about your organisation through a brochure. It can also be given to people in order for them to read.”

It appeared easy to produce and distribute information through a brochure among marginalised youth. This finding resonates with Dhake et al. (2010:7) who report that brochures are the marketing tools most used by NGOs in India.

PMO/1 highlighted that his organisation handed out brochures, flyers and pamphlets at shopping malls:

“We also go and hand out brochures, flyers and pamphlets at busy places like Khayelitsha Mall.”

This finding illustrates that organisation/1 saw shopping malls as a good location for the distribution of brochures, flyers and pamphlets to marginalised youth.

4.6.1.5. Community newspapers and radio station

Organisation/3 used community newspapers as a marketing tool. Organisation/1 used a radio station as well. These PMs, however, revealed that newspapers and radio stations were now charging fees for advertising.

PMO/1 said:

“We tell people about our programmes through the community radio station and newspapers ...but now they are charging money for advertising.”

These findings are contrary to Dhake et al.'s (2010) findings about NGOs in India, namely that community newspapers are one of the most used marketing tools, and community radio

stations, one of the most valuable. In the current study, findings showed that only two of the four NGOs used newspapers –and only one, a radio station – to market their STPs.

On the other hand, findings illustrated that community newspapers might not be effective in marketing STPs to marginalised youth in SA. PFMO/3 explained that her organisation did not want to continue to advertise in newspapers because she believed that marginalised youth did not read newspapers.

“We don’t really want to advertise in newspapers anymore because we have found that the youth we target don’t really have time to read newspapers, even if they are free.”

This finding could imply that there is poor planning or lack of planning within organisation/3. Had it planned for marketing, it would have known the characteristics of its target group and, thorough this, been able to carefully select appropriate marketing tools in order to effectively reach the youth. Marketing is a process involving key practical features, such as knowing the characteristics and needs of the target group in order to serve them better (Westwood, 2013).

4.6.1.6. Attracting youth through other benefits

Some participants highlighted that reaching out to marginalised youth goes beyond just telling them about training. Findings showed that NGOs which went beyond just marketing the kind of training they offer to include other benefits, attracted more youth to do the skills training. As PFMO/3 revealed:

“Apart from creating awareness, we also tell youth that after completing the training, we assist them with writing business proposals and applying for funding at NYDA. They are also told that they would be mentored in the early stages of starting their business.”

Based on her work experience at a training centre, the researcher argues that in, some instances, youth do want to train in organisations where they know that they would be placed into a job after successfully finishing training. In this regard, PFMO/3 said:

“...we only offer training. We need to send youth for in-service training as part of gaining experience and place them into jobs if we are to attract other youth to come and do the training here.”

4.6.1.7. Marketing beyond marginalised youth

Two organisations disclosed that marketing to marginalised youth also required marketing to their families and communities. The reason for this is that families and communities seem to have an influence on the lives of the youth and therefore would help them to make decisions with regard to skills training. PFMO/3 explained:

“Marketing is not just about going to the youth to tell them about our training, no, it’s about going beyond the youth... going to their families and communities to educate them on how they can help these youths to change their attitudes towards training and their lives.”

This finding shows that some NGOs engage in critical and creative thinking in order to reach the marginalised youth. Organisation/3 reached out to young people by inviting their families and communities to forums, which included the Street People’s Forum, Youth Development Forum and the Field Worker’s Forum:

“...people from the communities come to listen and contribute to the discussions during our forum meetings...”

This finding illustrates that organisation/3 was able to reach out to young people’s families and communities by inviting and allowing them to participate during their meetings.

4.6.1.8. Other marketing tools and mechanisms

Marketing tools that organisation/2 uses include signage on vehicles, youth organisational tours, exhibitions at carnivals, churches, and community workshops. For instance, PFMO/2 reveals:

“We bring in youth who just want to spend time at the swimming pool here at the centre. We then take them around to show them the centre. We also go into workshops to show them how the other youth are working. This way, they know exactly what we offer. Sometimes youth make decisions when they have a picture of what training is all about.”

This finding shows that organisation/2 uses unique tools to market their STPs. The organisation takes youth on a tour of its centre so that they are able to see what happens during training so that they can make informed decisions about training.

Churches assist some NGOs to reach marginalised youth. Organisation/2 sees advertising through churches as a useful marketing tool. As PFMO/2 discloses:

“I think there is a fair number of youth that know about us because we are affiliated with churches. Churches are found in all communities, so I think that it’s a lot easier to reach most youth through churches.”

This finding confirms Mulenga’s (2011:31) study conducted in Cape Town, which discovered that marginalised youth were more aware of churches than of NGOs working with the youth in their communities.

4.6.2. Participants’ suggestions of tools and mechanisms that could assist in marketing STPs

In addition to the various tools that their NGOs used to market STPs, the PMs had ideas about other kinds of tools that could potentially be used to try and reach more youth. These included: handing out flyers at soccer matches, exhibiting at community libraries, conducting road shows and posting success stories on their websites.

4.6.2.1. Handing out flyers at soccer matches

There are many ways of handing out flyers. One participant believed however that for NGOs to reach most marginalised youth, flyers could be handed out at community stadiums during soccer matches, which attracted most youth. As PFMO/3 suggested:

“Maybe we should also try and go hand out flyers at community stadiums during soccer matches. That’s where most youth gather.”

4.6.2.2. Exhibitions at community libraries

Holding exhibitions at community libraries, where banners, flyers and booklets could be on display and handed out, is another mechanism that PFMO/3 suggested, as it had been used at an NGO at which she worked previously:

“At my previous organisation, we went to local libraries at least every two weeks and put up exhibitions where we would display our banners, flyers, booklets of information about what we offered...we should use more of elementary tools that youth can easily have access to information.”

This finding links positively with the views of Dhake et al. (2010), who note that the use of elementary mechanisms such as exhibiting of NGO and STPs’ information in public places like libraries assists in creating awareness and in reaching the intended target group.

4.6.2.3. Conducting road shows

Conducting road shows was another marketing tool suggested as potentially useful in marketing STPs, as evidenced in this comment by PFMO/4:

“I think we can reach more youth if we could increase our marketing through conducting road shows in disadvantaged communities where most youth really need skills.”

This finding finds support in the writing of Dhake et al. (2010) who argue that road shows are a simple and practical marketing strategy.

4.6.2.4. Posting success stories on the website

PMO/2 proposed the website posting of pictures, success stories and testimonials from former trainees as a way of attracting more youth to come on training.

“...we need to post pictures, success stories, and witnessing and testimonials from former trainees on our website. This would show other young people how the programme has helped them, you know.”

In this participant’s view, young people trust the stories of those who speak from experience. Youth want to know how a particular training has helped someone and how it can benefit them before they can decide to embark on that particular training (Gerson, 1991).

4.6.3. Summary: Marketing tools used to reach marginalised youth

All participating NGOs used various direct community outreach activities in trying to market their STPs to marginalised youth. Some NGOs combined as many as nine tools to reach youth, while others use only four marketing tools. Marketing tools and mechanisms commonly used by these NGOs were partnerships, word-of-mouth, websites and brochures. Some NGOs illustrated that they did some critical and creative thinking by marketing their STPs beyond the youth, as PFMO/3 revealed in 4.6.6. Also it was revealed that, to try and inform more youth about STPs, youth should be informed about other ways in which they could benefit from the particular NGO that offered training. Participants suggested that handing out flyers at soccer matches, exhibiting at community libraries, conducting road shows and posting success stories on their websites would help them to reach more youth.

4.7. Overall Summary

This chapter presented and discussed findings of three of the four themes of the study. It has become clear that NGOs partially understand the situation of marginalised youth. They believed that youth who were excluded from education and the economy experienced, *inter alia*, poverty, crime and gangsterism, lack of job opportunities, frustration and loss of self-confidence. The multidimensional nature of and interrelationship between the factors that influence these exclusions and that lead to marginalisation, were strongly foregrounded.

On the other hand, findings revealed that none of the participating NGOs did holistic planning for marketing. The respondents revealed that they were aware of a wide number of marketing tools and mechanisms, and indeed, many of these were being used, however, it was clear that there were a number of limitations to their more effective use. While they all recognised the importance of marketing to the youth, the lack of knowledge and expertise prevalent in the organisations could be seen clearly. Also, for the same reasons, as well as lack of funds for this purpose, marketing of STPs to marginalised youth happened to a minimum degree. The next chapter presents and discusses findings of marginalised youth's perceptions of marketing tools used by NGOs to market STPs to them.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH FINDINGS: INTERVIEWS WITH THE YOUTH

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents findings generated from focus group (FG) interviews held in three of the four participating NGOs, one FG per organisation. The FG at Organisation/3 did not materialise as, at the time, youth were completing their training and were about to graduate. In addition, they were understaffed and, being at the end of the year, the staff could not find time to organise the youth to participate in the FG. Each FG consisted of five youth currently on training. FGs were conducted in order to gather relevant and rich data. FGs also prevented the researcher from disturbing the progress of training sessions, which might have happened if individual interviews had been held with each youth respondent.

As stated in the introduction to Chapter 4, the arrangement of this chapter coincides with that one. In addition, the findings are compared and contrasted with those in Chapter 4. The summary of the findings presented in Chapters 4 and 5 will form the foundation for conclusions and recommendations in Chapter 6. Participants in this chapter are referenced as Respondent A, B, C, D or E in each of the three FGs. For example, a quote of one of the participants in the FG at Organisation/1 (FGO/1) will be referenced as Respondent A FGO/1

5.2. Youth participants' profile

Table 4: Profile of participants

PARTICIPANTS	AGE	GENDER	EDUCATION LEVEL (Grade successfully completed)	COURSE ENROLLED FOR AND DURATION
Organisation/1				
Respondent A	29	F	Grade 11	Sewing (4 months)
Respondent B	27	M	Grade 10	Woodwork (4 months)
Respondent C	28	M	Grade 11	Welding (2 months)

PARTICIPANTS	AGE	GENDER	EDUCATION LEVEL (Grade successfully completed)	COURSE ENROLLED FOR AND DURATION
Respondent D	20	F	Grade 11	Sewing (4 months)
Respondent E	29	F	Grade 11	Sewing (4 months)
Organisation/2				
Respondent A	19	M	Grade 10	Leather Craft (6 months)
Respondent B	18	F	Grade 9	Leather Craft (6 months)
Respondent C	22	M	Grade 10	Wood Craft (6 months)
Respondent D	18	F	Grade 9	Leather Craft (6 months)
Respondent E	19	M	Grade 8	Wood Craft (6 months)
Organisation/4				
Respondent A	24	F	Grade 12	Food Preparation (3 months)
Respondent B	19	F	Grade 11	Food Preparation (3 months)
Respondent C	24	F	Grade 11	Assistant Chef (3 months)
Respondent D	25	M	Grade 12	Food Preparation (3 months)
Respondent E	32	F	Grade 12	Food Preparation (3 months)

5.2.1. Age and gender

The age of participants varied from 18 to 32 years. Participants included six males and nine females. The proportion of young men and women, which was 6 to 9 respectively, did not depict the gender balance in skills training at the participating NGOs but participants were included in the study as they met the selection criteria as defined in Chapter 3.

5.2.2. Education levels

Three of the 15 participants had passed grade 12. The remaining 12 participants were ESLs. The grade with the highest number of ESLs was grade 11. This coincides with other research that reports that there is a significant problem of youth leaving school in grade 11 (MCLRSASS, 2007).

5.2.3. Course enrolled for and duration

The participants were enrolled in seven of the courses offered at the three NGOs. It should be noted that Organisation/1 referred to its carpentry course as woodwork, whereas Organisation/2 calls its carpentry course wood craft, but both were focussed on the production of furniture products. The duration of the courses ranged from two to six months: one course was two months; one course, three months; two courses, four months; and two courses, six months.

5.3. Framework for analysis

Table 5 below presents the framework for analysis. The table shows the theme and categories, which are presented as outlined.

Table 5: Framework for data analysis: interviews with the youth

Broad interview themes	Categories emerging through analysis of data
<i>5.4. Marginalised youth's perceptions of marketing tools and mechanisms used by NGOs</i>	<i>5.4.1. How participants knew about the NGOs</i> <i>5.4.2. Factors that prevent youth from accessing information on NGOs</i> <i>5.4.3. Youth's reasoning about why NGOs should be marketed</i> <i>5.4.4. Youth's suggestions of how STPs should be marketed</i> <i>5.4.5. Accessibility, quality and benefits: aspects that attracted youth to STPs</i>

5.4. Objective 4: To explore marginalised youth’s perceptions of marketing tools and mechanisms used by NGOs

5.4.1. How participants knew about the NGOs

Participants revealed that they knew about the NGOs through: word-of-mouth, another organisation, a government department, a political party agency and via the Internet.

Findings show that as many as 10 of the 15 participants knew about the NGOs through word-of-mouth:

“My friend told me about this training centre.” (Respondent A FGO/4)

This finding confirms the views of participating NGO staff that the marketing of their NGOs was mostly done through word-of-mouth.

Two participants knew about the participating NGOs through another organisation. For instance, Respondent C FGO/4 explains:

“I knew about this organisation from organisation [xyz] where I was doing a soft skills course. The manager there told me about this organisation.”

This finding, to a large degree, did not substantiate the views of participating NGO staff who claimed that one of the four main ways through which they marketed their STPs was through partners.

Only one of the 15 participants learnt about the organisation via the Internet. As she reveals:

“I knew about this organisation via the Internet as my aunt and I searched the Internet for skills training centres.”(Respondent E FGO/2)

This finding points to the fact that the Internet is a marketing tool through which youth can learn about STPs that NGOs offer, but that it is limited. Only one participant knew about STPs he was currently enrolled in, via the Internet.

5.4.2. Factors that prevent youth from accessing information on NGOs and their STPs

Participants were asked to share what (if anything) had prevented them in the past from accessing information on training. Participants shared mixed views as reflected below.

5.4.2.1. Lack of personal agency

Findings revealed that six out of 15 participants lacked personal agency which had prevented them from acquiring information. For example:

“...laziness prevented me from acquiring information on training. I didn’t give myself time to go out there and get information. I just wanted to be at home.”
(Respondent A FGO/2)

This finding is critical in that it confirms PFMO/3, who argued that most marginalised youth were not interested in training and developing some job skills. Rather, they wanted everything to be provided for them. This finding, however, can also be linked to the fact that youth living in poverty often lack role models; people who can motivate and guide them in managing their lives (Barrar, 2010; Mulenga 2011). In addition, marginalised youth have few social networks (Gewer, 2010).

5.4.2.2. Lack of available and accessible information

Four participants felt that they were prevented from accessing information on STPs as information was not available and accessible:

“Getting information was difficult because I had to go up and down to ask about organisations where I could do skills training but no one had the information... also no one came to tell me about skills training centres.” (Respondent D FGO/4)

This finding affirms the social exclusion theory that argues that when youth are excluded educationally, economically, geographically and politically, they become isolated and lack access to information, for example, information on training that would help them to transform their lives (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008).

5.4.2.3. Information about NGOs is accessible

Other participants did not experience difficulty in accessing information on NGO’s STPs. Five of the participants went out and sought the necessary information. For example:

“It wasn’t difficult for me to get information about this organisation because I knew an organisation called [xy]. When I thought of doing a sewing course, I just went there and the staff told me about this centre...” (Respondent A FGO/1)

This finding substantiates participating NGO staff, in particular PFMO/3 and PFMO/1, who revealed that information about their STPs reaches youth through the networks they have created with other organisations.

The findings in this section illustrate that there are two reasons that some participants lacked information about STPs prior to doing current training: (a) Some did not look for information

and (b) some NGOs did not make their information available and accessible to the participants.

5.4.3. Youth's reasoning about why NGOs should be marketed

Participants were asked how important it was that NGOs market their STPs. All 15 participants disclosed that NGOs should market their programmes in order to create awareness of them among the youth such as themselves. For example:

“...Organisation/I must market its courses because if it doesn't do that youth won't know about them. Most youth lack skills out there but they don't know how and where to get training [all respondents agreed].” (Respondent C FGO/1)

All participants were of the opinion that, if the participating NGOs did not market to marginalised youth like themselves, they would not be informed about STPs. Participants believed that most marginalised youth experienced a lack of job skills and that this problem should have prompted NGOs to market their STPs. Most marginalised youth miss out on education and training opportunities as they have limited, or no access at all, to information on training opportunities (Bhana et al., 2011; DSD, 2007).

5.4.4. Youth's suggestions of how STPs should be marketed

Participants spoke of 13 marketing tools and mechanisms that they reasoned NGOs should use in order to reach them. They included distributing of pamphlets/brochures/flyers at train and bus stations and at taxi ranks; marketing at community development forums; marketing in churches; marketing at local soccer stadiums; marketing to local government councillors; advertising in community newspapers; marketing on radio stations and at community libraries; marketing through other NGOs (partnerships); via the Internet; handing out brochures on roadsides and at malls in communities; putting signage on organisations' vehicles; and recruiting youth from communities to market on behalf of the NGOs. Of these marketing mechanisms, respondents emphasised six of them, which included: distributing of pamphlets/brochures/flyers/posters at train and bus stations and at taxi ranks; marketing at community development forums; marketing in churches; marketing at local soccer stadiums; marketing to local government councillors; and advertising in community newspapers:

“I think Organisation/I should distribute pamphlets at all the train stations, bus stations and taxi ranks. This is where you get the young people. This organisation should tell youth about its skills training during community forums. It should

advertise in churches. Staff should also go to councillors and tell them about its skills training programmes [all respondents agreed]” (Respondent C FGO/1)

This finding confirms the suggestions of PFMO/3 that her NGO should hand out flyers at local soccer stadiums and market in churches if they are to reach most marginalised youth. This finding also affirms PFMO/2 who saw marketing through churches as a useful mechanism as her organisation reached out to some youth by marketing its STP there.

Furthermore, on advertising in community newspapers:

The best way that they can advertise this organisation is by using City Vision because most people can get hold of the newspaper as it is free. Myself, I read the City Vision from front to back when I'm just at home doing nothing. (Respondent E FGO/1)

This finding, however, is in conflict with PFMO/3, who claimed that her NGO did not really want to advertise its courses in community newspapers because marginalised youth did not read newspapers. PMO/1 and PMO/3 were also concerned over advertising in community newspapers, as this, required funds and was expensive.

Marketing at public places was another mechanism suggested. For instance:

“The centre can also put information in community libraries. They can also hand out brochures on the roadside in communities and at malls.” (Respondent D FGO/4)

This finding supports the suggestion of PFMO/3 that organisation/3 should think of holding exhibitions at local libraries. This finding also confirms the views of PMO/1 who revealed that his organisation handed out pamphlets at malls.

The findings in this section highlight innovative ideas of how NGOs ought to market their STPs, in the views of the young people. Some ideas were similar to those that participating NGO staff revealed that they used or had suggested, while others were new.

5.4.5. Accessibility, quality and benefits: aspects that attracted youth to STPs

Apart from training, there were other aspects that attracted participants in the current study to become interested in their training. These aspects included geographical and financial access to NGOs and their STPs, the quality of the training and other benefits, such as the help they received in terms of finding employment or starting up a business after they had completed training, and the provision of food and transport.

5.4.5.1. Geographical access

Some participants disclosed that they chose to enrol for training at their current NGO because it was closer to them and therefore, they could access it without much difficulty. As Respondent C FGO/1 pointed out:

“...I was not interested in an organisation that is in Pinelands... it is far. I wanted an organisation that is within my area ... so that I don't have to struggle with finding money to use for transport [All respondents agreed].”

This finding illustrates that some participants' interest in enrolling for training in the participating NGOs was, to some extent, triggered by how close the NGOs were to them – an important consideration in their decision to enrol. This illustrates that income poverty may limit the way people such as these respondents make choices, which may hinder their development (Sen, 1999). Sen (1999) argues that people should be provided with capabilities/opportunities or freedoms in order to make choices that would assist them to change their lives.

5.4.5.2. Quality of training and its cost

Most participants revealed that they chose to train at the current NGOs because of the quality of training and because courses were affordable:

“First of all, I came here because training is cheap. Secondly, the way my friend worked was very good. You can see that she had a good training. So, that's what motivated me to come here.” (Respondent A FGO/4)

Richter et al. (2003) argues that most youth in SA experience income poverty which prevents them from developing themselves as they cannot afford to pay for training.

Some participants believed that completing training for which they were registered would provide them with many job opportunities. As Respondent B FGO/4 disclosed:

“I came here because my sister told me that it is a good training centre and that if I train here I will have many job opportunities.”

This finding reveals that some participants associated good training with increased chances of being employed.

5.4.5.3. Attract youth through other benefits

It seems most participants were attracted to doing training at their respective NGOs through benefits offered in addition to the training. The benefits included assistance to participants in

their process of searching for work and starting up their own businesses after completing training and the provision of food and transport money. For example, Respondent C FGO/4 reveals:

“Organisation/4 promised to help me to look for work. So I expect the centre to give me a reference and show me at least where I can go to look for work because it knows where hotels are.”

With regard to starting an own business, Respondent C FGO/1 disclosed:

“For those of us who want to open our own businesses, when we came here we were told that the centre will help us on how to open our own businesses.”

In some of the participants' views, training alone, without this kind of assistance, would not really help them to find employment or start their own businesses. The participants' concerns can be linked to the fact that most participants would not have work experience after completing their training, which most employers see as a prerequisite to offering somebody employment, especially the youth (Arendse & Gunn, 2010; Barrar 2010; 2011; Borat, 2007; Motimele et al., 2011).

Two participants disclosed that the fact that they were told that food and transport would be provided, contributed to the reasons that they became interested and enrolled in the STPs. As Respondent E FGO/2 says:

“I was interested in training here because they told me that food and transport would be provided during training.”

This finding highlights that marginalised youth, such as some of these participants, do not only experience the problem of lack of job skills. As a result of poverty, they also lack food and money for transport to go for training, which may hinder them from accessing training opportunities. From this finding, it is clear that poverty is a situation where people, including the participants, experience many different and inter-linked social problems (Davids et al., 2009). For example, a lack of income may lead, amongst many others, to a lack of transport money to access training opportunities, which may lead to a lack of job skills, which may lead to unemployment, which may lead to a lack of income, which may lead to a lack of food and these linkages can go on and on, and may lead to a vicious cycle of poverty, which may be very difficult to break.

5.4.6. Summary of findings

This chapter presented and discussed findings of theme four of the study: marginalised youth's perceptions of marketing tools and mechanisms used by NGOs. The findings from this chapter show that most participants knew about the NGOs through word-of-mouth. They have expressed that lack of personal agency and lack of available and accessible information were what mostly prevented them from accessing information about STPs. Lastly, participants had a range of ideas on how NGOs can effectively reach more youth like themselves. The next chapter presents conclusions and recommendations established from Chapters 4 and 5.

University of Cape Town

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

This final chapter presents conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of this study. The conclusions are presented according to the objectives of the current study. Based on the findings and conclusions, recommendations are offered for the consideration of the NGOs offering STPs to marginalised youth, and of the private sector, SA government, donors/funders and marginalised youth.

6.2. Conclusions

6.2.1. To ascertain NGOs' perceptions of youth marginalisation and youth development in South Africa and Cape Town, in particular

6.2.1.1. NGOs' Perceptions of Youth Marginalisation

There are many factors that lead to the exclusion of youth from education and the economy, in the NGO participants' views. Factors that exclude youth from education include intergenerational poverty (including income poverty), geographical exclusion, and a poor education system. These factors result in other interlinked social problems, including a lack of education qualifications, poor job skills, drug abuse and crime. The factors that exclude youth from the economy that were identified included poor skills, lack of job opportunities and experience, and geographical exclusion. Some of the effects of excluding youth from the economy included poverty, crime and gangsterism, frustration and loss of self-confidence. These participants demonstrate that marginalised youth experience many different social problems that are interlinked.

The researcher concludes that in most cases these problems contribute to, and are effects of, other problems. There is a definite connection between being excluded from education and being excluded from the economy. Income poverty leads to youth exclusion from education and when this happens, youth are unable to participate in economic activities – either in terms of business or employment, because of a lack of skills and qualifications – which in turn hinders them in having an income. They may remain without an income for a long time because they are likely not to have the resources necessary to start their own businesses, in addition to which youth who have never worked before typically experience an extended period of unemployment. This situation of being without a source of income again leads youth not to be able to further their education or to go for training and the problem goes on

and on. One can conclude that the exclusions experienced by marginalised youth are multidimensional and intertwined, forming a vicious cycle that present serious obstacles to youth developing their lives.

6.2.1.2. NGOs' Perceptions of Youth Development

According to the participants, youth development includes changing young people's lives through prioritising their needs and empowering them socially, economically, intellectually and health wise.

It is concluded that youth development has different dimensions, however, they all point to one goal, which is to bring about change in young people's lives. In this regard, the researcher argues that providing youth with a second chance to develop their life skills and job/business skills through STPs, which would help them to develop further as they would be able to find work or start a business, is just one of the many ways in which youth can be developed. This means that if youth development interventions are not aimed at changing their lives, then there is no development. Also, exclusion which leads to marginalisation hinders youth from developing, as they cannot participate in developmental activities, including participation in education, civic decision making and the economy. It is through including youth in these developmental activities, *inter alia*, that they can be capacitated to change their lives and choose to live the lives that, on reflection, they would value.

The conclusions in the two sections above bear evidence that the research objective, which is to ascertain NGOs' perception of youth marginalisation and youth development in SA and, in particular, in Cape Town has been met.

6.2.2. To ascertain how people in the NGO sector define marketing

The current study evidenced that the NGO staff participants had a limited understanding of the term, marketing. They defined marketing as a way to promote a service; however, they were unaware that marketing is a complex process, which involves other aspects, such as planning for marketing, developing a marketing plan – which includes setting marketing objectives and a budget – and monitoring and evaluation.

It is concluded that the gaps in the way participants understood marketing contributed to the reasons that none of the participating NGOs had a marketing plan that could have assisted them in marketing their STPs to the youth. The lack of a plan means that there were no clearly defined set marketing objectives; therefore, the effectiveness and the efficiency of the

marketing efforts that were in place could not be monitored and evaluated. In addition, the lack of a comprehensive way of defining marketing could have contributed to the fact that these NGOs did not see the marketing of STPs to its beneficiaries as important. Also the way marketing was defined could have attributed to the fact that the participating NGOs did not seem to know what skilled manpower was needed to market their STPs. The researcher also argues that a lack of a clear understanding of marketing in the participating NGOs contributed to the fact that NGOs did not seem to understand the role of monitoring and evaluating their tools and mechanisms. The researcher believes that the objective to ascertain how people in the NGOs sector define marketing has been attained.

6.2.3. To explore the marketing tools and mechanisms that NGOs use to reach marginalised youth

The findings indicated that NGOs used different marketing tools and mechanisms to market their STPs to marginalised youth. The common tools and mechanisms used included marketing through partnerships, word-of-mouth, websites and brochures.

It appears, however, that they measured the extent to which the tools and mechanisms they used were successful, by the number of youth who came to enrol in general, but without actually knowing which particular tools and mechanisms helped them to reach what number of youth. It can be concluded that, again, because of a lack of M&E, the NGOs in the study could not identify which tools and mechanism were useful to market their STPs. Not knowing the usefulness of a particular tool or mechanism points to their perhaps undertaking the marketing of their STPs as a mere formality, rather than setting out to be as effective as possible in reaching the youth in need of information on the second chances offered.

Word-of-mouth was one of the most utilised marketing tools in all four participating NGOs. This could be because there are no monetary costs involved. NGOs should, however, understand that word-of-mouth necessitates the building of a good image/name for itself. This can be done in many ways including providing good quality training – in the case of these youth, training that increases their chances of finding employment or starting their own businesses. The researcher believes that the objective to explore the marketing tools and mechanisms used by NGOs to reach marginalised youth has been met.

6.2.4. To explore marginalised youth's perceptions of marketing tools and mechanisms used by NGOs

In the youth participants' views, NGOs did not make information about their STPs easily available and easily accessible to them. They revealed that it was difficult for them to obtain information about STPs. It was also revealed that most of the youth were themselves responsible for not accessing information about STPs in that they lacked self-motivation, which prevented them from wanting to know and finding out about STPs. Participants presented an array of tools and mechanisms that they believed would work well in reaching more youth like them.

The researcher argues that marginalised youth such as those in this study prevent themselves from finding information about STPs because they are not self-motivated to find information. However, this lack of self-motivation maybe attributed to the fact that youth lack role models who can motivate and guide them in managing their lives, including in searching for information about STPs. These youth also tend to live in isolation from the mainstream, i.e., they have no or have few social networks that can assist them to find information. It can also be concluded that the tools and mechanisms used by all participating NGOs were somewhat lacking, in that most participants revealed that it had been difficult for them to obtain information until they eventually learnt about the training that they were currently doing. These two conclusions demonstrate that youth's challenging experiences prevent them from accessing information but also that the tools and mechanisms that the NGOs use may not be useful. The fact that youth had clearly suggested tools and mechanisms that NGOs could use in their marketing could imply that the current NGOs' tools and mechanism were not working well for the youth. This objective, namely to explore marginalised youth's perceptions of marketing tools and mechanisms used by participating NGOs, has been achieved.

6.3. Recommendations

This section presents recommendations based on the findings and conclusions of the current study. The recommendations are suggested to NGOs offering STPs to the youth, the SA government and the private sector, young people and to the funders.

6.3.1. Recommendations to NGOs

6.3.1.1. NGOs need to develop a comprehensive understanding of what marketing is.

- 6.3.1.2. It is recommended that NGOs devise marketing plans targeted at marketing their STPs to marginalised youth.
- 6.3.1.3. NGOs should understand the role of monitoring and evaluating their marketing tools and mechanisms at least once a year.
- 6.3.1.4. It is recommended that NGOs send PFMs in their organisations on staff development programmes which are focused on the development of basic marketing skills. Or provide in-service training on basic marketing skills.
- 6.3.1.5. It is recommended that NGOs see donors and beneficiaries (youth) as entities that are equally important to them in order for them to put the same effort into the marketing of STPs to both.
- 6.3.1.6. The youth participants recommended that participating NGOs market their STPs through various verbal, written and online media and the researcher is in support of the participants' recommendations. They suggested the following tools and mechanisms:
- Distribute pamphlets at train and bus stations, and at taxi ranks
 - Market in churches
 - Recruit youth from communities to market on behalf of the NGOs
 - Market through other NGOs (partnerships)
 - Hand out brochures on roadsides and at malls in communities
 - Market to local government councillors
 - Market at local soccer stadiums
 - Market at community development forums
 - Advertise in community newspapers and on radio stations
 - Put signage on organisations' vehicles
 - Community libraries
 - Via the internet
- 6.3.1.6. The researcher recommends that NGOs should market not by placing adverts about their STPs in community newspapers, which is expensive, but by inserting separate brochures/flyers/pamphlets into the newspapers so that they can be distributed together with the newspapers.

6.3.1.7. It is recommended that NGOs should include many different marketing tools and mechanisms and should combine them in order to reach a wider spectrum of marginalised youth.

6.3.2. Recommendations to the South African government and the private sector

6.3.2.1. It is recommended that government prioritises youth development work by increasing the funding of NGOs that provide STPs to marginalised youth, specifically for improving marketing.

6.3.2.1. The researcher also recommends that government and the private sector should work in an integrated manner by providing resources in order to establish Internet facilities in libraries in communities where the most disadvantaged youth live.

6.3.3. Recommendations directed at young people

6.3.3.1. Marginalised youth, such as the ones in the current study, should see the act of searching for, and finding, information about NGOs and their STPs as their own responsibility and become active participants in the process. This can be done by, for example, consulting youth leaders in their communities about where they can find information about STPs; consulting libraries in their communities; and attending community development forums, such as the Khayelitsha Development Forum (KDF).

6.3.4. Recommendations to funders/donors

6.3.4.1. Donors should look into ways in which they can fund the marketing of STPs.

6.3.5. Recommendation for further research

6.3.5.1. It is recommended that NGOs conduct research into young people's perceptions of STPs offered by NGOs such as those participating in this study.

6.3.5.2. It is recommended that research be done into the marketing of second chance opportunities, including for example Further Education and Training Colleges, the take up of these opportunities by the youth, and the contribution they make to youth inclusion.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: LETTER TO FORMALISE NGOS' PARTICIPATION

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN



Department of Social Development

Private Bag Rondebosch 7701 RSA

Telephone: 27-21-6503481

Fax No: 27-21-6892739

Email: Margaret.Booyens@uct.ac.za

June 25, 2012

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RESEARCH PROJECT

Ms Mary Mulenga is a registered student in the Dept. of Social Development at UCT. She is in the first year of her MSocSc (social development) programme. One of the courses is a Minor Dissertation, which counts 50% of the overall mark for the programme.

Ms Mulenga is conducting her research under my supervision. Her topic is: "An exploration of how non-governmental organisations market their skills training programmes to marginalised youth living in Cape Town".

Ms Mulenga has already approached your organisation to discuss the possible inclusion of your organisation in her research. She is now attempting to formalise the participation through making this letter available to you. In addition, she needs your assurance that she will have access to:

- Two members of staff (one in-depth interview each): the manager of the skills training programme and the person responsible for facilitating marketing activities related to the programme; and
- Five current trainees (one group interview – a focus group)

You are welcome to contact me should you wish to discuss any aspect of this research.

I sincerely hope that you will grant Ms Mulenga access to your staff and trainees. The findings are likely to be of value to you and your organisation.

Yours sincerely

.....

Dr Margie G Booyens

Senior lecturer: Dept. of Social Development

Coordinator: Post-graduate Coursework Programmes

University of Cape Town

APPENDIX B: ONE-ON-ONE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE – NGO STAFF

University of Cape Town

Department of Social Development

SWK5001W Masters Research Dissertation

One-on-One Interview Schedule – NGO STAFF

Introduction

- Introduce myself to the participant
- Remind participant of the research topic: “An exploration of how non-governmental organisations market their skills training programmes to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.”
- Share that this research is conducted under the supervision of the Department of Social Development, UCT with the permission of the manager of
.....
..... (name of organisation).
- Discuss ethical considerations: voluntary participation; audio recording of the interview; anonymity; confidentiality; publication of findings.
- Ask the participant to **sign the consent form**.
- Ask the participant to complete the **biographical details form**.
- Ask if I can **proceed** with the interview.
- Ask the participant if I can put on the **recorder**.

SECTION FOR MANAGERS OF SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAMMES

SECTION A: NGO manager’s perceptions of the marginalisation of youth and of youth development in South Africa

1. Please share with me your views on whether and if yes, how youth are marginalised from education in South Africa and in particular Cape Town
Probe – What factors lead to youth being marginalised from education?
2. Please share with me your views on whether and if yes, how youth are marginalised from the economy in South Africa and in particular Cape Town
Probe - What factors lead to youth being marginalised from the economy?
3. How does marginalisation affect young people, in your view?
Probe – How does marginalising young people from education affect their lives?

Probe – How does marginalising young people from the economy affect their lives?

4. What do you think should be done by different key stakeholders to promote the inclusion of marginalised young people into the education system?

Probe – the role of:

(a) NGOs

(b) Private sector (businesses)

(c) Government

(d) Young people

5. What do you think should be done by different key stakeholders to promote the inclusion of marginalised young people in employment, whether self-employment or working for another?

Probe – the role of:

(e) NGOs

(f) Private sector (businesses)

(g) Government

(h) Young people

6. What are your views on the state of youth development in South Africa?

Probe – what role does youth development play in the development of the country?

Probe – What factors promote youth development?

Probe – What factors hinder youth development?

7. What is your understanding of the connection (if any) between the training programmes offered by your NGO, youth marginalisation and youth development?

SECTION B: How NGOs define marketing?

Target group

1. How do you identify your target group?

Probe – What things/characteristics NGOs base their market segmentation on (i.e. how the NGO categorises the target groups during the process of target group identification).

Probe - What (if any) are some of the socio-economic factors the organisation considers?

Probe - What role does the geographical location where young people live play in the process of identifying the target audience?

2. What is your understanding of the main ways in which marginalised youth access information related to education and training opportunities?

Probe - What difficulties do you think that marginalised young people have in accessing these opportunities?

Probe - How does your organisation try to overcome these information access problems experienced by marginalised young people?

3. What role does understanding the target group/market play in the marketing process undertaken by your organisation?

Probe – What is it that you think you should know about the target group?

Probe – How do you develop that understanding?

Marketing plan of the NGO

4. What does the term ‘marketing’ in an NGO setting mean to you?

5. What is the purpose of marketing in your organisation?

6. What is the marketing plan of this organisation?

7. Please describe the organisation’s marketing department.

Probe – Composition and the qualifications and skills of all those involved

8. Who is responsible for marketing the youth training programme(s)?

9. Please talk to me about the planning that is done for the marketing of the youth skills training programmes

Probe – Who is involved in the marketing of the youth skills training programme(s)?

Probe – What kind of budget do you set for marketing?

Probe - What information do you use to plan marketing activities in respect of marginalised youth?

Probe – How often does planning take place?

Probe – what influence do you, as manager, have on the marketing activities of the organisation?

Probe – who has the final decision regarding the marketing activities that the NGO utilises?

10. Has the organisation made any changes in the marketing tools and mechanisms over time?

Probe – If yes, what changes has it made and why? If no, why has it not made changes?

11. How does the marketing section communicate with the division that does the skills training?

Probe –The views of the participant on the importance of the relationship between the marketing department and the training section

12. What are your views on how the marketing of your skills training programmes impacts on enrolment numbers?

13. What role does information and communication technology (ICT) play in marketing youth training programmes?

Probe - Probe type of ICT used

Probe – The characteristics of young people that the organisation targets for skills training programmes, with regards to access to ICT.

Probe – What are your views on the potential value of ICT in reaching marginalised youth?

How NGOs monitor and evaluate their marketing activities

14. What are your marketing objectives in relation to training programmes for the youth?

15. Who is responsible for doing monitoring and evaluation of your marketing activities?

16. Please share with me the extent to which marketing objectives in relation to training programmes for the youth are reached, generally speaking?

Probe - this past year?

Probe – how do you know that you have reached your marketing goals?

17. What mechanisms does the organisation use to monitor and evaluate its marketing activities?

Probe – Mechanisms

Probe - How often do you monitor and evaluate the marketing objectives?

18. Are young people included in the monitoring and evaluation process of your marketing activities?

Probe – If yes, how are they included?

Probe – At what stage are they included?

Probe – If no, why are they not included?

19. What does the organisation do with data collected from the marketing monitoring and evaluation exercises of marketing activities?

CLOSING SECTION FOR BOTH INTERVIEWS

Thank you for spending this time with me and for sharing with me, information with regard to the topic: “An exploration of how non-governmental organisations market their skills training programmes to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.”

Is there **anything else** you would like to tell me about this topic before we finish?

How has this interview been for you? **(Debriefing)**

Researcher shares with the participant positives of how the interview has been for **her**.

Researcher reassures the participant about **confidentiality and anonymity**.

Researcher reminds the participant about the **purpose** of the study and the access the participant will have to the research report.

SECTION FOR PERSONS RESPONSIBLE FOR MARKETING OF SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAMMES TO THE YOUTH

SECTION C: Breaking the ice with the participant

1. How long have you been involved in marketing of the youth training programmes offered by this agency?
2. How many years of 'marketing' experience do you have?
3. What kind of 'marketing' experience do you have?
4. Please tell me about your current marketing responsibilities related to the skills training programme(s) for young people.
5. What percentage of your work time is centred on marketing?

SECTION D: What marketing tools and mechanisms do NGOs use in reaching marginalised youth?

What does the term marketing in an NGO setting mean to you?

1. What is the purpose of marketing in your organisation?
2. What marketing activities does your NGO use to market training programmes to marginalised youth?

Probe - In your view, how relevant are your marketing activities to your target group (marginalised youth)?

3. What information do you use to plan marketing activities in respect of marginalised youth?
4. What are your views on how the marketing of your skills training programmes impacts on enrolment numbers?
5. How does the organisation decide on the media of communication used to market its training programmes directed at marginalised youth?

Probe - How the organisation determines the medium of communication

Probe - The language used in marketing the training programmes to marginalised youth? (which one and why)

Probe - What role (if any) does culture (the way of life of these young people) play in determining the medium of communication?

6. What role does information and communication technology (ICT) play in marketing youth training programmes?

Probe – If used, which does the programme use? If not used, what are the reasons?

Probe – Do you think young people that this programme targets have access to ICT? If yes or no, please explain.

Probe – What are your views on the value of ICT in relation to reaching marginalised youth?

7. What (if any) partnerships does your organisation utilise in marketing efforts focused on the (marginalised youth)?

8. What marketing tools and mechanisms are useful to your organisation in targeting marginalised youth?

Probe – how useful are they?

Probe – who sees them as useful?

9. If you were to change anything in the way your organisation markets its programmes to marginalised youth, what would it be?

Probe – what would be the motivation for change?

CLOSING SECTION FOR BOTH INTERVIEWS

Thank you for spending this time with me and for sharing with me, information with regard to the topic: “An exploration of how non-governmental organisations market their skills training programmes to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.”

Is there **anything else** you would like to tell me about this topic before we finish?

How has this interview been for you? (**Debriefing**)

Researcher shares with the participant positives of how the interview has been for **her**.

Researcher reassures the participant about **confidentiality and anonymity**.

Researcher reminds the participant about the **purpose** of the study and the access the participant will have to the research report.

APPENDIX C: FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW SCHEDULE – YOUNG PEOPLE IN TRAINING

University of Cape Town

Department of Social Development

SWK5001W Masters Research Dissertation

Focus Group Interview Schedule – Young People in Training

Introduction

- Introduce myself to the participants
- Remind participants of the research topic: “An exploration of how non-governmental organisations market their skills training programmes to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.”
- Share that this research is conducted under the supervision of the Department of Social Development, UCT with the permission of the manager of
..... (name of organisation).
- Discuss ethical considerations: voluntary participation; audio recording of the interview; anonymity; confidentiality; access to findings.
- Ask the participants to sign the **consent form**.
- Ask the participants to complete **the biographical details form**.
- Ask if I can **proceed** with the interview.
- Ask the participants if I can put on the **recorder**.

How do marginalised youth (those currently in training) perceive marketing tools and mechanisms used by participating NGOs?

1. Please tell me how you came to know about this NGO.

Probe - how did you find out about its skills training programmes?

Probe - how did you find out about the physical address of the organisation?

2. We hear people talk about youth who are out of school, training and/or work. They talk about the difficulties these young people experience trying to get hold of information that would help them become aware of learning or training centres such as this one. In general, how easy has it been for you to get information on skills training opportunities? (probe)

Probe - What (if anything) prevented you in the past from accessing information about training/learning?

Probe – Tell me about organisational information and information about youth skills training programmes (if any) that you have been able to access in the past.

Probe – Did the information you got, help you to decide whether to take up and register for a skills training course?

3. NGOs use different languages (e.g. Xhosa, English and Afrikaans) to market their programmes. How do you feel about the language(s) used by this organisation?
4. In what other marketing methods, besides those you have mentioned, could the organisation have informed you about its skills training programmes?
5. There are reasons why people make certain choices. What made you choose to come and train at this organisation and not another?
6. How important do you think it is for organisations like this one to market their programmes to young people like yourself?

Probe - rationale.

7. How similar or different is the programme to what you thought it would be?
8. What are your aspirations regarding employment after completing your current training?

Probe - What will you do to try to find a job?

Probe – What do you expect the organisation to do to help you find a job?

CLOSING

Is there **anything else** you would like to tell me about this topic before we finish?

Thank you for spending this time with me and for sharing with me things with regards to the topic: “An exploration of how non-governmental organisations market their skills training programmes to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.”

How has this interview been for you? (Debriefing)

Researcher shares with the young people **positives** of how the group interview has been for **her**.

Researcher reassures the participants about **confidentiality and anonymity**.

Researcher reminds the participants about the **purpose** of the study.

APPENDIX D: FACTSHEETS - PARTICIPATING NGO STAFF

BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS (NGO.... – Programme Manager)

1. Name/pseudonym	
2. Gender	
3. Age bracket	Please tick the appropriate age bracket (18-24) (25-29) (30-34) (35-39) (40-44) (45-49) (50-54) (55-59)
4. Educational background and achievements (highest educational achievement and field of post-school study, if any).	
5. Length of employment at organisation (in years)	
6. Current Position	
7. Length of time in current position (in years)	
8. An outline of your responsibilities	

BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS (NGO.... –Person Facilitating Marketing)

1. Name/pseudonym	
2. Gender	
3. Age bracket	Please tick the appropriate age bracket (18-24) (25-29) (30-34) (35-39) (40-44) (45-49) (50-54) (55-59)
4. Educational background and achievements (highest educational achievement and field of post-school study, if any).	
5. Length of employment at organisation (in years)	
6. Current position	
7. Length of time in current position (in years)	
8. Your Responsibilities	

APPENDIX E: FACTSHEET - PARTICIPATING YOUTH

BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS (NGO: Focus Group Respondent....)

What is your name/pseudonym?	
How old are you?	
Where do you live? (name of suburb)	
What is the highest grade you passed?	
What is your first language?	
What training are you currently enrolled for?	
How long does the training programme take?	
What certificate will you receive on successful completion of the programme?	
What stage are you at now? (Just starting/middle/finishing training).	
Have you been on training before? If yes, what did you do training in?	
Where and what was length of your training?	

APPENDIX F: INFORMED CONSENT FORM – NGO STAFF

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN



FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Informed Consent Form – NGO Staff

Title of Study: “An exploration of how non-governmental organisations market their skills training programmes to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.”

Purpose of Study: The purpose of study is to investigate how NGOs market their skills training programmes offered to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.

This project forms part of the qualification of Master of Social Science (MSocSc) degree in social development.

Dr Margaret Booyens is directing the project and can be contacted on the contact details below, should you have any questions:

Tel: 021 650-3481

Fax: 021 689-2739

Email: margaret.booyens@uct.ac.za

Name of Participant.....

Name of Researcher: Ms Mary Mulenga

Research Procedures: I understand that I will be participating in a *one-to-one interview* to explore how NGOs market their skills training programmes offered to marginalised youth living in Cape Town. The interview will last approximately one hour. During the interview, I understand that notes will be taken and a digital recorder will be used. The notes, information held on the recorder and transcripts will be kept in a secure place. Once the research has been completed, the notes, information held on the recorder will be destroyed.

Risks and Anxiety: I have been assured that there will be no risks or expected anxieties experience involved in participating in this research study.

Benefits/Incentives: I understand that the researcher will not offer any benefits or incentives for my participation in this study. However, through my participation, this study will increase my understanding of tools and mechanisms that this organisation uses in marketing its training programmes to youth living in Cape Town. I will also have the opportunity to make an input on how the NGO can market its programmes effectively.

Participant's Rights: I understand that I am free to withdraw from participating in this study at any time, without giving any reason or being disadvantaged in any way.

Confidentiality: I understand that the interview will be kept strictly confidential and that it will be available only to the researcher. Extracts from the interviews may be included in the final research report. A copy of the report will be kept in the UCT Libraries. Under no circumstances will my name including the name of the agency or any identifying characteristics be included in the report or any other publications related to this research.

I understand that if at any time I would like any additional information about this project, I can contact the researcher at the following contact details:

Cell: 083 697-5758

Email: chibwem8@yahoo.com

By signing this informed consent form, I confirm that I have read it and that the study has been explained to me. I voluntarily participate in this study. However I do not give up any legal right by signing this consent form. I understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form.

Signature of Participant

Date (dd/mm/yyyy)

Signature of Researcher

Date (dd/mm/yyyy)

APPENDIX G: INFORMED CONSENT FORM – YOUNG PEOPLE IN TRAINING

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN



FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Informed Consent Form – Young People in Training

Title of Study: “An exploration of how non-governmental organisations market their skills training programmes to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.”

Purpose of Study: The purpose of study is to investigate how NGOs market their skills training programmes offered to marginalised youth living in Cape Town.

This project forms part of the qualification of Master of Social Science (MSocSc) degree in Social Development.

Dr Margaret Booyens is directing the project and can be contacted on the contact details below, should you have any questions:

Tel: 021 650-3481

Fax: 021 689-2739

Email: margaret.booyens@uct.ac.za

Name of Participant:

Name of Researcher: Ms Mary Mulenga

Research Procedures: I understand that I will be participating in a *focus group interview* to explore how NGOs market their skills training programmes offered to marginalised youth living in Cape Town. The interview will last approximately 1h: 45min. During the interview, I understand that notes will be taken and a digital recorder will be used. The notes, the information held on the recorder and the transcripts will be kept in a secure place. Once the research has been completed, this material will be destroyed.

Risks and Anxiety: I have been assured that there will be no risks or expected anxieties experience involved in participating in this research study.

Benefits/Incentives: I understand that the researcher will not offer any benefits or incentives for my participation in this study. However, through my participation, this study will increase my understanding of tools and mechanisms that this organisation uses in marketing its training programmes to youth living in Cape Town. I will also have the opportunity to make an input on how the NGO can market its programmes effectively.

Participant's Rights: I understand that I am free to withdraw from participating in this study at any time, without giving any reason or being disadvantaged in any way.

Confidentiality: I understand that the group interview will be kept strictly confidential and that it will be available only to the researcher. Extracts from the interviews may be included in the final research report. A copy of the report will be kept in the UCT Libraries. Under no circumstances will my name including the name of the agency or any identifying characteristics be included in the report or any other publications related to this research.

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By signing this informed consent form, I confirm that I have read it and that the study has been explained to me. I voluntarily participate in this study and I do not give up any legal right by signing this consent form. I understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form.

Signature of Participant

Date (dd/mm/yyyy)

Signature of Researcher

Date (dd/mm/yyyy)