



**A Normative Stage Model for Youth Development in selected
areas on the Cape Flats**

By

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DECLARATION

I, Ivan Henry Meyer, do hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my investigation and research and that this had not been submitted in part or full for any degree or for any other degree to any other University.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to the Meyer, Jordaan, Hendricks and Crowie family. These four surnames are symbolic of the main paternal and maternal breakdown of the family support system that surrounded me from birth, till this day and beyond. You served as the resource base for my personal values system which I hold sacrosanct. A values system that I uphold, defend and protect so that those after me, will continue to draw inspiration from your legacies. The dedication of this thesis however, is not complete without a special word of thanks to my paternal grandfather, Mr. Petrus Meyer who through his relentless pursuit of success, transcended the restrictions of social mobility and job reservations in the toughest of times, to occupying senior political office at all three spheres of Government. This significant feat is the dealing hand of hope that I continue to draw inspiration from with every fiber of my being.

ABSTRACT

Youth unemployment is a petrifying reality on a large scale in the township areas and exacerbated by limited economic opportunities, which warrants responsive youth development strategies. Often entrepreneurial skills are overlooked and instead the focus is based on transferring generic skills in order for the youth to find employment. The Cape Flats suburb in the Western Cape is subject to economic strife and therefore it is imperative to include a platform to develop entrepreneurial thinking through the pursuance of dreams/goal setting when attempting to address youth development. The transfer of entrepreneurial skills in a township context is imperative to support local economic development strategies and policy making.

The research design adopted a quantitative methodology approach employing a purposive sampling technique for data collection of individuals residing in the Cape Flats area. The piloting of the research instrument was statistically tested to ensure validity and reliability prior to commencement of the main study. The study involved a cross sectional design and a sample of 650 participants. The study utilized SPSS for the quantitative analysis and involved descriptive statistical analyses, correlation and regression statistical application.

With the current economic outlook plagued by the high unemployment rates, particularly amongst the youth, there is economic policy uncertainty and growing disillusionment. The lack of economic opportunities that the youth are subjected to prompts them to access scarce resources out of desperation, which are often actions which are not consistent with the legal framework of South Africa. Socio-economic factors such as gang affiliation, substance abuse, prostitution and teenage pregnancy is often a knock-on effect when acting out of desperation to access scarce economic opportunities. This study presents a normative stage conceptual model of youth development using entrepreneurship as a means of increasing access to economic opportunities. The model focuses on pursuing dreams/goal setting as a start to aim at entrepreneurial outcomes. Developing the youth in this way increases their entrepreneurial skills and makes them more marketable in

obtaining opportunities. Stepwise regression was used to determine the influence of the independent variables – role models, limited economic opportunities, entrepreneurial skills and youth development on the dependent variable – pursuance of dreams/goal setting. Role models, entrepreneurial skills and limited economic opportunities collectively explained 8% of the variance in the dependent variable ($r = .08$, $p < .00$), pursuance of dreams/goal setting.

The study provides a normative stage conceptual model that suggests the inclusion of entrepreneurship into policy making and local economic development strategies in township development on the Cape Flats. The study has practical implications for contemporary skills development and training of the youth.

The findings of this study have a direct influence on policy development and implementation of local economic development with a specific focus on job creation and greater economic participation. Local economic development strategies must take into account the influence of entrepreneurship and in particular, interventions focused on entrepreneurial thinking.

Policy makers must not merely focus on generic skills transformation but must include private sector partners for more holistic skills transformation. Greater emphasis in this regard must be given to public private partnerships. Local economic development policy must take into account current and future skills that will be required in diverse industries in order to equip individuals sufficiently.

KEYWORDS AND PHRASES – NORMATIVE MODEL

Pursuance of dreams/Goal setting, Entrepreneurial skills, Limited economic opportunities, Youth development, Role models

Contents	
DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT	iv
KEYWORDS AND PHRASES – NORMATIVE MODEL	v
List of Tables	xii
List of Figures	xiii
CHAPTER 1.....	1
BACKGROUND AND THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Problem Statement	2
1.2.1 Background and Importance of the Research Problem.....	2
1.2.2 Importance of Solving the Problem.....	3
1.3 Aims of the Study.....	3
1.4 Research Objectives	4
1.5 Research Questions.....	4
1.6 Theoretical and Policy Review	5
1.6.1 Public Policy	5
1.6.2 Entrepreneurial Policy.....	5
1.6.3 Policy Environment	6
1.6.4 Policy Models.....	6
1.6.5 A Normative Stage Conceptual Model of Economic Development	7
1.5 Quantitative Approach.....	7
1.6 Outline of the Study.....	8
1.7 Chapter Summary	9
CHAPTER 2.....	10
THE LEGISLATIVE AND POLICY ENVIRONMENTs.....	10
2.1 Introduction	10
2.2 Historical development of institutional arrangement, policies and programmes to address Youth Development in South Africa.....	11
2.3 RDP White Paper.....	15
2.4 National Youth Commission Act of 1996	16
2.5 Skills Development Act No.97 of 1998	17
2.6 National Youth Development Policy Framework (NYDPF) 2002-2007.....	18
2.7 National Youth Development Act 54 (2008).....	18

2.8 National Youth Policy (NYP) 2009-2014.....	19
2.9 National Development Plan 2012	21
2.10 Draft Integrated Youth Development Strategy for South Africa 2011	23
2.11 City of Cape Town Youth Development Policy	23
2.12 Local Government Legislation	25
2.13 Western Cape Youth Development Strategy	26
2.14 Youth Enterprise Development Strategy 2013-2023.....	27
2.15 The Youth Development Framework – Consultation Document 2009.....	28
2.16 Department of Social Development Youth Programme Concept Paper 2008	28
2.17 National Youth Development Agency	29
2.18 Youth Employment Accord	29
2.19 Government Wide Monitoring and Evaluation System (GWM&E).....	30
2.20 Chapter Summary	31
CHAPTER 3.....	32
CAPE FLATS CONTEXT SETTING AND KEY CONCEPTS.....	32
3.1 Introduction	32
3.2 A Context of Youth Development in South Africa	33
3.3 Key Concepts for Development of Youth Development Mode	37
3.3.1 Public Policy	37
3.3.2 Policy Demand.....	37
3.3.3 Policy Environment	38
3.3.4 Policy Models.....	38
3.3.5 A Normative Stage Conceptual Model of Entrepreneurial Development.....	39
3.3.5.1 Youth Development	39
3.3.5.2 Limited Economic Opportunities	48
3.3.5.3 Pursuing Dreams and Goal Setting.....	68
3.3.5.4 Entrepreneurial Skills.....	70
3.3.5.5 Role Models	74
3.4 Chapter Summary	77
CHAPTER 4.....	79
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	79
4.1 Introduction	79
4.2 Definition of research	80
Table 4-1: Definitions	80

4.2.1 Research Paradigm	80
4.2.2 Positivism Paradigm	81
4.2.3 Interpretivist Paradigm	82
4.2.4 Pragmatism Paradigm	84
Table 4-2: Characteristics of Pragmatism and Interpretivism.....	85
4.3 Research Approaches.....	85
4.3.1 Deductive Approach	86
Figure 4-1: An Illustration of the Deductive Research Approach	86
4.3.2 Abductive Approach	87
4.3.3 Inductive Approach	87
4.4 Research Design: Exploratory, Descriptive and Explanatory Research.....	87
Figure 4-2: Exploratory Sequential Design Process	89
4.5 Research Methodology	89
Table 4-3: Comparison of Method and Methodology.....	89
4.5.1 Choice of Research Methodology	91
Table 4-4: Differences between Quantitative and Qualitative Methods.....	91
4.5.1.1 Qualitative Methodology	91
4.5.1.2 Quantitative Methodology.....	92
4.5.1.3 Cross-Sectional versus Longitudinal Research	93
4.5.1.4 Population	93
4.5.1.5 Selection of a Sample	94
Table 4-5: Comparison between Two Sampling Techniques.....	95
4.5.1.6 Probability.....	97
4.6 Data Collection.....	98
4.6.1 Questionnaire	98
4.6.1.1 Characteristics of a Questionnaire	100
4.7 Standardisation of a Quantitative Research Instrument.....	100
4.7.1 Validity	100
4.7.2 Reliability	101
Table 4-6: Reliability Testing (Pursuing dreams/Goal setting)	102
Table 4-7: Reliability Testing (Role Models)	102
Table 4-8: Reliability Testing (Youth Development).....	102
Table 4-9: Reliability Testing (Entrepreneurial Skills)	103
Table 4-10: Reliability Testing (Limited Economic Opportunities).....	103

4.7 Data Collection Methods	103
Figure 4-3: Primary Data Collection Methods	104
4.8 Data Analysis	105
4.8.1 Pilot Testing	105
4.9 Ethical Consideration	106
Figure 4-4: Five Professional Code of Ethics Research for Participants	106
4.9.1 Anonymity and Confidentiality	107
4.9.2 Informed Consent, Permissions and Approvals	107
4.9.3 Protection from Harm	108
4.10 Limitations.....	108
4.11 Chapter Summary	109
CHAPTER 5.....	109
RESULTS	109
5.1 Introduction	109
5.2 The Sample.....	110
5.2.1 Section A - (Demographic Information)	110
Figure 5-5: Geographic Areas	110
Figure 5-6: Gender.....	111
Figure 5-7: Race	111
Figure 5-8: Age	112
Figure 5-9: Employment Status.....	112
Figure 5-10: Education.....	113
Figure 5-11: Income Levels.....	113
Table 5-11: Unemployment.....	114
Figure 5-12: Biggest societal ills impacting the youth in the community	114
Table 5-12: Youth Unemployment and Crime	115
Figure 5-13: Are there sufficient opportunities to access a job?	115
5.2.2 Section B (Independent /Dependent Variables)	116
Table 5-13: Pursuing Goals/Dreams	116
Table 5-14: Most Important Goals	116
Table 5-15: Usage of Goals/Dreams	117
Entrepreneurial Skills	117
Table 5-16: Entrepreneurial Intent.....	117
Table 5-17: Entrepreneurship Training.....	118
Youth Development	118

Table 5-18: Level of Awareness of Youth Development.....	119
Table 5-19: Quality of Youth Development Programs.....	119
Figure 5-14: Youth development programs are adequate in responding to the needs of the youth	120
Table 5-20: Role Model 1.....	120
Table 5-21: Role Model 2.....	121
Table 5-22: Role Model 3.....	121
Table 5-23: Role Model 4.....	122
Table 5-24: Role Model 5.....	122
Table 5-25: Prevent Achieving Dreams.....	123
Table 5-26: Limit Career Opportunities	123
Table 5-27: Access to a Job.....	124
5.2.1.2 Correlation.....	124
Table 5-28: Correlations Statistical Testing.....	124
5.2.1.3 Regression.....	125
Table 5-29: Regression.....	126
5.3 Chapter Summary.....	126
CHAPTER 6.....	127
ANALYSIS	127
6.1 Introduction	127
6.2 Normative Stage Conceptual Model.....	127
Figure 6-15: Normative Conceptual Model of Entrepreneurial Development	128
6.2.1 Pursuing Dreams/Goals	128
6.2.2 Role Models	130
6.2.3 Youth Development	132
6.2.4 Limited Economic Opportunities.....	133
6.2.5 Entrepreneurial Skills.....	135
6.2.6 Chapter Summary.....	136
CHAPTER 7.....	137
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	137
7.1 Introduction	137
7.2 Research Questions.....	138
7.2.1 To what extent do limited entrepreneurial skills influence youth development? 138	

7.2.2 How would the application of a normative stage conceptual model aid in developing credible local economic development strategies for youth development?	142
7.2.3 What kind of recommendations can be made to policy makers, in order to enhance the efficacy of local economic development strategies?	144
7.2.3.1 Youth Entrepreneurship	144
7.2.3.2 Incubators	145
7.2.3.3 Role Models	145
7.2.3.4 Skills Transfer	146
7.2.3.5 Stimulating Economic Activity	147
7.2.3.6 Design Thinking	147
7.4 Suggestion for Future Research	147
7.6 Chapter Summary	148
7.5 Conclusion	149
Reference List	150
Appendices	164
Appendix 1: Questionnaire	164
Appendix 2: Western Cape Youth Development Strategy	173

List of Tables

Table 4-1: Definitions	80
Table 4-2: Characteristics of Pragmatism and Interpretivism	85
Table 4-3: Comparison of Method and Methodology	89
Table 4-4: Differences between Quantitative and Qualitative Methods	91
Table 4-5: Comparison between Two Sampling Techniques	95
Table 4-6: Reliability Testing (Pursuing dreams/Goal setting).....	102
Table 4-7: Reliability Testing (Role Models).....	102
Table 4-8: Reliability Testing (Youth Development)	102
Table 4-9: Reliability Testing (Entrepreneurial Skills).....	103
Table 4-10: Reliability Testing (Limited Economic Opportunities)	103
Table 5-11: Unemployment.....	114
Table 5-12: Youth Unemployment and Crime	115
Table 5-13: Pursuing Goals/Dreams	116
Table 5-14: Most Important Goals.....	116
Table 5-15: Usage of Goals/Dreams.....	117
Table 5-16: Entrepreneurial Intent.....	117
Table 5-17: Entrepreneurship Training.....	118
Table 5-18: Level of Awareness of Youth Development.....	119
Table 5-19: Quality of Youth Development Programs	119
Table 5-20: Role Model 1	120
Table 5-21: Role Model 2	121
Table 5-22: Role Model 3	121
Table 5-23: Role Model 4	122
Table 5-24: Role Model 5	122
Table 5-25: Prevent Achieving Dreams.....	123
Table 5-26: Limit Career Opportunities	123
Table 5-27: Access to a Job.....	124
Table 5-28: Correlations Statistical Testing.....	124
Table 5-29: Regression	126

List of Figures

Figure 4-1: An Illustration of the Deductive Research Approach.....	86
Figure 4-2: Exploratory Sequential Design Process.....	89
Figure 4-3: Primary Data Collection Methods.....	104
Figure 4-4: Five Professional Code of Ethics Research for Participants	106
Figure 5-5: Geographic Areas	110
Figure 5-6: Gender	111
Figure 5-7: Race	111
Figure 5-8: Age	112
Figure 5-9: Employment Status.....	112
Figure 5-10: Education	113
Figure 5-11: Income Levels.....	113
Figure 5-12: Biggest societal ills impacting the youth in the community.....	114
Figure 5-13: Are there sufficient opportunities to access a job?.....	115
Figure 5-14: Youth development programs are adequate in responding to the needs of the youth	120
Figure 6-15: Normative Conceptual Model of Entrepreneurial Development	128

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND AND THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Youth unemployment is a petrifying reality on a large scale in the township areas and exacerbated by limited economic opportunities, which warrants responsive youth development strategies. Often entrepreneurial skills are overlooked and instead the focus is based on transferring generic skills in order for the youth to find employment. It is important to develop the youth with contemporary skills so that they are able to sustain a life which enhances their human dignity and also contribute towards the social welfare of mankind. According to Hussain, Bhuiyan & Bakar (2017) entrepreneurship is a vital area to stimulate appropriate skills in less affluent communities in order to eradicate poverty, particularly for the youth.

The Cape Flats suburb in the Western Cape is subject to economic strife and therefore it is imperative to include a platform to develop entrepreneurial thinking through the pursuance of dreams when attempting to address youth development (Hussain et al., 2017). The transfer of entrepreneurial skills in a township context is imperative to support local economic development strategies and policy (Fayolle & Gaille, 2015). Entrepreneurship education pursues students with their knowledge, skills, and motivation to encourage entrepreneurial success in a variety of settings. The most common one is regular entrepreneurship and opening a new organization (for example, starting a new business through micro, small & medium).

Economic opportunities are scarce in township communities and due to the nature of scarce resources, opportunities are very limited. It is well known that South Africa currently faces a constrained economic climate and the situation on the Cape Flats is no exception. Zhang, Duysters & Cloodt (2014) argues that limited resources refer to all the

natural, human and manufactured resources which are used to manufacture goods and services.

A possible solution to mitigate against the above-mentioned context will be to promote greater focus on policies that drive entrepreneurial outcomes through the pursuance of dreams. This empirical study will contribute towards gaining a better understanding of the causes of such challenges, the effects thereof and propose possible solutions.

1.2 Problem Statement

1.2.1 Background and Importance of the Research Problem

According to Mugume & Luescher (2017) public policy is a reaction to environmental demands for change as a result of perceived problems in society that need intervention from government to improve or eradicate those problems. Due to the nature of change within a geographical location, the researcher identified with the need for changes in public policy which can address youth development and micro-economic opportunities, with particular reference to the Cape Flats area. The extent of youth development is identified as a variable in the normative stage conceptual model. The researcher intends to explore the level of youth development in relation to the pursuance of dreams/goal setting of the youth, in respect of the developmental challenges that they are confronted with. The researcher will assimilate the responses by respondents in the study and analyse these results with the intention of examining a normative stage conceptual model for entrepreneurial development as a means of supporting local economic development policy and strategy. The results of the study can also furthermore be furnished to policy makers for integration into future policy development.

The research problem furthermore comprises limited economic opportunities and poor skills amongst the youth living in the Cape Flats. Developing the youth through developmental strategies should be a priority area of policy makers as the emerging generation will be responsible for advancing the agenda of social welfare, in time to come. The level of violence and abuse in these communities has spiralled to almost uncontrollable levels (De Lannoy et al., 2018).

Many young people struggle to finish secondary schooling; only 48% of youth aged 20 – 24 have completed matric or matric equivalent. Only 28% of 18 to 24-year-old WC youth attend college or university. The official unemployment rate for WC youth aged 15 – 24 was 41% in 2011. When discouraged work-seekers are included this rate increases to 52%. Against this background the level of entrepreneurial skills are limited and the youth have become overly dependent on mainstream jobs from the formal economy (De Lannoy et al., 2018).

1.2.2 Importance of Solving the Problem

There are risks associated with not solving the problem such as; the undoing of any progress made through policy transformation efforts, limited access to skills development platforms, higher costs in gang related violence, and abuse. The existence of such risks results from threats such as the operational inefficiencies in Government policies to bring about reform and stability in such environments. Currently the extent of gang violence and overall social decay has rendered existing policy interventions with limited success.

The benefits of solving the problem are that there will a better understanding and appreciation of the causes of such challenges, their extent and resulting impact on the economic and socio-economic development. Furthermore, it will highlight the extent and impact of government policy inefficiencies resulting in further decay in township communities. With a better understanding of entrepreneurship as a means of driving greater participation in the economy it is envisaged that the normative stage conceptual model can be used as a framework for progressive advancement of public policy in this regard.

1.3 Aims of the Study

The researcher will aim to absorb the social perspectives of youth on the Cape Flats and try to explore a normative stage conceptual model of development for policy improvements, particularly from an economic perspective. The researcher aims to identify

the status of youth and skills development in relation to the pursuance of dreams/goal setting by conducting interviews directly with the youth. This will be done to examine a possible relationship between youth development and economic limitations as well as determining whether the lack of dreams and goals result in entrepreneurial intentions at least. A set of recommendations can then be put forward as a means of improving existing interventions. The normative stage conceptual model can be used to formulate youth development and local economic development strategies on the Cape Flats and policy environments for the purpose of addressing youth development and unemployment.

1.4 Research Objectives

- To examine whether the limited economic opportunities on the Cape Flats influences the extent of pursuing dreams of the youth;
- To determine the relationship between skills, limited economic opportunities, role models and the participation in youth development and the pursuance of dreams;
- To make recommendations to policy makers regarding suitable strategies for youth development; and
- To formulate a normative stage conceptual model for entrepreneurial development in which the current extent of youth development challenges can be mitigated.

1.5 Research Questions

- To what extent do limited entrepreneurial skills influence youth development?
- What kind of recommendations can be made to policy makers in order to enhance the efficacy of youth development strategies?
- Would the application of a normative stage conceptual model aid in developing credible local economic development strategies for youth development?

1.6 Theoretical and Policy Review

1.6.1 Public Policy

The proposed research was fuelled by the researcher's observations of a policy problem with a specific focus on local economic development strategies and policy. It is therefore fundamentally important to comprehend the definition of public policy. According to Wissink (1990) public policy is developed by government actors, although non-government actors may influence policy formation and developments. This definition contains striking parallels to that of De Lannoy et al. (2018) suggesting that public policy is a proposed course of action of a person, group or government within a given environment providing obstacles and opportunities which the policy was proposed to utilize and overcome. Defining public policy is therefore paramount in order to compile a credible research report based on the identified public policy demand.

1.6.2 Entrepreneurial Policy

The current global financial crisis has highlighted the shortcomings of industrial policy to promote economic growth and development in a sustainable manner. The favoured approach of many governments, of focusing exclusively on industrial policy to promote economic growth, cannot be pursued any longer, particularly if the objective is to reduce unemployment and poverty (Cassim, Soni & Karodia, 2014). As policymakers find new or alternate models of growth and sustainable development, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2016) and UNCTAD have suggested that policies to promote growth and economic prosperity should be inclined toward enabling an environment that fosters entrepreneurship and the advocacy of pursuance of dreams.

Their suggestions are affirmed through evidence from the emerging economies of China and India, in which, approximately 97 per cent of jobs are created by entrepreneurs in SMEs (OECD, 2016). There appears a concentration of effort at interventions aimed at entrepreneurship for the purposes of poverty alleviation and job creation. While this is

laudable, it is suggested that more emphasis should be focused on stimulating growth of existing businesses and encouraging innovation for real entrepreneurship in township communities.

1.6.3 Policy Environment

Due to the nature of public policy dynamics, one has to take due cognizance of the fact that policy environments have a direct impact on the policy demands which are extracted from a particular geographical location. Public policy dynamics emphasize the fact that the needs, demands and preferences of public policy, changes due to the dynamic nature of society. The policy environment according to Dunn (1994) is very dynamic, with changes taking place every day. The forces in the social, political, cultural and technological environments put pressure on policy makers to effect change. Based on this definition of a policy environment, the researcher takes due cognizance of changing environments within society, which present changes in policy needs, demands and preferences. The environment of the Cape Flats was identified as the policy environment in which the proposed research will be undertaken.

1.6.4 Policy Models

The researcher proposed to design a normative stage conceptual model of economic development which can be used in order to develop responsive youth development and local economic development strategies. It is therefore important to gain insight into what exactly a policy model is. According to Dunn (1994) policy models are simplified representations of selected aspects that policy models may be expressed as concepts, diagrams, graphs, or mathematical equations and may be used not only to describe, explain, and predict elements of a problem situation but also to improve it by recommending causes of action to resolve particular problems. According to Dunn (1994) a model is composed of a number of assumptions from which conclusions-or predictions-are deduced.

1.6.5 A Normative Stage Conceptual Model of Economic Development

Within the traditional definition of entrepreneurship and SME policy several measures or policy instruments are defined that impact entrepreneurship. These are the components of the frameworks defined by previous authors and appear in the mid-section of the proposed framework. While there have been several measures initiated in the past, Herrington & Kew (2015) recommend policy measures that will enhance South Africa's entrepreneurial profile. A re-examination and reconfiguration of goal setting/dreams, access to finance; supporting high growth ventures; dealing with crime; role models, youth development, liberalisation of the labour market; simplify business registration; incentivising entrepreneurship; increasing government capacity for effective delivery; entrepreneurship education and training have been proposed in the GEM report.

The normative stage conceptual model is therefore comprised of five elements:

- Pursuance of dreams (dependent variable);
- Role models (independent variable);
- Skills (independent variable);
- Limited economic opportunities (independent variable); and
- Participation in youth development (independent variable).

1.5 Quantitative Approach

According to Dudovskiy (2017) research that explores, and describes a person, group of people, or a situation, would be termed descriptive research technique. Data from descriptive research might be qualitative or quantitative. Descriptive research is aimed at casting light on current problems through a process of data collection that allows researcher to describe the situation totally than was possible without employing this method (Dudovskiy, 2017). The research process is systematized in descriptive research; similarly, descriptive technique uses probability (random) sampling design.

1.6 Outline of the Study

The research will have the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Background and the objectives of the study

Chapter 2: Policy and Legislative Environment

Chapter 3: Context and Key Concepts

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

Chapter 5: Results

Chapter 6: Analysis of Research Findings

Chapter 7: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

In Chapter 1 the scope of the research study is described. This included the introduction, the problem statement, the objectives of the study and research questions.

Chapter 2 contains a review of legislative and policy environment relating to relevant applicable legislation or regulations, the South African government transformation initiatives, township context, local economic development strategies, entrepreneurship and youth development.

In Chapter 3 key concepts and the context setting is described. The normative stage conceptual model is also discussed.

In Chapter 4 the research methodology applied in this research study is explained in detail. The different research paradigms are explained, compared and contrasted. This chapter covers the detail of the case study method this research follows, particularly the multiple case study method chosen rather than the single case study method. Furthermore, a logical explanation is given on why sampling logic and/or sample sizes are irrelevant to this study research, which is quantitative in nature.

Chapter 5 presents the key results through descriptive, correlation and regression statistics.

Chapter 6 is about analysing and interpreting the data collected when the interviews with the subjects were conducted. The findings are logically reported in relation to the normative stage conceptual model.

In Chapter 7 presents the strengths and limitations of the study. This section also presents the implications of the findings of the study. This chapter also contains suggestions for future research studies.

1.7 Chapter Summary

Youth unemployment is a reality on a large scale in South Africa and exacerbated by microeconomic limitations, which warrants responsive youth development strategies. It is important to develop the youth so that they are able to sustain a life which enhances their human dignity and also contribute towards the social welfare of mankind. Economic opportunities are scarce in township communities and due to the nature of scarce resources, opportunities are very limited. It is well known that South Africa currently faces a constrained economic climate and the situation on the Cape Flats is no exception. The researcher intends to explore the views of the youth, in respect of the developmental challenges that they are confronted with. The researcher will assimilate the responses by respondents in the study and analyse these results with the intention of examining a normative stage conceptual model for entrepreneurial development. The results of the study can also furthermore be furnished to policy makers for integration into future policy development.

CHAPTER 2

THE LEGISLATIVE AND POLICY ENVIRONMENTs

2.1 Introduction

South Africa is renowned for a lack of youth participation in the productive sectors of the economy with a salient feature being youth unemployment despite numerous youth policies developed to promote youth development. Following the abolishment of the apartheid policy, South Africa experienced the inception of a strategy focussed at integrating the youth back into society through the establishment of youth institutions mandated to facilitate sound youth development. Youth development is defined as “an intentional comprehensive approach that provides space, opportunities and support for young people to maximise their individual and collective creative energies for personal development as well as development of the broader society of which they are an integral part,” (National Youth Policy, 2015).

The establishment of the National Youth Commission in 1996 was a significant step forward in conceptualising and expounding the roles of youth and in the progressive development of South African youth (National Youth Policy, 2015). Over time, the National Youth Policy progressed from theoretical conceptualisation of the importance of youth, to the translation of action by way of implementation of youth programmes under the auspices National Youth Development Agency. An integral component of the National Youth Policy is directed towards the transfer of entrepreneurial skills in less affluent communities in order to promote entrepreneurship.

2.2 Historical development of institutional arrangement, policies and programmes to address Youth Development in South Africa

By 1994 the newly elected African National Congress (ANC) government was faced with a nation rife with extreme inequality and poverty, and it embarked on a vision to rectify the racial disparities. After extensive work throughout all sectors of government, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was presented as a socio-economic policy document that was geared to right the social and economic injustices of apartheid through specific policies that would encourage democratic nation building. It was suggested that the programmes initiated by the policy would increase employment both directly and indirectly through initiatives that would provide much needed basic provisions such as housing, electricity, and water.

During the development of the RDP there was great debate amongst civil society and government as how to incorporate an integrated approach to youth development throughout all government sectors. The argument was whether a Youth Ministry should be formed or to allocate desk officers in key ministry positions. It was argued that a Youth Ministry would be too singularly focused and not be able to reach all ministries. However, when the RDP was released, youth development hardly surfaced within the 147-page document. Under Human Resource Development, "Youth Development" was allotted a half of a page and youth were given some space under "Arts and Culture" as well as "Sports and Recreation". The only actual policy suggestion within the document was a national youth service. Out of all the internal and political debates neither a Youth Ministry nor youth desk officers were proposed or addressed in the RDP (Van Niekerk, Van der Waldt & Jonker, 2001).

However, soon after, in 1996, the RDP was replaced by the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) framework. Aliber (2003) suggests that GEAR was "a conventional neoclassical macroeconomic recipe for economic growth". In this approach, priority was not given to directly addressing unemployment and poverty, but instead to reducing the fiscal deficit with hopes of a "trickle down" result.

During this same year the National Youth Commission Act (1996) was instituted by President Mandela on 16 June (the 20th anniversary of the youth uprisings in Soweto and inaugurated as National Youth Day) and it was from this that the country's first cabinet-level ministry for youth, the National Youth Commission (NYC) was created. Since it was not a youth ministry nor seated within one department, the NYC was positioned under the Presidency. Within this position it was to create effective youth policies. It was not resourced or mandated to provide the actual implementation of policies, but was to hold departments accountable to prioritize and include youth. The NYP (1997) was presented to President Mandela by the NYC in December 1997 with a purpose to "ensure all young women and men are given meaningful opportunities to reach their full potential, both as individuals and as active participants in society" (Burger & Von Fintel, 2014). Yet it was never adopted as policy. A very similar document was presented a few years later as the NYP 2000 but this too was never adopted as policy. These documents did, however, finally lead to the NYDPF 2002-2007, which was adopted by parliament. According to the NYC, previous national policy documents were still used as internal government documents that were referenced and used to guide the NYC (Burger & Von Fintel, 2014).

The combination of two new government initiated policies, GEAR and the NYC, in the same year promised greater opportunities for employment for youth and growth of the aggregate economy. Yet both policies have been riddled with criticisms since 1996. The initial optimism over GEAR waned as the economy grew at rates below 3% and unemployment continued to rise. The global instability caused by the Asian financial crisis of 1997, increasing competition by international competitors in the local market (made possible by GEAR), and lack of domestic fixed investment have been suggested as a few main reasons for the poor growth and unemployment within the country (Cohen, & Moodley, 2012).

In 2000, GDP reached a four-year high while formal sector unemployment accelerated (Aliber, 2003). The NYC was criticized almost immediately after its creation for its top salary packages as well as for its poorly drafted policy, "rushed to be put together for the June 16th deadline" (Burger & Von Fintel, 2014). It was not only accused of failing to be a

strong voice for youth development during policy negotiations, but it also failed to oversee implementation of any youth programme in its first five years. The NYC was criticized for the lack of experienced staff as it seemingly only hired youth – some argue that the idea of youth participation went too far, especially in such a new and fragile environment (Burger & Von Fintel, 2014).

In 2001 as a response to rising unemployment amongst youth, the NYC formed the Umsobomvu Youth Fund (UYF). The UYF began as a pilot project to focus on job creation and skills development amongst young South Africans ages 18 to 35. According to an interview with an HSRC respondent, there was a lot of overlap between NYC and UYF. While UYF has been unsuccessful partly because they did not deliver, they were also incredibly under-funded at provincial levels, limiting their success to deliver to a greater number of youth (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2007).

Despite the criticisms, GEAR was not a complete failure. Initiatives that came out of the policy included the upgrading of the Unemployment Insurance Fund and the implementation of minimum wages in different employment fields. In addition, there was an initiative to increase funding to municipalities for infrastructure, housing and service improvements and expansions (Burger & Von Fintel, 2014). The infrastructure initiatives were coupled with the evolution of the national Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP), which used publicly funded projects to create training and job opportunities, similar in model to the SECP of the 1980s. The national government took on the initiative in 2003 at the Growth and Development Summit when it discussed employment with a focus on young people. The Summit led to the amendment of the Skills Development Act and the EPWP programme. In 2003 the EPWP was formally announced by President Thabo Mbeki in his State of the Nation Address and adopted by cabinet that same year as one of the government's responses to addressing unemployment.

The EPWP was created as a short- to medium-term programme in the government's response to the severe problem of unemployment. According to EPWP it "will not solve

the structural unemployment problem. It is merely one element within a broader government strategy to reduce poverty through the alleviation and reduction of unemployment” (Department of Public Works, 2015). It is a programme that is to provide job opportunities and training during the time it takes for the government to “increase economic growth so that the number of net new jobs being created starts to exceed the number of new entrants into the labour market; and secondly, to improve the education system such that the workforce is able to take up the largely skilled work opportunities which economic growth will generate”.

In July 2005, President Mbeki appointed a high-level government task team to identify constraints in the economy and to propose interventions to increase the capacity for growth to 6% per year in the long term and address challenges emerging within the informal economy. Following this task team the Accelerated and Shared Growth-South Africa (Asgisa) was launched in February 2006 and has since replaced GEAR. Asgisa’s policy framework document was developed and set objectives to halve the unemployment rate, reduce poverty from one-third to one-sixth of the population, and increase the annual growth rate to 6% by 2014. Out of Asgisa, the Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (Jipsa) was launched on 27 March 2006 by the Deputy President and was to be housed in the Presidency to identify solutions to the major skills shortages. This was to be a short-term policy strategy that would develop inter-departmental strategies fast-tracking skills development to promote economic growth and increase labour absorption (Philip, 2013a).

Ten years after its creation, on 16 May 2006, a public statement by the NYC discussed the “shortcomings of the current state of youth development.” The statement highlighted the lack of implementation of policy and the lack of provision for the NYC to take action in the case that agencies failed to comply with the NYP. For such reasons, and based on the findings of the Ten Year Review Report of Government, a youth development agency was proposed to replace the NYC and be a “one-stop-shop” as a response for better implementation of policy focused on youth. In addition, it was mentioned that an Integrated Sustainable Youth Development Strategy would be developed during the National Youth Convention in June 2006 (Philip, 2013a).

It wasn't until the end of 2007 that the South African policy landscape for youth finally began to shift. It was time to develop a new policy as the NYDPF came to the end of its timeframe. According to the HSRC, South African youth policy has been lauded as one of the most comprehensive in the world. Blaauw & Pretorius (2007) in her analysis for the HSRC, suggests that while the youth policy did a great job at consulting young people it failed to consult government departments who would be responsible for implementing the policy (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2007).

From extensive international research around youth (Transitions to Adulthood – Growing up Global 2005, World Development Report 2007) the HSRC had the expertise and evidence to give direction to the new youth policy. In 2007, working with the NYC and other youth civil society organisation, the HSRC held six roundtable discussions that involved government, civil society, academia, and youth. These roundtable discussions began to develop evidence-based strategies for youth interventions. From these workshops the national government asked the HSRC to get involved in the development a new youth policy. However, the HSRC was not involved in the final outcome of the new policy.

With national elections around the corner, in late 2008 a decision was taken by the ANC government to collapse the UYF and the NYC into one agency called the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA). Doing away with the NYC and UYF these offices will be under the new NYDA initiative. While the name is changing, the UYF programmes are not to be done away with but are to be enhanced through greater funding and infrastructural support. The NYDA has now become an implementing body and no longer a policy developing body.

2.3 RDP White Paper

The Reconstruction and Development Plan (RDP) was the first post-apartheid policy document aimed to establish an integrated, coherent socio-economic policy framework to proliferate the newly dawned democracy in South Africa. Post-apartheid

South Africa identified the social injustices and subjugation of disadvantaged racial groups of every sphere of society which resulted in a quality of life that lacked human dignity. According to Howlett & Lindquist (2004) Chapter 7 of the RDP, section 7.7.4 states that an intervention to correct for past injustices would be to enable the following for youth:

“The youth of our land played a major role in the achievement of freedom. They are our country’s most important resource. Effort will be required to ensure that they are equipped to play a major role in the reconstruction and development of South Africa. The Government will consider establishing special programmes aimed at addressing the needs of young people, in particular, to address the backlog in education and training, job creation and recreation. Young people are our country’s most important resource,” (Howlett & Lindquist, 2004).

This singled the youth out as advocates of change and prosperity in South Africa and the enhancement of programmes to aid in the development of the youth. Shortly after this, the National Youth Commission established in June 1996 was created to advance programmes aimed at promoting the development of the youth.

2.4 National Youth Commission Act of 1996

The National Youth Commission was the statutory body tasked with the National Youth Policy, coordinating the implementation as well as lobbying and promoting youth development in South Africa. The National Youth Commission Act of 1996 sought to coordinate and to develop a unified national youth policy and to develop a comprehensive youth development plan (National Youth Commission Act, 1996). Furthermore the Act sought to ensure uniformity in the approach to matters of youth while ensuring liaison between the various institutions and bodies similar to the Commission to promote common policies and practices (National Youth Commission Act, 1996).

The roles and responsibilities identified by the National Youth Commission Act of 1996 were:

- To coordinate and develop an integrated National Youth Policy;
- To develop an integrated national plan that utilises available resources and expertise for the development of young women and men and aligned with the Reconstruction and Development Programme;
- To develop principles and guidelines and make recommendations to Government regarding procedures for the implementation of the National Youth Policy;
- To coordinate, direct and monitor the implementation of such procedures
- To implement measures to redress the imbalances of the past relating to various forms of disadvantage suffered by young men and women generally or by specific groups or categories of young people;
- To maintain close liaison with institutions, bodies or authorities similar to the National Youth Commission in order to foster common policies and practices and to promote cooperation; and
- To coordinate the activities of the various provincial government institutions involved in youth.

Source: National Youth Commissions Act of 1996

2.5 Skills Development Act No.97 of 1998

The skills development Act according to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa is to:

“Provide an Institutional framework to devise and implement national, sector and workplace strategies to develop and improve the skills of the South African workforce; to integrate those strategies within the national Qualifications Framework contemplated in the South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995; to provide for learnerships that lead to recognised occupational qualifications; to provide for the

financing of skills developed by means of a levy-grant scheme and a National Skills Fund; to provide for and regulate employment services; and to provide for matters connected therewith". The Skills Development Act was included under this chapter as the researcher identified the relevance of skills development as a priority area which needs to be addressed in order to equip the youth with a skillset that will enhance their employability to generate economic independence (National Skills Research Agency, 2008).

2.6 National Youth Development Policy Framework (NYDPF) 2002-2007

In 2000, it was ascertained that there was a need to develop a holistic national youth policy. The establishment of the policy occurred but was never adopted (National Youth Policy, 2014). It however paved the way for the National Youth Development Policy Framework (NYDPF) in 2002. The NYDPF provided the context for the government's youth action, arguing for an integrated and holistic youth development strategy. It further articulated the values of "equity, diversity, redress, responsiveness to the needs and contexts of young people, and an orientation that is sustainable, participatory, inclusive, gender sensitive, accessible and transparent," (National Youth Policy, 2015). The lessons learnt from the NYDPF indicated that a condensed policy direction was required to responsively address the issues confronting the development of the youth.

The NYDPF 2002-2007 aimed to secure education, economic participation, social cohesion and civic participation, national youth service, youth work and health and well-being for the youth. When the term of the NYDPF terminated, the inception of the National Youth Policy provided a platform for youth interventions in systematic fashion.

2.7 National Youth Development Act 54 (2008)

The NYDA Act of 2008 made the provision for the National Youth Development Agency responsible for the development and implementation of all youth led

programmes in the country. The Agency additionally aimed to bridge the gaps between the limitations identified by the National Youth Commission as well as that of the Umsombvu Youth Fund (National Youth Policy, 2015).

The responsibilities of the NYDA with respect to the services that they are required to provide to youth are outlined below:

- Provide access to information regarding products and services of the National Youth Fund;
- Create and administer databases of employment opportunities;
- Provide financial assistance to youths;
- Provide financial assistance to small, micro and medium enterprises, and cooperatives owned by youth;
- Provide mentoring services;
- Provide bridging programmes for youths school or training to the work environment;
- Provide training and principles of entrepreneurship to youth;
- Provide training and guidance relating to the establishing and managing of businesses for youths; and
- Provide training for unemployed youths to enhance their life and professional skills which would enable them to be integrated into the economy.

Source: (National Youth Development Agency Act of 2008)

2.8 National Youth Policy (NYP) 2009-2014

The overarching goal of the NYP 2009-2014 was to “intentionally enhance the capacities of young people through addressing their needs, promoting positive outcomes and providing integrated coordinated package of services, opportunities, choices, relationship and support necessary for holistic development of all young people particularly those outside the social, political and economic mainstream,” (National Youth Policy, 2015). The specific objectives of the policy were to:

- Integrate youth development into the mainstream of government policies;

- Ensure that mainstream policies function effectively and restrain the marginalisation of young people;
- Strengthen the capacity of key youth development institutions and ensure integration and coordination in the delivery of youth services;
- Strengthen the capacities of young people to enable them to take charge of their own wellbeing through building their assets and ultimately realising their potential to the fullest;
- Support prioritised youth groups and ensure that they have every opportunity to play their part in the development of our country;
- Create a wider range of learning pathways to provide young people with multiple routes and exit opportunities for making the transition from youth to adulthood smoother; and
- Design and implement interventions that seek to provide a wide variety of opportunities for needy young people.

Source: (National Youth Policy 2009-2014, 2015)

The current guiding National Youth Policy is the NYP 2009-2014. Under the rubric of this policy, a number of youth targeted programmes and projects have been initiated and are implemented by the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA). The NYDA was established by an Act of parliament, Act no 54 of 2008 to address youth development issues at the national, provincial and local government level. It takes the lead in ensuring that all major stakeholders prioritise youth development to contribute to permanent solutions to address youth challenges. These include the following:

- Too few people work;
- The poor quality of school education for black people;
- Infrastructure is poorly located, inadequate and under-maintained;
- Spatial divides hobble inclusive development;
- The economy is unsustainably resource intensive;
- The public health system cannot meet demand or sustain quality;
- Public services are uneven and often of poor quality;

- Corruption levels are high; and
- South Africa remains a divided society.

Source: (Venter & Landsberg, 2007)

2.9 National Development Plan 2012

This subsequently resulted in the advancing of the draft National Development Plan which was formulated by the National Planning Commission in 2011.

Four thematic areas were added onto the diagnostic plan: Rural economy, social protection, regional and world affairs, and community safety. The National Development Plan sets out six fundamental, inter-linked focused priority areas namely:

- Uniting all South Africans around a common programme to achieve prosperity and equity;
- Endorsing active citizenry to strengthen development, democracy and accountability;
- Bringing about faster economic growth, higher investment and greater labour absorption;
- Focusing on key capabilities of people and the state;
- Building a capable and developmental state; and
- Encouraging strong leadership throughout society to work together to solve problems.

Source: (Venter & Landsberg, 2007)

The idea behind a developmental state is that it aspires to build the capabilities of people so that they may take initiative to improve their own lives, while interfering to correct historical inequalities. It requires the individual to take action as neither government nor the market can develop the necessary capabilities on their own (Venter & Landsberg, 2007). The NDP concentrates on the idea of capabilities resting heavily on the following:

- Political freedoms and human rights;
- Social opportunities arising from education, health care, public transport and other public services; and
- Economic facilities, work, consumption, exchange, investment and production.

Short term measures of the NDP seek to (NDP Executive Summary, 2011):

- Introduce active labour market policies especially for young people as well as the sectors that employ low skilled workers;
- Increase public employment programmes to 1 million beneficiaries by 2015;
- 2 million by 2020;
- Expand welfare services and public employment schemes;
- Improve quality education at all levels especially underperforming schools;
- Improve urban planning to promote mixed housing, increasing access to spaces and facilities; and
- Invest in public transport to ensure affordability of transport to low income households.

The NDP has acknowledged that South Africa has a youthful population. This therefore presents a unique opportunity to boost economic growth, increase employment and reduce poverty. The Commission acknowledged that young people bear the burden of unemployment, and therefore adopted a “youth lens” in preparing its proposals, which include:

- Improve the school system, including increasing the number of students achieving above fifty percent in literacy and mathematics, increasing learner retention rates to ninety percent and bolstering teacher training;
- Strengthen youth service programmes and introduce new, community-based programmes to offer young people life-skills training, entrepreneurship training and opportunities to participate in community development programmes;
- A tax incentive to employers to reduce the initial cost of hiring young labour-market entrants;

- Expand learnerships and make training vouchers directly available to job seekers; and
- A formalised graduate recruitment scheme for the public service to attract highly skilled people.

Source: (Mugume, & Luescher, 2017)

2.10 Draft Integrated Youth Development Strategy for South Africa 2011

This strategy presents challenges and opportunities for youth which was identified by a cross-section of stakeholders, which includes professional bodies, government departments, civil society, NGOs and youth formations. A range of work also involved soliciting information from different domestic and international instruments, public and research reports. The draft strategy provided an insight to the challenges and experiences of the youth, both systemic and structural. The common denominator is that youth are at the bottom scale of economic activities; the vast majority are unemployed and that business is scarce and becoming more scarce. Furthermore, they lack access to quality education and useful skills development.

According to Ranchhod & Finn (2014) the objective for the strategy is as follows:

“The objective of this IYDS is to develop an integrated strategy that responds to the economic structure as discussed in key national policy frameworks including among others; National Industrial Policy Framework (NIPF), Industrial Policy Action Plan (IPAP), National Growth Path (NGP), National Skills Development-South Africa (NSD-SA) National Youth Policy (NYP) and NSDS III” (Draft Integrated Youth Development Strategy for South Africa 2011).

2.11 City of Cape Town Youth Development Policy

The City of Cape Town Metro has identified that Youth Development cannot be done in silos and vacuums and in an uncoordinated manner because that approach will not benefit the Youth of the City, with particular reference to the challenges confronting youth development. The Cape Town Metro therefore updated and reviewed its policies aimed

at developing the youth with the intention of providing practical mechanisms, including closer and better collaboration with line departments within the City as well as the Provincial Department of Social Development with whom it has a protocol agreement for working closer together. The Cape Town Metro further indicates that Youth Development needs to happen in a holistic way and that public, private and civil bodies need to work together in order to do meaningful youth development.

The problem statement as outlined in the City of Cape Town Youth Development Policy is set out below:

- South Africa has a relatively young population. According to the Census 2011; 18,4% of Cape Town's population are between the age of 15-24 years old and there are 1 414 210 youth between the ages of 15-25 years residing within the Metropolitan;
- Young people living in Cape Town face many challenges. According to the Development Bank of Southern Africa it is estimated that 50% of the youth in Cape Town, between the ages 15-24 are unemployed and this leads to many other social ills that the youth of Cape Town need to deal with. In Cape Town there are 199 231 youths not in employment, education and training (NEETS);
- The use of substances among the youth of Cape Town is rife. The Medical Research Council's Alcohol and Drug Abuse Research Unit indicates that the Western Cape has the highest proportion of binge drinkers in high schools. It is well known that this type of abuse also encourages risky sexual behaviour and criminal activity;
- The City recognises the effects of gender inequality on young women. These imbalances are manifested in fewer jobs for young women, greater HIV/AIDS infection rates and gender-based violence. It is important to consider special programmes for young women with the view to address the imbalances of the past and the gender imbalances prevalent in our society. Special focus is needed for young men at risk of becoming involved in drugs and gangs. High risk women may also be involved in gangs, drug trafficking, petty crime and prostitution;

- The City recognizes the challenges that youth with disabilities faces. Young people with disabilities are among the most marginalized of the City's youth. The issues that affect young people, such as access to education, employment, health care and social services, also affect youth with disabilities, but in a far more complex way. Attitudes and discrimination linked to disability make it much more difficult for these youth to go to school, to find work or to participate in local activities; and
- Youth Development initiatives takes place across a range of line departments within the City, however, there is a lack of coordination on youth issue projects.

Source: (National Planning Commission, 2012)

2.12 Local Government Legislation

The development role of local government was written into law by the Municipal systems Act, 2000 (Act No 32 of 2000), the Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (Act no 117 of 1998) and the Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003 (Act No 56 of 2003). These Acts provide an important connection for youth development initiatives (National Youth Policy, 2015).

Through its commitment to youth development the City focussed on:

- Developing and implementing programmes that are linked to work skills outcomes and prepares youths for employment;
- Identifying and building linkages and networks with other internal and external bodies to prevent repetition and have a coordinated way of developing the youth of the City;
- Getting youth involved in public participation processes so that 'youth voices' can be adopted and 'youth lenses' worn when there are issues that affect the youth. Therefore building the capacity of youth structures become important so that positive role models can be identified and used to do advocacy work around youth related matters;

- Creating platforms of engagement for raising awareness among youth to engage around topical issues that affect them so that they can take ownership and advocate for change where necessary; and
- Putting practical Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) mechanisms in place to ensure that programmes and interventions are relevant and that those doing youth work, including government officials are held accountable.

Source: (National Youth Policy, 2015)

2.13 Western Cape Youth Development Strategy

The reason for the Western Cape Government taking the initiative of implementing a Western Cape Youth Development Strategy is based on the chronic unemployment and overall underdevelopment of the youth in South Africa and more specifically, to address these issues within the jurisdiction of the Western Cape Government. Kindly refer to annexure on the Western Cape Youth Development Strategy which provides a focussed discussion on how to deal with the issues confronting youth development and the unemployment situation. This document provides a more detailed analysis and cryptic discussion.

The goal of the Western Cape Youth Development Strategy is to ensure that by the age of 25, the youth of the Western Cape will be inspired, educated, responsible, independent, healthy and productive citizens with positive personal, family and social relations.

The strategy which is currently being rolled out by the Western Cape Government is centered on five strategic pillars which will be used as guiding pillars to ensure cohesiveness throughout the implementation of the strategy and to ensure that the implementation can be measured against the deliverables of the particular strategy.

The Five pillars, according to the Western Cape Youth Development Strategy (2013) are as follows:

- Family Foundations;

- Education and Training;
- Economic Opportunity;
- Identity and belonging; and
- Reconnection Opportunities

Source: (Western Cape Youth Development Strategy 2013)

2.14 Youth Enterprise Development Strategy 2013-2023

The Department of Trade and Industry designed this policy instrument in order to respond to the call made by the New Growth Path (NGP) which requires the state to provide bold, imaginative and effective strategies to create millions of new jobs that would also address youth unemployment and limited participation of young people in the economy. This intervention by the National Department of Trade and Industry confirms a complex phenomenon called youth development and the need for responsive policies and strategies to address these.

Through this devised strategy instrument, it is the intention of Government to foster youth economic participation by deliberately enhancing youth entrepreneurship, accelerating the growth of youth-owned and managed enterprises capable of contributing to the gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate and increasing youth self-employment and innovation.

The policy instrument according to the Western Cape Youth Development Strategy (2013), seeks to provide supporting schemes for young entrepreneurs with an objective of creating and managing sustainable and efficient businesses capable of providing decent permanent jobs and employment growth. The initiatives include mentorship and coaching; youth business incubation; business infrastructure support; linkages to procurement opportunities; youth entrepreneurship awards; youth entrepreneurship promotion and awareness; youth special projects and sector-specific enterprise creation; national youth service programme; and the youth entrepreneurship collateral fund (Western Cape Youth Development Strategy, 2013).

2.15 The Youth Development Framework – Consultation Document 2009

The purpose of the Youth Development Framework – Consultation Document of 2009 is to achieve development and empowerment of young people in the Public Service: To Consider the efforts of the youth of South Africa that is truly free and caring for all the citizens of the country and to ensure a better life for all.

It is clear from the consultative document that interventions by Government and more particularly, actors involved in Public Policy, should prioritize the development of the youth as the youth indeed forms a large portion of South Africa's population and the participation of the youth in the productive sectors of society will certainly enhance the project of attaining a free, caring South Africa in which every citizen enjoys a dignified quality of life.

The consultative document (2009) furthermore indicates that the purpose of its inception is to ensure an inclusive Public Service through enhancing the prioritization of increasing the participation of the youth in senior positions within the Public Service. The document is further inspired by the following premise "Nourish your youth, flourish your country" as well as that the confidence of the youth can only be built when the youth are provided with adequate opportunities and platforms to display the leaders within them (National Youth Policy, 2015).

2.16 Department of Social Development Youth Programme Concept Paper 2008

The purpose of the Youth Programme according to the Department of Social Development (2008) is to enable youth to take responsibility for leading positive lifestyles as well as to contribute to and actively participate in family and community activities.

This is important according to the Department of Social Development (2008) due to the current generation of youth that has inherited the legacy of the inequalities of the past, compounded by the fact that the youth represent the largest part of the South African population. The Department of Social Development acknowledges that the youth are currently beset with challenges such as crime, drugs, unemployment, HIV/AIDS. Many of the youth, according to the Department of Social Development (2008) feel hopeless and

vulnerable. South Africa has shown that it appreciates its youth by putting in place effective structures and strategies to ensure that young people participate fully in national and community life. Although these structure and policies are in place young people are still not integrated in the mainstream of economic growth and development. The Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA) and Vukuzenzele recognises that young people should be at the centre of economic growth. This means that they have to be willing, have skills and be able to identify and take their place in the economic sphere (Sylvester-Rose, 2008).

2.17 National Youth Development Agency

The NYDA is tasked with initiating, designing, co-ordinating, evaluating and monitoring, and providing oversight to all programmes aimed at integrating youth; developing an Integrated Youth Development Plan and Strategy (IYDS); developing guidelines for the implementation of an integrated national youth development policy and making recommendations to the President; guiding efforts and facilitating economic participation and empowerment, and the achievement of education and training; partnering and assisting organs of state, private sector and non-governmental organisations on initiatives directed at employment and skills development; initiating programmes directed at poverty alleviation, urban and rural development and the combating of crime, substance abuse and social decay amongst youth; establishing annual national priority programmes in respect of youth development; and undertaking to promote the interests of youth, particularly young people with disabilities (Sylvester-Rose, 2008).

2.18 Youth Employment Accord

The Youth Employment Accord seeks to improve education and skilling of young people, helping them to find jobs or start their own businesses. As part of the accord, government commits itself to increasing the number of people employed in the public sector, while certain industries have set youth development targets. All parties (government, organised labour, organised business, and community and youth

formations) agree to implement a coordinated Youth Employment Strategy (YES) (Sulla & Zikhali, 2018).

2.19 Government Wide Monitoring and Evaluation System (GWM&E)

Given the acknowledgement, motivation, development and implementation of youth related projects and programmes, mere implementation of these youth led initiatives as well as other government related projects and programmes does not indicate whether these interventions have been successful, or whether they have made an impact, or whether implementation rules and procedures were followed and whether correct data analysis and reporting occurred. Therefore, the South African government identified the need for enhanced policy monitoring and evaluation given the increasing dissatisfaction with government's performance in providing expected quality services. In light of this, under the leadership of President Thabo Mbeki, the Government Wide Monitoring and Evaluation System (GWM&E) was sanctioned to generate early warning systems, verification systems, data analysis and informed decision making and reporting (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2011).

The following principles underpin the GWM&E system framework (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2011):

- Transparency to ensure that all findings of the monitoring and evaluation process should be made public unless in exceptional circumstances;
- Accountability to ensure the openness in which public resources are used thereby making public officials open to public scrutiny;
- Participation to ensure that the voices of historically underprivileged people are heard; and
- Inclusion to ensure that all groups, especially those from the previously disadvantaged are represented through the monitoring and evaluation processes.

2.20 Chapter Summary

The crux of this chapter provides the intellectual architecture in the form of macro and micro level legislative and policy interventions which sought to initiate structural reform of the economy and hone the skills of the youth with a view to integrating them into the mainstream economy.

What became clear in this chapter was the institutional arrangements ,policies and programmes which enabled South Africa to bring the youth back onto the development agenda ,which was supplemented with the appropriate legislation that guided the monitoring and evaluation of such legislation under the umbrella of the SAC. This clearly showed and underscored the importance of youth development and this chapter brought this to the fore in terms of the focussed discussion that took place.

CHAPTER 3

CAPE FLATS CONTEXT SETTING AND KEY CONCEPTS

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter outlined the legislative framework and policies which provide for a cluster of policy options that have been proposed and implemented by governmental actors in the field of public policy with specific reference to addressing the phenomenon surrounding youth development through local economic development and entrepreneurial skills development. The need for responsive policy implementation with specific reference to addressing the scourge of youth unemployment is emphasized by the National Youth Development Policy Framework (2002-2007) stating that prior to the democratization of South African society in the 1990s, youth development occurred within a context of political, social, economic and cultural oppression. This situation contributed directly to many of the current dilemmas young people face. The Apartheid government did not address the developmental needs of young men and women in township communities in particular. The particular needs, challenges or opportunities faced by young people were either ignored, or not considered important enough to warrant more focused policy or programmatic interventions (National Youth Development Policy Framework 2002-2007).

The National Government of South Africa certainly identifies with the need for a more focused and programmatic interventions and this is highlighted by the establishment of the National Youth Commission (NYC) in 1996 through the enactment of the National Youth Commission Act (No. 19 of 1996) which represents a major commitment by Government to treat the needs of this sector in a serious and comprehensive manner.

3.2 A Context of Youth Development in South Africa

Youth unemployment is a petrifying reality on a large scale in South Africa and exacerbated by economic limitations, which warrants responsive youth development strategies. It is important to develop the youth so that they are able to sustain a life which enhances their human dignity and also contribute towards the social welfare of mankind. Empirical evidence suggests that entrepreneurship plays specific, but important roles in local economic development (Cassim et.al, 2014). ACS (2006) notes that entrepreneurs help keep the levels of unemployment and poverty low; simply because they create new businesses, and new businesses in-turn create jobs. High levels of entrepreneurship will thus translate into higher levels of economic development and growth in the macro economy.

The Cape Flats suburb in the Western Cape is prone to gang violence and other forms of social ills which warrant targeted policies to address youth development. Economic opportunities are scarce in townships with high levels of unemployed and hopelessness. The pursuance of dreams and goal setting has been shown to be a vital aspect of development in entrepreneurial skills programs. Entrepreneurship is often cited as a crucial tool that facilitates the transformation of a country's economy from a developing one to a developed one. It achieves this by facilitating the structural transformation of environments from low-income into high-income technology based societies (Li, 2013).

Thus, through the application of existing technologies in innovative ways or launching new technology, entrepreneurs not only increase competition in the market, but also create positive market externalities. Wasdani & Mathew (2014) identify economic benefits of entrepreneurship in four main categories, namely:

- Employment generation;
- Innovation;
- Productivity and growth; and
- Increasing individuals' utility levels.

Expanding on the important role of entrepreneurs as innovators, Berglund (2005) states that entrepreneurs disrupt prevailing equilibria (a process of creative destruction) in economic markets through innovation, thereby changing various economic benchmarks and enabling growth within the economy (Cassim et al., 2014).

According to Solesvik (2012) a lack of development is simply the “fault” of the country concerned for failing to initiate measures aimed at dislocating “traditional” cultures and at fostering the entrepreneurial spirit. Given the policy demands confronting policy makers in the youth development phenomenon, my study is exploring the option of employing a normative stage conceptual model of entrepreneurial development which can be examined in order to formulate responsive youth development and economic strategies.

According to Smith & Morse (2005) society is a dynamic entity consisting of living organisms with needs, demands and preferences that continually change, develop and grow over time. The needs, demands and preferences referred to above in the context of this research is the need for youth development and local economic development strategies to become more accelerated and responsive to challenges currently confronting the youth. The Cape Flats is a known environment where economic limitations are prevalent. According to Rankin & Roberts (2011) the availability of resources for solving policy problems, impacts the reasons for policy change. From this assertion one can deduce that access to a resource base becomes an intrinsic dynamic to policy change.

It is known to the researcher that current youth development strategies are put in place, but public policy is an ongoing process and adaption for improvement should be considered. According to Rankin & Chatterjee (2016) policy analysts must be able to identify conflicting values that affect a policy option and develop creative alternatives as well as specify the uncertainty that exists about the possible future consequences of various policy actions. From this assertion it is deducible that public policy change requires analytical expertise and therefore the researcher identified the need to examine the status of youth development so that the social perspectives of the youth are taken

into account when designing a normative stage conceptual model of entrepreneurial development for youth development and local economic development strategies. There should always exist the desire to improve public policy and this aspiration underpinned the researcher's desire to contribute towards addressing the policy challenges confronting the youth development phenomenon.

Context analysis is important because policy reform does not take place in a particular context. Understanding the context better implies investigating the evolving mix of political, economic and social variables that influence policy (Fedderke, & Mariotti, 2002). The socio-political context of South Africa, with particular reference to the policies of the Afrikaner Nationalists, left an indelible mark on the philosophy of South African public policy and triggered a change in the direction of policy. The segregation policies promulgated by the Apartheid government rendered a grave injustice to the majority of South Africans and the relics of those vile policies are still overt in post democratic South Africa.

However, South Africa's Constitution is premised on the precursor of resilience, following the transition of power and therefore the South African government is expected to be relentless in the pursuit of social transformation and the attainment of an inclusive society, united in its diversity. The reason for this is that when the advent of democracy dawned in 1994, along with it commenced the obligation of the democratically elected government, to redress the previously disadvantaged racial groups. Redressing is a central tenet of the South African Government and therefore role players of public policy are required to formulate policies which imbue social and economic transformation, in line with the policy agenda of government. Rogerson (2007) indicates that the policy of Apartheid impacted negatively on the non-white majority. The exclusion of the non-white community from development resulted in an array of negative effects on the development of the non-whites, which still impacts the current generation.

The legacy of Apartheid furthermore ushered in a paradigm shift in public policy as the formulation of policies is underpinned by integration as opposed to segregation. In the opening remarks of this research project, the researcher remarked that democracy

dawned in South Africa during the year 1994, which indicates how young South Africa's Constitutional Democracy really is (Andersson, & Wadensjo, 2007). The fact that democracy is still very young in South Africa, prompted me to contribute towards the further development of South Africa, by means of a nominal contribution to the debate surrounding youth development in the Cape Flats.

Andersson & Wadensjo (2007) asserts that an understanding of young people's views would facilitate development and the implementation of policies and practices that engages the youth more effectively. The aforementioned perspective directed the focus of this study to develop a normative stage conceptual model of entrepreneurial development. The findings of this research and the conclusions drawn cannot be extended to other township communities.

Civil society is a sphere of social interaction between the household and the state which is manifested in the form of community cooperative, structures of voluntary association and networks of public communication (Africa Institute of South Africa, 2010). It is therefore important to listen to the needs, demands and preferences of civil society as the voices of civil society constitutes a channeling of communication between society and government, and more particularly, policy makers. In contemporary South Africa there exists an ubiquitous demand for radical socio-economic transformation, which can be construed as a rejection of the status quo by the public and a desire for beneficial change in the social order and an acute proliferation of policies which aim to create an enabling environment for South Africans to thrive.

The South African government has identified the key challenges confronting South Africa and dubbed it the tripple challenge of poverty, unemployment and inequality. These three global scourges are not unique to South Africa but are issues which need to be appropriately addressed in order to create an enabling and conducive environment for South Africans to thrive and more particularly for the youth of South Africa to integrate back into society. The researcher identified the need to contextualize the status of these

socio-economic factors in order to comprehend the urgency for responsiveness to the challenges confronting the youth development phenomenon.

3.3 Key Concepts for Development of Youth Development Model

3.3.1 Public Policy

The proposed research was fueled by my observations of a policy problem. It is therefore fundamentally important to comprehend the definition of public policy. According to Giliomore & Schlemmer (1989) public policies are those policies developed by government actors, although non-government actors may influence policy formation and developments. This definition contains striking parallels to that of Friedrich (1963) where he suggests that public policy is a proposed course of action of a person, group or government within a given environment providing obstacles and opportunities which the policy was proposed to utilize and overcome. According to Weimer & Vining (1992) public policy are those policies developed by governmental bodies and officials. Defining public policy is therefore paramount in order to compile a credible research report based on the identified public policy demand.

3.3.2 Policy Demand

A policy demand according to Fox, Schwella, & Wissink (1991) are those needs, claims and aspiration made public by citizens or groups, and articulated by officials or other actors in their private or official capacity, for the attention of government. This definition is crucial in relation to the warranting of the proposed research, due to the researcher's belief that there are great demands for responsive public policy, particularly relating to youth unemployment. It is important to establish the demands of public policy, as it results in subsequent policy decision making. Policy decision making according to

Wissink (1990) involved action by some official person or body to approve, modify, or request a preferred policy alternative. It is therefore deductible that between identifying policy demands and policy decision making, some proposals will be rejected, approved or adapted. It is important to identify the policy demand within the earmarked research area, before the policy making process can be incepted.

3.3.3 Policy Environment

Due to the nature of public policy dynamics, one has to take due cognizance of the fact that policy environments have a direct impact on the policy demands which are extracted from a particular geographical location. Public policy dynamics emphasize the fact that the needs, demands and preferences of public policy, changes due to the dynamic nature of society. The policy environment according to Wissink (1990) is very dynamic, with changes taking place every day. The forces in the social, political, cultural and technological environments put pressure on policy makers to effect change. Based on this definition of a policy environment, the researcher takes due cognizance of changing environments within society, which present changes in policy needs, demands and preferences. The environment of the Cape Flats was identified as the policy environment in which the proposed research will be undertaken.

3.3.4 Policy Models

My study proposed to design a normative stage conceptual model of entrepreneurial development which can be used in order to develop responsive youth development and local economic development strategies. It is therefore important to gain insight into what exactly a policy model is. According to Fox et al. (1991) policy models are simplified representations of selected aspects that policy models may be expressed as concepts, diagrams, graphs, or mathematical equations and may be used not only to describe, explain, and predict elements of a problem situation but also to improve it by recommending causes of action to resolve particular problems. According to Giliomere &

Schlemmer (1989) a model is composed of a number of assumptions from which conclusions-or predictions-are deduced.

3.3.5 A Normative Stage Conceptual Model of Entrepreneurial Development

What is clear from previous research is that there is a diversity of philosophies guiding the development of policies and indeed a variety of policy instruments selected for youth development, particularly in less affluent environments.

This approach identifies five variables that form the normative stage conceptual model of entrepreneurial development. These include the following:

- Youth development;
- Limited economic opportunities;
- Entrepreneurial skills;
- Pursuance of dreams/goal setting; and
- Role models

3.3.5.1 Youth Development

Through examining the wide range of definitions of youth, the subjectivity of the term “youth” is clear. The term “Youth” or “Young” people have different meanings depending on the context. One meaning is based on a sociological definition of youth as a life stage comprising of a series of “transitions from adolescence to adulthood, from dependence to independence, and from being recipients of society’s services to becoming contributors to national, economic, political and cultural life,” (Deconing, 1995).

For the purposes of statistical comparisons, however, international organizations such as the United Nations define youth as those aged between 15 and 24 years. According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural organization (UNESCO) youth is a “period of transition from the dependence of childhood to the independence of adulthood”, (United Nations, 2016). It regards the youth as a flexible concept as opposed to an age category which is fixed according to age. The African Union and the African

Youth Charter in particular defines youth as individuals aged between 15 to 35 years. The South African government defines the youth as individuals between the ages of 14 and 35. The national statistical service in South Africa in the form of Stats SA makes a further distinction of youth, separating the wide range of youth age classification between younger (14-24) and older (25-35) youth (Stats SA, 2016b).

The wide range between the broad age classifications of youth according to (Simrie et al., 2012) acknowledges that the education and development of youth people have been negatively impacted by conflict experienced particularly during the last years of the apartheid government. The wide differential in the broad age classification of youth is however not without controversy in that Simrie et al. (2012) posits the view that the wide age differential has been problematic in enabling government departments to meet the broad needs of youth and has resulted in overlaps and gaps in service delivery. Deconing (1995) argue that the concept of youth is relevant only in widest sense.

The authors hold the view that the age category of 13-25 is generally regarded as youth for institutional and policy reasons. There is therefore a tension between the notion of youth as a specific age category and the divisions emanating from race, class and gender (Simrie et al., 2012). The commonality of age is one that is largely influenced by “cultural, economic and social processes” (Simrie et al., 2012). The authors further postulate that while each individual's life can be measured objectively the notions of youth and childhood will show contrasting meanings with social, cultural and political conditions being the dependent variable (Simrie et al., 2012). Any research on youth and youth policy therefore has to take cognizance of this inherent tension between the universal processes such as age and particular contextual circumstances.

Youth development is a process that prepares a young person to meet the challenges of adolescence and adulthood and achieve his or her full potential. Youth development is promoted through activities and experiences that help youth develop social, ethical, emotional, physical and cognitive competencies. According to Dunn (1994) development is a process and not a goal and youth development is “the ongoing growth process in

which youth are engaged in attempting to do achieve the following: Meet their basic personal and social needs to be safe, feel cared for, be valued, be useful, and be spiritually grounded; and build skills and competencies that allow them to function and contribute in their daily lives,” (Dunn, 1994).

Van Aardt (2012) holds the view that it is only a broad definition of youth development that can realistically assist in arriving at consensus in defining youth development as a wide range of barriers such as political expediency, limits consensus. The notion of adopting a broad definition of youth development is prominently used as many people and organisations can lay claim to their practicing youth development (Van Aardt, 2012). Youth Development includes a “philosophical stance, goals, processes and outcomes” and is a “process not an event”, which can take place in any setting (Van Aardt, 2012).

Despite youth development being for all youth no matter what their particular circumstances, much of the literature tends to focus on youth regarded as “at risk” (Van Aardt, 2012; Delgado, 2002; Lerner, 2002). Delgado (2002) following the perusal of various literature surrounding youth development, outlines seven themes which describe youth development. The themes are documented below:

- A belief in the self-worth of youth, irrespective of their cognitive, emotional, social, spiritual and physical competencies;
- The importance of cultural heritage;
- The importance of youth exercising control over their lives;
- A holistic view of cognitive, emotional, physical, moral, social and spiritual needs and strengths;
- A belief that youth possess innate abilities;
- An entire community is required to execute youth development and it cannot be the domain of a single organization; and
- Youth Development requires a long-term commitment

Weybright, Caldwell, Xie, Wegner, & Smith (2016) in reviewing research completed by the Harvard family Research Project (HFRP), which is a database detailing best practices from out of school contexts (OSC), lists some of the critical factors for successful outcomes of youth development programmes:

- Youth need access to programmes in a sustained way;
- Programmes need to offer appropriate supervision and structure;
- Programmes require well-prepared staff; and
- There should be intentional programmes and strong partnerships with families, schools and communities.

Youth development in middle or upper middle-class families may share many similarities with youth development in poorer and working-class areas, but youth development in working-class areas must endeavor to “empower youth, their families and communities an address social and economic justice issues” (Weybright et al., 2016).

The National Youth Policy of South Africa 2020 defines youth development as: an intentional, comprehensive approach that provides space, opportunities and support for young people to maximize their individual and collective creative energies for personal development as well as development of the broader society of which they are an integral part. In the context of South Africa and most other developing countries, development has taken a new shape to incorporate sustainable livelihoods. It is therefore argued that personal development and national development should incorporate aspects of sustainable livelihoods and the necessary interventions to facilitate sustainability.

3.3.5.1.1 Identity and Youth Development

In reviewing some of the writing on youth, it is evident that the issue of youth identity is central to the development of young people (White, Labouvie, & Papadaratsakis, 2005; Weybright, Caldwell, Ram, Smith, & Jacobs, 2014; Soudien, 2007; Delgado, 2002). A worldview maintained by Erikson (1968) in his seminal work, *Identity, youth and crisis*, still exists among many today that a large number of young people experience some form

of identity crisis as they transition from adolescence into young adulthood (Pinnock, 2016). The same view is held by Delgado (2002) who assert that adolescence is a complex period for both the youth and those whom they affect. Identity however is not something fixed and unchangeable; it is always evolving (Erikson, 1968). Youth are not fixed “entities” but are always navigating their way within families and communities (Weybright et al., 2014). The development of personality can be viewed as a series of eight phases characterized by specific conflicts which give rise to subsequent phases, with each conflict unfolding into an “increased sense of unity” (Erikson, 1968).

The transition from adolescence to youth is predominantly characterized by a focus on identity and identity confusion. As youth transition from adolescence into young adulthood, they are compelled to deal with “genital maturation” and the uncertainty of their roles (Erikson, 1968). Youth are very concerned at this stage with how others view them, as opposed to how they feel, and they need a moratorium to navigate the transition (Erikson, 1968). Society generally allows a certain moratorium for many of its youth, these include but not limited to internships, apprenticeships, gap years however for the poor and working class, adequate opportunity to access these moratorium periods in the aforementioned formats, cease to exist. Soudien (2007) makes the argument that a significant portion of youth are often driven into adulthood too early given the challenges they encounter which include socio economic dynamics and therefore it is crucial to understand youth identity at a social and psychological level.

Soudien’s (2007) views correlate with those of Sealey-Ruiz & Greene (2011) who maintain that many black youth globally find adolescence to be a period when their voices are often silenced by educational institutions and society in general, despite the fact that it is during this period that they are striving to achieve a sense of self. Sealey-Ruiz & Greene (2011) maintain that instead of schools seeking to silence youth voices, they ought to celebrate their “cultural lives and personal identities”. They support Erikson’s notion of identity developing in phases. Although their research involves largely African American youth, their notion of the ‘encounter stage’ in identity formation has relevance for youth in South Africa, which is a stage when youth start to confront who they are in

the context of the broader society. In fact, they maintain that how the media depict youth is simply not how they view themselves (Sealey-Ruiz & Greene, 2011).

Talbert & McLaughlin (1993) also argues that youth construct their identities “within embedded, diverse and complex environments” which include families, peer groups, schools, churches and youth organisations. Youth gain support and develop hope from institutions that are familiar with their lived realities. Organisations that enable youth to develop a “positive sense of self” and hope in the future are embedded in local realities and have adults capable of providing “positive bridges to mainstream society” (Talbert & McLaughlin, 1993). Young people’s “sense of self” arises from the various identities that they take on depending on the context, such as schools, families and peer groups. Often when young people live in very violent communities, they learn not to trust anyone and to have very low expectations of the future.

3.3.5.1.2 Approaches to Youth Development

Any youth development programme has an underlying philosophy and set of assumptions about the youth. An underlying philosophy can be thought of as a framework and principles guiding the implementation of a programme. The youth can be seen as ‘co-creators’ or problems to be ‘managed’ or ‘fixed’. Small & Memmo (2004) characterise the dominant approaches to youth development through prevention, resiliency and positive youth development. They point out that all of these approaches contribute towards our understanding of human development and how to cope and adapt to circumstances, and they share critical features and a vision to improve the lives of young people.

However, they believe that the approaches differ with regard to the emphasis they place on issues of risk, protection, assets and outcomes (Small & Memmo, 2004). In order to understand their characterisation of the different approaches, they distinguish between ‘risk’ and ‘protective’ factors. The notion of a risk factor comes from studies in epidemiology where the aim was to identify statistical correlations between illness and different population groups. Risk factors are markers that if present, indicate certain things may occur, and can be individual or environmental. Protective factors, on the other hand,

if present, increase the chance of an individual's achieving a particular outcome. A protective factor operates when a risk factor is present. They also refer to developmental assets that are described as building blocks important in building competence among youth and believe that it is the presence of risks (and not a deficiency in assets) that leads to problems in behaviour among youth (Small & Memmo, 2004).

3.3.5.1.3 Prevention Approach

The underlying foundation of prevention approaches is that it is more “cost-effective and efficient” to prevent problems from occurring (Small & Memmo, 2004). From a programmatic viewpoint, the two strategies that fall under the prevention approach are “to reduce or eliminate risk” and to increase or promote protective factors, as when risks start to accumulate, the possibility of a difficult outcome is high. One limitation of this approach is that it has a tendency to be ‘deficit oriented’ and tends to focus on what is wrong and not on what is right. Furthermore, the approach gives insufficient attention to promoting norms in youth development, as it is more aimed at preventing particular problems (Small & Memmo, 2004).

Schonert-Reichl (2000) argues that the concept of “youth at risk” has been overused and has developed into a general concept that describes youth on a path towards a range of problems that places their current and future ‘adjustment’ at risk. These problems could range from learning challenges, poverty, interpersonal relationships, health problems, and family problems: the list is endless. She cautions that a concept that is too easily and too often used loses its meaning. Despite the popularity of the concept, there is not a uniform understanding of what the concept entails and a universally agreed upon definition of ‘at risk’ does not exist (Schonert-Reichl, 2000).

Sometimes the term refers to children with learning difficulties, youth who are at risk of dropping out of school, or to youth who are vulnerable in respect of developing emotional problems. However, despite the different ways in which it has been conceptualised and subsequently operationalised, there are some common themes (Schonert-Reichl, 2000).

Drawing on the work of other researchers, the author highlights the following commonalities:

- Risk status should be viewed on a continuum;
- Risk factors are multidimensional and interactive, which means that risk is not a fixed quality; it differs across contexts;
- The “at risk” label assumes prediction;
- Risk is multiplicative, which means that exposure to risks could increase the likelihood of problem outcomes;
- The nature and timing of risk factors may affect outcomes if they appear at particular stages of a child or adolescent’s development; and
- Risk probability is higher during periods of transition.

It is critical to remember that risk is only one factor in the broader domain of ‘adaptation’ and ‘competence’ and it is important to clarify concepts so that the best intervention strategies based on ‘sound’ conceptualisation and ‘sound’ research can be designed (Schonert-Reichl, 2000). If there are ambiguities and inconsistencies in the way the concept is applied, it can inhibit the design of successful intervention strategies (Schonert-Reichl, 2000). Research and policy should move from a ‘risk’ to a resiliency framework, which means that the focus shifts to facilitating ‘positive adjustment’ among youth, as opposed to simply limiting risk.

3.3.5.1.4 Resilience Approach

Resiliency approaches can be regarded as approaches aimed at enabling young people to cope with their challenging circumstances. Small & Memmo (2004) maintain that the main objective of research on resilience is to identify and understand those elements that distinguish individuals who show good adaptation when they face certain stressful or adverse conditions. Two conditions have to exist in order for resilience to be demonstrated: stress or multiple stressors and the ability of adaptation. This approach has resulted in programmes aimed at building resilience among disadvantaged youth. However, there is still a lack of consistency in its definition. They argue that it is sometimes

defined so broadly that it loses its “conceptual coherence as a unique construct”.

Resilience can result from at least four distinct processes:

- From the successful operation of protective processes;
- As a result of certain exceptional personal characteristics, for example, intelligence or sociability;
- By successfully recovering from a stressful situation or crisis event; and
- Through the process of “steering” when an individual overcomes difficulties (Small & Memmo, 2006).

3.3.5.1.5 Positive Youth Development approach

Small & Memmo (2004) point out that positive youth development (PYD) is a fairly new approach common among youth-serving agencies that provide after-school and non-formal education programmes and with community-wide initiatives that seek to build youth development and youth involvement in the community. PYD emphasises the promotion of positive development and the conditions that contribute to youth health and wellbeing. Drawing on the work of many scholars, Small & Memmo (2004) indicate that the PYD approach is based on the following assumptions:

- To assist youth to achieve their full potential is the best way to ensure that they do not experience problems;
- Youth need to have many forms of support and opportunities to be successful;
- Communities need to mobilise and build the capacity to support PYD; and
- Youth should not be viewed as problems to be fixed, but as partners to be engaged and developed.

They maintain that PYD appeals to all youth, as it is an approach that promotes ‘assets’. It is therefore ‘politically safer’ to focus on what is right with youth than what is wrong. Furthermore, PYD provides a common language and a framework to enable us to think about youth development. However, a possible shortcoming of the PYD approach is that it could overlook risks that youth may face that could impact negatively on their health

and development if not properly addressed (Small & Memmo, 2004).

Mungai & Velamuri (2011) who largely works with young people who have committed violent crimes, is consistent in his argument over the last few decades that programmes and policies should provide spiritual, psychological and social anchors as a means to prevent them from getting 'lost' and to 'reclaim' them once they have committed crimes. These include attachment to at least one adult relationship (social); strategies to build resilience (psychological); and a sense of purpose and meaning (spiritual anchor).

3.3.5.2 Limited Economic Opportunities

For more than two decades, South Africa has sought to address poverty and inequality with a wide range of initiatives, including the use of fiscal policy to support redistributive measures. The *social wage* – which refers to the government's investment in skills transformation, health services, social development including social assistance to vulnerable households and individuals as well as contributory social security, public transport, housing, and local amenities as a redistributive measure – has played a notable role in the government's efforts to reduce poverty and inequality.

These efforts can be traced back to the 1993 Reconstruction and Development Program, the first prescription of the post-apartheid era, which identified the reduction of poverty as a central goal (Government Gazette, 1994). Other policies have continued that effort and the most recently the National Development Plan 2030 seeks to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality and identifies the triple challenge of high poverty, inequality, and unemployment as a major challenge for the country. The persistence of these challenges, more than two decades after the end of apartheid, calls for a comprehensive assessment of the extent and causes of poverty and inequality, with attention to trends, drivers, dynamics, policy, impact, and monitoring.

3.3.5.2.1 Community Development

In order to comprehend the term community development, one must realize that it encapsulates an extensive historical context and that no consensual definition exists. A community according to Swanepoel & De Beer (2011) suggests that a community is a unique, living entity and, like its people, undergoes continuous physical and psychological change. It also interacts with its own individuals, its environment and other communities. The development of a community defined as above, is paramount in dealing with changes within the community. Swanepoel & De Beer (2011) further indicates that community development must involve a process in which the capacity of people is built so that they can take responsibilities for their own development through which their human dignity is enhanced. In essence one can suggest that developing the community is a major leap forward towards the sustainability of people within a community.

High unemployment remains the key challenge for South Africa and the country struggles to generate sufficient jobs. The labor market is characterized by several challenges. These include, among others, first, high level of unemployment which reached 25.1 percent of the workforce in 2015 and 27.7 percent in the third quarter of 2017 associated with slow job creation as economic growth slowed in recent years (Stats SA, 2017). Second, racial and gender disparities are still predominant in South Africa's labor market, an enduring legacy of apartheid. Race still affects the ability to find a job, as well as the wages received once employed. Although an increased number of women participate in South Africa's economy, female participants find it harder to find a job, and earn less than men when they do. Third, there is strong evidence of structural mismatch between labor demand and labor supply for unskilled workers.

Despite extremely high and rising unemployment, skilled labor can be difficult to find in most skilled and professional segments largely due to the poor state of the public education system. Yet education has a strong influence on the probability of labor market participation. Fourth, location matters for labor market outcomes, with people in urban

areas having better prospects of getting a job and a higher probability of getting a formal job, but there are no significant differences across provinces.

Location has implications on the travel costs which tend to be a burden for getting jobs. The unemployed, and especially the youth, tend to lack resources and mobility for a job search or ability to relocate as jobs could be located far. In some cases, underdeveloped transport, high cost of commuting and crime makes job search more difficult and raise associated expenses and reservation wages. Fifth, labor market institutions and a rigid regulatory environment are shown to contribute to high levels of unemployment and wage disparities.

Sixth, Small Micro and Medium Enterprises (SMMEs) have been struggling to advance inclusive growth and development as envisaged in the country's NDP: the share of SMMEs has been falling over time as well as the proportion of employees working in this sector. All these challenges slow the ability of labor markets to accelerate poverty and inequality reduction. Overcoming these challenges is critical given that unemployment has an adverse impact on poverty and inequality. Unemployment rates tend to be higher among the poor. Similarly, labor force participation is lower in poor than non-poor households.

3.3.5.2.2 Social Exclusion

An individual is socially excluded if he or she is geographically resident in a society but for reasons beyond his or her control he or she cannot participate in the normal activities of citizens in that society and he or she would like to so participate. From this deduction it is deducible that the inclusion of the youth, specifically within the productive sectors of society, will contribute towards addressing the development of the youth within a particular geographical area.

3.3.5.2.2 Unemployment

Youth unemployment in South Africa is an oft discussed issue that may seem insoluble. Despite much policy attention and a range of public and private interventions having been implemented, youth unemployment rates have remained high since the transition to democracy. The situation is now considered chronic. In fact, comparisons between youth unemployment rates in the second quarter of 2008 and the second quarter of 2016 indicate that the problem has worsened over the past eight years (Graham & De Lannoy, 2016).

This trajectory is however not abnormal in the context of South Africa's unemployment rate. According to Banerjee (2000) "A nationally representative survey conducted just before the transition, indicated that unemployment stood at 13 percent. Another national representative survey in 1995 found unemployment to be around 15 percent: By the end of the decade, unemployment had jumped to 30 percent before declining slightly. The analysis made by Banerjee (2000) suggests that unemployment has been at unfavourable heights following the transition to democracy, with the current government expected to implement remedial action in this regard in order to relieve the government from the piling pressure of public demands.

The status of youth unemployment places enormous strain on the government as it is fundamentally important to have access to a resource base in order to address the challenges confronting the youth development phenomenon, with specific reference to youth unemployment. The youth unemployment rate has reached its ceiling; therefore it is imperative for the government to empower young people with necessary skills rather than developing dependency on social grants and food parcels.

The youth represent a particularly vulnerable group in South Africa, with one of the highest unemployment rates among OECD and G20 countries, and nearly 1 in 3 young people (aged 15-29) who are NEET (OECD Employment Outlook, 2016). The youth is therefore faced with enormous challenges in terms of development in an economic sense, and with

the youth comprising a large constituency of a country's population, it is important to integrate this vulnerable group into the economy as the building of their human capital could prove to be an invaluable resource that will contribute towards stabilising and subsequently stimulating the economy of South Africa. The economic growth of South Africa has been stunted by the unemployment rate in South Africa and this viewpoint is reinforced by Turton & Herrington (2012) suggesting that three reasons for unemployment rates in SA are; jobless growth which affects negatively the economic growth, the rate of growth of youth in the country, and the mismatch between supply and demand of labour markets. It is furthermore deducible from the viewpoint above, that when the population of the youth in South Africa increases, so will the unemployment rates in the country, indicating a direct relationship between increased youth population and increasing unemployment rates.

Those in the forefront of national and youth policy development have been unable to exert effective influence over relevant public policy; consequently the various ways in which young people respond to coercive policies, ineffective institutional practices, and bleak economic conditions in their communities has generally gone unnoticed (Turton & Herrington, 2012). It is therefore clear that while interventions have been taken to tackle the issue of youth development, the interventions have been unable to yield the desired outcome, which reinforced the researchers desire to conduct this particular study.

The official unemployment rate in South Africa is 26.7 percent according to in the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (Stats SA, 2016). The survey identifies the South African citizens between the ages of 15 and 65, as the working age population. The employment and unemployment rates are very important indicators of the status of a particular country's labour. The high unemployment rate in South Africa indicates a sharp increase since the first quarter of 2015 where the official unemployment rate was 24.5 percent. This seemingly trivial increase from 24.5 percent in the first quarter of 2015 to 26.7 percent in the first quarter of 2016, constitutes an increase of approximately 355 000 persons that have become unemployed over that particular period, thus bringing the total

number of unemployed South Africans in the working class population, to approximately 5 714 000 (Stats SA, 2016).

The statistics released through the conduction of the QLFS indicates that while the majority of the working population is actively involved in the labour force, the amount of individuals whom are unemployed, signals an overt disparity between the employed and the unemployed, which needs to be addressed. According to Graham & De Lannoy (2016) a wide gap in income and wealth, power and status separates the elite from the mass of the population in most third world countries, and the middle class is frequently small. The aforementioned viewpoint asserts that a disparity in the economic status of the wealthy and that of the masses who are usually poor in third world countries, separates the elite from the masses. With the vision of South Africa's constitution underpinned by ideals which promote a prosperous, democratic, non-sexist, non-racist and equal society, it is imperative to take due cognizance of the socio-economic indicators which are necessary to devise policy and strategies which aim to address these issues, in order to effect social transformation in line with the Constitutionally espoused vision.

In order to sufficiently contextualize the status of unemployment in South Africa, in accordance with the purpose of this particular study, it is imperative to make reference to the status of youth unemployment in South Africa, in order to construct a holistic view. The QLFS (2016) indicates that the population of youth in South Africa between the ages of 15-24 in the first quarter of 2016 is approximately 10 305 000, this figure accounts for about 28.29 percent of the working age population in South Africa, which constitutes an amount of 36 431 000. This is a significant portion of South Africa's working age population, which can actively become part of the means of production in South Africa. However of the 10 305 000 youth between the ages of 15-24 it is reported that about 67.3 percent were unemployed in the first quarter of 2016 (QLFS, 2016).

The aforementioned percentage constitutes 6904350 of the 10305000 youth in this particular age bracket, in South Africa. This suggests that a substantial amount of the South African youth is unemployed and economic growth and development in line with

the South African governments vision of an inclusive society, cannot be achieved without addressing the socio-economic necessities of this segment of the South African population in particular. According to Graham & De Lannoy (2016) the 15 to 24 year old bracket of the South African working age population, is arguably the most vulnerable to chronic unemployment and poverty as well as to social exclusion. It is clear that youth unemployment is in a worrisome state in South Africa. The national context surrounding unemployment and youth unemployment in particular must however be narrowed down to the Western Cape province of South Africa as the study is focused on selected areas within the Cape Flats region within the western cape. The national context provides a quantitative view of the South African situation in respect of youth unemployment, but the researcher will filter down the status of youth unemployment to the Western Cape as well as the City of Cape Town Metropolitan area as this will create a more condensed view of the status of youth unemployment within the focus area.

In the Western Cape the official unemployment rate in the first quarter of 2016 stood at 20.9 percent (QLFS, 2016), this statistic is 5.8 percent below the national statistic of 26.7 percent during the same period. The Western Cape response rate during the conduction of the survey was 89.1 percent, which reinforces the reliability and validity of the data extracted. The Western Cape province of South Africa is home to 4336000 inhabitants which fall within the working age population. The working age population in terms of the National Youth Commission Act, 1996 comprises of South African citizens between the ages of 15 and 64 (QLFS, 2016).

During the first quarter of 2016 it was reported that 906224 of the 4336000 working age population, were unemployed, which constitutes the 20.9 percent unemployment rate indicated in the Western Cape. While these figures do indicate a lower rate juxtaposed with the country's rate, the crux of this study is focused on examining the realities confronting the vulnerable youth. According to the Western Cape Provincial Economic Review and Outlook (2016), 47.1 percent of the 15 to 24 year old population in the Western Cape is unemployed. This is significant higher than the 23.2 percent and 6.4

percent recorded for the 25-34 and 35-65 year old age brackets respectively (Stats SA, 2016).

From the aforementioned statistics it is evident that the 15-24 year old bracket in the Western Cape indicates the vulnerability of this age bracket, which is similar to the national paradigm in terms of the trajectory. According to the City of Cape Town Youth Development Policy (2013) approximately 50 percent of the youth who reside within the metropolitan area, between the ages of 15 and 24, are unemployed. The researcher has identified the intensity of how vulnerable the youth are to unemployment, particularly within the Cape Town metropolitan area and therefore the researcher regards the youth as not only a priority of policy makers, but an urgent policy problem which warrants relevant, appropriate and strategically aligned policies that can facilitate the transformation of the youth in a way that integrates them back into society. According to Graham & De Lannoy (2016) youth development is the foundation of human development. Youth development is therefore urgent as the dignity of the youth needs to be restored so that they can further develop into human beings who enjoy a good quality of life.

3.3.5.2.3 Poverty

The South African government regards poverty as one of the three major challenges confronting the country. This is clearly articulated in the National Development plan which was formulated by the National Planning Commission and released in 2012. Swanepoel & De Beer (2011) indicates that antipoverty policies must be monitored and evaluated regularly and on a much larger scale by governments, by the United Nations, by the international financial institutions and by other relevant agencies.

Swanepoel & De Beer (2011) defined poverty as a concept for which you cannot give a precise description, but which describes the situation of a family or whole community. Community poverty is not only manifested in a lack of water and sanitation. This could also be manifest in lack of education, a healthcare system and employment opportunities

for young people in surrounding areas. This viewpoint suggests that the poverty situation experienced by an individual or groups of individuals comprises of various situational factors which illuminate the experience of poverty.

Howell (2004) adopted a multidimensional definition of poverty which includes; lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihoods; Hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments; social discriminations and exclusion characterized by the lack of participation in decision-making and in civil, social, and cultural rights.

The link between unemployment and poverty described by Howell (2004) is a 'bi-directional causality' since unemployment causes poverty and poverty contributes to unemployment and its persistence. It is therefore deducible that employment has a direct bearing on the status of the poverty situation experienced by people. Basic needs such as food, water, sanitation and shelter can usually be satisfied when there is access to an income in the form of financial resources, which in turn will relax the intensity of poverty experienced. People can be said to be in poverty when they are deprived of income and other resources needed to obtain the conditions of life – the diets, material goods, amenities, standards and services that enable them to play the roles, meet the obligations and participate in the relationships and customs of their society (UNESCO, 2016). Poverty can therefore be comprehended as the experience by individuals, families and groups of a population who lack the necessary resources needed to obtain the types of diet, participate in the activities and have the living conditions and amenities which are regarded as customary, or widely encouraged or approved by the societies in which they live.

It is the viewpoint of the researcher that that the youth development challenges is linked to an array of socio-economic factors, including the escalating poverty rates in the country, which filters throughout the country and is clearly evident through observations of the urban and rural divide. Youth development in South Africa is marred by the current

state of poverty and it is therefore fundamentally important not to isolate the poverty situation in South Africa, when formulating youth development policies. The poverty situation in South Africa is furthermore prevalent due to a multifaceted problem driven by structural elements in respect of the labour market, access to learning opportunities as well as characteristics of communities, households and individual desire. Should these elements be sufficiently addressed, beneficial change can be expected in the lives of those experiencing poverty, with particular reference to the youth.

The Development Bank of South Africa (DBSA) estimates that over 22 million people in South Africa live in poverty (Howell, 2004). This is a revelation which should concern any government as poverty results in an increase in the pressure experienced by government to deliver on public demands. In the (2017) State of the Nation Address delivered on the 9th of February 2017, the President of South Africa made reference to poverty alleviation programmes which are particularly aimed at addressing the youth challenges and promote development and systematically integrating them into the productive sectors of the economy. The extended public works program is an initiative launched by the South African government, which has according to the State of the Nation Address (2017), created more than two million work opportunities, with the intention of increasing this number to six million by the end of March 2019 (Lateh et al., 2018).

While the creation of two million job opportunities for the youth is indeed a significant stride, it is but a pittance in comparison with the approximately 9 million employment opportunities needed in 2017. The State of the Nation Address further indicates that during the 2015-2016 financial year more than 61 000 work opportunities were created through environmental programs such as Working for Water, Working for Wetlands, Working on Fire and Working for Ecosystems, with more than 60 percent of the beneficiaries being young people. While it is clear that the government has measures in place to tackle this social evil, the statistics show slow progress in developmental, post-apartheid South Africa (Lateh et al., 2018).

According to Stats SA (2016) it is reported that the intensity of poverty in the Western Cape province of South Africa declined amongst households between 2011 and 2016 from 42.6 percent to 40.1 percent. The Western Cape Provincial Economic Review and Outlook (2017) indicates that food insecurity is a reliable indicator that is inextricably linked to poverty (Western Cape Provincial Treasury, 2017). The poverty situation experienced by a household is one of the fundamentally harrowing reasons which cultivates in a households inability to acquire food, which they depend on as nourishment. It is therefore the researchers view that exploring the levels of food insecurity within the Western Cape, would further illuminate the status of poverty experienced by the inhabitants. According to the General Household Survey (2016) the percentage of households which experience inadequate access to food increased by 5.7 percent between 2010 and 2015 (Western Cape Provincial Treasury, 2017).

With regards to the City of Cape Town Metropole, it is important to note that the total population of the inhabitants within the metropolitan area is approximately 4004793, according to the City of Cape Town socio-economic profile. There are approximately 1264849 households within this region with the percentage of households with no income, measured at 13.9 percent. This constitutes approximately 175 814 households within the metropolitan area which reported not to be receiving any income (2018d).

Poverty experienced by households is one of the main influencing factors of the multifaceted challenge confronting youth development. Not only is the poverty situation experienced by the households in particular, an abhorrent cycle that is likely to be perpetuated from generation to generation if they economic outlook remains bleak, but it is a symptom of a socio-economic abyss referred to as the deprivation trap. Poverty contributes to physical weakness through lack of food, small bodies, malnutrition leading to low immune response to infections, and an inability to reach or pay for health services; to isolation because of the inability to pay the costs of schooling, to buy a radio or bicycle, or to afford to travel to look for work, or to live near the village centre or a main road; to vulnerability through lack of assets to pay large expenses or to meet contingencies; and to powerlessness because lack of wealth goes with low status (Stats SA, 2017b).

From this viewpoint it can be perceived that poverty impacts those affected, greatly and is perhaps more complex to conceptualise due to its broad scope. In order to understand the major challenges to youth development, particularly within the confines of the research area, it is necessary to contextualize the poverty situation. According to Swanepoel & De Beer (2011) Understanding of the issues and its manifestations in a specific community can help in identifying a focus for a project. It is therefore crucial to understand the issues confronting the youth development phenomenon, in order to propose credible projects, programs and strategies to address them.

3.3.5.2.4 Crime

Crime is a global pandemic which in the context of national building, stunts the process of building a cohesive society. It is a criminal offence which is punishable by law, however it is fascinating why perpetrators would continue to perform acts of criminality, conscious of the fact that a transgression of any law is punitive. While the aforementioned may discourage many from contravening the rule of law, the prevalence of crime in South Africa is extremely high with a large constituent of offenders comprising of the youth. The high crime rate in South Africa is a worrisome issue which influences the development of the youth.

According to a study by Fedderke & Luiz (2008) increasing income reduces political instability and in turn reduces crime. Both concluded that there exists a positive correlation between income and crime. From this conclusive it is clear that in the absence of an income, an increase in the crime rate should be expected. This deduction is based on the vulnerability of the youth to engaging in criminal activities in order to access economic resources for example, theft, robbery, scamming etc. The researcher furthermore opted to conflate crime with the prevalence of gangsterism in South Africa, particularly on the Cape Flats, as gangsterism is a social problem which has a direct bearing on the status of crime in a particular region due to the propensity of criminal groupings (gangs) to act in defiance of the law.

According to the Community Survey (2010) 1276000 households indicated that they have experienced crime within the last twelve months prior to the conduction of the survey. He South African Police Services, does release annual reports which indicate the amounts of reported crime, however the researcher opted to rely on the household survey primarily because it creates an idea of the magnitude of crime in South Africa, which includes unreported crime. Crime experienced by households in the Western Cape, According to the Community Survey (2016) 9.7 percent of households equating to 188 000 households in the Western Cape (Sulla & Zikhali, 2018).

This figure is higher than the national figure of crime experienced by households, which stood at 7.5 percent in 2016. The Western Cape households experienced the highest number of crime across the country in 2016 and the researcher highlights this repugnant state of crime experienced in the Western Cape as an indispensable phenomenon to be examined in order to devise a responsive youth development strategy. The survey furthermore gives an exposition of the general perspectives of households in the light of crime, with only 34.1 percent of households in the Western Cape indicating that they felt safe when it becomes dark. This statistic could be ascribed to the fear of crime being more amplified due to the increase in the sense of danger and anxiety experienced by households (Sulla & Zikhali, 2018).

The Western Cape Department of Community Safety in a report titled: The Provincial Policing Needs and Priorities Report for the Western Cape (2016) indicated that between 2014 and 2015 fifty three percent of the crime reported, was property related crime. The report indicates that the Western Cape was ranked as the fourth worst affected province in light of murder reports. This is not an unfamiliar situation in the Western Cape, as the Western Cape has maintained this position for three consecutive years between 2012 and 2015 (Sulla & Zikhali, 2018).

3.3.5.2.5 Gangsterism on Cape Flats

Most of the communities on the Cape Flats still remain to this day, to one degree or another subject to social inequality, poverty, unemployment, gangsterism and related societal ills. During the late 1990s and early 2000s, there was significant armed conflict between various criminal syndicates and the vigilante group called PAGAD (People Against Gangsterism and Drugs). Post-apartheid development projects, such as the RDP, have also led to violent conflicts within communities. Since 2014 there has been great effort by Government, civil society organizations and structures in the criminal and justice cluster, to combat gangs which include Hanover Park's Ceasefire program, which utilizes the experience and skills of former gang member tasked to mediate conflict between rival gangs and rehabilitate active gang members (Sulla & Zikhali, 2018).

A wide range of civil society organizations work peacefully in an attempt to address the scourge of poverty, crime, unemployment and associated social conditions. Perhaps one of the most devastating and long-lasting of the social costs of forced removals on the communities that now form the Cape Flats is that of gangsterism, which is accounted for by several researchers as a legacy of the forced removals during the apartheid era (Dada, S., Harker Burnhams, N., Erasmus, J., Parry, C.D.H., Bhana, A., Kitshoff, D., & Weimann, R., 2017). One of the main reasons for the high prevalence of gangsterism on the Cape Flats, is the sheer misery of the environment into which families and communities were forcibly relocated from inner city areas during the apartheid era. Sources confirm the presence of gang members in areas along the Cape Flats, but it appears that these individuals and groups were regarded as street gangs which adopted a different modus operandi than the gangsters currently operating in and around the Cape Flats, and as part of the communities (Dada et al., 2017).

When delineating the scope of crime on the Cape Flats and the precursors of it, it has been noted that the Group Areas removals fragmented extended families and family networks and dissolved the social glue which existed before the removals. De Lannoy et al. (2018) stated that before the forced removals 'youth involvement in gangs were mainly organized and controlled by a strong degree of informal social control such as active consultation and concentrated relationships with neighbours which resulted in a strong

sense of collective identity, cooperation, purpose and pride'. These strong, concentrated and highly organized street gangs have now metamorphosed into sophisticated crime syndicates which are a consequence of large scale unemployment, poverty, overpopulation and the common need to access scarce economic opportunities that amplify the conundrum of crime, where violence is often responded to with violence.

This diabolical system is a highly complicated one, which continues to perpetuate patterns of poverty and inequality in areas such as the Cape Flats and although, as highlighted by De Lannoy et al. (2018) every social ill cannot be attributed to the Apartheid Government, it is just to elucidate that gangsterism found a fertile ground to increase in number, within the socio-economic context created and inherited by Apartheid and the legacy of Post-Apartheid, on the Cape Flats.

3.3.5.2.6 Source of Gang Affiliation and Youth Violence on the Cape Flats

De Lannoy et al. (2018) when navigating the root source of youth violence in South Africa, cites Galtung's differentiation between what he dubbed 'direct violence' and 'structural violence'. Direct violence involves the infliction of physical violence while the general characteristics for structural violence are inequality with regards to the distribution of power. De Lannoy et al. (2018) furthermore states that the occurrence of structural violence in the shape of poverty and inequality, assists analysts in attempting to explain the country's high levels of direct violence. Dada et al. (2017) indicated that poverty, unemployment and related socio-economic challenges, therefore, constitute a "surround" to youth violence.

The previously alluded to 'street gangs' of the pre-apartheid period have since evolved into sophisticated and violent criminal fellowships which have precipitated in membership following the advent of Democracy in 1994 and have configured mighty empires which exercise control over, regulate and preside over drug trading, extortion, money laundering, robbery and prostitution rings, amongst others (Dada et al., 2017). Dada et

al. (2018) furthermore indicates that the economics of poverty and power are at the centre of the development of organized criminal gangs on the Cape Flats as so called coloured communities continue to be subject of socio-economical vulnerability and lack of power in the new South Africa. De Lannoy (2018) pointed out that at the heart of powerlessness, whether it relates to social, economic or political, lies the constant struggle of the poor as they seek to access resources that will enable them to better their situation. This makes the poor both vulnerable to exploitation by the powerful and to feelings of anxiety and despair when they are not able to overcome their circumstances.

De Lannoy et al. (2018) draws special attention to the actuality that, as a result, gangs in the Western Cape have used the act of providing for members of communities as a means to lobby and gain control of communities. De Lannoy et al. (2018) also reinforced the statement which points out that one of the most devastating impacts of a low skilled population with a high rate of unemployment is that it results in the economic power being wielded by gangster operations in the area. This has dire unwanted social effects, as articulated by a social worker in the area:

The gang members tend to exploit the situation to the extent where they would offer people money to buy electricity, to pay rent and in favour they will just innocently ask the person 'Listen this is not everybody's business, but can you keep this parcel for me?' And that is the method gangs employ in order to solicit that kind of influence over communities. It's also related to making money easily, although in many instances, in contravention of laws, without much effort. You don't have to walk that far, you don't have to spend taxi fare and train fare and you can earn quite an amount.

The method generates the notion that if you're in need of economic resources, you can access it easily and generate a sizeable income and subsequently, attempting to normalize the selling of drugs and conducting criminal activities (Delgado, 2002). In such contexts, those who claim allegiance and/or affiliate themselves with gangs usually become powerful idols to particularly the youth, as they propagate the message that there is money and, therefore, social power vested in such activities. It is also noteworthy the mention that gangs exert two types of social power, namely coercive power (which refers

to the threat of violence and force) and the power to pay, buy, or impress and to delegate status and rank to its members (Graham, Patel, Chowa, Masa, Khan, Williams, & Mthembu, 2016).

Graham et al. (2016) stated unequivocally that the 'high levels of unemployment and poverty amongst township families have created the opportunity for gangs to exploit the vulnerable and unemployed'. Power is deeply relational and dependence on power-holders (such as gang leaders) reduces opportunities for the powerful to resist. Dada et al. (2018) stated that as a result of this form of relationship as 'power over', inhabitants of communities 'develop a sense of inferiority and reluctantly accepting things are they are without having the courage to reject the status quo'.

Gangs are also likely to target the youth whose vulnerability is enhanced by weak economic status (Lateh et al., 2018). Such arguments are supported by theories from the field of Criminology, such as the 'theory of cultural transmission'. The aforementioned theory postulates that in neighborhoods which are largely disorganized socially, specifically in impoverished inner-city areas, gangs provide a social support system and feeling belonging (Lateh et al., 2018). Lateh et al. (2018) furthermore posits that in addition to the families and other social institutions such as schools, church, sport academies and state all provide for a breeding ground in the formation of gangs.

Gangsterism is a complex phenomenon that cannot be explained by means of a single theory. In fact, Lerner (2002) debated in their literature review on gang theory that the phenomenon is indeed a combination of deteriorating social structure and bonds, low economic status, prevalence of unequal opportunities, and status frustration that may lead to gang membership. From a psychosocial perspective it can be debated that the youth are at vulnerable merely by virtue of being human and demonstrating the need for identity, status and companionship (Lerner, 2002).

It is complicated by the struggle of youth in poor inner-city areas to break out of the cycle of poverty and/or what is dubbed the deprivation trap. This cycle keeps them entrapped, which generates further feelings of defeat and rejection which culminates into low self-

esteem, which in turn makes them susceptible to searching for power and social recognition within a gang (Daniels & Adams, 2010). A recent journal article states that children as young as 13 are being recruited into gangs (Maphalala & Mabunda 2014).

Although the perspective of this section focuses largely on structural violence, direct violence cannot and must not be eliminated when considering the power and powerlessness within the context of gangsterism. Persuasive and sometimes forceful power is a reality within such contexts as many children and young people live in constant fear for their lives. This vulnerability and powerlessness is compounded by the fact that the police have often been accused of complicity with the gangs and many communities appear to have lost faith in them (Kinnes, 2000).

3.3.5.2.7 Identity and development of the Cape Flats

During and post Second World War the African population of the Cape Peninsula grew rapidly in number. Until at least the mid-1950s most black Africans were deprived of living in official 'locations' such as Langa but in privately-owned and rented high density flats and houses along the docks-Observatory axis, distributed through the predominantly white and Coloured residential areas of Cape Town as plot owners or tenants and, mainly, under conditions of extreme poverty, in unregulated settlements in the peri-urban areas around the borders of Cape Town. In the 1950s, however, Cape Town was identified as a test case for influx control and racial segregation. Government policy, implemented by local authorities coerced and forced them to involuntarily vacate their dwellings (Kinnes, 2000).

The Cape Flats region in the Western Cape Province of South Africa comprises the areas on the East of the Northern and Southern suburbs of Cape Town and is composed of Black Townships, so called Coloured ghettos and Shantytowns. This was the geographical area where most Black and coloured people were moved to after areas were declared 'White Only' through the implementation of the Group Areas Act.

The Cape Flats is also the area where a huge sum of Migrant labour was housed. Areas on the Cape Flats include: Athlone; Belhar; Bonteheuwel; Cape Flats Dune Strandveld; Cape Flats Sand Fynbos; Elsies River; Khayelitsha; Manenberg; Heideveld; Hanover Park; Mitchell's Plain; Lavender Hill; Vrygrond; Capricorn; Overcome Heights; Sea Winds; Retreat; Grassy Park; Lansdowne, Cape Town; Ottery, Cape Town; Lotus River; Parkwood; Strandfontein; Pelican Park and Eagle Park. Even with exotic sounding names like Bishop Lavis, Steenberg, Hanover Park, Bonteheuwel, Manenberg, Elsies River, Langa (sun), Nyanga (Moon), Gugulethu (our pride), Khayelitsha (our new home) and many others, living in the townships is not for the faint-hearted (Kinnes, 2000).

3.3.5.2.8 Townships on Cape Flats

Whilst the Nationalist Government continued to evoke Apartheid policies, major housing projects were earmarked and subsequently built on the identified land, primarily as part of the Nationalist Government's concerted effort to force the so-called coloured community out of the central and western areas of Cape Town, which the political theorists of the then Government had designated as areas reserved for whites only. The implications of these policy outputs meant that only white people could reside in the earmarked areas on a permanent basis; people of colour could seek employment and gain employment opportunities in the city, but were not allowed to live there. The Nationalists policies were mainly rooted in segregation as the minority racial group was regarded as the dominant race by the Government and the majority race, which comprised of the black, coloured and indian population, were subjugated by the powerful minority who spearheaded the Government at the time (Bowers Du Toit, 2010).

Townships are considered a uniquely South African phenomenon which were inspired by colonial town planning and is a prominent feature in many African cities, such as Nairobi, Lusaka, cities in the Democratic Republic of Congo and even in Zanzibar. Colonial planning and zoning was done in such a manner that it deliberately, spatially segregated three classes of citizens, which generally coincided with race groups: the white, colonial

elite, the colonized middle-class comprising of Indians and some Africans working in the colonial bureaucracy and the urban majority of Africans who were employed by the elite.

For the African working class citizens the townships were developed a distance away from the colonial towns and city centers, which is essentially where employment opportunities are generated. In South Africa the first townships were erected over a hundred years ago with the oldest existing one being the New Brighton Township built between 1902-1903 and stationed Port Elizabeth, Eastern Cape.

In the period between the two World Wars, a large sum of townships were developed by Municipal Governments at the peripheries of the cities, and separated from the cities through the enactment of a green belt policy. Examples of areas which were subject to the aforementioned Apartheid spacial planning include Langa in Cape Town, Lamontville and Chesterville in Durban and Meadowlands in Johannesburg. Moreover, other major townships inhabited by predominantly black people; such as Khayelitsha and Gugulethu, flared up on the Cape Flats as a spin-off of both informal settlement and involuntary Government relocations (Bowers Du Toit, 2010).

Since many Xhosa people of the region—including people birthed and raised in the Cape Town area—were designated under Apartheid Legislation as residents of Bantustans, many were compelled with little alternative, to live in the area illegally, which contributed significantly to the rapid growth of informal settlements. In 1993, Cape Town had a housing backlog of approximately 40 000 houses while there continues to be a major influx of people migrating from the rural areas each year which impact the housing backlog tremendously and places a lot pressure on Government to deliver services to all citizens.

The main reason for the policy pressures confronting Government is that the increasing population demands the adaptation of various policies which require additional funding. It is also not uncommon for Provincial and Municipal Governments to derive mandates

from National Government, without adequate funding to deliver on these mandates (Bower Du Toit, 2010).

The Cape Flats is furthermore in stark contrast with the more affluent areas in the Cape Metropole which includes areas such as Camps Bay, Seapoint, Claremont, Durbanville and Platteklouf. In addition to the priorities of Housing, the urban and rural divide is extremely conspicuous that National, Provincial and Local Government prioritizes social integration and spacial planning policies which seeks to unite people from diverse backgrounds. Efforts are also made by Government's to integrate the underdeveloped regions such as the Cape Flats, into the productive sectors of the economy so that beneficiation of resources can increase in these areas. Since the abolishment of Apartheid, the communities are no longer legally bound by racial restrictions; but history, language, economics and ethnic politics still contribute to uniformity of local areas.

3.3.5.3 Pursuing Dreams and Goal Setting

Action is based on goals and the pursuance of dreams; therefore, goals are of primary importance for actions (Locke & Latham, 1990). The pursuance of dreams and goals are anticipated future action results and they are used as set points (Hacker, 1985). Goals pull the action; therefore, higher goals usually have a clearer focus and therefore lead to higher performance (Locke & Latham, 1990). Anticipated results can be visualized and thereby produce motivation (for example, to sell the first product). A better visualization of a goal probably has a higher pull function and probably leads to higher commitment.

One way to develop a clear idea and visualization of a goal is to specify the goal in detail; this has been emphasized in goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990). Goals and dreams can be described in detail in relation to the pursuit of targets. Empirical work has differentiated three principal ways in which people think about their goals (Oettingen, Hoenig,& Gollwitzer, 2000). One way is to fantasize about how good it would be to having achieved the goal; another is to worry about not achieving the goal, and a third one is to contrast the goal with the current condition. Although fantasizing about goal achievement

and worrying reduce the chances to achieve the goal, contrasting the positive goal fantasies with the current condition is most effective for high achievement (Oettingen et al., 2000). It follows that (would-be) entrepreneurs who mainly fantasize or mainly worry about their goal achievement are less likely to either start a firm or be successful.

A goal can function as a motivator for performance or a means of pursuing a target. It is argued in goal setting theory that it has regulatory power over the action (Semmer & Frese, 1985). With Heckhausen & Kuhl (1985), they describe the initial goal setting as dreams or goal *wishes*. A wish is something that a person would like to achieve, but he or she is not (yet) doing anything about it. Sometimes, wanting to start a company may not get translated into action (as a matter of fact, there are many “nascent entrepreneurs” who never really start a company; Semmer & Frese, 1985), and frequently owners are happy to talk about “goals” that really do not regulate their behavior. However, goals can be *developed* from these wishes.

Heckhausen & Kuhl (1985) argued that the factors represented by the acronym OTIUM (opportunity for action, time to do something about it, importance of the goal, urgency of achieving the goal, and means to be able to achieve the goal) are important parameters that produce the translation of a wish into a goal. Goals can be associated with a higher or lower commitment (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987). Higher goal commitment leads to higher goal strivings (Locke & Latham, 1990). If goal commitment is high, owners are more likely satisfied with their situation (Maier & Brunstein, 2001).

People usually pursue several goals at once. Some of these goals may be hierarchically related (for example, starting a firm and getting money to get the patent rights for an invention), some other ones are not related (for example, planning a social development event for the destitute), and some may be conflicting and need to be compromised or in some way negotiated (for example, helping a specific employee and making sure that there is equitable treatment for all employees). Goals can be organized and prioritized into hierarchies. This does not mean, however, that we always pay attention to the full

hierarchy. As a matter of fact, higher level goals, such as life goals and moral standards, are typically not in the foreground of our attention.

Since working memory has a limited capacity (Kahneman, 1973) one can only attend to those goals that are of immediate action relevance. Long-range life goals are typically of less action relevance than those directly related to daily life. Humans are action-oriented and therefore, intermediate goals are more important as a focus area. This is one of the reasons why time management techniques teach people to attend to the important long-range rather than just the urgent short-range goals. This leads to the interesting hypothesis that long-range goals often have less regulatory power than short- or medium-range goals even if they are deemed to be more important. Moreover, contradictions between medium-range goals and long-range goals are not always detected.

Recently, social psychology has argued that there are two types of goals: goals to achieve something (promotion focused) and goals to prevent something (prevention focused) (Higgins, 1997). There are a number of ramifications of this differentiation. Prevention-focused goals are more anxiety related; the strategy that is pursued is more of avoiding things than to achieve certain things. Combining this with risk taking as described by prospect theory (Armstrong, 1984) leads to the interesting hypothesis that anxious individuals may take more risks. In contrast, promotion-focused individuals who are more strongly oriented toward achieving positive goals (for example, combining a hobby with starting a business) are less anxious and take less risks (Baron, 2004).

3.3.5.4 Entrepreneurial Skills

There have been multiple opinions and perspectives on entrepreneurial skills as a means of alleviating poverty. Globally, there has been an increasing fascination in understanding entrepreneurs operating in an emerging market context (Bruton, Ahlstrom & Obloj, 2008). Entrepreneurs in emerging markets contend with formal and informal public and private institutions, which can impact the development of entrepreneurship (Bruton, Ahlstrom, & Li, 2010). As a result, the skills that entrepreneurs in this type of context apply to lead

their businesses to survival and growth may be distinct from those applied by entrepreneurs in the developed markets (Solesvik, 2012). Payne, Moore, Bell, & Zachary (2013) argued that even entrepreneurs from developed countries may have notable differences in skills requirements.

South Africa as one of the developing markets aims to improve the economy and create employment through entrepreneurship (Brière, Tremblay & Dau, 2014). Despite efforts to invest in entrepreneurship, South Africa is challenged by a low entrepreneurial activity and high unemployment rate compared to the other sub-Saharan countries (Herrington & Kew, 2015). The low entrepreneurial activity includes a low percentage of potential and established entrepreneurs. There are also comparatively fewer entrepreneurs who identify opportunities and believe that they have the necessary skills to create business ventures. Some of the challenges encountered include the low levels of entrepreneurial skills that are seen as important elements in economic and entrepreneurship development (Adendorff, Emuze & Vilakazi, 2013).

Research on entrepreneurial skills adopts human capital theory perspective, which states that skills are the outcomes of investment in education and work experience (Becker, 1964; Chell, 2013; Unger et al., 2011). Additionally, Chell (2013) argued that research on entrepreneurial skills is mainly theoretical, lacking support by empirical evidence. Thus, there is no clarity on the specific skills required by entrepreneurs (Unger et al., 2011). Some of the complications in researching entrepreneurial skills are the lack of an agreed definition and the clarity of construct as it is often interchanged with entrepreneurial competencies (Chell, 2013). This highlights that it is important to define and identify skills required by entrepreneurs with the support from empirical research. Therefore, this study will clearly define and separate skills from competencies.

With regard to the entrepreneurship research in South Africa, there is a research gap on specific entrepreneurial skills suitable for entrepreneurs in this context (Adendorff et al., 2013). As much as studies on skills in entrepreneurship are increasing elsewhere (Deakins, Bensemman & Battisti, 2016; Loué & Baronet, 2012; Charman et al., 2013), there is little about entrepreneurial skills required by entrepreneurs in South Africa.

Therefore, the aim of this study was to determine the entrepreneurial skills required by entrepreneurs to run their businesses on a day-to-day basis. Entrepreneurial skills are one of the significant contributors to the success and performance of any business venture (Unger et al., 2011).

Entrepreneurs in South Africa require three types of support, namely human, financial and social capital (Brière et al., 2014). With regard to human capital, entrepreneurs would greatly benefit from entrepreneurial skills and training according to their developmental stages and the sector of activity. The lack of entrepreneurial skills may be because of inadequate training (Brière et al., 2014) and a poor educational system as the South African public education system is classified as the worst in the world, far worse even than peer developing countries (Turton & Herrington, 2012). The 'education system has been failing to effectively equip individuals with skills and confidence required to consider entrepreneurship as a valid choice' (Turton & Herrington, 2012).

The Cape Flats is synonymous for the economic limitations which confront the constituents. According to Rauch & Frese (2007) the branch of economics concerned with how individuals deal with the problem of scarcity is micro-economics. Furthermore Rauch & Frese (2007) suggest that an immediate implication of scarcity is that choices must be made and that each choice will be a costly one. However, other perspectives include individuals acquiring entrepreneurial skills and starting their own businesses.

A large number of studies focusing on entrepreneurship research have included human capital theory in their predictor models (for example, Unger, Rauch, Frese & Rosenbusch, 2009, Martin, McNally & Kay, 2013). At a glance human capital and in particular, entrepreneurial skills appear to be a simple concept. In the process of gathering empirical evidence, however, the concept of entrepreneurial skills is fairly complex. The lack of traditional employment opportunities for many students in South Africa prompted the University of the Western Cape (UWC) to introduce an enterprise management stream at graduate level and entrepreneurship as a subject at second and third year levels

(Gregoire, Shepherd & Lambert, 2010). Many of these students originate from areas within the Cape Flats region.

Over the years entrepreneurial skills at universities generally have not produced a significant increase in start-up enterprises. In terms of the generally accepted obligations of universities the focus is on teaching, research and technology transfer. Most of the empirical studies reviewed indicate that entrepreneurship can be taught and that entrepreneurship education can enhance entrepreneurial skills, competencies and attitudes (Amaral, Baptista & Lima Ronstadt, 2011; Daniels, & Adams, 2010; Dobbs & Hamilton, 2007; Rauch, Frese & Utsch, 2005).

Entrepreneurial skills in the entrepreneurship literature are often operationalised by the level and type of education of the founding entrepreneurs (Urban, 2012). Researchers have used a large spectrum of variables - formal education, training, employment experience, start-up experience, owner experience, parent's background, skills, knowledge and others. Generally, researchers using entrepreneurship theory postulate that individuals who possess greater levels of knowledge, skills, and other competencies will achieve greater performance outcomes (Martin, McNally & Kay, 2013).

Effective entrepreneurial formation through skills programs is of increasing concern for governments, as entrepreneurial skills is increasingly in demand. Evidently there is a lack of consistent evidence showing that entrepreneurship helps to create more or better entrepreneurs. However, in a recent study there was support for the value of entrepreneurship education (Martin, McNally & Kay, 2013). Based on 42 independent samples ($N = 16,657$), their study found a significant relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship-related human capital assets ($r_w = .217$) and entrepreneurship outcomes ($r_w = .159$). The relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship outcomes is stronger for academic-focused entrepreneurship education interventions ($r_w = .238$) than for training-focused entrepreneurship interventions ($r_w = .151$). These findings have significant practical implications. Public policy and education decision-makers can have more confidence

when making future funding decisions related to entrepreneurial skills training. Second, these findings suggest that future training program content can be enhanced which may help students to improve financial success over time (Martin, McNally & Kay, 2013).

The conversion of entrepreneurship education into start-up activity is not always clear. In Unger et al's (2009) study 70 independent samples (N = 24,733) were examined. The study found a significant but small relationship between entrepreneurial skills and success ($r = .098$). The relationship was higher for outcomes of entrepreneurial skills than for general education/experience. These findings suggest that the entrepreneurial skills is not static and that the focus of research should rather be on learning processes and conversion of skills/knowledge to entrepreneurial tasks (Unger et al, 2009).

In Boris & Congo's (2015) study a cross-sectional research design was used to investigate the relationship between entrepreneurial skills and venture performance of N = 126 owner-managers of retail businesses in the Democratic Republic of Congo. The study concluded that entrepreneurial skills are related to levels of education of founder and employees, who in turn positively impacts venture performance. Education is helpful for acquiring other utilitarian resources such as financial and physical capital and may partially compensate for a lack of financial capital. Entrepreneurial skills increase the capability of entrepreneurs to perform the generic entrepreneurial tasks of discovering and exploiting business opportunities. Prior experience increases the owner-managers' entrepreneurial alertness, preparing them to discover specific opportunities that are not visible to other people. Prior business experience has been associated with assets like extended networks, increased expertise and a solid reputation with financiers, customers and suppliers.

3.3.5.5 Role Models

The importance of role models in less affluent communities has become an integral component of economic and socio economic development. Although current research highlights the importance of prior exposure to entrepreneurial role models in the decision

to start and pursue entrepreneurial careers, the mechanism through which role models strengthen entrepreneurial intentions has not been fully understood, more so in township communities. Against this background, current research indicates the influence of role models on entrepreneurial attitudes and entrepreneurial self-efficacies. Role models play a vital role in supporting entrepreneurial attitudes and entrepreneurial attitudes. By implication, these findings task entrepreneurship educators to concurrently foster these dimensions in the process of nurturing entrepreneurial careers (Matshekga, & Urban, 2013).

Modern local economic development strategies have adopted entrepreneurship as a vehicle to promote economic and socio economic development. Entrepreneurship is affecting economic growth worldwide. In environments characterized by strive and high levels of unemployment platforms to develop entrepreneurship have become critical. Understanding entrepreneurship's importance and positive contribution to the economy of a country, it is significant studies to be undertaken in order to boost the development of entrepreneurship. Thus, in focus must be factors that alter individuals' behavior and their decision to become entrepreneurs. Many highlight that role model is among the most important factors that alter entrepreneurial intention. Some studies have emphasized the role of family as a role model in bringing about a significant influence in this regard (Garo, Kume & Basho, 2015). The findings suggest that individuals who have been exposed to entrepreneurial role of families show high intention to become entrepreneurs compared with those who lack this role model. A positive correlation between individuals exposed to entrepreneurial model within the family and their entrepreneurial intent exists.

As a result many suggestions for the education system and policy makers in Albania are proposed. Suggestions drive the attention to education. They reinforce that education can expose individuals to entrepreneurial role models. It has a very important impact not only to provide individuals with the skills and knowledge needed for entrepreneurship but also to create confidence and implement new business models. The challenge of education system though learnerships and skills programs can influence entrepreneurial intent to

young people. In terms of role models where such a model is missing in the family, education can provide it successfully (Garo et al., 2015).

Considering the extent of dysfunctional family structures in less affluent communities it has become more important for local economic development strategies to target role models. Parents are supposed to have the strongest impact on their childrens' attitudes, intentions and knowledge as they have the closest and longest contacts with their family members. Thus, members who grow up in an entrepreneurial environment that offers the opportunity to learn from self-employed parents can benefit a lot from them as a role model providing a realistic view of self-employment (McDade & Spring, 2005). On this basis, entrepreneurial role models within the family are unique sources of tacit knowledge about business strategy and entrepreneurial decision making (Shane, 2008).

So, the information and skills necessary for decision-making are typically not available in codified form and in real time, nor are they abundantly available in educational institutions. As such, the possession of tacit knowledge about entrepreneurial decision making is of enormous value for the ability to exploit an opportunity (Shane, 2008). Hence, the most natural way to acquire such tacit knowledge is through observation of others, in particular parents and close friends. In the same vein, Chawla & Khanna (2010) pointed out that a large number of business creators have close role models that have stimulated them to start their own businesses. These people rely on the involvement of their parents in entrepreneurial activities. This makes them inclined to express their intentions to become entrepreneurs in the future.

The success of entrepreneurship through spaza shop enterprises has strong linkages to role models. Small, home-based grocery stores, known as spaza shops, are ubiquitous throughout the township areas of urban South Africa, constituting an important business in the informal economy. In recent years, this retail market has become a site of fierce competition between South African shopkeepers and foreign entrepreneurs, especially Somalis, and is often cited in the media as one reason behind the xenophobic attacks on foreigners (Dada et al., 2017).

Drawing on original data collected in the Delft township in the city of Cape Town, this research demonstrates that foreign entrepreneurs, overwhelmingly Somalis, have come to own around half of the sizeable spaza market in Delft in the last five years. This increase is attributable to larger scale and price competitive behaviour as these entrepreneurs operate collectively in terms of buying shops, and stock, as well as in stock distribution (Charman, Petersen & Piper, 2012).

The success factors point to the influence of successful role models who also increase the access to capital. Also important are some more customer friendly services too. Compared to the more survivalist local business model where individual owners look to supplement existing household income rather than generate an entire livelihood, the Somali business model has rapidly outcompeted local owners, bringing spaza prices down and forcing many locals to rent out their shop space to foreign shopkeepers. Consequently, while South African shopkeepers resent the Somali influx, most consumers appreciate the better prices and improved service. The rise of Somali shopkeepers thus represents a transformation of business practice in the spaza sector from survivalist to entrepreneurial modes. These practices can be replicated in townships to make local businesses more successful (Charman et al., 2012).

3.4 Chapter Summary

The need for responsive policy implementation with specific reference to addressing the scourge of youth unemployment is emphasized by the National Youth Development Policy Framework (2002-2007) stating that prior to the democratization of South African society in the 1990s, youth development occurred within a context of political, social, economic and cultural oppression. This situation contributed directly to many of the current dilemmas young people face. Youth unemployment is a petrifying reality on a large scale in South Africa and exacerbated by economic limitations, which warrants responsive youth development strategies. It is important to develop the youth so that they are able to sustain a life which enhances their human dignity and also contribute towards the social welfare of mankind. The forces in the social, political, cultural and technological

environments put pressure on policy makers to effect change. Based on this definition of a policy environment, the researcher takes due cognizance of changing environments within society, which present changes in policy needs, demands and preferences. What is clear from previous research is that there is a diversity of philosophies guiding the development of policies and indeed a variety of policy instruments selected for youth development, particularly in less affluent environments.

This approach identifies five variables that form the normative stage conceptual model of entrepreneurial development. These include the following:

- Youth development;
- Limited economic opportunities;
- Entrepreneurial skills;
- Pursuance of dreams/goal setting; and
- Role models

Youth development is a process that prepares a young person to meet the challenges of adolescence and adulthood and achieve his or her full potential. Youth development is promoted through activities and experiences that help youth develop social, ethical, emotional, physical and cognitive competencies. An individual is socially excluded if he or she is geographically resident in a society but for reasons beyond his or her control he or she cannot participate in the normal activities of citizens in that society and he or she would like to so participate. From this deduction it is deducible that the inclusion of the youth, specifically within the productive sectors of society, will contribute towards addressing the development of the youth within a particular geographical area. For more than two decades, South Africa has sought to address poverty and inequality with a wide range of initiatives, including the use of fiscal policy to support redistributive measures. The *social wage* – which refers to the government's investment in skills transformation, health services, social development including social assistance to vulnerable households and individuals as well as contributory social security, public transport, housing, and local amenities as a redistributive measure – has played a notable role in the government's efforts to reduce poverty and inequality. . In the process of gathering empirical evidence,

however, the concept of entrepreneurial skills is fairly complex. The lack of traditional employment opportunities for many students in South Africa prompted the University of the Western Cape (UWC) to introduce an enterprise management stream at graduate level and entrepreneurship as a subject at second and third year levels. In environments characterized by strive and high levels of unemployment platforms to develop entrepreneurship have become critical. Understanding entrepreneurship's importance and positive contribution to the economy of a country, it is significant studies to be undertaken in order to boost the development of entrepreneurship. Thus, in focus must be factors that alter individuals' behavior and their decision to become entrepreneurs.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a detailed description of the research design, population sampling, research instruments, procedures for data collection, analysis, validity, reliability of the research. It is very important to provide comprehensive definitions of "research" followed by the "paradigm". Mackenzie & Knipe (2006) provided a comprehensive and full definition of research and it is as follows:

"The systematic investigation or inquiry whereby data are collected, analysed and interpreted in some way in an effort to understand, describe, predict or control an educational or psychological phenomenon or to empower individual in such contexts".

4.2 Definition of research

Table 4-1: Definitions

Authors	Definition
Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012)	Research is defined as a process where people, make an effort to learn about a phenomenon, in a systemic way to improve the individuals' knowledge base.
Shuttleworth (2008; cited Godwin Colibao)	Research includes any data, information, and collection of facts, for knowledge development.
Creswell (2008).	It is development stages, used to gather and evaluate information, to foster understanding of a subject/ or problem. Research can be defined as a studious inquiry, or examination; particularly investigation, otherwise experimentation, intended for fact-finding and interpretation.
Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary (2011).	Research is by reviewing known theories, laws, new facts and practical application of new facts
Creswell <i>et al</i> (2016 cited Jansen, 2016; Mertens, 2015)	Research as one of many diverse ways of knowing or understanding a process of systematic inquiry that is designed to collect, analysis, interpret, and use the data.

4.2.1 Research Paradigm

Paradigm is defined as:

“It is a loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts or propositions that orient thinking and research (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). In other words, it is a philosophical, theoretical or conceptual framework which underpins or guides research. Creswell (2009) described paradigms as “philosophical world-views”. All research is generally premised on assumptions and philosophy about how people perceive the world or reality (Cameron & Price, 2009).

In general, a paradigm is best described as a whole system of thinking (Brannick & Roche, 2007). In this sense, a paradigm refers to the established research traditions in a particular discipline. More specifically, a paradigm would include the accepted theories,

traditions, approaches, models, frame of reference, body of research and methodologies and it could be seen as a model or framework for observation and understanding (Creswell, 2009).

The researcher therefore noted that without the selection of a paradigm first, there is no justification or basis for the subsequent choices of research methodology, tools, instruments, participants and research design in this study hence it is indispensable first to consider this (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Further, Creswell (2009) emphasised that the researcher should explicitly indicate the philosophical idea (s) espoused and that explains why the discussion first concentrated on the research paradigms because of its centrality to the highlighted research aspects above.

Thus, the two main paradigms are **positivism** and **interpretivism** and these will be explored in greater detail, including the pragmatism paradigm.

4.2.2 Positivism Paradigm

Positivism paradigm is founded on the idea that it is possible and desirable to study human behaviour in the same context natural scientists study the natural world where the world conforms to the fixed laws and rules of causation and happening like the laws of relativity and gravity (Blaxter et al., 2006). Based on that, the role of the researcher is to confine to what is observable because the assumption is knowledge is “something out there awaiting discovery” (Creswell, 2009; Creswell, 2012). Thus, the methods under this philosophy are empirical in that researchers set to propose a theory or a statement which they endeavour to test and prove (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006).

However, this paradigm attracted criticism in terms of independence and unbiased observation. Blaxter et al. (2006) strongly disputed the feasibility of excluding human influence completely in a bid to avert bias because observation and interpretation are done by humans. Regarding human behaviour as passive, controlled and largely determined by the external environment was underlined as a downside of positivism

philosophy (Cameron & Price, 2009). Also, its assumption of general applicability of findings to the whole population draws criticism.

The positivist researcher maintains that it is possible to adopt a distant, detached, neutral and non-interactive position (Morris, 2006). A position such as this would enable the researcher to assume the role of an objective analyst, making detached interpretations about those data that have been collected in an apparently value-free manner. For the same reason, positivists prefer an analytical interpretation of quantifiable data (Rubin & Babbie, 2010).

Positivism adopts the view that only objective data that is collected through scientific means and which reduces the researcher's subjective influence and involvement is reliable in research (Saunders, et al., 2009; Bryman & Bell, 2015). Under a positivist philosophy, the role of the researcher is to collect the data rather than to influence the actual outcomes of the data (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Measurability of collected data is critical and data that is not systematically measurable cannot be relied on in research (Saunders, et al., 2009; Babbie, 2015). Positivism, through its emphasis on researcher disengagement, systematic and quantitative measuring of the research phenomenon naturally points to quantitative research designs as being more factual, relevant and reliable in empirical research (Babbie, 2015). Fox & Bayat (2013) explain logical positivism as a philosophy that views knowledge as meaningful, only when the knowledge is empirically testable. This emphasizes the use of scientific, quantitative methods in the development of knowledge and consequentially in conducting research.

4.2.3 Interpretivist Paradigm

The interpretive paradigm is also called the phenomenological approach. This is an approach that aims to understand people (Babbie, 2015). According to Rubin & Babbie (2010) interpretive social science can be traced to Max Weber (1864) and Dilthey (1833). Dilthey (1833) argues that there are two fundamentally different types of science: the natural sciences and the human sciences. The former is based on *Erklärung*, or abstract explanation. The latter is rooted in an understanding, or *Verstehen*, of the lived

experiences of people (Rubin & Babbie, 2010; Babbie, 2015). Weber maintains that all humans are attempting to make sense of their worlds. In so doing, they continuously interpret, create, give meaning, define, justify and rationalise daily actions (Creswell, 2009).

Interpretivism focuses on exploring the complexity of social phenomena with a view to gaining understanding. The purpose of research in interpretivism is the understanding and interpreting everyday happenings, experiences and social structures, as well as the values people attach to these phenomena (Rubin & Babbie, 2010). Interpretivists believe that social reality is subjective and nuanced, because it is shaped by the perceptions of the participants, as well as the values and aims of the researcher.

Mackenzie & Knipe (2006) describes interpretivism as being directed on meaning, and understanding the social interactions between humans. Consequently, the mind interprets experience and events, and constructs meanings from them. Meaning does not exist outside the mind. Willis (2007) rejects the notion that the social sciences should apply research principles adopted from the natural sciences. Interpretivists believe that the subject matter of the social sciences is fundamentally different from that of the natural sciences. Interpretivists further hold the view that the social world cannot be understood by applying research principles adopted from the natural sciences. The social sciences require a different research philosophy.

Interpretivists argue that simple fundamental laws cannot explain the complexity of social phenomena (Rubin & Babbie, 2010). Interpretivists claim that an objective observation of the social world is impossible, as it has meaning for humans only, and is constructed by intentional behaviour and actions. Something that holds true for the moment might not necessarily hold true tomorrow, or in another society. Knowledge is developed and theory is built through developing ideas from observed and interpreted social constructions. As such, the researcher seeks to make sense of what is happening. This can even generate findings beyond the common scientific knowledge (Rubin & Babbie, 2010).

For many years the interpretive approach existed as the opposition to positivism (Morris, 2006). Although some positivist social researchers accept the interpretive approach as useful in exploratory research, few positivists consider it to be fully scientific. Positivists place their emphasis on the individual's interpretation of social interaction (Morris, 2006). The interpretivist research accepts the notion that knowledge and meaning are the results of interpretations. There is no objective knowledge which is independent of human thinking and reasoning. Central to all interpretivists is the concern with subjectivity, which in a sense seeks to show how variations in human meanings and sense-making generate and reflect differences in reified or objective realities, that is when one becomes detached from and lose sight of connections or relationship to something created by researchers (Babbie, 2015).

The interpretivist approach stresses that because business research often incorporates '*social actors*' or persons responding to research processes, it generally is a highly subjective process (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2011). Respondents to surveys and questionnaires are bound to respond differently and subjectively as a result of various factors that include the research environment and the researcher effects (Babbie, 2015). Interpretivism also implies that research methods should take cognisance of the fact that social actors respond and behave differently and subjectively and there can therefore never be a single truth to any research question (Guest et al., 2011). Research designs must therefore accommodate the natural subjectivity that comes with dealing with social actors as opposed to dealing with objects when conducting experiments. Interpretivism accepts that data can be interpreted subjectively based on the researcher's views. Given the aim of the research as captured in chapter one, the interpretivist paradigm as defined above best describes the philosophical underpinning of the research paradigm adopted for the conduction of this research project.

4.2.4 Pragmatism Paradigm

Pragmatism is the middle ground between an interpretivist and positivist way of thinking. Saunders et al. (2012) share the view that both the interpretivist and positivist philosophies can be applied in the same research effort. An empirical research design

can therefore accommodate the objectivity, factuality and measurability requirements of a positivist paradigm with the subjective and flexible views of an interpretivist philosophy. Pragmatism encourages the use of mixed methods or multiple methods in research. Guest et al. (2011) sums up the argument on paradigms and philosophies by stating that regardless of the philosophical approach a researcher decides to adhere to, it is critical to reduce bias by maintaining a neutral stance. The researcher should not willingly interfere and manipulate the research process to the extent that either the subjective or objective views of research candidates are compromised.

Table 4-2: Characteristics of Pragmatism and Interpretivism

	Pragmatism	Interpretivism
Ontology	Symbolic realism	Constructivism
Empirical emphasis	Actions and changes	Beliefs (socially constructed cognition)
Type of knowledge	Constructive knowledge	Understanding
Role of knowledge	Suitable for action	Interesting
Category of study	Examination	Field study
Data generation	Data through assessment and involvement.	Data through interpretation
Role of researcher	Transformation of reality	Involved in understanding

Source: Goldkuhl (2012) adapted

4.3 Research Approaches

Sauro (2015) claimed that the role of theory in research study is directly linked to two different reasoning approaches: induction and deduction. However, there are three research approaches: deduction, abduction and induction (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). Research methods and research designs are influenced by whether the empirical study seeks to be inductive or deductive (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

4.3.1 Deductive Approach

A deductive approach aims to test the factuality of existing theories, models, views, hypotheses and arguments (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Deductive reasoning starts with an observation that needs to be explained through an existing theory (Babbie, 2015).

The objective of using deductive approach by a researcher is to select and consent to a well-established theory utilizing primary data analysis (Parvaiz, 2016). The conclusion must necessarily follow from the reasons given and must be both true and valid (Cohen et al., 2011). Deductive approach concentrates on theory testing by starting with an effective theory base (Creswell, 2013). Deductive approach begins with a theory and ends with either confirmation or modification of the existing theory (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). This particular research study is conducted in an environment where phenomenon is subject to change given the reality of public policy dynamics within various social contexts.

Contemporary Youth development legislation and policy frameworks of the three tier system of governance in South Africa provide a bulk of theory which is captured in chapter two of this study, serves as the foundation for further exploration of means in which the current and main youth development challenges within the targeted may be addressed with a view to strengthening overall youth development. For this reason, the deductive research approach was identified as the most suitable approach for this study.

Figure 4-1: An Illustration of the Deductive Research Approach



Source: Researchers own construction (2017)

4.3.2 Abductive Approach

With the pragmatism philosophy the researcher naturally employs an abductive approach process, interchanging back and forth between inductive and deductive reasoning theory (Babbie, 2015). Moreover, Saunders *et al.* (2012) stated that abductive approach is appropriate for large number of business and management researchers.

4.3.3 Inductive Approach

An inductive approach on the other hand seeks to generate new theories (Cohen *et al.*, 2011). Babbie (2015) is of the view that inductive reasoning starts with the generation of a theory and this theory is then subjected to tests and measured against actual observations.

4.4 Research Design: Exploratory, Descriptive and Explanatory Research

Babbie (2015) explains that a research design is a study's overview that describes its purposes, research methods, study population and other study administrative issues. Saunders *et al.* (2012) defines the research design as '*the general plan of how you will go about answering research question(s)*'. Kumar, Aaker & Day (1999) explain that the research design '*is a thorough layout used to direct a research study into meeting its objectives*'. The research design therefore contributes to the objective understanding and realization of the collected data in that it serves as a roadmap for the researcher on how to conduct the study. The three dominant types of research designs are descriptive research, exploratory research and causal research.

The explorative study is suitable when researchers do not have a clear idea of the problems that would be met during the study (Blumberg *et al.*, 2014). The explorative study is used to determine the nature of the problem, possibly understand the problem and confront any new problems during the study process. Exploratory research uses non-probability sampling namely, judgmental or purposive sampling design. Clearly, Blumberg *et al.* (2014) states that causal (explanatory) research design reveals how one variable effects, or is accountable for changes in another variable. The primary goal of explanatory

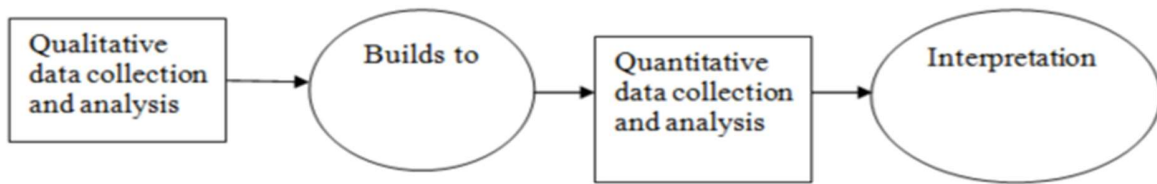
research is to describe why phenomena happen and to forecast future occurrences (Babbie, 2015). With causal design most research specialists look for asymmetrical relationships – assume changes in one variable (independent variable) would be responsible for shifts in another variable (dependent variable) (Blumberg *et al.*, 2014).

Babbie (2015) confirms that exploratory research is utilized when problems are in an introductory stage and can address research questions of all forms. According to Briggs & Collman (2007) exploratory research provides a greater understanding of a concept or problem, rather than providing quantification. Briggs & Coleman (2007) also stated that descriptive research is specifically aimed at describing people and situations.

According to Blumberg *et al.* (2014) research that explores and describes a person, group of people, or a situation, would be termed descriptive research technique. Data from descriptive research might be qualitative or quantitative (Lourens, 2016). Descriptive research is aimed at casting light on current problems through a process of data collection that allows the researcher to describe the situation totally than was possible without employing this method (Creswell, Ebersohn, Eloff, Ferreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Pietersen, Plano Clark, & Van der Westhuizen, 2016). The research process is systematized in descriptive research; similarly, descriptive technique uses probability (random) sampling design (Creswell *et al.*, 2016).

The exploratory sequential design commences with the qualitative research and utilizes the understandings from the qualitative method to design and analysis quantitative (Sauro, 2015). As stated by Creswell *et al.* (2016) this design is suitable when studying a topic where no theory exists or when a researcher does not know which theories are fitting or how to measure important variables.

Figure 4-2: Exploratory Sequential Design Process



Source: Sauro (2015)

The purpose of the design as illustrated in the diagram above is the process of exploring a phenomenon by initially collecting qualitative data, thereafter the collection of quantitative data to justify relationships in qualitative data (Sauro, 2015). Furthermore, Creswell (2013) asserts that collection of qualitative exploratory data first, thereafter examining the qualitative data and applying these findings to develop a good research instrument that can be used for the sample population in quantitative phase. Blumberg et al. (2014) pointed out that data from descriptive research may be qualitative or quantitative. However, quantitative data presentations are normally limited to frequency distributions and summary statistics.

4.5 Research Methodology

Table 4-3: Comparison of Method and Methodology

Basis of Comparison	Research Method	Research Methodology
Significance	Research Method indicates the technique employed by the researcher to conduct research.	Research methodology shows technique to efficiently solving research problems.
What is it?	Behavior and instrument utilized in the selection and building of the research technique.	Science of understanding, how research is performed systematically.

Incorporates	Carrying out experiment, test, surveys etc.	Study diverse techniques which can be used in the performance of experiment, test, surveys etc.
Includes	Different investigation techniques.	Entire strategy towards attainment of objective.
Objective	To discover solution to research problem.	To apply correct procedures to find solutions.

Source: Taylor, Sinha & Ghoshal (2006) adaptation

Notably, an appropriate research methodology is required prior to implementation of any study as it is the navigational tool for the entire research process. Research methodology is the principle and philosophy that guides research (Taylor, Sinha, & Ghoshal, 2006). Research methodology gives the researcher a path on how to learn or solve problems or difficulties (Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). Furthermore, Creswell (2013) the topic prescribes which research methodology will be used to support the study and method of data collection.

Creswell *et al.* (2016) claim that research methods are the tools that researchers utilize for data collection. Moreover, Creswell *et al.* (2016) states that research method or methods for a specific project may consist of interviewing, observation, or the collection of written or visual data. Hence, a research method is fundamentally a measure or technique for the collection of data (Zefeiti & Mohamad, 2015). Research methodology has been defined as an operational framework within which the facts or specifics are placed so that their meanings may be seen more clearly.

Creswell *et al.* (2016) claim that research methods are the tools that researchers utilize for data collection. Moreover, Creswell *et al.* (2016) states that research method or methods for a specific project may consist of interviewing, observation, or the collection of written or visual data. Hence, a research method is fundamentally a measure or technique for the collection of data (Zefeiti & Mohamad, 2015). As stated in chapter one, the aim of this research study is to explore the social perspectives of the youth on selected areas on the cape flats with a view to establishing a contextualization on the

implementation of legislative and policy frameworks governing youth development in those areas. The research methodology will then be a plan or design for finding solutions to these objectives.

4.5.1 Choice of Research Methodology

Fox & Bayat (2013) stated that there are two dominant methods of research namely, qualitative methods and quantitative methods. Quantitative research is *'concerned with systematic measurements, statistical analysis and methods of experimentation.'* Qualitative research on the other hand *'is designed to explain people, events and matters concerning them and does not depend on numerical data'*. Other major differences between quantitative and qualitative methods are tabulated below:

Table 4-4: Differences between Quantitative and Qualitative Methods

Quantitative Methods	Qualitative Methods
Tends to produce highly numerical data	Tends to produce textual data
Makes use of large samples	Makes use of small samples
Concerned with hypothesis testing	Concerned with generating theories
Data is specific and precise	Data is rich and subjective
Location is artificial	The location is natural
Reliability and validity is high	Reliability and validity is low
Generalises from a sample population	Generalises from one setting to another

Source: Adapted from Saunders et.al (2009:482)

4.5.1.1 Qualitative Methodology

According to Fox & Bayat (2013) qualitative research focuses on phenomena that occur in natural settings, in the 'real world'. Qualitative research also involves studying those phenomena in all their complexity. Therefore, qualitative research is rarely simple because it recognises that the issue being studied has many dimensions and layers, hence it tries to portray the issue in its multifaceted form. Fox & Bayat (2013) add that qualitative research serves one or more of the following purposes:

- Description: revealing the nature of certain situations, settings, processes, relationships, systems or people.

- Interpretation: gaining insights into a particular phenomenon, developing new concepts or theoretical perspectives about the phenomenon and/or discovering problems that exist within the phenomenon.
- Verification: allowing the researcher to test the validity of certain assumptions, claims, theories, or generalisations in real-world contexts; and
- Evaluation: providing a means through which a researcher can judge the effectiveness of particular policies, practices or innovations.

Creswell & Plano Clark (2011) argued that qualitative data has the advantage of rich descriptions of the things being studied in their natural environment as opposed to a laboratory setting. This is because qualitative data focuses on issues that are not just complex, but also evolving. As a result, qualitative data is less amenable to precise measurement or numerical interpretation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Qualitative data do not involve just numbers and statistics, but full descriptions of things that occurred, including the real experiences. In addition, qualitative research emphasises the human element, uses close first-hand knowledge of the research setting and avoids distancing the researcher from the people or event/situation being studied (Fox & Bayat, 2008).

4.5.1.2 Quantitative Methodology

Quantitative research methods were originally developed in the natural sciences to study natural phenomena (Fox & Bayat, 2013). Qualitative research methods were developed in the social sciences to enable researchers to study social and cultural phenomena. Both quantitative and qualitative research studies are conducted in education. Neither of these methods is intrinsically better than the other; the suitability of which needs to be decided by the context, purpose and nature of the research study in question; in fact, sometimes one can be alternatives to the other depending on the kind of study. Some researchers prefer to use mixed methods approach by taking advantage of the differences between quantitative and qualitative methods, and combine these two methods for use in a single

research project depending on the kind of study and its methodological foundation (Fox & Bayat, 2013).

A decision was made on the research methods that would be appropriate for this study after a careful investigation of the various alternative research methods in the literature, constantly bearing in mind the principal research question and the resources available for this study

4.5.1.3 Cross-Sectional versus Longitudinal Research

A research design also relates to whether the phenomena of interest will be study at one particular time period or over various instances or time horizons (Kumar, 2011). Two types of designs are identifiable based on research horizons and they are the cross-sectional study and the longitudinal study (Cohen, et al., 2011). A cross-sectional study collects and analyses data from a single encounter while a longitudinal study collects data from the same candidates at different periods of time in order to determine any changes in responses (Cohen, et al., 2011). This study aimed to collect and analyse data at one instance as it had a single research period of focus. The research objectives of the study did not include any need to analyse changes in responses of candidates over time, hence, this study was a cross sectional study. Saunders et al. (2009) explain that because of time constraints, most academic research take on a cross-sectional approach. Time constraints were also applicable to this study and supported the adoption of a cross-sectional approach.

4.5.1.4 Population

Polit & Hungler (1999) define a population as the totality of all subjects that conform to a set of specifications, comprising the entire group of persons that is of interest to the researcher and to whom the research results can be generalised. Cooper & Schindler (2003) define a population element as the subject on which the measurement is being taken. It is the subject of research interest. Welman, Kruger & Mitchell (2005) stated that a population is the full set of elements from which a sample is selected. The target

population of this study comprised of selected areas on the Cape Flats; Belhar, Bishop Lavis, Mitchells Plein, Khayalitsha and Bonteheuwel.

4.5.1.5 Selection of a Sample

According to Welman et al. (2005) it is not feasible or necessary to survey the entire population relevant to a study. As a result, one selects a sample that is a representative or a subset of the entire population. However, to draw meaningful, reliable and valid conclusions, the sample should closely reflect the study population, that is, it should be a representative sample.

According to Willemse & Nyelisani (2015) the design of a sample describes the method used to select the sample from the population. Willemse & Nyelisani (2015) further attests that the size of the population, resources available, sampling error and variation in the population are some of the factors that influence the sample size. Cooper & Schindler (2003) state that a bigger sample allows the researcher to obtain exploratory, in-depth information from a larger segment of the population while minimising response bias. The simple random sampling method, without replacement, will be used to draw the sample of 1000 respondents in the form of individuals who can be defined by the generally accepted definition of youth, between the ages of 14-35. A reasonably large sum of questionnaires will be required so that meaningful quantitative analysis can be conducted and data distilled from a large data base.

4.5.1.5.1 Sampling Techniques

There are a variety of sampling techniques needed when selecting a sample. Moreover, there is a need to ensure that the sample is effective as it will have an impact on research questions. The decisive test of a sample technique is how well it epitomizes the characteristics of the population it purports to represent (Blumberg *et al.*, 2014). The sample design illustrates the method used to choose the sample from the target population (Willemse & Nyelisani, 2015).

Table 4-5: Comparison between Two Sampling Techniques

Basis for Comparison	Probability Sampling	Non-Probability Sampling
Denotation	A technique in which the elements of the population get an equal chance to be selected as a representative sample.	A method wherein it is not known which person from the population will be selected as a sample.
Alternately known as	Random sampling	Non-random sampling
Basis of selection	Randomly	Arbitrarily
Selection	Secure and identified	Not specified and unidentified
Research	Conclusive or final	Exploratory or empirical
Result	Unbiased	Biased
Method	Objective	Subjective
Inferences	Numerical	Analytical
Hypothesis	Tested	Generated

Source: Terrblanche, Durrheim, & Painter (2006) adapted

4.5.1.5.2 Non-probability

According to Cohen et al. (2011) convenience sampling, judgmental sampling and quota sampling are some of the non-probability procedures. Cohen et al. (2003) argues that convenience sampling involves drawing the elements that are most convenient. In judgmental sampling, the choice of the sample depends on experts from the population. In quota sampling, the researcher forms sub-populations or cells. According to Willemse & Nyelisani (2015) in snowball sampling, sampling elements are selected based on a referral from other survey respondents. This method is rarely used and depends on the nature of the topic. In non-probability sampling (also known as nonrandom sampling) not all members of the population have a chance of participating in the study. This can be contrary to the probability sampling method, where each member of the population has a known, non zero chance of being selected to participate in the study.

The necessity for non-probability sampling can be explained in a way that for some studies it is not feasible to draw a random probability-based sample of the population due to time and cost considerations. In these cases, sample group members have to be selected by accessibility or personal judgement of the researcher. Therefore, the majority of non-probability sampling techniques includes an element of subjective judgment. Non-probability sampling is the most helpful for exploratory stages of the studies such as a pilot survey.

Given the broad environmental context within which the research study will be taking place, it was decided that the employment of the non-probability sampling technique is the most suitable technique as selected areas on the cape flats will be targeted where structured questionnaires have been distributed in strategic locations such as church youth groups, shopping malls, recreational facilities and locations where the targeted population appeared to be assembling in more concentrated groupings as observed by the researcher and acting on the advice generated from individuals who are familiar with the research environment and/or frequently make observations within the environment.

4.5.1.5.3 Types of Non-Probability Sampling

- Convenience Sampling: as the name suggests involves collecting a sample from somewhere convenient to you such as the mall, your local school, your religious groups. Sometimes called accidental sampling, opportunity sampling or grab sampling techniques;
- Haphazard Sampling is where a researcher chooses items haphazardly by attempting to simulate randomness. However, the results are not been random at all and is often tainted by selection bias;
- Purposive Sampling is where the researcher chooses a sample that is based on underlying knowledge about the population size and the study. The study participants were chosen and was based on the study's purposes and the aims. There are several types of purposive sampling techniques;
- Expert Sampling refers in this method to the researcher that draws the samples from a list of experts in the field;

- Heterogeneity Sampling or Diversity Sampling is a type of sampling where the researcher deliberately chooses members so that all views are well represented;
- Modal Instance Sampling: The most typical method where all the members or the participants are selected from a set;
- Quota Sampling: where the groups which includes both men and women in the sample that are proportional to the groups in the population sample;
- Snowball Sampling: where research participants may recruit other members for the study. This method can be particularly useful when participants are hard to find. Example is related to a study on working prostitutes or current heroin users.

4.5.1.6 Probability

Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler (2008) states that in a probability sample “each element in the population has a known positive probability or chance to be included in the sample. According to Blumberg et al. (2008) simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling, stage sampling and multi phase sampling are some of the different probability sampling techniques that apply to quantitative studies.

Creswell (2009) confirms that a simple random sample originates when elements are drawn one by one from a jar with or without replacement and when each element in the population has an equal chance of being included in the samples. Alternatively, simple random samples are drawn from a table of random numbers. A table of random numbers can also be computer generated. In stratified random sampling, the population is firstly divided into homogeneous groups called strata, and from each of the stratum, a simple random sample is drawn. In cluster sampling, the population is divided into subgroups which are known as clusters. Blumberg et al. (2008) stated that systematic sampling involves selecting every element to make up the sampling frame. According to Creswell (2009) systematic sampling is convenient in cases where the population size is not known.

4.6 Data Collection

Data gathering is the precise, systematic gathering of information relevant to the research sub-problems, using methods such as interviews, participant observation, focus group discussion, narratives and case histories (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2000). The empirical phase, which involves the actual collection of data, is followed by preparation for data analysis (Polit & Hungler, 1999). Data collection begins with the researcher deciding from where and from whom data will be collected.

4.6.1 Questionnaire

To obtain information from participants, researchers use measuring instruments of which a questionnaire and focus group are seen as part of the instruments. These instruments are used to collect data on a variety of variables, depending on the nature of the research and questions to be answered. According to Richie & Klein (2007) a questionnaire can be described as a set of questions designed to obtain information from the respondents. Creswell (2014) succinctly stated that there are two types of questionnaires; structured and unstructured questionnaires. The data collection instrument in this study was a questionnaire containing questions of a quantitative nature comprising of predominantly close-ended questions. The respondents were requested to choose an answer from the list of response options documented.

The questionnaires will be distributed through employing a combination of direct face-to-face contact between the researcher and the respondents as well as through the strategic appointment of individuals who enjoy proximity to vast numbers of youth within the targeted population such as faith-based organizations, community youth leaders and school educators. The nature of the study and the big population as well as the vastly spread geographical distribution of the respondents serves to justify the rationale for adopting this method.

Closed-ended questions were selected because of the following reasons, also discussed by (Creswell, 2014):

- The need to create a uniform standard that could be used to compare the responses of respondents necessitated the use of closed-ended questions where all respondents were responding to the same comparative scale;
- The need to explore and describe the collected data supported the use of close-ended questions that allowed for responses to be deductively analysed; and
- Closed-ended questions appeal more to the systematic nature of a quantitative study as they are easier to enumerate.

Bryman & Bell (2015) maintains that a questionnaire is almost always self-administered, allowing respondents to fill them out themselves. All the researcher has to do is to arrange for their delivery and collection. In affirmation, Richie & Klein (2007) indicates that questionnaires are instruments completed by respondents themselves; they are relatively easy to use, inexpensive and are often the most plausible option for measuring unobservable constructs such as attitudes, values and preferences, intentions and personalities. They have a highly structured format, often used where the aim is to generate quantitative data from a large sample to test research questions and/or hypotheses.

There are disadvantages associated with questionnaires, which have been outlined in the literature. For instance, Bryman & Bell (2015) explain that some of the disadvantages of questionnaires are that:

- Questionnaires are associated with low response rates;
- It is impossible to probe respondents, as personal contact is lost because they fill them in on their own; and
- With questionnaires there is no allowance for respondents to ask questions where there is lack of clarity and there is a greater risk of missing data, as some respondents may not fill in all the questions.

Bearing the above arguments from the scholars in mind, the researcher decided to:

- Ensure that the questions were as clear and unambiguous as possible and ran a pilot study;
- Outline the title and purpose of the study on the front page to provide information about this study as a way of encouraging more youth to participate in the study.

4.6.1.1 Characteristics of a Questionnaire

According to Richie & Klein (2007) the characteristics of any standardised measuring instrument must be reliable, valid, objective, suitable and feasible. Willemse & Nyelisani (2015) maintain that the order and layout of the questionnaire set the tone for the empirical research. Sauro (2015) stated that the questionnaire must be short. It must include mostly closed-ended questions, and the questionnaire must stand alone, that is, all the information about the study should be included in the questionnaire. All these factors were considered in developing the close ended structured questionnaire for this study.

4.7 Standardisation of a Quantitative Research Instrument

4.7.1 Validity

The validity of the study was undertaken using a research instrument to measure the independent and dependent variables. Validity ascertains whether the means of the research measuring instrument are truthful, and essentially measures that which is projected or desired to measure (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler, 2014). A pilot study was done to test the validity and reliability of the research instrument and also to make any changes prior to commencement of actual fieldwork. Moreover, the respondents that were chosen for the pilot run were representative and consistent with the target population in terms of scholarly capability, attitude and knowledge of the subject matter. Moreover, the pilot findings from the Cronbach Alpha test supported the validity and reliability of the main instrument.

For the main study, face and content validity were adopted to test validity after evaluating the independent (Pursuing dreams/Goal setting) and dependent variables

(Entrepreneurial Skills, Limited Economic Opportunities, Youth Development and Role Models). Face and content validity of the instrument was reviewed by the supervisor who provided feedback on variables in relation to pilot respondents and subsequent measurement thereof.

4.7.2 Reliability

The reliability of the scales utilized in the research instrument was measured by the coefficient of reliability using Cronbach Alpha (α). Cronbach Alpha is a measure used to assess the internal consistency or internal reliability of a set of items (questions) from the research instrument. Internal consistency is the degree to which a set of items in a test measure the same concept or construct and linked to the inter-relatedness of the items (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Cronbach Alpha is not a statistical test, but is the one-way to measure the strength of internal reliability.

The reliability of the scale was used to measure both independent and dependent variables. The set of items in this study will be the quantitative (Annexure B) research instrument. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale. As stated by George & Mallery (2011), Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges in value from 0 to 1 and may be used to describe the reliability of factors extracted from dichotomous and/or multi-point formatted questionnaires or scales.

According to Creswell *et al.* (2016) Cronbach alpha coefficients that are greater than 0.80 is regarded as acceptable (moderate reliability) in most applications, while lower than 0.60 is regarded as unacceptable (low reliability). For the purpose of this study, a reliability scale of greater than 0.75 would be considered as reliable or acceptable. The Cronbach alpha coefficients were analysed for the two independent variables. Tavakol & Dennick, (2011) claimed that there are several descriptions about the acceptable values of Cronbach alpha ranging from 0.70 to 0.95. The independent variables will be comprehensively discussed below:

Table 4-6: Reliability Testing (Pursuing dreams/Goal setting)

Number of items	Cronbach alpha (α) coefficient
3	0.930

Table 4-6 used Cronbach Alpha coefficient to test for internal reliability of the dependent variable. When Cronbach's alpha is calculated a value of alpha (α) >0.700 suggests a reliable value or measure. Thus, the alpha coefficients for Pursuing dreams/Goal setting form a reliable measure for this study.

Table 4-7: Reliability Testing (Role Models)

Number of items	Cronbach alpha (α) coefficient
9	0.830

Table 4-7 used Cronbach Alpha coefficient to test for internal reliability of the independent variable, Role Models. When Cronbach's alpha is calculated a value of alpha (α) >0.700 suggests a reliable value or measure. Thus, the alpha coefficients for Role Models form a reliable measure for this study.

Table 4-8: Reliability Testing (Youth Development)

Number of items	Cronbach alpha (α) coefficient
5	0.870

Table 4-8 used Cronbach Alpha coefficient to test for internal reliability of the independent variable, Youth Development. When Cronbach's alpha is calculated a value of alpha (α) >0.700 suggests a reliable value or measure. Thus, the alpha coefficients for Youth Development form a reliable measure for this study.

Table 4-9: Reliability Testing (Entrepreneurial Skills)

Number of items	Cronbach alpha (α) coefficient
4	0.810

Table 4-9 used Cronbach Alpha coefficient to test for internal reliability of the independent variable, Entrepreneurial Skills. When Cronbach's alpha is calculated a value of alpha (α) >0.700 suggests a reliable value or measure. Thus, the alpha coefficients for Entrepreneurial Skills form a reliable measure for this study.

Table 4-10: Reliability Testing (Limited Economic Opportunities)

Number of items	Cronbach alpha (α) coefficient
5	0.840

Table 4-10 used Cronbach Alpha coefficient to test for internal reliability of the independent variable, Limited Economic Opportunities. When Cronbach's alpha is calculated a value of alpha (α) >0.700 suggests a reliable value or measure. Thus, the alpha coefficients for Limited Economic Opportunities form a reliable measure for this study.

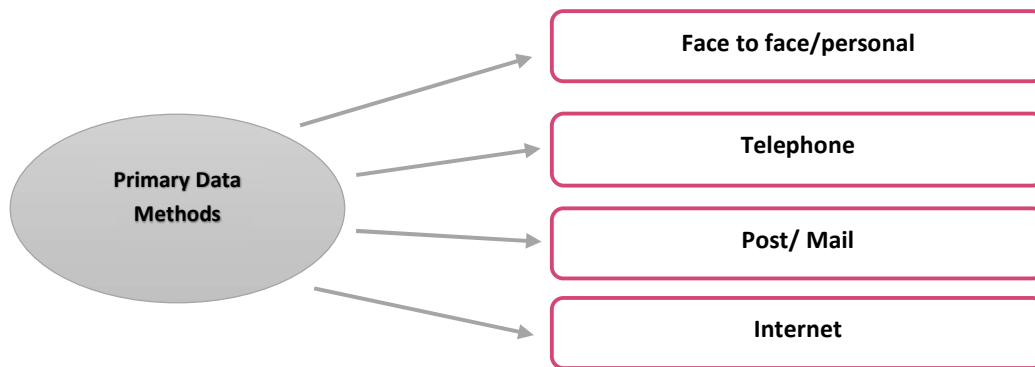
4.7 Data Collection Methods

Categorically, data collection methods can be **primary** and **secondary** and these two can be summarised as follows:

- Primary Data (field research): Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2012) described this as new data collected specifically for this investigation and so, it is data from the questionnaires, interviews and observations. As claimed by Willemse & Nyelisani (2015) primary data allow people to collect their own data as this will assist the reliability and relevance of the research purpose.

- Secondary Data (desk research): This referred to data collected initially for a different purpose like in the form of management reports, memorandum, minutes of meetings policy documents and letters. However, it may be necessary to appreciate that document analysis could fall in the category of primary data and not necessarily secondary if the researcher was the first to analyse them (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012).

Figure 4-3: Primary Data Collection Methods



Source: Willemse & Nyelisani (2015)

As stated by Willemse & Nyelisani (2015) there are four essential techniques during data collection, hence the researcher must decide on the best method to answer the research questions. The approaches of collecting primary data are through interviews, personal or telephone conversation and self-administered questionnaires. In addition, primary data sources can be obtained through investigation or experiment, observation, focus group or by conducting survey questions (Willemse & Nyelisani, 2015).

The primary data collected throughout the research process of this study adopted a combination of the face to face/personal technique where the researcher physically engaged with respondents as well as the post/mail technique where the researcher appointed individuals to distribute and collate questionnaires on behalf of the researcher, within the target and more specifically, sample population.

With the aim of this research being to gain a contextualization of the social perspectives of youth on the cape flats with a key focus on understanding how they experience government intervention in the form of youth development initiatives and their outlook on life in an environment where youth development interventions exist, both primary and secondary research will be conducted. The bulk of the data will however come from primary data through distributing tailored questionnaires designed to accumulate valid data. Secondary data in the form of various policy documents across the National Government, Western Cape Government and City of Cape Town Local government will be examined in order to better understand the phenomenon.

4.8 Data Analysis

The data will be captured and entered into a computer programme which will be able to generate frequencies and graphs which will make it easier to make an analysis and interpretation. The known programme is the Statistical Package for Social System (SPSS) which is capable of doing data processing. The analysis and interpretation of data will be presented using descriptive statistics. Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2012) recommended that, the first and important step of the data analysis process is to identify the correct technique to use for analysis hence descriptions will include frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations. Data will be distinguished and be represented in a tabular format using graphical representation; bar graphs and pie charts.

4.8.1 Pilot Testing

Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2012) point out that the data gathering phase of a research process typically begins with pilot testing. A pilot study is a reduced scale version of the core study intended to check that the intended project outcomes will be achieved. A pilot study is undertaken to assess the questionnaire for face, content, construct validity and also reliability, to eliminate any items that are ambiguous, incoherent, and incomprehensible for the main study. According to Ngcamu & Teferra (2015) piloting a study is one broadly documented and consented method of dealing with reliability and validity.

4.9 Ethical Consideration

Ethics is the study of the correct conduct and focuses on how to conduct research in a moral and responsible way (Sauro, 2015). Madushani (2016) define research ethics as the '*appropriateness of a researcher's behaviour relating to the rights of the parties affected by the study*'. Akaranga & Makau (2016) stated that ethics refer to '*adherence to a conduct that is generally acceptable to the field of empirical research*'.

When a researcher is allowed by research ethics committee to administers questionnaires or requests for (individual or group) interviews there is need to respect the ethical consideration of participants. Moreover, the researcher would be held responsible and accountable for any negative impact on participant/s by the study. There are five professional codes of ethics that needs to be considered when undertaking research with participants, as shown in the figure below:

Figure 4-4: Five Professional Code of Ethics Research for Participants



Source: Akaranga & Makau (2016)

It is obligatory for a social researcher conducting research related to humans to apply for ethical clearance (Akaranga & Makau, 2016). Ethical considerations (see figure 5-15) contain the following: avoiding harm, voluntary participation, informed consent and independence; also no breach of privacy, and confidentiality (Sauro, 2015).

This study collected information which is unique and personal to the individual respondent and is therefore of a sensitive nature. This put pressure on the researcher to adhere to the ethical requirements of research to avoid possible abuse or misuse of sensitive information (Sauro, 2015). Additionally, the youth who were the respondents in the study were reassured that the information collected will not be used for anything other than for academic research purposes. This was incorporated into the introductory letters that the researcher prepared and address to each sample element as well as in the consent letters that also stressed the adherence to confidentiality and the avoidance of data misuse and abuse.

4.9.1 Anonymity and Confidentiality

Confidentiality and anonymity are widely discussed as important ethical considerations. Bryman & Bell (2015) state that disclosing confidential information to unauthorised parties is a violation of research ethics. The researcher provided all respondents with a guarantee that their identities will not be revealed.

4.9.2 Informed Consent, Permissions and Approvals

The researcher has a duty to inform all the research participants about the nature and purpose of the study. Respondents must also be informed of their right to refuse to participate if they so wished (Green & Thorogood, 2013; Bryman & Bell, 2015). The researcher informed all the respondents of their rights to refuse to participate in this study no individual has been coerced into participating in this study

4.9.3 Protection from Harm

Sekaran & Bougie (2016) dispels the common belief that the issue of harm in research is confined to medical research. In business and social research, harm can come from creating excessive anxiety and discomfort in respondents. Harm can also come from harassment of respondents particularly those whose participation may appear to be below the researcher's expectation. Sekaran & Bougie (2016) argues that a researcher should stop a data collection session once there are signs that the respondent is feeling uncomfortable with the questioning. Respondents in the study did not demonstrate any visible signs that could reasonably be construed as symptoms of discomfort, embarrassment or anxiety.

4.10 Limitations

The aim of the study was to contextualize the social perspectives of the youth on selected areas on the cape flats in relation to youth development interventions undertaken by government role players, with a view to drafting and proposing a normative stage model for youth development policy formulation in those areas and areas alike. However, despite endeavouring to make a substantial contribution to the importance of the youth development challenges in the target population, several limitations were recognized and documented below:

- The Cape Flats is extremely large in geographical size, comprising a vast number of different towns and cities, however selected areas on the cape flats were targeted with the intention of narrowing the scope with a view to making meaningful deductive conclusions. The use of selected areas on the cape flats however limits the scope for a full comprehensive analysis of the cape flats region; and
- Respondent rate: While 1000 questionnaires were distributed initially, the response rate was lower than expected, with approximately 680 respondents completing the questionnaires and submitting them timeously for collection by the researcher and/or assigned individual acting on behalf of the researcher.

4.11 Chapter Summary

Positivism paradigm is founded on the idea that it is possible and desirable to study human behaviour in the same context natural scientists study the natural world where the world conforms to the fixed laws and rules of causation and happening like the laws of relativity and gravity. Interpretivism focuses on exploring the complexity of social phenomena with a view to gaining understanding. The purpose of research in interpretivism is the understanding and interpreting everyday happenings, experiences and social structures, as well as the values people attach to these phenomena. The exploratory sequential design commences with the qualitative research and utilizes the understandings from the qualitative method to design and analysis quantitative. The questionnaires will be distributed through employing a combination of direct face-to-face contact between the researcher and the respondents as well as through the strategic appointment of individuals who enjoy proximity to vast numbers of youth within the targeted population such as faith-based organizations, community youth leaders and school educators. Based on the above the next chapter provides a focused discussion on the results.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

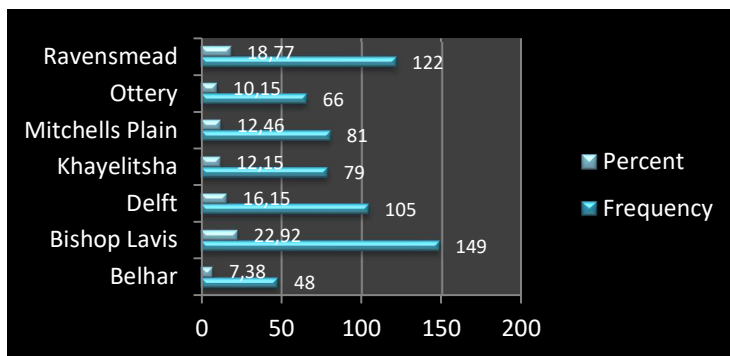
This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected from the survey. It includes data gathered from the sample describing the activities and practices of the participants. The responses of six hundred and fifty participants (N = 650) were obtained via the survey and these responses are described in this section. The responses in this section presents the social perspectives of the participants on selected areas from the Cape Flats with a view to establishing a contextualization on legislative and policy frameworks governing youth development. The results also present a normative stage conceptual model that is tested by correlation and regression statistical procedures.

5.2 The Sample

The study was aimed at obtaining 1000 participants, however, only 650 responses were obtained. The final sample therefore consisted of 650 participants and this is reported in this chapter. Descriptive statistics, correlation and regression statistics were used to describe the data obtained. The questionnaire was based on two sections. Section A consists of seven items and the results are described below.

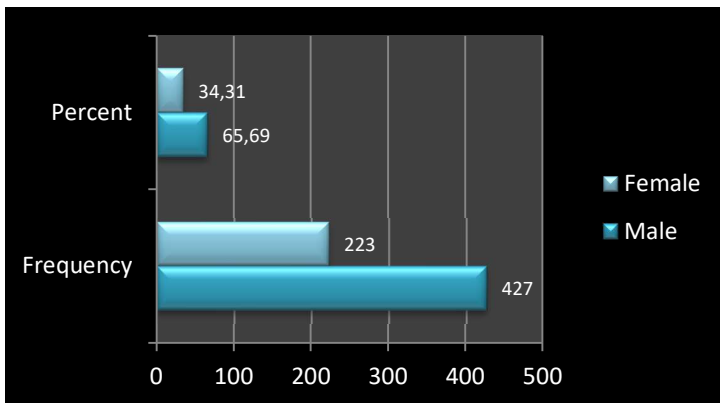
5.2.1 Section A - (Demographic Information)

Figure 5-5: Geographic Areas



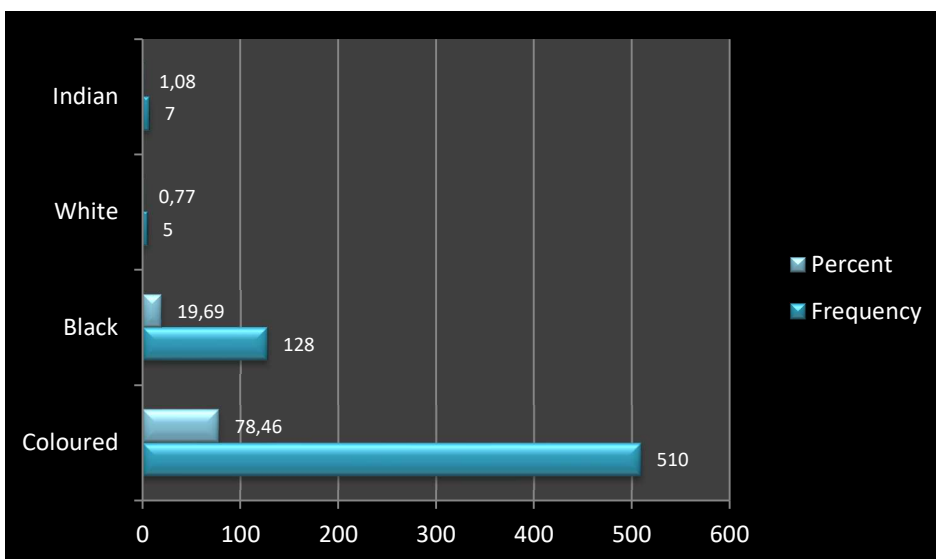
According to figure 5-5 the participants were selected from diverse areas within the Cape Flats. These areas include Ravensmead, Ottery, Mitchells Plain, Khayelitsha, Delft, Bishop Lavis and Belhar. The majority of the respondents reside in Bishop Lavis (22,92%) followed by Ravensmead (18,77%) and Delft (16,15%). Bishop Lavis, Ravensmead and Delft are commonly known as areas with the highest crime rates in the Metro.

Figure 5-6: Gender



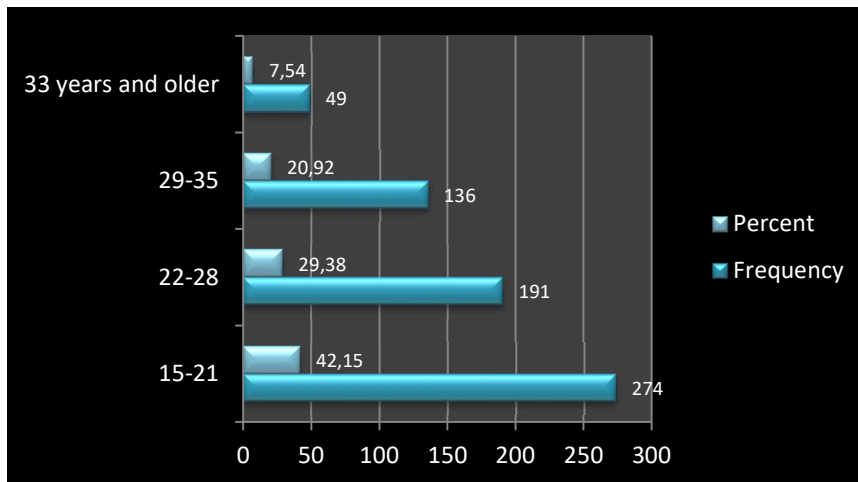
The majority of the participants were males (65,69%) compared to females (34,31%) (see figure 5-6).

Figure 5-7: Race



The majority of participants consisted of coloured people (78,46%) followed by black people (19,69%). It is commonly known for the areas in the study to be mainly populated by coloured people (see figure 5-7).

Figure 5-8: Age



The majority of the participants was between 15 and 21 years old and was comprised of 42.15%. This was followed by the 22-28 year old category (29.38%). Participants aged between 29 and 35 consisted of 20.92% and this category tend to be representative of young people actively participating in the economy (see figure 5-8).

Figure 5-9: Employment Status

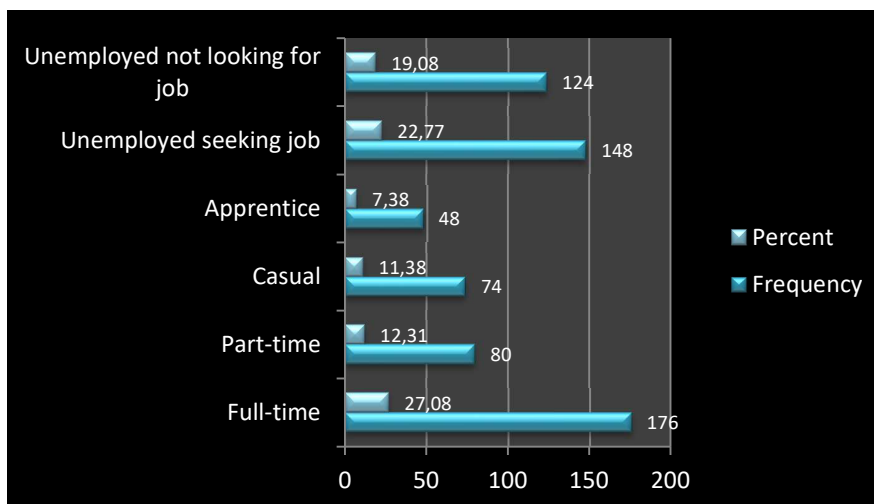
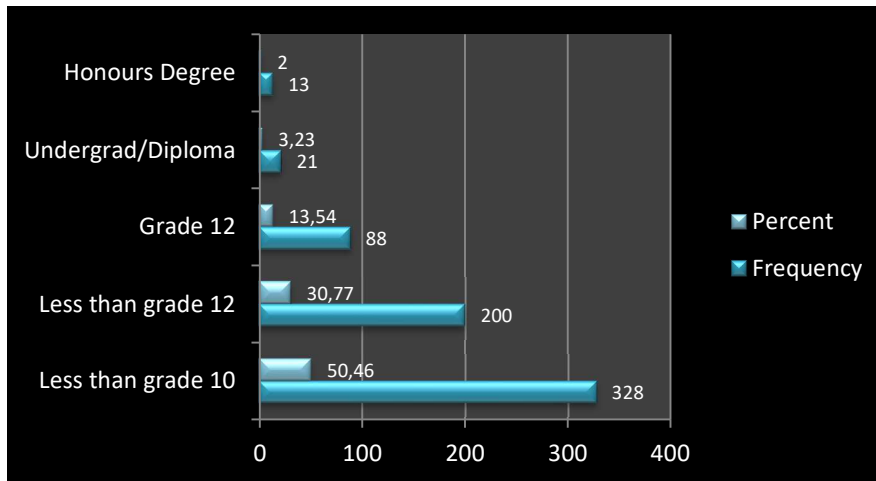


Figure 5-9 measured the level of employment status. The extent of unemployment is significant and is represented by 42%. This includes participants that are either actively seeking employment or have given up seeking employment opportunities. Apprenticeships are represented by 7,38% which reflects limited participation in formal

programs. This can be an indication of either limited knowledge of formal programs or that people are not adequately informed. Full-time employment is comprised of 27,08% which is systemic considering the extent of violence referred to earlier.

Figure 5-10: Education



A significant percentage of participants have not completed Grade 12 and this is represented by 81%. The former could be participants that dropped out of school or could not progress to at least Grade 12. A small percentage of the participants have completed Grade 12 and this is represented by 13,54%. These statistics indicate that participants are not adequately educated to enter either university or industry (see figure 5-10).

Figure 5-11: Income Levels

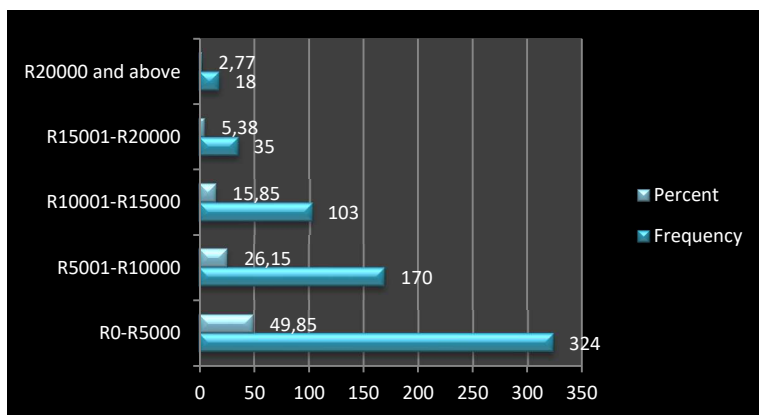


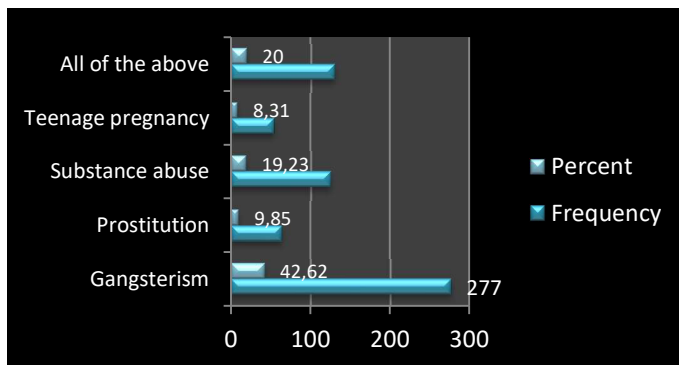
Figure 5-11 indicates that the majority of the participants is earning less than R5000 per month and is represented by 50%. In addition, 26% of the participants are earning between R5000 and R10000. These findings are indicative of low educational levels and people living in poverty stricken conditions.

Table 5-11: Unemployment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	559	86,0	86,0	86,0
	No	91	14,0	14,0	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-11 the level of unemployment is significant and is represented by 86%. This result is indicative of prevailing conditions in township communities in the Cape Flats area.

Figure 5-12: Biggest societal ills impacting the youth in the community



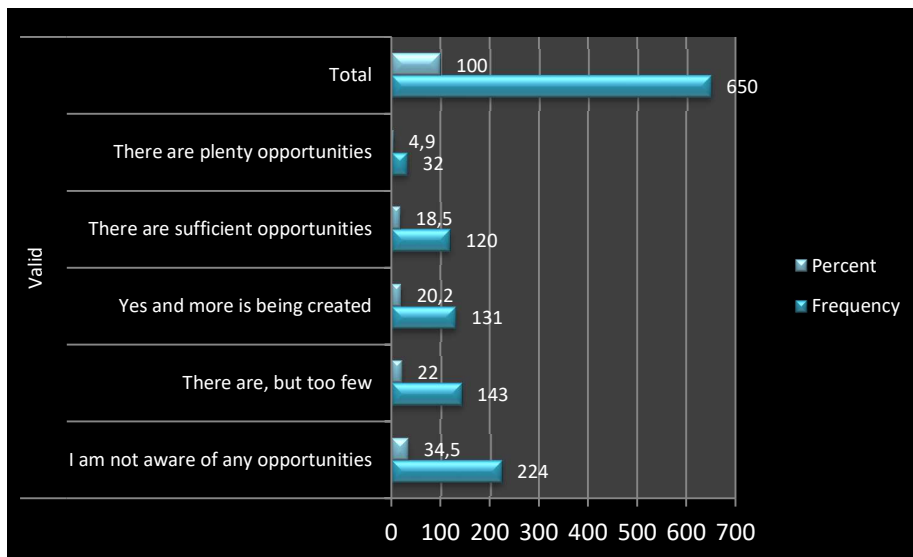
According to figure 5-12 participants indicated that gangsterism is the biggest societal ill in the community and this is represented by 42,62%. It is commonly acknowledged in the literature that gangsterism is widespread in the Cape Flats area. This is also commonly associated with gang related violence and drug trafficking. Participants also indicated that gangsterism, prostitution, substance abuse and teenage pregnancy collectively comprise the second highest factor.

Table 5-12: Youth Unemployment and Crime

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	611	94,0	94,0	94,0
	No	39	6,0	6,0	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

Participants were asked whether unemployment amongst the youth could result in criminal activity. A significant number of participants (94%) indicated that youth unemployment is associated with general crime in the area (see table 5-12).

Figure 5-13: Are there sufficient opportunities to access a job?



Participants were asked whether there are sufficient opportunities to access a job with their current qualifications. The majority of the participants indicated that opportunities

were too few or that they were not aware of any. This was represented by 57% (see figure 5-13).

5.2.2 Section B (Independent /Dependent Variables)

Goals/Pursuing dreams

To what extent will you pursue your dreams/goals considering the current challenges in the environment?

Table 5-13: Pursuing Goals/Dreams

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unclear	204	31,4	31,4	31,4
	Some intent	163	25,1	25,1	56,5
	Satisfactory	123	18,9	18,9	75,4
	Clearly structured	82	12,6	12,6	88,0
	Very clearly structured	78	12,0	12,0	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-13, 56% of the participants indicated that they do not pursue any dreams or goals. This is in contrast to the 24% of the participants who indicated that they have clearly defined goals.

What would you currently prioritise as number one, amongst the following?

Table 5-14: Most Important Goals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Tertiary education	135	20,8	20,8	20,8
	Trade school	119	18,3	18,3	39,1
	Sport	102	15,7	15,7	54,8
	Money for household	226	34,8	34,8	89,5
	Start my own business	68	10,5	10,5	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-14 the participants indicated that their most important goal is to earn money for the household. This would be indicative of the plight of the environment and conditions. About 20% of the participants indicated that they want to study at a university to obtain a degree or diploma. This was followed by 18% of the participants who indicated that they would be interested in vocational education.

To what extent do I pursue dreams and goals in life?

Table 5-15: Usage of Goals/Dreams

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very little to no use	147	22,6	22,6	22,6
	Some use	160	24,6	24,6	47,2
	Average awareness	239	36,8	36,8	84,0
	Moderate use	73	11,2	11,2	95,2
	High usage	31	4,8	4,8	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

Table 5-15 measured the extent to which participants established goals/dreams as a means of pursuing personal and career targets. A large number of participants (47%) indicated that they did not use goals/dreams to pursue targets. A smaller percentage of the participants made use of goals/dreams to pursue targets and this was comprised of 16%.

Entrepreneurial Skills

To what extent are current programs empowering you to start your own business?

Table 5-16: Entrepreneurial Intent

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No impact	229	35,2	35,2	35,2
Some impact	163	25,1	25,1	60,3
Satisfactory	40	6,2	6,2	66,5
Clearly impactful	173	26,6	26,6	93,1
Very impactful	45	6,9	6,9	100,0
Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-16 about 60% of the participants indicated that the existing training interventions are not impactful in generating entrepreneurial intent. This is in direct contrast to 36% of the participants that existing programs are impactful. This result could imply that existing training interventions are not visible enough or are simply not effective to create entrepreneurial intent.

To what extent will entrepreneurship training assist you in thinking about starting your own business?

Table 5-17: Entrepreneurship Training

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No impact	131	20,2	20,2	20,2
Limited impact	118	18,2	18,2	38,3
Moderate	173	26,6	26,6	64,9
Some impact	128	19,7	19,7	84,6
High impact	100	15,4	15,4	100,0
Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-17 38% of the participants indicated that existing training interventions will not assist individuals in sufficient transfer of concepts to stimulate entrepreneurial thinking. This is in contrast to 35% of the participants who indicated that existing training interventions do assist individuals in stimulating entrepreneurial thinking.

Youth Development

What is the level of awareness created about the status of youth development in your community?

Table 5-18: Level of Awareness of Youth Development

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unclear	219	33,7	33,7	33,7
	Some intent	207	31,8	31,8	65,5
	Satisfactory	122	18,8	18,8	84,3
	Clearly structured	63	9,7	9,7	94,0
	Very clearly structured	39	6,0	6,0	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-18 65% of the participants indicated that the level of awareness is low to very low. This is in contrast to 16% of the participants who indicated that the level of awareness of youth development is high. This result is also indicative of low visibility of youth development programs in the community.

What is the quality of youth development programs to ensure that you are adequately prepared for a job?

Table 5-19: Quality of Youth Development Programs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not effective	179	27,5	27,5	27,5
	Limited effectiveness	123	18,9	18,9	46,5
	Average	170	26,2	26,2	72,6
	Some effectiveness	91	14,0	14,0	86,6
	Highly effective	87	13,4	13,4	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-19 the majority of participants indicated that the quality of youth development programs were ineffective or had limited effectiveness. This was represented by 46% of the participants. In contrast 27% of the participants indicated that the quality of youth development programs had some effectiveness or were highly effective.

Figure 5-14: Youth development programs are adequate in responding to the needs of the youth

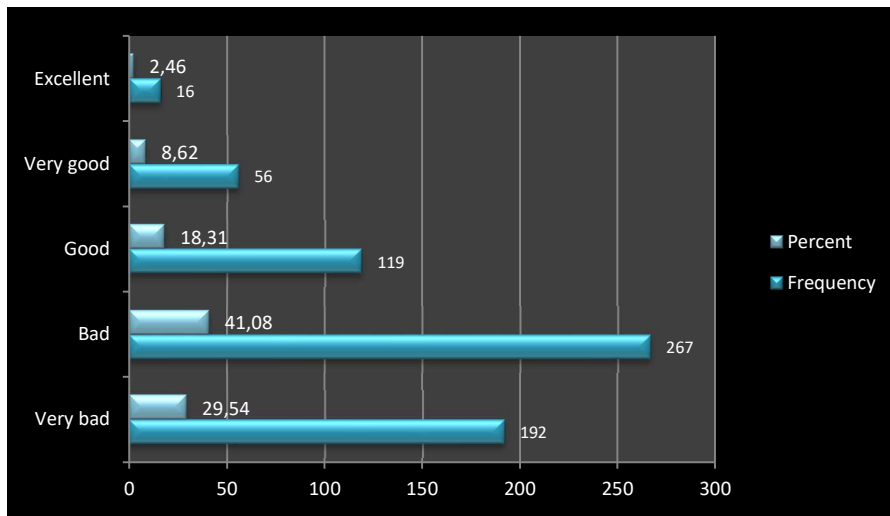


Figure 5-14 indicates that the majority of participants indicated that youth development programs are not adequate given the prevailing context. This is represented by 71% of the participants. It is commonly accepted that to minimize risks of youth, they should have equal access to resources that can improve their health, their education, and their overall role of development.

Role Models

It helps to think about turning to this person in times of need.

Table 5-20: Role Model 1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally disagree	156	24,0	24,0	24,0
	Disagree	182	28,0	28,0	52,0
	Medium	157	24,2	24,2	76,2
	Somewhat agree	72	11,1	11,1	87,2
	Totally agree	83	12,8	12,8	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-20 52% of the participants indicated that they did not have a person to turn to in times of need. This is in contrast to 24% of the participants that indicated that

they had a person to turn to in times of need. This result reflects a low level of dependency on someone such as a friend, parent etc.

I would like to discuss my problems and concerns with this person

Table 5-21: Role Model 2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally disagree	188	28,9	28,9	28,9
	Disagree	217	33,4	33,4	62,3
	Medium	106	16,3	16,3	78,6
	Somewhat agree	80	12,3	12,3	90,9
	Totally agree	59	9,1	9,1	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-21 62% of the participants indicated that they did not have a person to turn to when facing problems and challenges. This is in contrast to 21% of the participants that indicated that they had a person to turn to when facing problems. This result reflects a low level of dependency on someone such as a friend, parent etc.

I would like to talk things over with this person

Table 5-22: Role Model 3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally disagree	164	25,2	25,2	25,2
	Disagree	210	32,3	32,3	57,5
	Medium	113	17,4	17,4	74,9
	Somewhat agree	119	18,3	18,3	93,2
	Totally agree	44	6,8	6,8	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-22 58% of the participants indicated that they did not have a person to talk to discuss social and related issues. This is in contrast to 25% of the participants that indicated that they had a person to turn to discuss social and related issues. This result reflects a low level of dependency on someone such as a friend, parent etc.

I find it easy to depend on this person

Table 5-23: Role Model 4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally disagree	237	36,5	36,5	36,5
	Disagree	186	28,6	28,6	65,1
	Medium	99	15,2	15,2	80,3
	Somewhat agree	74	11,4	11,4	91,7
	Totally agree	54	8,3	8,3	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-23 65% of the participants indicated that they did not have a person that they can depend on. This is in contrast to 20% of the participants that indicated that they had a person that they can depend on. This result reflects a low level of dependency on someone such as a friend, parent etc.

I don't feel comfortable opening up to this person

Table 5-24: Role Model 5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally disagree	239	36,8	36,8	36,8
	Disagree	163	25,1	25,1	61,8
	Medium	165	25,4	25,4	87,2
	Somewhat agree	49	7,5	7,5	94,8
	Totally agree	34	5,2	5,2	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-24 62% of the participants indicated that they did not feel comfortable opening up to a person closest to them in the community. This is in contrast to 13% of the participants that indicated that they had a person to whom they can open up to. This result reflects a low level of dependency on someone such as a friend, parent etc.

Limited Economic Opportunities

To what extent do you think that limited economic opportunities will prevent you from achieving your dreams?

Table 5-25: Prevent Achieving Dreams

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	To a great extent	224	34,5	34,5	34,5
	To some extent	143	22,0	22,0	56,5
	Medium	135	20,8	20,8	77,2
	Limited impact	120	18,5	18,5	95,7
	No impact at all	28	4,3	4,3	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-25 57% of the participants indicated that when the environment is characterised by limited economic opportunities then this will prevent them from achieving their dreams. In contrast 23% of the participants indicated that they are not influenced by the extent of limited economic opportunities.

In your view, do limited economic resources limit your career opportunities as a youth member in your community?

Table 5-26: Limit Career Opportunities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	To a great extent	292	44,9	44,9	44,9
	To some extent	124	19,1	19,1	64,0
	Medium	109	16,8	16,8	80,8
	Limited impact	99	15,2	15,2	96,0
	No impact at all	26	4,0	4,0	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-26 64% of the participants indicated that the extent of limited economic opportunities impact on their ability to access career opportunities. In comparison 19% of the participants indicated that the extent of limited opportunities does not influence their ability to access career opportunities.

To what extent do limited economic opportunities prevent you to access a job or to start a business?

Table 5-27: Access to a Job

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	To a great extent	251	38,6	38,6	38,6
	To some extent	236	36,3	36,3	74,9
	Medium	73	11,2	11,2	86,2
	Limited impact	70	10,8	10,8	96,9
	No impact at all	20	3,1	3,1	100,0
	Total	650	100,0	100,0	

According to table 5-27 participants were asked more directly whether the extent of limited economic opportunities influenced their ability to find a job. A large proportion of the participants comprised of 75% indicated that the extent of limited economic opportunities influenced their ability to find employment. In contrast 14% of the participants indicated that the extent of limited economic opportunities did not have an impact.

5.2.1.2 Correlation

This section entailed exploring the relationship between the independent variables (extent of youth participation in youth development programs, skills, education, role models, societal ills and limited economic opportunities and the independent variable (pursuing dreams). Aspects such as mentoring, role modeling and coaching are widely recognized as key drivers of youth development. Their ability to develop successfully depends to a great extent on the support and assistance they receive from the people and institutions around them. Therefore, in this section the results will be used to arrive at a normative stage conceptual model for youth development.

Table 5-28: Correlations Statistical Testing

	Pursue dream/Goals	Participation	Entrepreneurial Skills	Education	Role models	Societal ills	Limited economic opportunities

Pursue dream/Goals	Pearson Correlation	1	,360(**)	,161(**)	,052	,208(**)	,038	,077(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,186	,000	,332	,049
	N	650	650	650	650	650	650	650
Participation	Pearson Correlation	,360(**)	1	,155(**)	,154(**)	,227(**)	,088(*)	,087(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,000	,000	,026	,026
	N	650	650	650	650	650	650	650
Entrepreneurial Skills	Pearson Correlation	,161(**)	,155(**)	1	,030	,066	,019	,041
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000		,449	,092	,634	,300
	N	650	650	650	650	650	650	650
Education	Pearson Correlation	,052	,154(**)	,030	1	,140(**)	,120(**)	,073
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,186	,000	,449		,000	,002	,063
	N	650	650	650	650	650	650	650
Role models	Pearson Correlation	,208(**)	,227(**)	,066	,140(**)	1	,067	,083(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,092	,000		,087	,035
	N	650	650	650	650	650	650	650
Societal ills	Pearson Correlation	,038	,088(*)	,019	,120(**)	,067	1	,101(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,332	,026	,634	,002	,087		,010
	N	650	650	650	650	650	650	650
Limited economic opportunities	Pearson Correlation	,077(*)	,087(*)	,041	,073	,083(*)	,101(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,049	,026	,300	,063	,035	,010	
	N	650	650	650	650	650	650	650

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlation testing indicated that the dependent variable, pursuing dreams is positively correlated to participation ($r = 0.36$, $p < .00$), skills ($r = 0.16$, $p < .00$), role models ($r = 0.21$, $p < .00$) and limited economic resources ($r = 0,78$, $p < .00$). The dependent variable was not correlated to education and societal ills (see table 5-28).

5.2.1.3 Regression

In statistics, stepwise regression is a method of fitting regression models in which the choice of predictive variables is carried out by an automatic procedure. In each step, a

variable is considered for addition to or subtraction from the set of explanatory variables based on some pre-specified criterion.

The independent variables, participation, skills, role models, societal ills, education and limited economic resources were regressed against the dependent variable, pursuing dreams.

Table 5-29: Regression

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,208(a)	,043	,042	,489	,043	29,254	1	648	,000	1,742
2	,255(b)	,065	,062	,484	,022	15,098	1	647	,000	
3	,283(c)	,080	,076	,480	,015	10,606	1	646	,001	

a Predictors: (Constant), rolemodels

b Predictors: (Constant), rolemodels, skills

c Predictors: (Constant), rolemodels, skills, sufficientjobs

d Dependent Variable: pursuedream

According to table 5-29 three models were derived through stepwise regression. In model A the independent variable, role models were significant and explained 4% of the variance in the dependent variable ($r = .04$, $p < .00$). In model B role models and skills collectively explained 6% of the variance ($r = .06$, $p < .00$). In model C role models, entrepreneurial skills and limited economic opportunities collectively explained 8% of the variance in the dependent variable ($r = .08$, $p < .00$).

5.3 Chapter Summary

The study was aimed at obtaining 1000 participants, however, only 650 responses were obtained. The final sample therefore consisted of 650 participants and this is reported in this chapter. Descriptive statistics, correlation and regression statistics were used to describe the data obtained. The participants were selected from diverse areas with the Cape Flats. These areas include Ravensmead, Ottery, Mitchells Plain, Khayelitsha, Delft, Bishop Lavis and Belhar. The majority of the respondents reside in Bishop Lavis (22,92%) followed by Ravensmead (18,77%) and Delft (16,15%). The extent of unemployment is

significant and is represented by 42%. This includes participants that are either actively seeking employment or have given up seeking employment opportunities. The majority of the participants is earning less than R5000 per month and is represented by 50%. In addition, 26% of the participants are earning between R5000 and R10000. 71% of the participants indicated that youth development programs are not adequate. In respect of the above the following chapter will deal with an in-depth discussion on the analysis conducted on the research and investigation in respect of the study.

CHAPTER 6

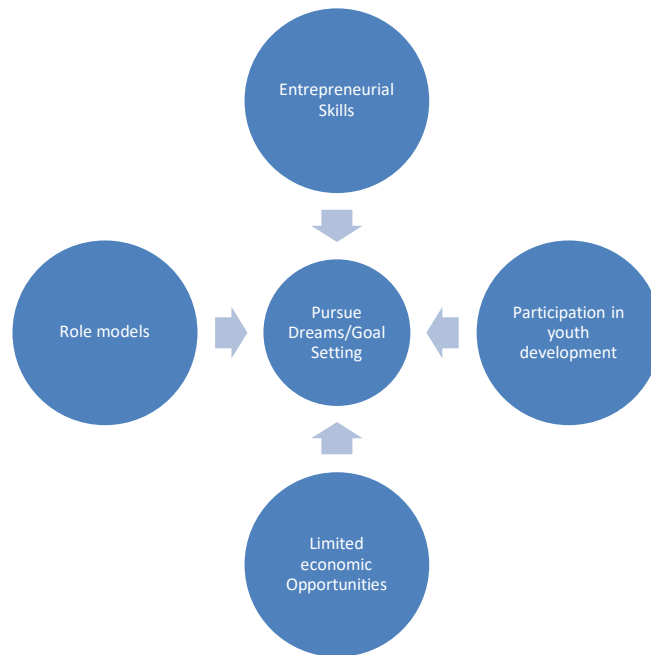
ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

This section will present an analysis of the results that were described in the previous Chapter. Descriptive, correlation and regression statistics were presented in the previous Chapter. A normative stage conceptual model will be analysed and discussed.

6.2 Normative Stage Conceptual Model

Figure 6-15: Normative Conceptual Model of Entrepreneurial Development



6.2.1 Pursuing Dreams/Goals

The literature highlighted the importance of the legislative framework and policies which provide for a cluster of policy options that have been proposed and implemented by governmental actors in the field of Public Policy, with specific reference to addressing the phenomenon surrounding youth development. The normative stage conceptual model starts with the introduction of a dependent variable, pursuing dreams/goals.

The introduction of the dependent variable, pursuing dreams emphasises a key underpinning of the need for responsive policy implementation with specific reference to addressing the scourge of youth underdevelopment. Given the context within the Cape Flats the National Youth Development Policy Framework (2002-2007) has emphasised that direction and purpose are critical elements in supporting youth development. The extent of violence and despair within the Cape Flats has resulted in policies achieving limited success. The current situation where increasing emphasis has been placed on gender-based violence and despair of young women in particular, has demonstrated the imperative of motivating young people by building dreams. Therefore, the introduction of

pursuing dreams as a dependent variable is crucial in the development of the normative stage conceptual model.

Pursuing dreams/goals has been viewed in the literature as a mechanism to build vision, particularly in environments contextualised by strive and extreme violence. Some studies suggest that during the dream phase the aim is to build on and encourage participants to share. This refers to wishes, hopes and dreams for the desired future and what might lie beyond the present regarding a specific topic and sharing these aspirations (see Cooperrider, Whitney & Stavros, 2008; Fitzgerald, Oliver, & Hoxsey, 2010). Pursuing dreams is indicative therefore of participants that shape and refine their own dreams while listening to those of others. According to Fitzgerald et al. (2010) when designing the dream, it is not finding the problem but rather focusing on creating a desirable vision in order to move forward to make progress.

This situation contributed directly to many of the current dilemmas young women and men face. The apartheid government did not address the development needs of young men and women as a specific category. The particular needs, challenges or opportunities faced by young people were either ignored, or not considered important enough to warrant more focused policy or programmatic interventions (See National Youth Development Policy Framework 2002-2007). Policy formulation in this regard should take into account advocacy toward self-belief and self-determination, particularly of young individuals.

While in the literature it is evident that the economy has been in a recession for some time, it is not likely that the level of unemployment will be reduced in the short to medium term. Therefore entrepreneurship is seen as an alternative to mainstream job creation and economic development. The introduction of the National Small Business Act of 1996 has emphasised the priority of building capacity in township communities in an attempt to stimulate economic activity. Quite often in this rhetoric the term, entrepreneurship has been brought to the fore as a means of driving change in the less affluent communities.

The pursuance of dreams is directly correlated to entrepreneurship. In entrepreneurship the focus is on celebrating positive changes and innovations resulting from pursuance of dreams (Bester, 2011). The pursuance of dreams has also been shown to contribute towards sustaining and amplifying the energy and outcomes of entrepreneurship experience. However, the goals and action plans set in place during entrepreneurial action become the individuals' own form of measurement (Stratton-Berkessel, 2010). The normative stage conceptual model therefore builds onto the development of pursuing dreams and entrepreneurship.

At the same time social entrepreneurship is very important in community development, particularly youth development. The extent of new challenges in less affluent communities demands new approaches regarding policy development. The inclusion of pursuing dreams relates to the transfer of new discoveries by focusing on putting ideas generated in the design phase (insights and excitement) into action. Studies have indicated that pursuing of dreams is related to the implementation of plans which strengthen personal commitment in order to empower and sustain (Shane, 2008). These plans are part of everyday interactions needed to ensure successful entrepreneurship (Shane, 2008; Oosterbeek, van Praag, & Ijsselstein, 2010).

6.2.2 Role Models

An entrepreneurial role model has been defined as a common reference to individuals who set examples to be followed by others and who may motivate other people to make career decisions and obtain certain objectives. Very often there are no visible role models that the youth can aspire to. Therefore, role models have been included in the model as an independent variable.

An **entrepreneurial role model** has been defined as a common reference to individuals who set examples to be followed by others and who may motivate other people to make career decisions and obtain certain objectives.

In this study a normative stage conceptual model has been proposed. It has also been suggested in previous studies modeling is the only intellectually reputable techniques of forecasting, since unless we have some kind of understanding of the processes involved in the issues we are concerned with based on a "model" of these processes, any prediction we make will be a shot in the dark, and we will be unable to learn from failures in our forecasts as part of an integrated information system (see Baron & Tang, 2009).

In this regard the study aims to contribute towards the formation of youth development strategies and therefore opted to design a normative stage conceptual model with a focus on driving entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship. The purpose of the normative stage conceptual model according to Dunn (1994) is not only to purport a developmental framework for the attainment of some utility (value).

Policy formulation supporting development in entrepreneurship takes into account the entrepreneurial intention as the key element to understand the new-firm creation process. The prevailing environment is an important element in entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial intention is affected by environmental events. In fact, environment could be either a facilitator or an impediment to entrepreneurial intention in a society. Role modelling in this regard is an important factor in entrepreneurship fostering an entrepreneurial culture and the development of society. This approach to entrepreneurship result in focusing on dreams, norms, believes and regulatory affecting individual and organizations which differ in different societies and cultures. In this analysis therefore there may be additional factors for consideration – these include ‘family context’, ‘societies, ‘norms and believe,’ the expectations from women’ and ‘the technology growth in a country’ which play an important role on entrepreneur's intention to start a business.

In the literature role models are increasingly being acknowledged as an influential factor in explaining the reasons for the choice of occupation and career (see Bosma, Hessels, Schutjens & Show, 2011). Various conceptual studies have proposed links between role models and entrepreneurial intentions against the context of poverty alleviation in less affluent communities. In contemporary studies knowledge of the presence of

entrepreneurial role models, their specific functions, characteristics and influence on pursuing dreams is therefore limited. However, my study makes a contribution in this regard where role models have been included as an independent variable with direct influence on pursuing dreams.

6.2.3 Youth Development

Contemporary studies tend to place increasing emphasis on youth development. More recent youth development policies at the national, provincial and city levels have however been recognising the precarious situation many young South Africans find themselves in (see De Lannoy et al., 2018). They stress the need to intervene in several aspects of young people's lives, often strongly emphasising economic inclusion and empowerment, education, skills and training, health and social cohesion. In this regard the normative stage conceptual model includes the variable, participation in youth development as an essential measure of social cohesion and community development.

From the literature it is evident that many of the existing policies draw on official statistics that point at the deficits in young people's lives. This tendency, albeit inadvertently, may lead to the depersonalisation of young people, the issues and topics they face. It also often results in a focus on the 'objective' aspects of well-being but overlooks the more 'subjective' areas of well-being: how young people feel generally, how safe or unsafe they experience life to be, their sense of life satisfaction, etc. Linking the latter to the pursuance of dreams provides a basis to link it to participation in youth development. Similar studies suggest that as a result, general policy recommendations following a string of statistics may not be based on a complete understanding of young people's lived realities and tend to overlook their aspirations, dreams and agency (see Branson, Hofmeyer & Lam, 2015). Yet, the limited participation in youth development requires a comprehensive understanding of young people's realities; their needs and dreams; their real or perceived support networks, or gaps in these; their level of access to services and their willingness to take these up; and their sense of happiness .

The literature suggests that youth between 19 and 24 years are at a key point in their transition, expected to move from schooling towards post-school education and training, work and possibly independent living and parenthood – for some, this might mean having to navigate both adolescence and the transition to adulthood at the same time. Enabling young people to navigate these transitions to adulthood in a well-supported manner is crucial if we wish to enhance their present and future well-being. Therefore, participation in youth development programs plays a vital role in supporting the latter.

However, as stated in the literature participation in youth development programs is far more crucial in the current context of South African townships and informal settlements where these transitions are often constrained and disrupted by adverse economic and socio-cultural factors. However, the successful implementation of such programs is not supported by empirical evidence that links it to other factors. For instance, studies indicate limited success in youth unemployment in South Africa (Graham, Patel, Chowa, Masa, Khan, Williams & Mthembu, 2016). From such findings it is evident that although much policy attention and a range of public and private interventions having been implemented, youth unemployment rates have remained high since the transition to democracy.

Therefore, my study demonstrates clearly the link between participation in youth development and the dependent variable, pursuing dreams. Pursuing dreams as indicated before is directly linked to greater focus on either pursuing careers or successful entrepreneurship. In fact, comparisons between youth unemployment rates in the second quarter of 2008 and the second quarter of 2016 indicate that the problem has worsened over the past eight years (Graham et al., 2016).

6.2.4 Limited Economic Opportunities

The inclusion of limited economic opportunities in the normative stage conceptual model is indicative of the environment in less affluent communities – strive to obtain economic opportunities. This variable has a direct influence on the dependent variable. As demonstrated in the literature the youth represent a particularly vulnerable group in South

Africa, with one of the highest unemployment rates among OECD and G20 countries, and nearly 1 in 3 young people (aged 15-29) who are NEET (OECD, 2016). The youth is therefore faced with enormous challenges in terms of development in an economic sense. The youth comprises a large constituency of a country's population as well as in the townships. In other studies the link between limited economic opportunities and skills was demonstrated (see Oosterbeek et al., 2010). In my study the aim was to establish the link between limited economic opportunities and pursuing dreams. As pointed to earlier pursuing dreams can be seen as a catalyst for further advancement of ambitions, goals and similar outcomes. It is important to integrate this vulnerable group into the economy as the building of their skills could prove to be an invaluable resource that will contribute towards economic development. Limited economic opportunities are directly related to slow growth in the economy including less affluent communities. In this regard it is important to consider the relationship between skills and limited economic opportunities.

It has been argued in this regard that unemployment can be mitigated through entrepreneurial skills development and entrepreneurship as an outcome (see Petersen, Charman, Moll, Collins, Hockings, 2014). These studies have confirmed linkages between limited economic opportunities and entrepreneurial skills. Small, home-based grocery stores, known as spaza shops, are ubiquitous throughout the township areas of urban South Africa, constituting an important business in the informal economy. This increase is attributable to larger scale and price competitive behaviour as these entrepreneurs operate collectively in terms of buying shops, and stock, as well as in stock distribution.

Therefore studies indicate that the unemployment rate in township communities has been influenced by limited entrepreneurial skills (see Petersen et al., 2014; Oosterbeek et al., 2010). It is furthermore deducible from the viewpoint above, that when the population of the youth in South Africa increases, so will the unemployment rates in the country, indicating a direct relationship between increased youth population and increasing unemployment rates.

6.2.5 Entrepreneurial Skills

Current research indicates that there is a relationship between entrepreneurial skills and the pursuance of dreams-poverty alleviation (see Hussein, Bhuyain & Bakar, 2014). As indicated before the pursuance of dreams is strongly linked to entrepreneurial skills and successful entrepreneurship. Although my study does not specifically focus on the between entrepreneurial skills and successful entrepreneurship, the argument is put forward with regards to the importance of the pursuance of dreams in relation to poverty alleviation. The introduction therefore of skills as an independent variable in the normative stage conceptual model is important in order to examine the relationship between the dependent variable, pursuance of dreams and entrepreneurial skills.

Skills development in township communities is critical for poverty alleviation. The normative stage conceptual model clearly demonstrates that skills are a useful variable to use in at least demonstrating the link to the pursuance of dreams. Other studies have examined the role of skills development initiatives in promoting Local Economic Development, particularly in township communities (see Lateh, Hussain, Safizal & Halim, 2018). Lateh et al's (2018) study investigated the concept of skills development initiatives as it is used as an LED strategy in South Africa and a specific township to identify and evaluate the methods or procedures used for skills development initiatives towards LED strategies in the township. The effectiveness of skills development initiatives in the township highlight the lessons learnt through comparison with international and local precedents on the effective implementation of skills development initiatives.

The key findings revealed the extent to which skills development initiatives as LED strategies have been effective in a township context (Lateh et al., 2018). Such initiatives have been used as tools to lower the level of prevailing, eradicate poverty, create employment opportunities and encourage the growth of small and medium-sized enterprises. Skills development initiatives have been major role players in the redevelopment strategy for this township, even though shortcomings were identified as hindrances to their contribution to sustainable development.

Four main factors that contributed to the success and failure of skills development initiatives in a township context included - skills development and employment opportunities; the upgrading and maintenance of business infrastructure; social development, poverty alleviation and skills development initiatives; and youth empowerment with skills training programmes. Major findings revealed that skills development initiatives as LED strategies do not effectively target all areas of development, there is still more to be done to accelerate the economic and social growth. In this regard more empirical studies are needed to examine the relationship between entrepreneurial skills and LED strategies.

6.2.6 Chapter Summary

The literature highlighted the importance of the legislative framework and policies which provide for a cluster of policy options that have been proposed and implemented by governmental actors in the field of Public Policy, with specific reference to addressing the phenomenon surrounding youth development. Pursuing dreams has been viewed in the literature as a mechanism to build vision, particularly in environments contextualised by strife and extreme violence. Some studies suggest that during the dream phase the aim is to build on and encourage participants to share. In this regard the study aims to contribute towards the formation of youth development strategies and therefore opted to design a normative stage conceptual model with a focus on driving entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship. The literature suggests that youth between 19 and 24 years are at a key point in their transition, expected to move from schooling towards post-school education and training, work and possibly independent living and parenthood – for some, this might mean having to navigate both adolescence and the transition to adulthood at the same time. Four main factors that contributed to the success and failure of skills development initiatives in a township context included - skills development and employment opportunities; the upgrading and maintenance of business infrastructure; social development, poverty alleviation and skills development initiatives; and youth empowerment with skills training programmes. The following section deals with the concluding remarks in the form of a conclusion and the recommendations put forward by the researcher.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter describe the conclusion and recommendations regarding the empirical findings of the study. The study was an exploration of a normative stage conceptual model of youth development within the context of local economic development strategies and a policy framework. The sample was selected from the Cape Flats area within the Cape Metropolitan Area. The final sample selected for this study was 650 participants. Given the historical context of South Africa, regarding the injustices that non-white racial groups were subjected to, there exists an inherent landscape of economic exclusion. The Group Areas Act was instrumental in charting racial inequalities under the now abolished Apartheid policy. Equally, non-whites were prevented from starting businesses and entrepreneurship was not advocated as a means of generating wealth which resulted in

economic exclusion. Though abolished, the economic exclusion of the past still adversely impacts the quality of life endured by most non-white South Africans, two decades later. With the current economic outlook plagued by the high unemployment rates, particularly amongst the youth, there is economic policy uncertainty and growing disillusionment. The lack of economic opportunities that the youth are subjected to prompts them to access scarce resources out of desperation, which are often actions which are not consistent with the legal framework of South Africa. Socio-economic factors such as gang affiliation, substance abuse, prostitution and teenage pregnancy is often a knock-on effect when acting out of desperation to access scarce economic opportunities. This study presents a normative stage conceptual model of youth development using entrepreneurship as a means of increasing access to economic opportunities. The model focuses on pursuing dreams/goal setting as a start to aim at entrepreneurial outcomes. Developing the youth in this way increases their entrepreneurial skills and makes them more marketable in obtaining opportunities.

7.2 Research Questions

- To what extent do limited entrepreneurial skills influence youth development?
- How would the application of a normative stage conceptual model aid in developing credible local economic development strategies for youth development?
- What kind of recommendations can be made to policy makers, in order to enhance the efficacy of local economic development strategies?

7.2.1 To what extent do limited entrepreneurial skills influence youth development?

This study has indicated that youth unemployment is a petrifying reality on a large scale in the township areas and exacerbated by limited economic opportunities, which warrants responsive youth development and/or local economic development strategies. There appears to be multiple perspectives on entrepreneurial skills and how youth development can be enhanced. On the other hand, entrepreneurial skills are often confused with

business management skills and instead the focus is based on transferring generic skills in order for the youth to find employment.

It is important to develop the youth with contemporary skills so that they are able to sustain a life which enhances their human dignity and also contribute towards the social welfare of mankind. As pointed out by Hussain, Bhuiyan & Bakar (2017) entrepreneurship is a vital area to stimulate appropriate skills in less affluent communities in order to eradicate poverty, particularly for the youth. This perspective is in line with findings suggesting that the extent of violence in the township communities requires innovative public policy and local economic development strategies. This study puts forward a normative stage conceptual model that draws on multiple independent variables that can support a theory of entrepreneurial development.

As stated in the contextualisation of the research problem limited economic opportunities and poor entrepreneurial skills amongst the youth living in the Cape Flats have exacerbated the problems that exist. Developing the youth through developmental strategies should be a priority area of policy makers as the emerging generation will be responsible for advancing the agenda of social welfare, in time to come. The level of violence and abuse in these communities has spiralled to almost uncontrollable levels (De Lannoy et al., 2018). In this regard this study suggests that role models, extent of youth development, entrepreneurial skills and limited economic opportunities play a vital role in stimulating pursuance of dreams/goal setting.

There is limited evidence on what other characteristics of young people influence their propensity towards self-employment. Entrepreneurship as a means of alleviating poverty and unemployment has received interest from diverse disciplines. Globally, there has been an increasing fascination in understanding entrepreneurs operating in less affluent communities (Bruton, Ahlstrom & Obloj, 2008). Entrepreneurs in emerging markets contend with formal and informal public and private institutions, which can impact the development of entrepreneurship (Ahmad et al., 2010).

How does one define the level of entrepreneurial skill that is needed to make a success? As a result, the skills that entrepreneurs in this type of context apply to lead their ability to survive and to grow. This is distinct from those applied by entrepreneurs in the developed markets (Solesvik, 2012). Morales & Marquina (2013) argued that even entrepreneurs from developed countries when compared amongst themselves may have notable differences in skills requirements.

South Africa as one of the developing markets aims to improve the economy and create employment through entrepreneurship (Brière, Tremblay & Dau, 2014). Despite efforts to invest in entrepreneurship, South Africa is challenged by a low entrepreneurial activity and high unemployment rate compared to the other sub-Saharan countries (Herrington & Kew, 2015). This is particular the case in the context of the Cape Flats. The low entrepreneurial activity includes a low percentage of potential and established entrepreneurs. There are also comparatively fewer entrepreneurs who identify opportunities and believe that they have the necessary skills to create business ventures. These findings suggest that the pursuance of dreams/goal setting can be a driver of the entrepreneurial intent which is an essential phase for development of the entrepreneurial path. Some of the challenges encountered include the low levels of entrepreneurial skills that are seen as important elements in economic and entrepreneurship development (Adendorff, Emuze & Vilakazi, 2013).

Research on entrepreneurial skills adopts human capital theory perspective, which states that skills are the outcomes of investment in education and work experience (Becker, 1964; Chell, 2013; Unger et al., 2011). Additionally, Chell (2013) argued that research on entrepreneurial skills is mainly theoretical, lacking support by empirical evidence. Thus, there is no clarity on the specific skills required by entrepreneurs (Morales & Marquina, 2013). Some of the complications in researching entrepreneurial skills are the lack of an agreed definition and the clarity of construct as it is often interchanged with entrepreneurial competencies (Chell, 2013). This highlights that it is important to define and identify skills required by entrepreneurs with the support from empirical research. Therefore, this study will clearly define and separate skills from competencies.

With regard to the entrepreneurship research in South Africa, there is a research gap on specific entrepreneurial skills suitable for entrepreneurs in this context (Adendorff et al., 2013). As much as studies on skills in entrepreneurship are increasing elsewhere (Deakins, Bensemman & Battisti, 2016; Loué & Baronet, 2012), there is little about entrepreneurial skills required by entrepreneurs in South Africa.

Therefore, the aim of this study was to determine to what extent entrepreneurial skills can be influenced by pursuing dreams/goal setting. Entrepreneurial skills are one of the significant contributors to the success and performance of any business venture (Unger et al., 2011).

Entrepreneurs in South Africa require three types of support, namely human, financial and social capital (Brière et al., 2014). With regard to human capital, entrepreneurs would greatly benefit from entrepreneurial skills and training according to their developmental stages and the sector of activity. The lack of entrepreneurial skills may be because of inadequate training (Brière et al., 2014) and a poor educational system as the South African public education system is classified as the worst in the world, far worse even than peer developing countries (Turton & Herrington, 2012). The 'education system has been failing to effectively equip individuals with skills and confidence required to consider entrepreneurship as a valid choice' (Turton & Herrington, 2012).

The findings in in this study suggest that the pursuance of dreams/goal setting represents a start in the direction of entrepreneurship. The literature shows little evidence that education is related to youth self-employment. This ambiguity perhaps reflects that more highly educated young people are likely to have the requisite skills necessary to set up and run a new business, but that they are also more attractive to employers. However, contemporary studies indicate that training programs that include action strategy theory may influence the extent of pursuance of dreams/goal setting.

Some of such approaches have explored how action-based entrepreneurship training impacts on entrepreneurial action and start-up activity in less affluent communities. Training programs and learnerships have an important role to play in this regard. General

skills are introduced on the basis that it is used as predictors of entrepreneurial outcomes albeit that there are numerous studies that have not established a positive relationship. There is a view that states that the action strategy theory can influence the level of interest in entrepreneurship albeit entrepreneurial intentions. Entrepreneurship research involving action learning can result in a better understanding on learning processes and conversion of skills/knowledge to entrepreneurial tasks (Unger et al, 2009). Entrepreneurial skills can more effectively be created in environments that are focused on learning and progressive development (see Rowley & Mitchelmore, 2010). Individuals should be able to analyse and question information available to them across the various disciplines (Turton & Herrington, 2012). Several scholars have focussed on entrepreneurship and emphasized that entrepreneurship trainings should be action-based to promote entrepreneurial action and business start-up (Gielniek et al., 2013; Amorós & Bosma, 2014; Baron & Tang, 2009; Chandler & Jansen, 1992). This suggests a shift in contemporary approaches where action knowledge becomes a central factor in curriculum development.

7.2.2 How would the application of a normative stage conceptual model aid in developing credible local economic development strategies for youth development?

The study also identified that there are four primary variables that influence the pursuance of dreams/goal setting – role model, limited economic opportunities, entrepreneurial skills and extent of youth development. In this regard there are studies that suggest three main types of assistance offered to young people: enterprise education, soft and hard support (see Greene, 2013). Despite the paucity of evaluation evidence, available evidence does suggest that enterprise education (transfer of entrepreneurial skills, role model, youth development) plays a role in increasing the legitimacy of entrepreneurship amongst the young. There is less evidence from voluntary sector initiatives that soft and hard support is efficacious.

The literature suggests that there are mixed results. However, there are number of lessons that may be gleaned as a result:

- Youth entrepreneurship programmes are not a panacea for all young people, however, the starting point should be entrepreneurial intention which is driven by the pursuance of dreams/goal setting. The self-employment decision by young people tends to reflect a complex mix of push and pull factors;
- Young people are heterogeneous. There are likely to be different levels of human, financial and social capital that young people can draw on (for example, graduates); different motivations for self-employment (opportunity and necessity); and different knowledge of sources of information and support.
- Evidence indicates that soft sources of support (for example, training) on their own are unlikely to support entrepreneurial outcomes. Nonetheless, if individuals cannot develop the necessary entrepreneurial skills to run a business, it is difficult to see how they can successfully practice entrepreneurship. Some studies suggest that some form of screening is important (for example, selecting individuals based on their ability to complete a business plan). So, too, is the provision of micro-finance to help meet the costs of starting and developing a business;
- The evidence is inconclusive whether a particular type of micro-finance improves a young person's entrepreneurial outcomes and should impact on economic outcomes. Various mechanisms have been used to financially support young people into business. Typically, these are: 'soft' loans (for example, loans at interest rates close to zero); grants (one-off payments to fund the set up and capital costs of the business); and/or payments to replace or augment unemployment benefits. Of these, grants are more often favoured because 'soft' loans can lead to young people being saddled with debt, given the likelihood that a significant proportion of businesses set up by young people will fail. One advantage of loans, however, is that risk is shared (for example, between the programme provider and the entrepreneur). This could provide stronger incentives for the young person to assess the worth of their business proposal. Either replacing or augmenting unemployment benefit payments (for example, by providing standard unemployment benefit but allowing the participant to retain the money they earn in self-employment whilst on the programme) is also often attractive. This is because it comes at very little additional costs to the taxpayer. One problem, however, is

that businesses often need significant start-up capital to become mature and sustainable;

- Without start-up capital, young people are similar to older individuals in that they typically enter easy to enter service sectors that are open to stiff competition. If they survive this usually leads to a displacement effect;
- Evaluation of youth entrepreneurship programmes remains immature and remains focused upon benchmarking based upon the private benefits to individuals. This leads to three effects: over estimates of the value of existing programmes; doubts about the legitimacy of particular interventions; and difficulties in estimating the impact of interventions; and
- Policy makers are often faced with a difficult choice. Supporting youth entrepreneurship is risky as young entrepreneurs suffer from high closure rates and low growth rates. Youth entrepreneurship may, therefore, provide few private or societal benefits.

7.2.3 What kind of recommendations can be made to policy makers, in order to enhance the efficacy of local economic development strategies?

7.2.3.1 Youth Entrepreneurship

The development of youth entrepreneurs is crucial as a means of mitigating conditions of strife and poverty in townships. Entrepreneurs require three types of support, namely human, financial and social capital. With regard to general skills, individuals would greatly benefit from entrepreneurial skills and training according to their developmental stages and the sector of activity. The lack of entrepreneurial skills may be because of limited access to training opportunities and more importantly, limited visibility of role models in the immediate environment. The situation is compounded with a relatively poor educational system. In this regard the South African public education system is classified as the worst in the world, far worse even than peer developing countries. The education system has been failing to effectively equip individuals with skills and confidence required to consider entrepreneurship as a valid choice.

Against this background policies must be aimed at incorporating entrepreneurship as a tool to impart practical and appropriate skills in order to create the initial interest, particularly regarding youth entrepreneurship. This category should be more inclusive and allow for greater participation such as primary and high school learners. Equally, strong focus must be provided to unemployed youth and university graduates. The part of entrepreneurial development in terms of the suggested model is referred to as the pursuance of dreams/goal setting in this study. Initial interventions therefore must have a strong focus on developing an entrepreneurial mind-set through skills programs and learnerships.

7.2.3.2 Incubators

Studies conducted in emerging markets have shown that the significance of innovation and entrepreneurship. The educational institutions need to provide learners with practical exposure of entrepreneurship as a career path and put a stronger focus on problem solving skills and self-confidence, which are baseline skills for successful entrepreneurship. New approaches in entrepreneurship training involve creating business plan competitions with a focus on innovation. Individuals with a higher exposure to entrepreneurial thinking are able to execute more creative application. One of the requirements to increase a pool of potential entrepreneurs, individuals with entrepreneurial intentions and early-stage entrepreneurs is an effective entrepreneurship incubator system.

7.2.3.3 Role Models

This study examined the impact of role model activities on the pursuance of dreams/goal setting. In terms of the proposed a normative stage conceptual model the pursuance of dreams/goal setting can be seen as an entry point to entrepreneurship. In particular, this intent is perceived to be an inroad toward starting a new business. In this regard the positioning of role models through networking sessions must be given some consideration. Role models are often not visible enough in townships and in this way entrepreneurial intentions are not influenced. Policy can be targeted towards the structuring of platforms that can allow emerging entrepreneurs to showcase their stories.

7.2.3.4 Skills Transfer

Skills transfer should involve the implementation of programs focusing on diverse skills transfer. Technical skills typically include an understanding of and proficiency in specific activities involving methods, processes and techniques in the business's line of operation. The technical skills include industry-specific skills, product development, management of operations and quality-monitoring skills. These are also skills that could be relevant to preparing individuals to be better equipped for industry.

Core business skills focus on the internal business environment, which involves financial management, human resource management and technical skills:

Business management skills are needed to run the business on a daily basis. The business management skills that were considered significant were planning, problem solving, legal skills, decision-making, developing and executing a business model, strategic competence, delegation and business development.

Financial management skills are required to manage capital in an efficient and effective way so as to accomplish the financial obligations of the business. The financial management skills were pricing products (tangible or service), cash flow management, calculating costs and interpreting financial statements.

Marketing skills are about communicating the value of the tangible and service products to the customers, for the purpose of selling. Therefore, skills under the marketing category are market research, benchmarking competition, positioning the business in the market and selling skills.

Human resource management skills pertain to the ability to deal with managing people in the business, including designing and implementing workplace policies. The skills under this category were recruitment, employees' skills assessment, defining job specs, performance management and payment of salaries.

7.2.3.5 Stimulating Economic Activity

New interventions must consider greater collaboration between government and the private sector. More focus should be placed on future sector skills and changing technologies. New economic activity stimulated through economic free zones must become more visible to local communities. In addition, individuals must become better educated and equipped to be able to participate in new projects. For example, a government lead program such as Hydrogen Systems SA was introduced a few years ago with the ambition of promoting renewable energy as a complementary source of power in SA. More than one billion Rand has already been spent on this project. However, the project is moving into a commercial space where new jobs will be created. Although the technology at a glance may seem like highly specialised skills will be required, the technology has been designed in a way to be able to accommodate basic skills that are relevant in most industries.

7.2.3.6 Design Thinking

The range of problems in modern day organisations is complex and requires robust solutions. People are at the heart of design thinking which is a concept that is based on incorporating inputs from multiple levels within the organisation to produce robust solutions. Putting human beings at the center of the process helps to create platforms for innovation. In many instances the problems are not framed properly and starting with the wrong questions. Innovation is born from the class of ideas. By grafting on to ideas and transforming ideas from different sources to fit the context, one can get to the best solutions. The best solutions for a wide range of problems in township communities should come from the people themselves.

7.4 Suggestion for Future Research

The study suggests that the future research in this area should attempt to extend the study on relationship between policy development and local economic development strategies, in particular the focus on entrepreneurship as a mechanism to alleviate poverty and to promote economic development. Further research should be conducted to

determine the factors that actually contribute to limited success with regards to effective policy implementation. Coverage on a wider geographical area could also be considered for future study in order to enhance the generalization of the findings and to further investigate potential differences in effective policy implementation.

7.6 Chapter Summary

The final sample selected for this study was 650 participants. Given the historical context of South Africa, regarding the injustices that non-white racial groups were subjected to, there exists an inherent landscape of economic exclusion. The Group Areas Act was instrumental in charting racial inequalities under the now abolished Apartheid policy. Equally, non-whites were prevented from starting businesses and entrepreneurship was not advocated as a means of generating wealth which resulted in economic exclusion. This study has indicated that youth unemployment is a petrifying reality on a large scale in the township areas and exacerbated by limited economic opportunities, which warrants responsive youth development and/or local economic development strategies. There appears to be multiple perspectives on entrepreneurial skills and how youth development can be enhanced. It is important to develop the youth with contemporary skills so that they are able to sustain a life which enhances their human dignity and also contribute towards the social welfare of mankind. Entrepreneurship is a vital area to stimulate appropriate skills in less affluent communities in order to eradicate poverty, particularly for the youth. This perspective is in line with findings suggesting that the extent of violence in the township communities requires innovative public policy and local economic development strategies. This study puts forward a normative stage conceptual model that draws on multiple independent variables that can support a theory of entrepreneurial development. Skills transfer should involve the implementation of programs focusing on diverse skills transfer. Technical skills typically include an understanding of and proficiency in specific activities involving methods, processes and techniques in the business's line of operation. The technical skills include industry-specific skills, product

development, management of operations and quality-monitoring skills. These are also skills that could be relevant to preparing individuals to be better equipped for industry

7.5 Conclusion

The findings of this study have a direct influence on policy development and implementation of local economic development with a specific focus on job creation and greater economic participation. Local economic development strategies must take into account the influence of entrepreneurship and in particular, interventions focused on entrepreneurial thinking.

Policy makers must not merely focus on generic skills transformation but must include private sector partners for more holistic skills transformation. Greater emphasis in this regard must be given to public private partnerships. Local economic development policy must take into account current and future skills that will be required in diverse industries in order to equip individuals sufficiently.

The result of this study has proven that the pursuance of dreams/goal setting is an important link toward entrepreneurial thinking. Policy makers should incorporate the proposed normative stage conceptual model as a start to making future interventions more effective.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Dear participant, I am conducting this particular research in my quest to obtain an MTech in Public Management.

Duly Note: All the responses to the questions below will be kept confidential and the identity of the participant will be kept anonymous. I hereby request you to complete the questionnaire in all honesty.

Section A

Biographical Information

Please tick the appropriate box

1. Which of the following seven geographical locations, best indicates the area in which you live.

Belhar	
Bishop Lavis	
Delft	
Khayalitsha	
Mitchells Plain	
Ottery	
Ravensmead	

2. Please indicate your gender

Male	
Female	

3. Under which age bracket do you fall under?

15-21	
22-28	
29-35	

4. What is the status of your employment?

Employed full time	
Employed part time	
Casual employee	
Apprenticeship/Internship	
Unemployed and seeking employment	
Unemployed and gave up searching for employment opportunities	

5. Please indicate your academic status

Dropped out before Gr:10	
Passed grade 10 but never completed Matric	
Matric Certificate	
Undergrad Degree/National Diploma	
Honours Degree	
Master's degree and/or superior qualification.	

6. Please indicate the income bracket in which you and your household fall under; note that this question refers to monthly income of your household.

R0-R5000	
R5001-R10 000	

R10 001-R15 000	
R15 001- R20 000	
R20 001 and above	

7. What according to you, is the biggest societal ills impacting the youth in your community?

Gangsterism	
Prostitution	
Substance Abuse	
Teenage pregnancy	
All the above	

8. Have you fallen victim to any of the above societal ills?

Yes	
No	

9. Please indicate whether you are active in the following (You may tick more than one box);

Smoker (cigarettes)	
Consume Alcohol	
Drug User	
Illegal trader of any of the above	
None of the above	
All of the above	

10. In your view, do the youth have credible role models to look up to in the community?

Yes	
No	

Section B

Dear participant; this section of the questionnaire deals with matters relating to the status of youth development on the Cape Flats, in the Western Cape.

Kindly tick the appropriate box

Goal Setting

1. To what extent will you pursue your dreams/goals considering the current challenges in the environment?

1(unclear)	
2(some intent)	
3(satisfactory)	
4(clearly structured)	
5(very clearly structured)	

2. What would you currently prioritise as number one, amongst the following?

Obtain tertiary qualifications at University	
Obtain qualifications from a trade school	
Train to excel in sports	
Earn some money for the household	
Start my own business	

3. To what extent do I pursue dreams and goals in life?

1 (Very little to none awareness)	
2 (Awareness is limited)	

3 (There is awareness but nothing is done)	
4 (There is awareness but little is done)	
5 (There is awareness and a lot is being done)	

Role Models

This questionnaire is designed to assess the way in which you mentally represent important people in your life. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling a number for each item.

Please answer the following questions about your role model that you wrote about above. -----

1. It helps to think about turning to this person in times of need.
strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree
2. I would like to discuss my problems and concerns with this person.
strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree
3. I would like to talk things over with this person.
strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree
4. I find it easy to depend on this person.
strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree
5. I don't feel comfortable opening up to this person.
strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree
6. I prefer not to show this person how I feel deep down.
strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree
7. I often worry that this person doesn't really care for me.
strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree
8. I'm afraid that this person may abandon me.
strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree
9. I worry that this person won't care about me as much as I care about him or her.
strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 strongly agree

Youth Development

1. On a scale of 1-5; Please indicate whether there is enough awareness created about the status of youth development in your community

1 (Very little to none awareness)	
2 (Awareness is limited)	
3 (There is awareness but nothing is done)	
4 (There is awareness but little is done)	
5 (There is awareness and a lot is being done)	

2. Are you aware of any interventions taken in the community to rehabilitate the youth whom succumb to the societal ills?

Yes	
No	

3. What is the quality of youth development programs to ensure that you are adequately prepared for a job?

1 (unclear)	
2 (some intent)	
3 (satisfactory)	
4 (clearly structured)	
5 (very clearly structured)	

4. Effectiveness of youth development programs?

1 (ineffective)	
2 (some success)	

3 (satisfactory)	
4 (effective)	
5 (very effective)	

5. Is youth unemployment, according to you, a major concern in your community?

Yes	
No	

Entrepreneurial Skills

1. In your view, do you think you possess the necessary skills set in order to be given a job?

Yes	
No	

2. Have you received entrepreneurship training before?

Yes	
No	

3. What are your primary goals?

1 (unclear)	
2 (some intent)	
3 (satisfactory)	
4 (clearly structured)	
5 (very clearly structured)	

4. To what extent are current programs empowering you to start your own business?

1 (unclear)	
2 (some intent)	

3 (satisfactory)	
4 (clearly structured)	
5 (very clearly structured)	

Limited Economic Opportunities

1. In your view, does youth unemployment result in a rise in criminal activity?

Yes	
No	

2. Have there been attempts from gang members to recruit you?

Yes	
No	

3. On a scale of 1-5, to what extent do you think that limited economic opportunities will prevent you from achieving your dreams?

1 Very much	
2 Bad	
3 Average	
4 Limited effect	
5 Very big effect	

4. In your view, do limited economic resources limit your career opportunities as a youth member in your community?

1Very much	
2Bad	
3Average	
4Limited effect	
5Very big effect	

5. To what extent do limited economic opportunities prevent you to access a job or to start a business?

1 Very much	
2 Bad	
3 Average	
4 Limited effect	
5 Very big effect	

Thank you for participating in this study, I appreciate your time and effort in contributing towards the body of knowledge.

Appendix 2: Western Cape Youth Development Strategy