

**POLICY DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION: A CASE STUDY  
OF THE BUSINESS MANAGEMENT  
TRAINING PROGRAMME AT THE  
NATIONAL YOUTH DEVELOPMENT AGENCY**

by

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**June 2020**

# DECLARATION

STUDENT NUMBER **50144758**

I declare that **Policy Design and Implementation: A Case Study of the Business Management Training Programme at the National Youth Development Agency**, is my own work. Furthermore, all the sources that I have used and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

.....

SIGNATURE

(Mr I.P. Dube)

.....

DATE

# DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to the following people:

- My mother, Rinkie Dube, and my father, Dennis Dube, for their support and love.
- My wife, Ayabulela Dube, for your encouragement, patience and support.
- My brother, Thatiso Dube, for your dedication to your craft inspires me.
- My children, for always inspiring me to do more.
- My God and ancestors, thank you for the guidance, knowledge and wisdom.

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- Myself, for believing in me, doing all this work, never giving up and finishing what I started, regardless of the challenges.

## ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurship education and training ensures economic development by enabling the creation of thriving new businesses and jobs by entrepreneurs. The Business Management Training Programme is tasked with training young entrepreneurs in South Africa. However, the youth unemployment rate has been exceedingly high in recent years. This study seeks to explore the implementation challenges being experienced by the Business Management Training Programme at the National Youth Development Agency.

Using a qualitative approach, this study made use of semi-structured interviews with a carefully selected sample of those involved in the management and implementation of the Business Management Training Programme. A thematic analysis of the semi-structured interviews indicated that the challenges experienced in the implementation of the programme did not stem solely from operational issues within the National Youth Development Agency, but from the conceptualisation and design of the Business Management Training Programme.

On this basis, it is recommended that the National Youth Development Agency use the Design and Architecture Framework for Entrepreneurship Education and Training to conceptualise and design their own Business Management Training Programme. The study concluded that by conceptualising and designing its own programme, the National Youth Development Agency will be able to address the unique entrepreneurial education and training challenges being experienced in South Africa.

**Keywords:** Policy design and implementation, entrepreneurship, training and education

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS & ACRONYMS

The following acronyms and abbreviations are used throughout the dissertation.

AU	African Union
AYC	African Youth Charter
BMT	Business Management Training
EDP	Entrepreneurship Development Programme
GYBI	Generate Your Business Idea
HR	Human Resources
IGR	Inter-governmental Relations
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IT	Information Technology
IYB	Improve your Business
NDP	National Development Plan
NGP	New Growth Path
NYC	National Youth Commission
NYDA	National Youth Development Agency
NYDPF	National Youth Development Policy Framework
NYP	National Youth Policy
SA	South Africa
SCM	Supply Chain Management
SIYB	Start and Improve Your Business
SYB	Start Your Business
UYF	Umsobomvu Youth Fund

# **CHAPTER 1:**

## **INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Every year the amount of employable labour in South Africa increases because of new entrants to the labour market. However, the country is struggling to create enough jobs to employ the growing labour force. As a result, South Africa is experiencing high rates of unemployment and poverty, especially among the youth.

In South Africa (SA), persons between the ages of 15 and 34 years of age are regarded as the youth. The youth between the ages of 14 and 24 years, totalling 1.7 billion people, comprise 16% of the world's population (United Nations, 2018:1). In SA, the youth make up 36.2% of the population, amounting to 20.1 million youth (Stats SA, 2019a:8).

In the first quarter of 2019, the youth unemployment rate was 55.2%, which means that there are 3.4 million unemployed youth in SA. Therefore, the youth can be regarded as the most vulnerable age group in the labour market (ILO, 2019a:2; Stats SA, 2019b). The youth unemployment rate in SA rose to 58.2% in the third quarter of 2019; reaching its highest level since 2008 (Trade Economics, 2019).

The SA government has initiated frameworks, policies and institutions to help develop the youth and curb the high unemployment rate in SA. Economic empowerment, education, social cohesion, health and wellbeing are the four pillars that guide the National Youth Policy (South Africa, 2015:7). The National Youth Policy (NYP) is a key document assisting SA with the planning and execution of youth development. The National Youth Development Agency (NYDA) is the custodian of the implementation of the NYP. Through various programmes, the NYDA implements and attempts to achieve the objectives of SA youth development.

Entrepreneurship is seen as the best response to address high unemployment and poverty, as economic development and innovation can create jobs and alleviate poverty, however, this cannot take place without entrepreneurship (Echtner, 1995:123; Uctu & Essop, 2019:1). Therefore, the current study explored the implementation of the Business Management Training programme, which is one of the NYDA

programmes aiming to develop the youth in SA by introducing them to entrepreneurship.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY**

Cloete (2015:513) states that unemployment is the biggest thief of hope amongst young people. According to Marumo and Sebolaaneng (2019:13478), the main cause of youth unemployment is that most of the youth do not have the necessary experience and skills that are required by the labour market. The youth are the biggest group of job seekers in the job market, and are therefore regarded as the most vulnerable when it comes to unemployment (Cloete, 2015:513; Dagume & Gyekye, 2016:59).

The challenges of youth unemployment in Africa have forced the youth to seek employment in the informal sector or to opt for self-employment (Marumo & Sebolaaneng, 2019:13479). The problem of unemployment is compounded by the number of graduates being produced by higher education institutions who cannot be absorbed by the job market (Cloete, 2015:516).

The varying state of education in SA adds to the unemployment rate, as some schools fail to produce learners able to cope in higher education institutions (Marumo & Sebolaaneng, 2019:13480; Shankar, Cooper & Koh, 2016:9), which results in a high dropout rate. Furthermore, the basic skills required by the workplace are not acquired, as students drop out before acquiring the skills necessary for the job market. Cloete (2015:515), however, states that as much as unemployment is associated with unskilled people, in SA the rate of unemployment among educated people is also high and rising.

According to Shankar *et al.* (2016:3), youth unemployment does not only put pressure on government resources but also threatens social cohesion, potential earnings, future prospects, and stifles business growth. With the high number of unemployed youth, it means that more people rely on government grants to survive, putting more pressure on the already limited government resources.

With the youth not in employment, it implies that the biggest age category in SA is not participating in the economy. This has a negative effect on business growth, as buying power from the youth is limited to those who have jobs. Job creation has been a

problem across the world, although SA is experiencing the effects on a larger scale than most other countries (Meyer, 2017:56).

Shankar *et al.* (2016:9) maintain that to address some of the ills of youth unemployment, SA will have to train the youth in the necessary problem-solving, business acumen, technological and communication skills required by the workplace. However, the workplace market will also need to create new positions to absorb the trained youth. The government, along with the private sector, has created policies, programmes and institutions to tackle the development of youth in SA.

The National Youth Policy (NYP) was formulated in 1997. A review of the NYP policy was done in the year 2000 but it was not formally adopted until 2002, when it was unanimously passed by parliament (South Africa, 2015:5). Various other agencies, programmes and acts were developed to support the development of the youth of SA, including policy frameworks such as the National Youth Commission (NYC), Act No. 19 of 1996; the National Youth Policy 2000, and the National Youth Development Policy Framework (NYDPF) 2002/2007 (South Africa, 2015:6).

The youth development frameworks and policies listed above were established to help guide the government and the implementing agencies in achieving the objectives of the NYP. However, even with the support of several policy frameworks and institutions, the NYP still struggles to reach its objectives and develop the youth of SA, largely in terms of issues related to unemployment and poor education (Kampala, 2011:3).

According to the NYP (2015:4), the goal of the policy is to develop the capacities of the youth through holistic developmental programmes that ensure that the youth are included in the political and economic mainstream. Mtvesi (2014:38) argues that the failure of current policies and programmes in achieving their objectives of youth development remains a substantial barrier to the full development of the youth, and also to the development of the country.

Section 3(b) of the NYDA Act 54 of 2008 states that the NYDA's objective is to develop guidelines for the implementation of youth development policy. Therefore, the NYDA is tasked with the implementation of the NYP in SA. As the custodian of youth development, NYDA is supported by several programmes that assist it in attaining its objectives and goals of developing the youth. These programmes cover aspects such as economic participation and transformation, education, skills training, healthcare,

combating substance abuse, nation-building, social cohesion, and building effective and responsive youth development institutions for civic participation (NYDA, 2017:3).

As seen in the above paragraphs, there are a number of policies in SA to develop the youth and to place them in a better position to participate in the economy. However, the youth unemployment data suggests that the objectives and goals of the youth developmental policies are not being realised.

This study explored the implementation of an entrepreneurship programme called the Business Management Training Programme (BMT). The BMT is a NYDA programme that was implemented to assist SA youth to participate in the economy by providing entrepreneurship skills training and business support to young people to create employment opportunities (NYDA, 2017:30).

### **1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM**

As highlighted above, the youth are the most displaced age group in SA. The NYDA has been tasked with developing and implementing policies that focus on the development of youth in the country. However, the policies designed and implemented by the NYDA do not have the intended effect on the upliftment of the youth in SA. The NYDA is required to ensure that the youth acquire the tools and skills that will enable them to be able to participate in the economy through the creation and implementation of programmes and policies.

This study investigated the reasons why the BMT is not successful in creating the youth entrepreneurs it was designed for. The general assumption is that policy implementation would occur because all the relevant authorities have approved the policy (Brynard, 2005:615). However, the implementation of a policy needs strategic and systematic planning which should take into account all the factors that might affect the implementation and the implementer of the policy.

According to Lunenburg and Irby (2008:126), research questions are the most vital component of any research study. Research questions direct the study and also suggest which research methods and designs should be used to answer the posed questions.

The research questions that were asked in this study are the following:

1. What has been published on public policy conceptualisation and design, implementation and evaluation?
2. How should the conceptualisation and implementation of a training intervention, such as the Business Management Training programme, be researched?
3. What is the legislative framework of the NYDA?
4. What challenges does the NYDA face in implementing the Business Management Training Programme?
5. What are the generic attributes and challenges of business training interventions?
6. How can the implementation of the BMT be improved?

## **1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The research objectives of this study are as follows:

- To review the literature that has been published on public policy conceptualisation and design, implementation and evaluation.
- To describe the research design and methodology for the conceptualisation and implementation of a training intervention, such as the Business Management Training programme.
- To outline the legislative framework of the NYDA.
- To identify the challenges that the NYDA face in implementing the Business Management Training Programme.
- To outline the generic attributes and challenges of business training interventions.
- To determine what the NYDA should do to improve the implementation of the BMT programme.

## **1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

According to Kumar (2014:133), the research design of a research project must be appropriate. Qualitative studies are appropriate for exploring variations and differences in social life, while quantitative studies are suited for finding the extent of

variations and differences. Kumar (2014:132) furthermore, states that the focus of the qualitative research method is to understand, explain, explore, and to clarify the perceptions, values, beliefs and experience of a group of people.

The main differences between qualitative and quantitative research methods are the types of questions asked, the data-collection instruments used, the forms of data produced and the amount of flexibility in the study (Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest & Namely, 2005:2). For example, quantitative research uses close-ended questions, while qualitative research uses open-ended questions during data collection.

Surveys and questionnaires are the most commonly used data-collection instruments in quantitative studies. Qualitative studies mainly use interviews as the data-collection instrument. The qualitative research method offers more flexibility, as researchers can ask interview questions in any order, while the quantitative method offers less flexibility, as questions in questionnaires are asked in the same manner and order (Mack *et al.*, 2005:3).

A qualitative research design was selected for the current study. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from a carefully selected sample. The research design for this study is discussed in Chapter 3.

According to Zainal (2007:1), a case study is used when the researcher wants to understand a phenomenon that occurs in a specific context. The case study method was selected for this study in order to understand the NYDA's design and implementation of the BMT. The use of a case study method allowed the researcher to fully understand the processes that occur at the NYDA with regards to the design and the implementation of the BMT. The in-depth understanding offered by the case study method allowed the researcher to answer the research questions of the study.

## **1.6 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS METHODS**

The collection of data is a process that is undertaken to gather the information that is required to answer the research question of a research study (Kumar, 2014:285). A semi-structured interview was used as the data-collection instrument to collect data in this study. Semi-structured interviews are used to understand a person's lived experiences and impressions (Mertens, 2009:352). A carefully selected sample of

employees who are responsible for the design and implementation of the BMT at the NYDA were interviewed.

The collected data was then transcribed and coded using the computer software Atlas.ti. The coded interviews were analysed using the thematic analysis method. Thematic analysis is the process of identifying patterns within the collected qualitative data (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017:3352).

## **1.7 DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Delimitations are boundaries that are put on the study by the researcher; these are self-imposed limitations that are determined by the scope of the study (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008:134). The delimitations that were imposed in this study are the following:

- The case study was limited to only the NYDA;
- Only the BMT programme was considered for the study;
- Only the employees that were involved in the design and implementation of the BMT were considered; and
- Only the employees at the NYDA head office and City of Tshwane branch were interviewed.

Limitations to a study consist of factors that the researcher has no control over that can affect the data collected and the findings of the study (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008:133). The limitations experienced by the current study are discussed below.

### **1.7.1 Accessing information**

The study was limited to the BMT programme, meaning that the researcher was only allowed to access information about the BMT, and not any other programme at the NYDA. Furthermore, the researcher was only allowed access to information related to the design and the implementation of the BMT.

### **1.7.2 National Youth Development Agency**

The NYDA could be seen as a limiting factor, as the study only took place at the NYDA head office and the City of Tshwane branch. This aspect was limiting because the researcher only obtained the viewpoint of those employees at head office and the Tshwane branch involved in the design and implementation of the BMT.

## **1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Research ethics are primarily the rules that govern the relationship between the researcher and the people they are studying or collecting data from (Mack *et al.*, 2005:8). Researchers must always conduct their research in an ethical manner which protects the well-being of the participants in the study. Ethical considerations for this study were observed and the participants in this study were protected.

Application for research permission was applied for and obtained from the NYDA and the University of South Africa for this study (see Appendix A and B). The researcher considered how the findings of the research would affect the NYDA as a whole.

## **1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT**

### **Chapter 1:**

In Chapter 1, the researcher provided the introduction and the background of the study. The main research questions and aims and intent of the researcher were discussed, and the research design and methodology were presented.

### **Chapter 2:**

This chapter presents the theoretical perspective of public policy design and implementation. In this chapter the researcher discusses the related theory and history of policy implementation. In this chapter the first research question is addressed.

### **Chapter 3:**

In Chapter 3, the researcher explains the research methodology and design used to collect the relevant data for this study. The second research question is addressed in this chapter.

### **Chapter 4:**

This chapter addresses the third research question and the legislative frame work of the NYDA is discussed.

### **Chapter 5:**

Chapter 5 presents the collected data, results and the analysis thereof. In this chapter the fifth research question is addressed.

## **Chapter 6:**

In Chapter 6, the fourth research question is addressed. The chapter outlines the generic attributes and challenges of business training interventions.

## **Chapter 7:**

The seventh and final chapter will conclude the study, summarising the findings and discussions. In this chapter, the sixth research question is addressed, and recommendations are provided.

## **1.10 CONCLUSION**

This chapter introduced the study. The background and the rationale of the study were discussed. The research problem was highlighted, and the research questions and objectives were outlined. Chapter 1 provided the research methodology of the study and the layout of the chapters to follow. In the next chapter, the literature review on public policy design and implementation will be discussed.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW OF PUBLIC POLICY DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this chapter is to highlight literature that has been published on the public policy process. This chapter reviews the latest studies on public policy by reviewing research studies that have been conducted on policy implementation in SA. The researcher describes the concept 'policy' and the stages in the policy process, namely, agenda setting, policy formulation, policy decision, policy implementation and policy monitoring and evaluation. The various policy implementation approaches and the concept of project management will be described.

### **2.2 RESEARCH RECORDS**

To determine whether this kind of study has previously been undertaken in SA, electronic searches were carried out on the Nexus database system and the National ETD repository which have a collection of SA theses and dissertations. The following key terms were used: 'Implementation', 'Business management training programme', 'National Youth Development Agency', and 'entrepreneurship'. The search found that no doctoral thesis or master's dissertation has researched the implementation of the business management training programme in the NYDA.

A narrowed-down database search, using the following search terms was implemented: 'implementation of public policy', 'implementation of entrepreneurship programmes', 'implementation of the BMT', and a 'case study of the National Youth Development Agency'. Using the above key terms, a total of 55 records were identified from the search. To further narrow down the search, only studies that were conducted at the NYDA are discussed below.

A dissertation by Kampala (2011), titled "An implementation study of the National Youth Policy: a case study of the Youth Advisory Programme in the National Youth Development Agency, Pietermaritzburg Office" evaluated the implementation process of the NYP by the Youth Advisory Programme of the NYDA at the Msunduzi Municipality in Pietermaritzburg.

Kampala's study used qualitative research methods and collected data using face-to-face interviews. The study found that there were elements of implementation of the NYP, however the NYDA does not provide enough human and physical resources to improve the implementation of the policy in the Msunduzi Municipality. The study also found that the NYDA follows the top-down implementation approach, whereby the resources and content of the implementation are controlled by the head office in Pretoria. It was also reported that implementation decisions and instructions are made at the head office and communicated to the Durban regional office, which are then further communicated to the Pietermaritzburg office. It was found that this communication process negatively affected the implementation of the NYP in the focal municipality.

A study by Hlope (2014), titled "The role of the National Youth Development Agency in the implementation of the National Youth Policy" describes the role of the NYDA in implementing the NYP. This study examined the role of the NYDA in implementing the NYP through its programmes within the skills development unit. Hlope made use of semi-structured interviews and self-administered questionnaires to collect data from both NYDA representatives and recipients of the programme. The data collected was analysed using the 5-C protocol model of policy implementation. The study found that the instruments used in the implementation of the NYP do not fully address the objectives of the policy, and that the role of the NYDA in the implementation of the NYP is not fully understood by the recipients in the programme.

A dissertation by Mohy-Ud-Din (2014), titled "A process evaluation of the National Youth Development Agency's grant programme with respect to the beneficiaries of the Western Cape for the period 2013-2014". The researcher examined the effectiveness and efficacy of the grant programme that is being implemented by the NYDA in the Western Cape. The grant programme is a programme that assists aspiring youth entrepreneurs with entrepreneurial mentorship and physical capital to start and grow their businesses.

The study adopted a qualitative design, using semi-structured interviews as the data-collection instrument. Mohy-Ud-Din interviewed the implementing staff and the beneficiaries of the grant programme at the NYDA. The study found that, although the grant programme had an impact on the beneficiaries, the programme had very limited

impact in eradicating unemployment. The study also highlighted that the NYDA required increased resources for the implementation of the grant programme.

Mohy-Ud-Din indicated that the implementers who were assessing some of the grant programme applications were not qualified and did not have practical entrepreneurship experience, which may have resulted in some good entrepreneurial ideas being rejected. The NYDA officials had very little understanding of entrepreneurship, yet they were expected to assess and award grants to aspiring entrepreneurs.

A common thread running through the dissertations researching policy implementation discussed above was that all the dissertations only reviewed the policy process from the policy implementation stage and parts of policy monitoring and evaluation. However, none of the dissertations included the policy stages, such as agenda setting, policy formulation and policy adoption. This chapter will include a discussion of all the stages of the public policy process.

### **2.3 DEFINING PUBLIC POLICY AND DECISION-MAKING**

Public policy can be regarded as a political, financial, administrative and management instrument that is used in the private and public sector to attain goals (Geurts, 2014:6). Policy is a detailed instrument that is used to control processes or solve problems in public and private institutions. The only difference between private and public policy is that public policy is grounded on the values and norms of the stakeholders that take part in the policy process; these stakeholders are, namely, government, interest groups and individuals. The policy process in the public sector directs services and benefits towards the public. Policies in the private sector are mainly based on institutional vision, mission and profit of the company; these types of policies only benefit the company and its shareholders.

Furthermore, what makes 'public policy' public is that the choices are made by those with the legitimised power of the state (Cairney, 2019: 17; van Niekerk, van der Waldt & Jonker, 2001: 90; Smith & Larimer, 2013: 4). Public policy is made by public authorities and consists of a sequence of actions that are taken over time and make use of public resources. These actions are regarded as a response by government to the demands of the citizens about a perceived problem or matter of concern in society. The public policy process is greatly influenced by the actions and decisions of non-

governmental stakeholders, however, it is the government's decisions, action and non-action that constitute public policy (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003:5).

Public policy is complex. It can be problematic to define such a complex concept because of all the factors that make up the final product that is a policy. To define policy, one must include the stakeholders that take part in the policy process, their decisions, interests, purpose and their perception of the problem, or the issue of concern. Policy is also affected by government's capacity, environment and other resources, that affect the policy decisions and policy goals. Finally, it should be considered that policy is legitimised and actioned by the government (Smith & Larimer, 2013: 2; Howlett & Ramesh, 2003: 8; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2001: 93; Weimer & Vining, 2017: 30).

Geurts (2014:6) defines policy as government choices that are based on norms and values in response to political issues or public problems. Policy is a dynamic process that occurs at different levels of government and involves stages of identifying, delineating, resourcing and initiating change, or solving a problem and evaluating the impact of the solution or the change initiated by the policy. According to Smith and Larimer (2013:4), policy is a product of many interconnected institutions, actors and groups, as well as decisions that are independent.

Governments are responsible for the provision of public services and essential products to their citizens, and for these services to be made available, certain decisions should be made. In order to make these essential products available, the government needs to promulgate or legislate policies. Public policy is the product of the decisions taken by government, and it may also serve to coordinate the actions taken by implementers to achieve the goals that have been set.

Without public policies, government and civil servants would not know what, who, when, where and for whom the service is intended. Public policy informs who the target population is, and sometimes provides instructions on how to address the general and operational goals with limited resources. Policies involve the interactions of many individuals, groups and institutions, and therefore, it coordinates the complex relationships between the parties involved (Van Niekerk *et al.*, 2001:90).

Brooks (1998:68) states that policies are broad statements that may assume two forms, namely, general and operational goals. General goals detail the purpose of the

policy, while operational goals provide an indication of how to implement the policy. Policy can also serve as a guide for decisions and actions that most likely make the goals in policy achievable (Geurts, 2014:6). By outlining the procedures of implementation and the allocation of resources, policies can assist policy implementers in the achievement of general and operational goals.

As previously alluded to, public policy is a reaction to a situation or phenomenon that has been identified by individuals, interest groups or the government. These situations can greatly affect service delivery, and when they are addressed, the outcome often benefits citizens. After identifying the situation or phenomenon, a complicated public policy process unfolds, where the cause of this phenomenon is investigated by all the stakeholders, resources are allocated by government to address the said phenomenon, and policy is formulated. At the end of the process a policy document is drafted by the government to address the said policy issue. A policy is a reflection of the stakeholders' interests, purpose, ideologies and experiences (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003: 8; Weimer & Vining, 2017: 34).

A policy is a document that contains goals and objectives that have been formulated by the different role players in the policy process. Goals are the outcomes which the policy intends to achieve, and objectives are statements that are time-specific, operational, concrete and quantitative (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:101). Van Niekerk *et al.* (2001:90) state that a policy is an attempt to bring consistency to the operations of an organisation by coordinating how smaller decisions will be made, as policy is determined by politicians and implemented by officials. However, not all policy is determined by politicians and implemented by officials as sometimes policy can be determined by citizens or interest groups and implemented by NGOs, public private partnerships or private companies.

The complexities of policy occur where policy-makers need to consider all the factors that can affect the policy process, ranging from the stakeholder's interest to the environment and resources available. All these factors can limit the policy choices available to the government, thus affecting public service. The public policy process involves considering all the multiple formal and informal interactions between many groups, institutions and individuals who have an interest in the policy being formulated (Van Niekerk *et al.*, 2001:90).

The study of public policy is the study of decisions. Policy studies investigate all the decisions that were made by stakeholders in the policy process, and attempt to find out why those decisions were made. Such studies reflect on the thought processes that the individual or group used to arrive at that final decision. Every decision made in the policy process affects the policy outcome: from stakeholders deciding on what the policy problem is, to the decision of the implementer on how to implement the said policy (Smith & Larimer, 2013:47).

## **2.4 POLICY LEVELS**

Policy design and implementation occurs at different levels, and these activities can occur anywhere between the executive level and operational level. The BMT at the NYDA is designed and implemented at an operational policy level. With regards to policy levels, most of the authors in public policy refer to the functional levels of policy. These functional policy levels are the political, executive, administrative and operational level (Bain, 1992:73; Brandon, 2005:321; Cloete & De Coning, 2005:15). The various policy levels are discussed below.

### **2.4.1 Political policy level**

According to Bain (1992:74), “political policy has its origin in the political life of a community as expressed formally by various political parties including the ruling party”. At the political level, policy is formulated by the political party and the policy is influenced by the direction that the political party is trying to steer the community towards. These types of policies are seen as the political party’s manifesto that is used to attract voters, for example, almost all political parties in SA have a policy on public housing which outlines their promises to improve access to quality housing.

### **2.4.2 Executive policy level**

Bain (1992:74) refers to the executive policy level as government policy, as it is the policy of the political party that is in power. Executive policy could be regarded as legislation that is implemented at national, provincial and local level.

### **2.4.3 Administrative policy level**

Bain (1992:75) states that administrative policy deals with matters such as personnel, finances, organisation, and how executive policy is transformed into practice. These

types of policies are those that are unique to the state and are implemented by government departments. Despite being unique to the state, the administrative policy can be indirectly influenced by the political party in power.

#### **2.4.4 Operational policy level**

Bain (1992:76) defines the operational policy level as the level that contains the daily activities carried out by public officials. Examples of operational level policy are the regulations on the procedure of issuing new identity documents at the Department of Home Affairs. As such, the BMT is part of the operational activities that are carried out by the implementers at the NYDA.

#### **2.4.5 Geographical policy levels**

Cloete and De Coning (2005:15) also mention geographic policy levels, namely, the international, national, provincial, regional and local level. Geographical policy levels reflect where the policies' target population is located, for example, regional or local policies target the population in the local and regional areas, such as the policies formulated by municipalities. Public policy can be formulated for different geographical levels and also formulated at different functional levels in government. The NYDA is an institution that is tasked with the development of youth at a national level. Even though the BMT is an operational policy at the NYDA, it is implemented at a national geographic level.

### **2.5 PUBLIC POLICY**

This section presents a discussion of public policy in terms of policy values and public policy theories.

#### **2.5.1 Policy values**

The values that the political party closely abides by and promotes are reflected in their policies. These values represent what the ruling political party or the government of the day stand for, and what they have promised citizens.

These values are usually reflected in the type of policies the government formulates, for example, extraction, allocative or redistributive policies (Haigh, 2012:19). Extraction policies are, for example, tax policies that are used to collect taxes from citizens. Allocative policies are used to allocate funds or services to citizens, for

example, healthcare for the elderly. Redistributive policies are used to redistribute the taxes collected by the government to those who are below the poverty line, for example, social or welfare grants.

Policies can also be influenced by events that cause a response from the government, such as national disasters, fighting terrorism, limiting immigration and international treaties or international health risks. This type of policy is greatly influenced by an event that occurred and which warrants a response from the government. Furthermore, policies made by political parties sometimes need input from citizens, so that the policies address issues that affect the citizens directly and reflect the ideologies that are dominant in society at large. Although public participation can allow the policy formulator to simplify complex issues, it can also make the policy process more complex for the policy-maker, as the citizens might have differing views regarding the causes and solutions to the policy problem.

There are three main role players in policy development: government, non-government and the private sector (Cloete & de Coning, 2005: 18; Haigh, 2012: 21; Anderson, 2015: 26; Wu, Ramesh, Howlett, Fritzen, 2017: 42). Governmental role players are the ruling political party, while non-governmental role players include citizens and interest groups. The private sector refers to the private companies operating in the country that are affected by public policies. The main role players are important to the policy process as they can influence the process by making the process easier or more complex.

## **2.5.2 Public policy theories**

Public policy theories describe the way that policies are made, and determines who the people are that are given preference and power to oversee the policy decisions. It is important to know how public policies are made and who is involved in the formulation process. Understanding public policy theories enables us to understand whose objectives and goal are being favoured in certain formulated policies. These public policy theories include the classical, liberal democratic, elite and systems theory, as discussed in the sub-sections below.

### **2.5.2.1 *Classical theory***

In the classical theory, the various concerns and interests of government are given preference over those of the citizens, interest groups and private sector. The classical

theory revolves around governmental institutions, as they are the institutions that have been granted the constitutional mandate to determine and implement public policy.

With the way that government is increasing the participation of and consultation with citizens in the various public policy stages, the classical theory might become redundant, as the preference, interests and concerns of the citizens are being put first. Citizens voting for these political parties are now more aware of what the government is doing with the taxes they contribute to the state. In order for the political parties to retain power, they have to keep the citizens satisfied by listening to their concerns and addressing their demands. The classical theory might be not ideally suited for democratic countries, as political parties in a democracy need to satisfy the needs of the citizens over their own policy intentions.

#### ***2.5.2.2 Liberal democratic theory***

In the liberal democratic theory, the political party assumes the position of the primary force in policy-making. As the political party represents the citizens, they assume the dominating position in policy formulation (Birkland, 2019: 52; Cloete & de Coning, 2005: 34). The political party obtains support when citizens vote, pay taxes, obey laws and accept the decisions of the political party (Anderson, 2000:18). The political party is therefore entrusted to formulate policies that cater for the needs of their voters.

#### ***2.5.2.3 The elite theory***

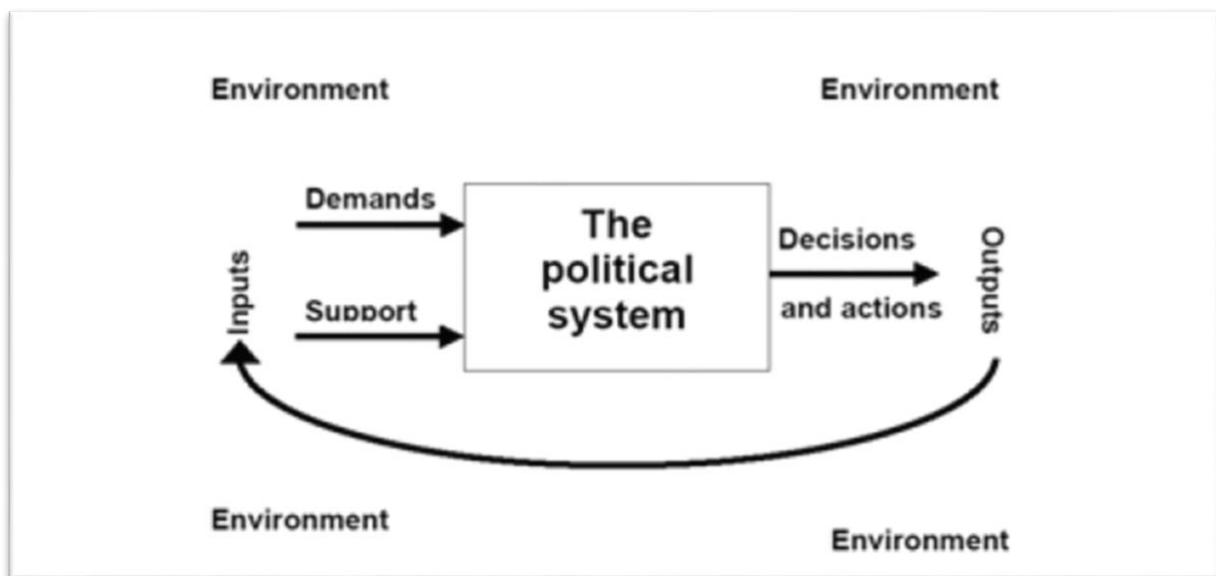
In the elite theory, small elite groups usually lead a large group of followers. The policies reflect the values of the governing elite, and the policies only serve the interest of the elite (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:34). The elites rule and determine policy with little input from the masses (Anderson, 2000: 22; Barnhizer & Candeub, 2019: 3). A good example is multi-national corporations that influence change in policy to benefit themselves.

#### ***2.5.2.4 Systems theory***

The systems theory comprises of the activities of governmental institutions and the political processes that take place when citizens make demands of the government (Anderson, 2015:20). It focuses on the contributions to policy-making by interrelated forces. Political parties, voters and interest groups can influence the decisions made in the policy-making process. Public participation in the policy process best describes

this theory, where citizens take on an active role or participate in the policy formulation (Cairney, 2019: 24; Cloete & de Coning, 2005: 34).

Easton (1957) describes a political system (Figure 2.1) in terms of systems theory. The political system has inputs which are processed through the political system, and policy or political decisions are the result of the process. Similar to the process in the systems theory, the political system receives inputs from citizens and interest groups, these inputs are in the form of demands or support that are affected or initiated by the environment, and they result in government decisions, actions or policy.



**Figure 2.1: The political system**

Source: Easton, 1957:384

As shown in Figure 2.1, the demands made by the citizens and interest groups are for solutions to issues that they have identified in the environment, and the political executive office-bearers take these demands into consideration and make decisions or formulate policy addressing these demands. The support input is the support that political parties receive from citizens regarding the decisions that they have made or will be making. The support can be seen as votes for a political party, therefore, giving the political party power to take action, make decisions and formulate policy (Easton, 1957:392).

## **2.6 POLICY DECISION-MAKING MODELS**

The following models focus on the approaches used in selecting the most appropriate policy option. These models explain how some policy decisions are made by policy-makers. The following decision-making models will be described: rational, incremental and mixed scanning model.

### **2.6.1 Rational model**

Howlet and Ramesh (2003:93) describe the rational model as one where policy-relevant information is gathered and scientifically used to assess the policy options, resulting in policy decisions that seek to maximise solutions to complex policy problems. In this model, the decision-makers solve their problems by processing inputs to produce the most outputs with the available resources, so as to maximise efficiency (Kettl & Fesler, 2005:230).

The rational model implies that the policy-maker has a full range of policy options to choose from to address the various policy issues. To understand the options that the policy-maker has, one should understand the preferences of the particular society that is affected by these issues. The policy-maker needs to offer rational alternatives that will be aligned with the society's values. The decision-maker then weighs all the factors, including resources, policy environment and policy instruments available, and thereafter, makes a decision (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:37).

Etzioni (1967:385) argues that the rational process of decision-making is widely regarded as the appropriate way that decisions should be made, as the policy-maker is aware of their problem, the set goals and the various alternatives. After weighing these factors carefully, the policy-maker decides on the best option. However, in some cases the policy-maker does not have the time to consider all the factors, or does not have the resources to collect enough information to make a rational decision. As it takes time to consider all the available alternatives, the rational model might not always be ideal in making policy decisions.

### **2.6.2 Incremental model**

Unlike the rational model, the incremental model reduces the amount of time and money spent on the collection of information and calculations in decision-making, by focusing on a small number of policy alternatives and considering only the most

important consequences (Etzioni, 1967:386). This model regards public policy as a continuation of existing government activities, with the potential for small and incremental changes only (Cloete & de Coning, 2005: 39; Hinkel, Heinrich & Reussner, 2019: 3153).

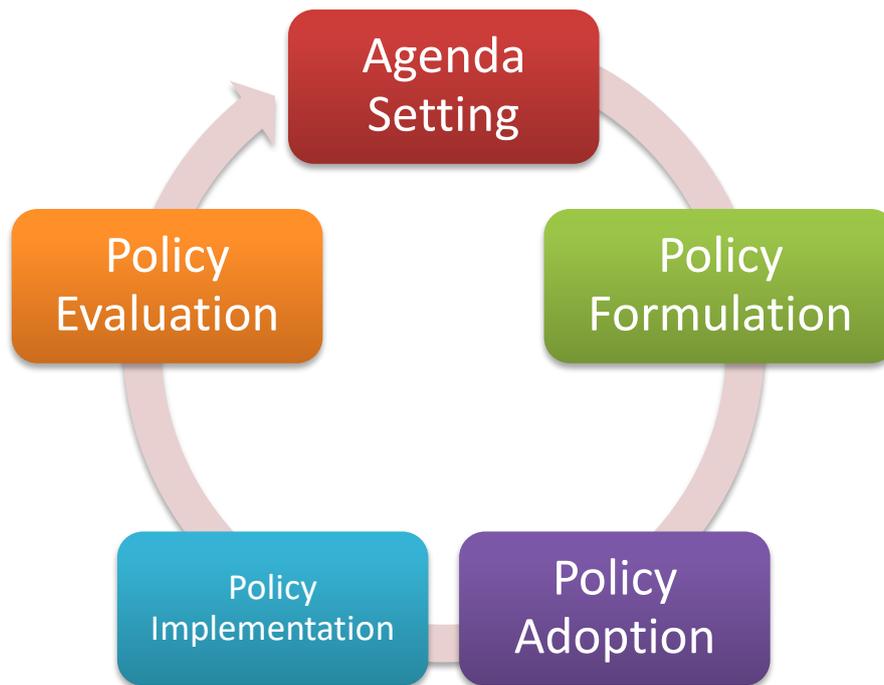
The policy-maker makes decisions based on the information received from the environment, and thereafter, small incremental changes are made to the policy. The policy-maker is often focused on the immediate problem, and is constantly defining and redefining the policy problems and solution through trial and error (Haigh, 2012:100). However, only focusing on the current state of the 'problem' limits the policy-maker's ability to formulate permanent solutions. This could lead to prolonging the policy process, as the policy-maker will be constantly redefining the policy problem.

### **2.6.3 Mixed scanning model**

The mixed scanning model was developed as an alternative to both the rational model and incremental model by incorporating the advantages of both the rational and incremental model (Haigh, 2012:101). Etzioni (1967:385) states that criticism of the rational model focuses on the capabilities or qualifications of the decision-makers in making rational decisions. The incremental model is seen as remedial, as it focuses on solving the present issues and not promoting future goals (Etzioni, 1967:387). As a result, the mixed model suggests making timely decisions using information that is readily available, while at the same time, ensuring that the decisions are future oriented. Using the mixed scanning model, the policy-makers can look at the main alternative solutions available and the incremental decisions can be made within the parameters of the main alternatives that are available to the policy-maker (Etzioni, 1967:390; Haigh, 2012:101).

## **2.7 POLICY PROCESS**

The policy process consists of five stages as illustrated in Figure 2.2, namely, agenda setting, policy formulation, policy adoption, policy implementation and policy evaluation. These policy stages will be discussed below the figure.



**Figure 2.2: Policy process**

Source: Cloete & De Coning, 2005:44

### **2.7.1 Agenda setting**

Policy agenda setting is the first step and the most significant stage in the policy process. The agenda-setting stage controls the direction of the policy and controls which policy issues will be addressed (Anderson, 2015: 98; Birkland, 2019: 78; Cloete & de Coning, 2005: 87). If the process of agenda setting is not carried out correctly, the policy will be redundant or misdirected, as it will be addressing the wrong policy issue. Agenda setting is where the identified issues are clarified and brought to the attention of the policy-makers by the stakeholders, and these issues must undergo a complex process before they are considered for resolution (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003:120).

According to Birkland (2010:168), agenda setting is a collection of problems, understanding of causes and solutions, and other elements of public problems that come to the attention of society and government officials. Howlett and Ramesh (1995:104) define agenda setting as the process where the demands of various groups are translated into items competing for serious attention from public officials.

In this stage, policy-makers are the agenda setters, and the stakeholders approach them to put the policy issues they have identified on the agenda of the policy process.

Public officials are powerful agents of the agenda-setting process as they have the authority and are better positioned to raise policy issues and do something about the issues immediately (Gerston, 2008: 84; Kalu, 2017: 75). However, interest groups and elected officials can influence the policy-makers' decision to favour them.

Kingdon (2013:157) states that in agenda setting "people recognise problems, they generate proposals for public policy changes, and they engage in such political activities such as election campaigns and pressure group lobbying". In agenda setting the stakeholders make their problems known to the policy-makers, and try make sure that their problems are considered and addressed with the limited resources that government has. To ensure that their problems are addressed, some stakeholders put pressure on policy-makers by protesting for their problem to be put on the agenda because not every problem ends up on the policy agenda.

The policy agenda-setting process (Anderson, 2000:93), as illustrated in Figure 2.3, takes problems from the public agenda and transfers them to the institutional agenda.

The problem identified in society has to be defined and turned into a policy issue that is brought to the attention of the government. The institutional agenda is the policy agenda, and the policy problems on this agenda are attended to by the policy-makers.



**Figure 2.3: Agenda-setting process**

Source: Anderson, 2000:93

As seen in Figure 2.3, the policy problem can end up on the institutional agenda in three ways: via systemic agenda, policy entrepreneurs or mandatory items.

- Systemic agenda is similar to the systems theory where issues are discussed in the public domain and highlighted for the government's attention through citizen participation or interaction.

- Policy entrepreneurs are the same groups that are found in the elite theory that lobby issues to the government and benefit from the issues being recognised by the government.
- Mandatory items are critical or crisis issues that automatically end up on the institutional agenda. These generally consist of natural disasters or freak accidents.

Furthermore, the agenda-setting process is competitive in nature, as groups that successfully present their issues to government also reap the benefits of their issue ending up on the institutional agenda. However, Birkland (2011:169) argues that as much as groups compete to get their issues on the agenda, groups also compete to keep issues off the institutional agenda. Businesses protecting their profits will use resources to keep issues off the policy agenda. For example, soft-drink companies in SA were against the sugar tax that was proposed by the government in 2016. The companies mentioned that if the sugar tax is introduced it will result in job losses as their profits will be affected. As a result, the labour groups in SA rallied against the sugar tax and pressurised the government to reconsider the sugar tax.

The group that is the strongest in advocating their issues will get their issues on the agenda. However, stakeholders that accumulate power should not be the ones that determine the direction of the policy agenda. Policy-makers should be rational in making policy decisions and selecting which issues end up on the agenda.

The process of agenda setting is important because this is the stage where the policy issues are defined and prioritised. The definition of the problem dictates what resources and solutions will be used to address the problem. Cloete and De Coning (2011:87) state that agenda setting is therefore, substantive (what is done), and procedural (who acts, why and how).

The substantive nature of agenda setting includes the gathering of data by stakeholders about their specific issue. This data is used to substantiate why their issue belongs on the agenda, and how these issues will be solved. The procedural nature of agenda setting refers to the process of allocating the limited resources that policy-makers have to the set agenda, deciding the who, what, when and how the policy problems will be addressed (Smith & Larimer, 2013: 49; Vargo, Guo & Amazeen, 2018: 2032).

### **2.7.1.1 Issue identification**

An issue is a subject that generates attention because of the differences in opinion that exist about it and is usually something that is controversial (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:88). Policy issues can also be the same problem that the society is experiencing, meaning that society sees the same issue as a problem. Through public debate, citizens freely interact with each other, policy issues are identified and brought to the attention of the policy-makers.

Depending on the policy making model being applied, issues that were identified are lobbied by the different stakeholders that regard the issues as significant. How issues are defined plays a significant role, as the better the issues are defined, the more citizens pay attention to these issues and are able to support them (Harder, Sevenans & Van Aelst, 2017: 277; Mintron & Norman, 2013: 164). Critically understanding how to define and structure policy problems will save considerable time and funds, as having identified the correct policy problem prevents the policy process from being derailed and solving the incorrect problem (Guess & Farnham, 2000:24).

Moreover, the definition of the problem will determine how the policy-makers perceive the issue, how the issue will be resolved, the resources that will be used, and which government departments will be involved. However, to assume that policy-makers react to the policy issues with rationality would be misleading, as the same issues in the agenda could also be affecting them (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003:122).

Howlett and Ramesh further state that policy-makers are involved in the same discourses as the public, and they can manipulate substantive data in support of a certain policy issue. For example, the policy-makers that respond to the identified issues might also be affected by the same issues and their response will be influenced by their experience, ideology and traditions. Institutional culture and values can also contribute to policy-makers incorrectly defining a problem (Guess & Farnham, 2000:24). However, policy-makers also need to be professional, thus objective, when it comes to the policy process and should not let their personal experiences affect the policy process.

Peters and Hoornbek (2005:82) state that the matter of how the question 'what is the problem' is answered is essential. The answer to the question 'what is the problem' will have different institutions in government allocated with greater or lesser roles in

solving the problem. When stakeholders define problems, they should ensure that their definition should explore all the various facets of the problem. Mingers and Roseland (2004:532) state that properly defining a problem also suggests a particular solution. Stakeholders should not define the problem generally, for example, as a health problem, a crime problem or an economic problem. They need to delve in deeper so that the problem is better understood, so not to lead the policy-makers astray (Guess & Farnham, 2000: 24; Harder *et al.*, 2017: 279). This process of delving deeper in defining the problem is called problem structuring, which will be discussed in Section 2.7.1.3.

Delving deeper into the description of the policy problem gives the policy designers the information needed for formulating strategies to solve the problem. Correctly defining the problem will make it easier to advocate the problem to policy-makers. A well-defined policy problem makes the job of the policy-maker easier. A well-defined problem speeds up the process, as the policy-maker does not have to seek more substantive data and can easily allocate resources that will effectively address the problem.

In agenda setting, issue identification is affected by cultural, economic, technological, political and global factors. The issues identified by society will differ every time, as stakeholders do not consider all factors as equally important. Some will be affected by political factors and deem those issues important, while others might be affected by economic issues and deem those as more important. The real challenge is who gets their issues on the agenda, because policy-makers have limited resources for addressing these policy issues.

The government is responsible for the agenda setting of these issues that are brought to them. There are various approaches that the government might use when setting policy agenda. For example, the government might take a passive role in agenda setting and will not help the stakeholders define problems or set priorities. Although sometimes the government might take a more active role and assist society in setting policy agenda and in defining the policy issue (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:89; Haigh, 2012:73).

When the government plays a more active role it would encourage agenda setting among the society and help the stakeholders to define and set priorities. The only

problem with this approach is that the government can choose who to help, so there is a hint of bias in the stakeholders the government decides to help. Peters and Hoornbek (2005:84) believe that issue definition benefits certain institutions rather than others, and this makes agenda setting a potential locus for bureaucratic politics. Those with more resources can easily define their problems and set priorities and therefore get their issues on the agenda quicker than those with less resources or influence (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:89).

Another approach the government uses is the liberal democratic approach where they play an active role in setting the policy agenda, without the stakeholders needing to come to them with issues (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:89). The government would review the factors affecting the stakeholders and then define and set priorities as they see fit.

#### **2.7.1.2 *Root cause analysis***

All subsequent actions involving policy is established by the definition of the problem (Wagner, 2014:430). In most publications (Anderson, 2015; Bardach, 2005; Cloete & De Coning, 2005; Dunn, 2014; Fischer, Miller & Sidney, 2007; Gerston, 2008; Haigh, 2012; Hill & Hupe, 2002) on public policy that cover agenda setting, the authors emphasise defining the 'policy problem' as the most important step in policy analysis. However, these authors do not extend their studies to root cause analysis and obtaining an understanding of that which causes the policy problem.

According to Rooney and Heuvel (2004:45), root cause analysis is "a process designed for use in investigating and categorising the root causes of events with safety, health, environmental, quality, reliability and production impacts". Root cause analysis does more than define the policy problem, it investigates and uncovers what the cause of the problem is, and allows the policy-maker to formulate policies that solve the policy problem, and not just the symptoms caused by the problem. According to Wagner (2014:432), a root cause is a "cause that when removed, modified, or controlled can eliminate, reduce or prevent the problem from existing or occurring in the future". Identifying the root cause and formulating solutions to address the root cause could solve the policy problem, as the real problem is being addressed.

Policy-makers still need to be objective when investigating what the root cause of a policy problem is, as problems can be perceived in different ways by the groups

involved, and these groups might have different solutions to address the problem (Haigh, 2012:64). Wagner (2014:431) states that root cause analysis can provide a greater structure in the process of defining and solving the problem, but that it does not eliminate the need for subjectivity.

Furthermore, once the root cause of the policy problem has been identified, the policy-maker is then able to identify the goals and objectives of the intended policy.

After defining the problem, identifying objectives and goals, the policy-maker is able to formulate several policy alternatives to eliminate, control or remove the policy problem. After completing the root cause analysis of the policy issue, the policy-maker will have to structure the problem correctly to allow him/her to formulate policy alternatives. Formulating policy alternatives that address the root cause of the policy problem enables the implementers to easily formulate successful implementation plans in removing or controlling the problem.

### **2.7.1.3 Problem structuring**

According to Vesely (2007:92), problem structuring is “an analytical process that fully respects subjectivity, multi-dimensional and vagueness in policy issues, it is where one analyses competing definitions, aspects and dimensions of the issue by different actors”. Rosenhead (1996:117) defines problem structuring as “a broad group of problem-handling approaches whose purpose is to assist in structuring problems rather than directly with solving them”. Problem structuring is a process that involves all the parties in defining what the problems are by considering the values, viewpoints and knowledge of all the parties involved.

Vesely (2007:92) states that “problems should be formulated in a particular way to attract attention, stand a chance to get on the agenda and be resolved”. When defining public problems, strategies and techniques, such as framing, language, rhetoric and causal stories should be used to influence how society understands the problem (Bosomworth, Leith, Harwood, *et al.*, 2017: 24; Haigh, 2012: 62; Nelson, 2004: 581; Smith & Shaw, 2019: 404). Essentially government can use the definition of a problem to influence society to support their policy outputs.

The final product of problem structuring is a properly defined public policy problem, as various inputs from all the participants in the agenda-setting stage would have been debated, discussed and considered. After the root cause has been identified and the

problem structured, the policy-makers, interest groups and appointed officials can then put forward the problem in the policy agenda.

#### **2.7.1.4 The most important agenda setters**

The following are some of the important role players in the agenda-setting stage. These role players include political office-bearers, courts of law, appointed officials, civil society, business, labour interest groups, individuals and the media. These important agenda setters can affect the agenda-setting process and influence what ends up on the agenda.

- ***Elected representatives***

Howlett (2011:32) states that “politicians that are in authoritative decision-making positions, ultimately make public policy”. These elected representatives have been voted in by the citizens to represent them, their values and beliefs. These elected officials form part of the executive branch of the government who are empowered to develop and implement policy, therefore they are dominant in policy agenda setting (Cloete & de Coning, 2005: 89; Fourinaies, 2018: 177; Thornhill, 2012: 57). The executive branch also has control over the resources available for implementing policies and can easily decide who does what, when and how and with what resources.

Control of monetary resources gives the executive more discretion, as they approve budgets for policies in government departments and if they do not support a certain policy, they might limit the budget, and therefore, limit its impact. The executive will only have this major influence over the policy process when the governing political party has an absolute majority of seats in parliament, and the opposition parties cannot fully oppose certain decisions the governing party takes. Every participant with considerable power in the agenda-setting process can delay or promote the process (Borghetto & Russo, 2018: 68; Kingdon, 2013: 157).

- ***Courts of law***

According to Cloete and De Coning (2005:90), the executive branch is not the only branch of government that has the potential for setting the policy agenda. The legislative and judicial branches can influence the policy agenda, as policy can be formed as statute and court decisions. Howlett and Ramesh (1995:54) argue that

the task of the courts is to hold the government accountable to the public, rather than making and implementing policy.

However, court rulings can result in policy, for example, the court ruling that it is unlawful for employees to be paid below minimum wage, and as a result, the employers across the country need to adhere to this ruling by paying their employees a minimum wage. The courts are crucial forums where social problems are highlighted and where policies to address problems are demanded (Howlett & Ramesh, 1995:54). Courts of law can highlight policy issues that should be considered for the agenda setting, or promote issues to the agenda setting through its rulings. This can, however, accelerate or delay the agenda-setting process.

- ***Appointed officials***

According to Thornhill (2012:64) and Hanekom and Bain (1990:20), appointed officials make up the human resource of the public sector and they work as subordinates for the elected under the Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998. Appointed officials in government departments are critical in the agenda setting of policies, as they work closely with the elected representatives. Their function is to assist the elected representatives with their duties in making sure that their voters receive the promised public services. They receive policy issues from the politicians and formulate policy options that will address the policy issues brought by the politicians (Anderson, 2015: 97; Borghetto & Russo, 2018: 69).

The needs of society are too complex for the elected representative to handle on their own, and the appointed officials can offer professional input and help the elected representative to address the policy issues being experienced by society. The appointed officials have the capacity and the expertise to attend to the needs of the citizens and policy issues. Appointed officials are part of the advisory system that the elected representative use to make decisions; they have direct access to the decision-makers, and the relevant data needed to influence the agenda setting (Howlett, 2011:32).

- ***Civil society, business and labour interest groups and individuals***

Civil society, business and labour interest groups and individuals provide information to the government and sometimes put pressure on the government to

put certain issues on the agenda, but they do not have decision-making power (Anderson, 2015:62; Cloete & De Coning, 2005:90).

Citizens and businesses can group together and become a strong group pursuing the same interests. For example, the residents of Vuwani protesting against the town's municipal demarcation by burning schools when their demands were not taken into consideration. There will regularly be issues that have not been identified by government or policy-makers, and as a result, interest groups will mobilise and combine their strength and influence the policy agenda to ensure that those issues are brought to government's attention.

- ***Academics***

Academics are important agenda setters that have relevant information and data that can be used to bring certain issues to light. They form part of the informal advisory system for elected representatives and have indirect access to the appointed officials (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:91). Academics, NGOs and research institutes form part of the policy research community outside government that play a vital role in enriching public understanding and debate on policy issues (Howlett, 2011:33). Much of the research done by academics, NGOs and research institutes is funded by foundations, business, government and the wealthy elites to collect data and report on certain policy issues and to develop policy alternatives that benefit the funding institution (Anderson, 2015:67).

- ***The media***

Due to advances in technology, reports from the media can reach many people in a short amount of time. The communication network that the media offers to citizens and interest groups enables them to mobilise and protest about issues reported by the media. What the media reports to the public is important and can greatly influence policy agenda, as these reports inform the citizens about the activities of the government (Cloete & de Coning, 2005: 91; Djerf-Pierre & Shehata, 2017: 740; Haigh, 2012: 134). However, there is a possibility that the government or the elite can use the media to push or advocate their own agenda.

After the agenda setting process has taken place and the policy problem defined, the next stage of the policy process is the policy formulation stage where solutions for all the problems that were identified are formulated.

### **2.7.2 Policy design/ policy formulation**

After completing the agenda setting, conducting the root cause analysis and defining the policy problem, the policy-maker has to identify the goals and the objectives of the policy before designing policy options. According to Mayo (1994:227), a goal is a desired result that has no specific timeframe, while objectives are activities with a specific time frame that are aimed at achieving the goal. The main goal of the policy-maker will be to solve the defined policy problem. Therefore, to solve the policy problem, the policy-maker will have to formulate policies with the objectives needed to reach the policy goal. This means that all the policy options formulated by the policy-maker need to have one main goal and a similar set of objectives that will ensure that the policy problem is solved.

Anderson (2000:109) defines policy formulation as developing applicable and acceptable proposed courses of action for dealing with policy problems. The purpose of policy is to solve the problems that stakeholders have identified, defined and promoted to the policy agenda (Howlett, 2011:30). Once the agenda setting has been finalised, the policy-makers should start designing efficient and effective policy alternatives that will solve the problems that are on the policy agenda. Policy formulation involves the elimination of policy alternatives, until one or only a few policy alternatives are left, amongst which policy formulators will make the final selection (Cairney, 2019: 27; Howlett & Ramesh, 1995: 123).

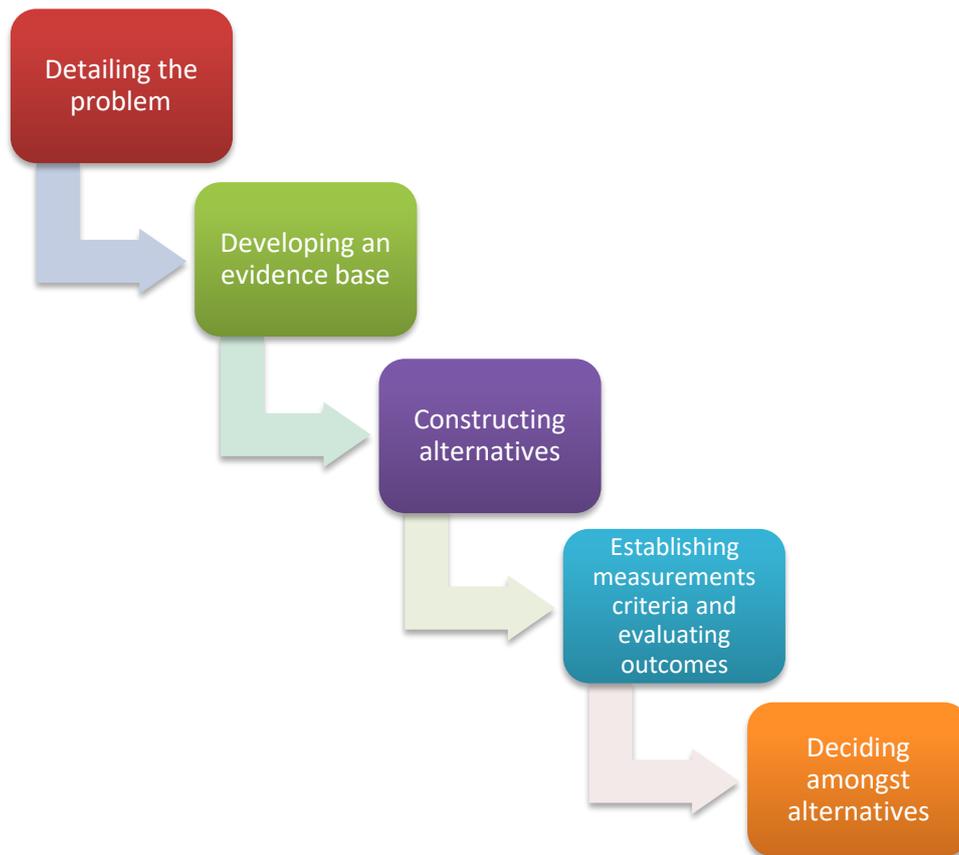
The policy design stage is where policy-makers combine government resources and decide what will happen, when it will happen, who will do it, for whom, and how they will do it. All the policy alternatives must be derived from the same root cause analysis of the problem and must be designed from the same pool of policy instruments to make sure they effectively address the identified problem. By understanding the root cause analysis and the policy tools available, policy formulators can design better policy alternatives (Birkland, 2011:243). Policy-makers need to gather information on each of the problems, so that they can formulate policy alternatives that will solve the

problem or make some impact (Anderson, 2015: 110; Haigh, 2012: 72; Howlett & Mukherjee, 2017: 3).

Furthermore, policy-makers also have to consider what will be the best way to address the policy problem and who will be best in carrying out the policy process. Policy-makers can also outsource the formulation, design, implementation and evaluation of policy to research institutes, private companies, or NGOs. They can also form public - private partnerships in the formulation, design and implementation of policy.

Peter and Hoornbeek (2005:78) argue that policy studies are too focused on policy-makers rather than the policy instruments used to solve policy problems. Policy formulators need to pay attention to the policy tools that are used to solve policy issues, as those methods or instruments can greatly affect the target population. For example, if the NYDA awards business grants to youth without giving the youth any business financial guidance. The policy instrument used will not achieve any policy objectives, as the youth will misuse the grant funds and their business will fail because they have not been provided with proper guidance in business finance. Thus, the policy tools which policy formulators use need to be carefully considered, as it can cause further problems for the target population (Peters & Hoornbeek, 2005:78).

According to Haigh (2012:82), when formulating policy alternatives, policy-makers need to follow a policy formulation process, as illustrated in Figure 2.4, that consists of five steps.



**Figure 2.4: Policy formulation process**

Source: Haigh, 2012:83)

The first stage ‘detailing the problem’ entails problem structuring, identifying target groups and deciding on key indicators that will show that the problem is being solved.

The second stage is ‘developing an evidence base’, where the policy-maker collects evidence about the problem and collects the best practice data from other locations that have experienced the same problem. The evidence collected by the policy-maker has three purposes. The data is used to judge the impact the problem has on citizens, to observe how others handled the same situation historically, and to grasp the exact characteristics of the problem (Haigh, 2012:83). However, if there is no previous data the policy-maker can use any information that they have to conduct scientific research and collect data that will form part of their evidence base. Although this new process of data collection might be time consuming and delay the policy process, it is an imperative.

The evidence collected is the raw data that policy-makers should acquire, weigh and act on. Policy-makers need good quality information so that they can use their expertise to make good decisions (Kettl & Fesler, 2005: 229; Wu *et al.*, 2017: 140). It

is difficult to secure good information as it takes time and money. Those with better resources have better information, as they have access to more resources to fund data collection. Kettl and Fesler (2005:229) state that stakeholders that control the information, control the decisions made from it. Conversely, stakeholders can also hide the information in order to influence the decisions of the policy-maker. Information is needed to aid the policy-maker in deciding on the policy action that would best suit the policy problem.

The third stage involves 'constructing alternatives'. This step requires the policy-maker to formulate various action plans that will solve or change the state of the problem at hand. The policy-maker should be able to come up with alternative ways that can solve the problem that makes use of all the different resources available. When formulating alternatives, policy-makers need to consider the following constraints: budgetary, political, organisational, information and legal constraints. Constraints force policy-makers to prioritise policy alternatives, giving these alternatives adequate resources to solve policy problems.

The fourth stage of the policy formulation process requires the policy-maker to establish measurement criteria and to evaluate the outcomes. The evaluation criteria assist the policy-maker to make a selection from the various formulated alternatives. The measurement criteria include cost and benefit, impact, efficiency and effectiveness criteria that the policy-maker can use to make sound judgments on the proposed outcomes. The policy-maker needs to set criteria according to the resources available and he/she can choose the best policy alternative that falls within the criteria. The policy-maker need to set their own criteria, based on time, budget and human resources available.

The last step in the policy formulation process is to decide amongst the selected alternatives. In this step, the policy-maker offers information to the political office bearer and helps them in making decisions regarding the policy alternatives available. Haigh (2012:85) states that "it is imperative that the policy-maker positions the choice in relation to the political, organisational and societal acceptance".

The policy-maker must choose the policy alternative that will best be carried out with the resources available to the government of the day and that will be accepted by society. The policy-maker must also help the elected representative in selecting the

right policy alternative to best address the policy issue. After selecting the best option, the policy alternative chosen must be adopted.

### **2.7.3 Policy decision-making/ Policy adoption**

Policy decision-making is the process of choosing among a small number of alternative policy options to address a policy problem (Howlett & Ramesh, 1995:138). In the policy decision-making stage the policy-maker makes a decision about which policy alternative to implement to address the identified problem. Even though there are several policy stakeholders still involved in the policy decision stage, when it comes down to making the policy decisions, it is limited to those with the capacity and authority to make binding public decisions (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003:163). Andrews (2007:162) states that “public decisions are legitimate if they are legal, authoritative and appropriate to the context”. In other words, the decisions taken at the policy-decision stage are made by the appointed official and the elected representative (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003: 163; Weimer & Vining, 2017: 259).

Kettl and Fesler (2005:227) state that “decision-making is a quintessential administrative act”. This means that to carry out administrative activities, decisions need to be made by the right people. In the policy-decision stage, policy-makers need to consider many factors when making decisions on the policy alternatives they are going to implement.

Kettl and Fesler (2005:228) argue that political values, such as inclusivity, transparency, democracy, access and equality, affect policy decisions. The decisions made by policy-makers require support from both the public and the government. There needs to be a balance, and policy-makers need to work on finding common ground between institutional values and the values of the public. The decision-making process is complex, not only does the policy-makers need to make sure that the policy alternatives they choose maximise inputs, but they also should make sure that the decisions have support from the citizens and the elected representatives.

Every decision the policy-maker makes should be beneficial to both the institution and the community. Decisions become complex when the institution’s interest does not align with the values and interests of the community. Any public official, regardless of whether elected or appointed, should consider the values of the community and the institution when they are making decisions. The institutional values would include

efficiency, effectiveness, integrity, legality, responsibility and productivity. The decisions that the public official makes affect the community and the institution they represent. Even though organisational decisions are made by individuals; organisational interest, public interest, goals, needs, objectives, risks, resources and constraints need to be considered by the policy-maker (Cloete & de Coning, 2005: 122; Weimer & Vining, 2017: 259).

When all the facts have been considered, the policy-maker considers the values to see if the decisions being made are not in conflict with the values of the community. The community determines the values that influence the decisions of the policy-maker. However, institutional, legal, religious and philosophical values also play a role in the decisions of the policy-maker when selecting a policy alternative. These values need to be considered when the policy-maker makes decisions.

Furthermore, elite groups of non-state actors can greatly influence policy decisions, as they can take part in lobbying activities that are designed to persuade, encourage and sometimes force the authoritative policy-makers to approve options that non-state actors support (Smith & Larimer, 2013; Raab & Kenis, 2007; Andrews, 2007; Howlett & Ramesh, 2003; Wu *et al.*, 2017: 315). Lobbying for policy options is not only limited to the public, these activities can also occur within the public service where appointed officials lobby for certain policy choices.

Even though policy-makers need to be objective when making decisions, a study done by Weimer and Vinning (2005:45) compels one to think about the policy-makers as individuals with their own values and that they also have value conflicts with the decisions they have to make concerning policy. The study investigates how the policy-maker responds to value conflicts between his/her values and values of the institution. Value conflict, for example, manifests when the institution wants a policy-maker to approve a policy that he or she disapproves of or does not agree with. The policy-maker would mostly respond in one of three ways: voice out his concerns about the policy, resign from the institution or jeopardise the policy itself (Weimer & Vinning, 2005:45).

Many different decision-making theories have been developed to further improve decision-making techniques, but there is no dominant decision-making approach. However, there are many approaches that have helped to provide techniques to make

decisions (Kettl & Fesler, 2005:230). Smith and Larimer (2013:50) quickly gravitate towards two policy decision-making approaches, namely, rationalism and incrementalism.

These decision-making approaches best help analyse, describe and conceptualise policy decision-making in both complex and simple situations (Smith & Larimer, 2013; Griggs, 2007; Andrews, 2007; Howlett & Ramesh, 2003). Even though appointed official are the ones with the authority to make the final decisions in the policy-decision stage, their freedom is restricted by institutional and governmental rules (Howlett & Ramesh, 2003:164). Decision-making approaches help appointed official to choose the best policy alternative to implement.

#### **2.7.4 Policy implementation**

After the policy-maker has selected the best policy alternative, the next step is to implement the policy. When the objectives and intentions of a policy are transformed to tangible public services, this process is called implementation. Birkland (2011:250) defines implementation as the process by which policies enacted by the government are put into effect by the relevant agencies. Brooks (1998:69) states that implementation involves activities, such as application of rules, interpretation of regulations, enforcement of laws, and delivery of services to the public. To implement means to complete, fulfil, or put into effect, it is about doing, accomplishing tasks and achieving policy goals (Brooks, 1998: 67; Weimer & Vining, 2017: 282).

Implementation is the process whereby the problems identified are solved by attaining the goals set for policy. Implementation is concerned with turning goals and objectives into tangible services by aligning resources, actors and citizens. Implementation is a catalyst for change in solving the problem that the government has identified and intends to solve.

Implementers use policy as a framework or guidelines for implementation, whereby they know what part belongs where, who gets what, and who is supposed to do what. A policy with goals that are not clearly stated will leave the implementers confused on what conflicts to solve, what decisions to make, and who gets what in society. However, vague goals in policy might allow the policy to be supported by the different groups that are involved in the policy process.

The policy formulation process gives implementers important indications on the intensity of the demands, about the size, stability and degree of consensus among those pushing for change (Matland, 2013:326). Implementers need the information from policy formulators in order to be able to plan resource distribution during the implementation of the policy.

In policy implementation, the articulation of policy instructions is a very important aspect of the implementation process, because instructions that are understood improve policy implementation. To fail in the interpretation of the policy mandate will lead to inaccurate execution of the policy implementation (Bannister & Esteves, 2017: 68; DeLeon & DeLeon, 2002: 475; Mbokazi, 2018: 24).

Anderson (2000:206) states that most administrative decisions made on benefits simply involve applying the legislative standards to the facts presented to the case at hand. For example, if the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) grants are changed at national level, the implementation of that change would not be difficult as the grants for all the different benefactors have been outlined and clearly explained in the policy. Policy objectives that are clearly defined are easier to implement than those that are loosely translated. Policy implementation is therefore a process of interaction between the setting of goals and the actions geared to achieve them (Mutereko, 2009: 14; Wessels & Naidoo, 2019: 139).

Successful policy implementation largely depends on the complex interactions between the policy and its institutional setting (Bannister & Esteves, 2017: 63; Cloete & de Coning, 2005: 141). The institutional setting is the environment of the institution that is implementing the policy. The institution needs to have capacity, resources and an organisational structure that will support the implementation of the policy. If the institutions do not have the right or conducive institutional setting, the policy will not be implemented in the way it was designed. A non-conducive environment will limit the implementation which will result in the policy being unsuccessful.

The institution must be able to articulate the policy in order to align its own resources to achieve the set policy goals. The administrative organisation, the political context, policy-making and implementation techniques, along with financial resources can be viewed as independent variables that affect policy outcomes and implementation

(Anderson, 2000:204). It is the alignment of implementation resources with the policy goals that is important, and without this alignment the implementation process will fail.

The success of policy implementation relies on the cooperation of several actors, which include elected representatives and appointed officials who will be managing and implementing the policy. With several actors, there is a high chance of a misalignment of the policy objectives with the implementation outcomes (Bannister & Esteves, 2017: 68; Knill & Tosun, 2012: 153). With the risk of policy implementation not being successful, strategies for implementation must be formulated, to ensure that the actors involved all pursue the same policy objectives and obtain the same implementation outcomes.

#### ***2.7.4.1 Top-down versus bottom-up approach***

Although there are various approaches to policy implementation, there are two approaches that are prevalent in literature, namely, the top-down and the bottom-up approaches (Anderson, 2015:232; Cloete & De Coning, 2005:140; Howlett & Ramesh, 1995:155; Knill & Tosun, 2012:152).

These models present alternative ways of implementing policy and are explained below.

- ***Top-down school of thought***

Birkland (2011:265) defines the top-down approach as a way of studying policy design and implementation that considers the ambitions of the top officials or policy designers. The top-down approach traces the design and implementation of the policy from policy design through to implementation. The implementation of policy is usually left to the implementers, however, in the top-down approach policy designers control when and how the implementation of policy occurs. The policy is designed by the top officials, and instead of handing over the policy to be implemented by the implementers, the policy designers want to intervene in how the policy will be implemented. This is done by passing strict implementation instructions from the top of the hierarchy to the bottom where the implementers are.

The top-down approach is hierarchical in nature and looks at implementation as the mere administrative execution of political decisions (Ferraro, 2008: 9; Molapo & Pillay, 2018: 3). The implementation process in this model starts from the top of the organisational structure where the high-level officials have set policy goals to be achieved. The goals and resources of this policy are then communicated and allocated to the lower-ranking implementers to implement the political decisions. This approach emphasises implementation through a series of specific commands by high-level officials that are carried out by the lower-ranking implementers (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, Palmer & Henderson, 2017: 706; Howlett & Ramesh, 1995: 156).

The theory of Politics-Administrative dichotomy separates public administration from politics and highlights the importance of the political neutrality of administrators (Overeem, 2005:312). Overeem (2005:313) states that political neutrality “means that administrators, in their professional capacity as public functionaries, should not take sides in political controversies”. Public administration lies outside the sphere of politics and even though politics outlines the tasks for public administration, politics should not be able to manipulate public administration (Rosenbloom, 2008:57). Even though the elected officials have the authority over the appointed officials, they should not be allowed to manipulate the appointed officials in implementing certain policies to advance a political mandate.

In policy formulation, it is difficult to separate public administration and politics because public administration activities have political consequences. If the formulation and

implementation of the policy is not successful, the consequences are that the politicians will lose the support of their voters. It would be impossible for political representatives to take a subtler role in policy as it is important to their career and political party.

Public policy sometimes derives from politics, as political parties campaign for votes using said policies. However, not all politics are policy (Overeem, 2005:321). This would imply that there would be policies that politicians will favour, as it would be in line with their political mandate or that they are personally attached to the policy. Thus, the elected representatives will use their power to interfere and want the policy formulated and implemented to promote and solidify their political position regardless of the politics-administrative dichotomy.

The ruling parties often govern or control the institutions that the implementers are working for, and might complicate or dictate the way policy is implemented. Politicians might want the policy to be implemented according to the values and objectives of the ruling political party to ensure successful implementation. Political office bearers, similarly, might want the policies to be implemented in a particular way.

The supporters of this model argue that effective implementation requires a good chain of command and the capacity to coordinate and control (Cairney, 2019: 30; Mutereko, 2009: 14). It might seem that this model is about delegation of the implementation of policy from policy-makers to policy implementers, but it is more about control of resources, procedures and sequence of events.

In the top-down approach, authority is held by higher-level personnel and lower-level personnel are restricted (Kampala, 2011:17). Higher-level personnel with authority are granted the opportunity to formulate the policy, while the lower-level personnel are told how to implement the policy, and have no inputs in its formulation or implementation.

Mutereko (2009:14) argues that in the top-down approach, policy-makers need to have firm control on all aspects of policy, from policy formulation to its implementation. Higher-level personnel with authority have influence over the implementing staff through the control of the resources that are needed for implementation.

Furthermore, in the top-down model great influence is needed, as implementers may develop other ways of implementing a policy and the outcome of those actions might be different from that which was intended by the policy-makers. According to Kampala

(2011:17), all the resources and content of the policy are controlled from the top, and orders are sent down to street-level bureaucrats who are responsible for implementing the policy.

In the top-down approach, the high-level personnel need to ensure that the organisational structure in the institution supports the top-down approach and that it supports effective communication, as policy implementation instructions need to be well communicated (Birkland, 2011: 255; Fitzsimmons-Doolan *et al.*, 2017: 715). Instructions from the high-level personnel need to trickle down to the implementers without obstruction or delay.

Birkland (2011:256) states that the top-down model is based on the following assumptions:

- Policies contain clearly defined goals against which performance can be measured.
- Policies contain clearly defined policy tools for the accomplishment of goals.
- The policy is characterised by the existence of a single statute or other authoritative statement of policy.
- There is an 'implementation chain' that starts with a policy message at the top and which views implementation occurring in the chain.
- Policy designers know the capacity and commitment of the implementers and design policy accordingly.

Birkland's assumptions of the top-down approach reflect that the policy-makers assume that the policies they have formulated are easily understood and that implementers understand the formal language used in explaining the policy objectives. Haigh (2012:117) states that "the assumption of the top-down approach is that there is a clear link between policy and outcomes". However, if there was a clear link between the policy and outcomes, there would not be the need for strict implementation conditions in this approach.

The policy-makers in Birkland's assumption also assume to have knowledge of the capacity and commitment of the implementers, however the top-down approach is criticised for neglecting to focus on the lower-level implementers, and not having knowledge of their capabilities (Howlett & Ramesh, 1995:157).

The top-down perspective has its strengths, but it also has many limitations because it neglects to consider the numerous local factors. The local-level factors include factors, such as local support for the policy, resources, capacity, enforcement approaches, and effectiveness of implementers (Knill & Tosun, 2012:154; Zhan, Lo & Tang, 2014:1008).

Anderson (2000:204) states that national legislation and agencies may provide goals, policy standards, technical assistance and financial aid, but much of the required day-to-day implementation is provided by the provinces and local municipalities. For example, the success of the BMT programme would depend on the branches, and most importantly, on the trainers instead of the head office of the NYDA. The trainers interact with the clients more than the NYDA head office, and the trainers would be familiar with their clients' needs.

The neglect of the lower-level officials in the top-down approach led to the development of the bottom-up approach (Howlett & Ramesh, 1995:157). Cloete and De Coning (2005:139) state that the bottom-up approach was largely a reaction to the top-down model, by identifying its weaknesses and suggesting alternatives.

- ***Bottom-up school of thought***

Birkland (2011:268) defines the bottom-up approach as a way of studying policy design and implementation that considers the abilities and motivations of the lowest-level implementers, which tracks policy design from the lowest level to the highest levels of government.

According to Howlett and Ramesh (1995:157), the bottom-up approach starts by examining the organisational and personal goals, strategies and network contacts of the public and private actors involved in the implementation process. Thereafter, the bottom-up approach examines the personal and organisational goals, contacts and strategies of the actors involved in the funding, formulation and execution of the programme (Howlett & Ramesh, 1995: 157; Mbokazi, 2018: 24). Bottom-up supporters argue that the goals, strategies, activities and contacts of actors involved in the implementation process must be understood in order to succeed in implementation (Matland, 2013:327).

The bottom-up approach understands that implementers interpret and redesign policy initiatives according to their capabilities, so that the policy can be effectively implemented (Haigh, 2012: 119; Thomann, van Engen & Tummers, 2018: 585). By examining all the actors in the implementation process, the bottom-up approach enables implementation to be carried out by capable implementers with set goals, ample funding and capacity.

McGregor's theory X and Y proposes specific beliefs or assumptions by managers about their subordinates and their behaviour (Stewart, 2010:1). Theory X states that subordinates need to be micro-managed and told what to do because they are lazy, hate change, are self-centred and lack ambition. This managerial approach is somewhat the same approach that is used in the top-down approach of total control of how implementers carry out their duties. Fear and pain is the only motivation that managers employ in theory X to get their subordinates to carry out their duties accordingly (Stewart, 2010:2). Top-down managers might threaten the implementers with dismissal if they do not implement the policy the way they want it.

McGregor's theory Y states that subordinates need more freedom in how they carry out their duties because they are capable, active, assume responsibility, long for growth, and passively shape themselves and their environment. Stewart (2010:2) states that "the best way to manage subordinates is to manage as little as possible, give them water and let them bloom".

In the bottom-up approach, it can be assumed that implementers take pride in their work and want to change their environment for the better, and therefore assume more responsibility in the implementation of policy. Implementation requires an element of management of resources, and the two different implementation approaches apply the elements of both theory X and Y.

Furthermore, Herzberg's theory of motivation-hygiene speaks of factors that cause happiness and unhappiness in people at work. The theory suggests that the level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is produced by diverse work factors (Herzberg, 1974:18). The factors that satisfy people at work are called motivation factors, while the factors that provide dissatisfaction are called hygiene factors.

Herzberg (1974:18) states that job content factors, which are increased responsibility, achievement, recognition of achievement, interesting work and advancement are what

make people happy at work. Implementers will need to know that they are important in achieving the goals and objectives of the policy. In this way they will be committed to ensuring that the implementation of the policy occurs.

According to Herzberg (1974:18), "what makes people unhappy at work is not what they do but, how well they are treated, these treatment factors are not related to the job content but to the job context". The factors that contribute to job dissatisfaction are company policy, administration practices, supervision, working conditions, salary and interpersonal relationships (Herzberg, 1974:18). However, not all these factors cause dissatisfaction.

The focus of the top-down approach is on the top-level officials and the factors that affect them and their policy choices. The bottom-up focuses on the implementers and the factors that affect their policy choices. The bottom-up model uses the approach of consulting with implementers and society, and includes them in the formulation and implementation of policy. By looking at those who are regulated or benefiting from the policy, policy formulators will be able to formulate a policy that will be easier to implement, as the regulations or benefits for the citizens are well understood.

The bottom-up approach analyses the environment, and can therefore adjust the implementation of the policy, while it is difficult for the top-down approach to adjust if the policy environment changes. In the bottom-up approach, supporters argue that implementers are better able to capture the full range of implementation's workings and complexities (DeLeon & DeLeon, 2002:470). Understanding the complexities of implementing policy goals increases the chances of successful implementation. Implementers that understand the policy obstacles in the environment are able to adjust the implementation to best suit the environment and eliminate obstacles to implementation.

Implementers that have a better understanding of the issues that the citizens are facing, are in a better position to come up with strategies to implement the policy and solve the policy problems. In the bottom-up approach the implementers are given the opportunity to control the sequence of events in implementation, and to decide which policy goal would get the most resources. Given the opportunity to shape policy, this allows implementers to plan and coordinate policy implementation.

#### **2.7.4.2 Factors influencing policy implementation**

There are important variables that greatly affect the outcome of policy implementation, and these variables are used to analyse implementation to gain a better understanding of the process (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:145). These variables can be used to analyse the implementation of the BMT at the NYDA. The variables are content, context, commitment, clients/coalitions and capacity.

- **Content**

The content of policy is what the policy is set out to accomplish and informs the implementer of the type of policy, at what level and what resources should be used in implementing the policy. The overall goal and mission of the policy should be reflected in the policy content (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:147). The contents of the BMT should support the intentions of training the youth in becoming entrepreneurs.

- **Context**

The context of policy refers to 'where' the implementation takes place. The context of the environment that the policy is being implemented in is very important. Social, economic, political legal, resources, bureaucratic, staff qualifications and cultural issues can greatly affect the outcome of policy implementation. The context of policy needs to be considered, as the institutional context will be shaped by the issues listed above.

- **Commitment**

The participants that are involved in the policy process must have a level of commitment, as without commitment from the interest groups, policy-makers, implementers and government, nothing will happen. In this protocol the commitment of the 'who' is measured, for example, the commitment of the BMT trainers. Commitment also links to the theory of motivation-hygiene, and the theory Y and X, as previously discussed.

- **Capacity**

Capacity is determined by the availability of all intangible and tangible resources, for example, financial, human, technological, motivation, leadership and commitment (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:148). The expertise of appointed officials

and the availability of resources make the implementation of BMT possible. The expertise and the resources show the 'by whom' of policy implementation.

- ***Clients/Coalitions***

Clients are the youth that would receive the BMT training from the NYDA trainers. To ensure successful implementation of policy, the government needs the support of its clients and needs to have coalitions with those interest groups, private business and research institutions that have the power to affect the implementation of a policy. Coalitions with the relevant stakeholders increase the capacity of government and increase the chances of successful implementation. This protocol indicates the 'for whom' the policy is being implemented.

### ***2.7.4.3 Project management***

Public policies bring about change in society and the current state of the community. This change can be social, economic, political or organisational. A project involves a number of resource-consuming activities that are carried out to achieve a specific objective (Munns & Bjeirmi, 1996:81). According to Cloete and De Coning (2005:170), project management is an instrument that provides a systematic approach to the allocation of resources, planning and risk management, financial control and the ability to manage projects through programme management in the public sector. The NYDA must manage the BMT as a project, whereby they allocate resources and ensure that those resources are used accordingly and at the right time.

Hazel and Jacobson (2014:2) maintain that project management "is the application of skills, tools and techniques to project activities to meet a project objective that has a beginning and an end". According to Munns and Bjeirmi (1996:81), project management is "the process of controlling the achievement of the project objectives". Project management is thus the effective coordination of project activities to achieve objectives within a specified budget, level of quality and timeframe. The NYDA has to ensure that there is effective coordination of its programmes and projects to achieve set goals.

A programme consists of projects that are integrated to successfully attain the goal of the programme, and this is done through programme management. Programme management refers to the purposeful management and coordination of a portfolio of

projects (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:173). The BMT programme has a number of projects that are implemented in stages to help the youth become entrepreneurs.

In the public sector programme management is used when implementing policy as it helps to break down the policy into projects and coordinate the resources and plan the budget needed for successful implementation. Programme management allows the project manager to set timelines for projects allowing for more sequenced implementation. The sequencing of projects prevents time lapses between projects and ensures that adequate support is given to projects at critical periods.

The setting of timelines for the number of projects under the programme allows the project manager to allocate sufficient funds and resources for the duration of the programme, however long the programme or implementation of the programme takes. The coordination of timelines between projects allow for the implementers check on the progress of critical projects and this allows them to react if there are any issues that might jeopardise the successful implementation of a policy (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:180).

Not only does the coordination of projects save time but it also prioritises human resources. The coordination allows for project teams to work at full capacity. Project teams are made up of skilled personnel from different departments within the agency and sometimes from external agencies. The project manager and the project team know that they are working on a project for a particular time period and this allows the project manager to fully maximise the skills of the project team. Cloete and De Coning (2005:178) argue that effective project execution plays a vital role in public service delivery and that project execution is essential to the well-being and development of citizens. After completing the process of project management, the project managers need to evaluate if the project they were implementing was successful.

### **2.7.5 Policy evaluation**

Policy evaluation is the last stage in the policy process, and it measures the change brought on by the policy. This study will be evaluating the implementation of the BMT by the NYDA. The evaluation of the implementation of the BMT will allow the researcher to be able to answer the research questions of the study.

Policy evaluation is a process whereby the impact or the amount of change is measured and reported back to the stakeholders in the policy process. Policy evaluation identifies the objectives of the policy and evaluates whether the policy achieved its objectives. If so, did the policy do what it was intended to do, and if not, determine how can it be improved (Cloete & de Coning, 2005: 196; Gumede, 2008: 5). Policy evaluation also evaluates the unintended effects policy has on the environment and determines which factors caused what effects.

The purpose of evaluation is to determine whether an implemented policy is doing what it is supposed to do by describing its impact, determining the intended and unintended effects of policy, therefore linking causal factors that contribute to success or failure of policy (Haigh, 2012:125; Theodoulou & Kofinis, 2013:341). According to Anderson (2000:261), evaluation encompasses the estimation, assessment or appraisal of a policy, including its content, implementation, goal attainment and other effects. Furthermore, evaluation refers to the process of finding out about a public policy in action (Howlett & Ramesh, 1995:188).

According to Cloete and De Coning (2005:197), policy evaluation is the systematic and objective assessment of an ongoing or completed project, programme, or policy, including its design, implementation and results. Policy evaluation provides an outline to gather information about a particular policy's performance so as to assist in the decision to continue, change or terminate the policy (Sadiki & Pauw, 2017: 668; Theodoulou & Kofinis, 2013: 342). Furthermore, policy evaluation is also carried out for policies that are performing well, not only for policies that are not performing well. This is done so that institutions can learn to improve policies by evaluating the past formulation, adoption and implementation of policy (Anderson, 2015: 290; Mapitsa & Khumalo, 2018: 5; Peters, 2015: 127).

The evaluation process can occur at any stage of the policy process. Evaluations are done in every stage of the process to ensure that the process will be successful and that the policy will achieve its objectives. The results from the policy evaluation are critical, as the policy-maker can use the information to track the process and deal with any obstacles that may arise.

Another reason for policy evaluation is that it provides the policy-maker with the opportunity to redesign the policy and its implementation strategies, thereby making

the policy more effective (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:198). Policy evaluation at every stage of the policy process allows the policy-maker to determine whether the policy is supported with enough resources with regards to budget and human resources and provides an indication of any changes in the policy environment.

In addition, a further reason for policy evaluation is to measure progress, test feasibility, provide political or financial accountability, and for the purposes of public relations. Policy evaluation also identifies factors that contributed to the success or failure of a policy. The accountability purpose of policy evaluation is undertaken to hold the government accountable for their decisions and resourcing of policy (Peters, 2015:128). Through evaluation the policy-maker can see what activities resulted in the most impact or delivered the most benefits. This can also help the policy-maker to change some aspects of the policy to obtain maximum impact. One of the objectives of this study is to be able to evaluate the implementation of the BMT and be able to recommend changes that can improve the implementation by the NYDA.

Evaluation is done for those stakeholders who would like to find out if the policy has done what it was intended to do, so they can support or oppose the policy, or demand changes to it (Howlett & Ramesh, 1995:169). Policy evaluation results are used by appointed officials, politicians, non-government members and the public. The public use the evaluation results to decide who to vote for, while the bureaucrats use the results to redesign or terminate policy. Political representatives use the results to gain support from the public.

#### **2.7.5.1 *Types of evaluation***

There are various types of evaluations that can be carried out, depending on the purpose of the evaluation and what information is needed from the evaluation. Below five types of policy evaluation are described.

- ***Formative evaluation***

Formative evaluation is undertaken to improve the policy or programme that it is being formulated. It is also used to identify potential costs, benefits, obstacles and potential impacts that the policy or programme might have. Formative evaluation can take place during the policy formulation process to assess resource implications or to give an indication of the success rate of the intended objectives

of the policy. Formative evaluation focuses on the necessary inputs of implementation, such as time, legal frameworks, organisational procedures, finances and the human resources required by a policy (Haigh, 2012:126). According to Knill and Tosun (2012:175), formative evaluation “has the purpose of improving a certain policy measure by providing advice to the implementing actors and other stakeholders”. The formative evaluation gives the policy formulator the opportunities to formulate different strategies in implementing policies.

- ***Ongoing or process evaluation***

The implementation of policy is an ongoing process; therefore, the process evaluation needs to give the policy implementer and policy formulator information on a continuous basis. The continuous information supplied by the process evaluation allows the policy formulator to keep abreast of the implementation schedule, budget, progress and quality and quantity of the outputs of the policy. The process evaluation provides important information that can be used to maintain high standards, ensure resources are used effectively, identify opportunities, identify problems and solutions, and plan workflow to stay on schedule (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:200).

- ***Summative evaluation***

The summative evaluation is undertaken when the implementation of the policy is complete. The summative evaluation compares the baseline data with the total output and the benefits produced by the policy. Summative evaluation is conducted to measure the intended outcome of a policy, measuring the difference between the anticipated goals with the actual results (Haigh, 2012:126). The data collected from the summative evaluation can be used to measure the impact of the policy and to make decisions regarding adjustments to obtain maximum policy impact (Anderson, 2015: 291; Wu *et al.*, 2017: 260).

The purpose of a summative evaluation is to establish that the actual outcomes were caused by the actual policy and not by factors outside the policy. This study will be undertaking a summative evaluation of the implementation of the BMT and the NYDA.

- ***Short, medium and long-term evaluations***

The duration of evaluation largely depends on what the intended outcome of the policy is. Short-term evaluation is selected to evaluate policy outcomes that are quantifiable, for example, the number of roads and buildings built. It is fairly easy to measure welfare policy outputs, such as amounts of benefits paid, average level of benefit and the number of people assisted (Anderson, 2000:266).

Outputs, such as number of houses built are used to measure the impact or success rate of a policy, and the data needed for evaluation can be collected in a short period of time. The number of houses can be counted and be compared to the number of houses that are set in the objectives of the policy.

Long-term evaluation measures policy outcomes that are of a qualitative nature, for example, improved quality of life or how rehabilitation programmes affect inmates. The more intangible the outcome or impact, the more difficult it is to evaluate results over a short period of time (Cloete & De Coning, 2005:200). For programmes, such as the BMT, the NYDA can conduct short, medium and long-term evaluations. The number of trainees can be measured in the short term and a medium-term evaluation. The same trainees could be evaluated again to see if the training has improved their lives.

- ***Scope (Sectoral or integrated evaluations)***

Evaluation can be custom-made to evaluate one sector or a number of integrated policies. Sectoral evaluation focuses on a certain aspect of policy, for example, the social impact of the Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) policy in the mining industry. Integrated policy evaluations assess a number of sectors that are affected by one policy. For example, the impact of BEE in public service and the private sector. In the sectoral evaluation, the focus is on the impact that the BEE policy has had in the mining industry. While in the integrated evaluation, it is on the impact of the BEE policy in two specific sectors, such as banking and engineering.

#### ***2.7.5.2 Evaluation constraints***

There are several constraints that prevent evaluators from conducting effective policy evaluation. In the evaluation process planning is essential, and when it is not done

correctly it can lead to false or inadequate information. The following are some of the constraints experienced in policy evaluations.

- ***Data acquisition***

There are several constraints in policy evaluation, the most prevalent is gaining access to reliable data (Haigh, 2012:128). The data collected when evaluating policy is paramount, as the data is used to determine if the policy was a success or if the policy process is proceeding according to schedule, budget and project plan. Inaccurate or incomplete data may lead to invalid findings. The evaluator needs to make sure that their data acquisition is adequate, and that the data is valid. A shortage of accurate and relevant data and other information may handicap the policy evaluator (Anderson, 2000:280).

- ***Policy goals***

Policy goals and objectives must be clear and identifiable to guide the evaluators in identifying the changes caused by the policy. Unclear goals and objectives will lead to the evaluation of the wrong objectives or false results being reported by the evaluators, as there is no clear indication of what the positive or negative impact is. Clear goals and objectives give the evaluators clear indicators for measuring the impact of policy. According to Peters (2015:132), the political process tends to produce policies with vague and sometimes contradictory policy goals, as a result the evaluators do not have guidance in what to evaluate and which factors indicate success.

- ***Official resistance***

The evaluators may encounter resistance from the officials that are supposed to give them the required relevant data. The officials resist with information because they assume that the information might jeopardise their careers if the policy in question was not successful in achieving its objectives. Evaluating policy involves reporting findings and making judgements about the impact that the policy has had (Anderson, 2000:281).

- ***Time***

Evaluations are greatly affected by timeframes and the availability of resources. Inadequate resources can prevent the completion of the evaluation. When planning for evaluation, enough time needs to be set aside to ensure reliable results. Furthermore, there are some policies that have long-term effects on the environment that can only be evaluated at a later stage, and prematurely evaluating a policy will result in inadequate results (Anderson, 2015:311; Peters, 2015:133).

### ***2.7.5.3 Determining causality***

Evaluators need to be able to determine the cause of certain policy outputs. When evaluators are not able to determine what caused a negative or a positive output, then they will have a difficult time producing a quality evaluation. There is a high possibility that the evaluators might not be able to prove why, after implementation, there was a certain policy output (Haigh, 2012:127; Howlett & Ramesh, 1995:178).

Evaluators should gather data that proves that the observed outputs were caused by the implementation of policy and make sure that no other factors are influencing the policy output. Determining causality allows for the evaluators to adjust the policy accordingly to achieve the intended output.

### ***2.7.5.4 Who evaluates public policy***

There are several advantages to having internal evaluators as they are familiar with the policy, the organisation and the target population. Internal evaluators also save on time and money, as they are available internally and would not cause additional expenses. Internal evaluators also have disadvantages, as they have ties to the organisation and they are too close to the organisation, an element of bias is possible and they might not be able to identify problems, place blame or recommend the termination of a policy. Howlett and Ramesh (1995:169) argue that just like the policy process, the policy evaluation process is a political activity and that government can design evaluation to influence results to show government in a better light.

External evaluators have no connection to the institution; therefore, they can provide an objective evaluation. External evaluators are often trained consultants that are experts in evaluating policy. The disadvantages with external evaluators are that their

cost is high, their time is limited, they may be disruptive to the organisation and they might have an agenda. The officials that are vested in the policy might be resistant to giving them the information they need to complete the evaluation. Evaluation by those outside government is not always designed to improve policy but also to criticise it and gain political advantage or reinforce ideologies (Howlett & Ramesh, 1995:169).

## **2.8 CONCLUSION**

This chapter reviewed the available literature on public policy by answering the first research question of the study. The literature that was reviewed addressed the central theme of the study which is public policy. Firstly, the researcher began with a research record where an electronic search was conducted to determine if a similar study has been conducted in SA. Some were found, though not similar, but related to this study.

Secondly, this chapter provided a definition of policy. For the purpose of this study, policy was defined as a dynamic process that occurs at different levels of government, where problems or issues are identified by stakeholders, these problems are then solved and evaluated by the government to ensure that their efforts were effective.

Thirdly, this chapter described policy models that explained how policy is made. These models are reflected in different theories, namely, the liberal democratic, elite and systems theory. The liberal democratic theory focused on how the citizens vote and enable the political party to make policy decisions on their behalf. The elite theory focused on the policy choices of the elite, while the systems theory is based on inputs of citizens, the political processes of the government and the outcomes that result into policy. The various policy decision-making models were described. The rational, incremental and mixed scanning models were explained and discussed.

Fourthly, the researcher investigated the public policy process in terms of the stages of agenda setting, where policy problems are identified and brought to the attention of the government, policy formulation, where policy-makers formulate policy alternatives to solve the identified problem, policy decision-making, where the policy-maker selects the best policy alternative to solve the problem.

The definition of policy implementation was provided and explained as the process where the policy objectives are transformed into tangible activities to achieve policy objectives. The top-down and bottom-up approaches to implementation were

described and explained. The last stage of the policy process, policy evaluation, was explained. Policy evaluation is the process where the policy-maker measures the intended and unintended effects of the policy that was implemented. Lastly, this chapter outlined the role of the implementer as those officials that are responsible for converting the policy objectives into tangible public services. The next chapter presents the research design of the study.

## **CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA-COLLECTION METHODS**

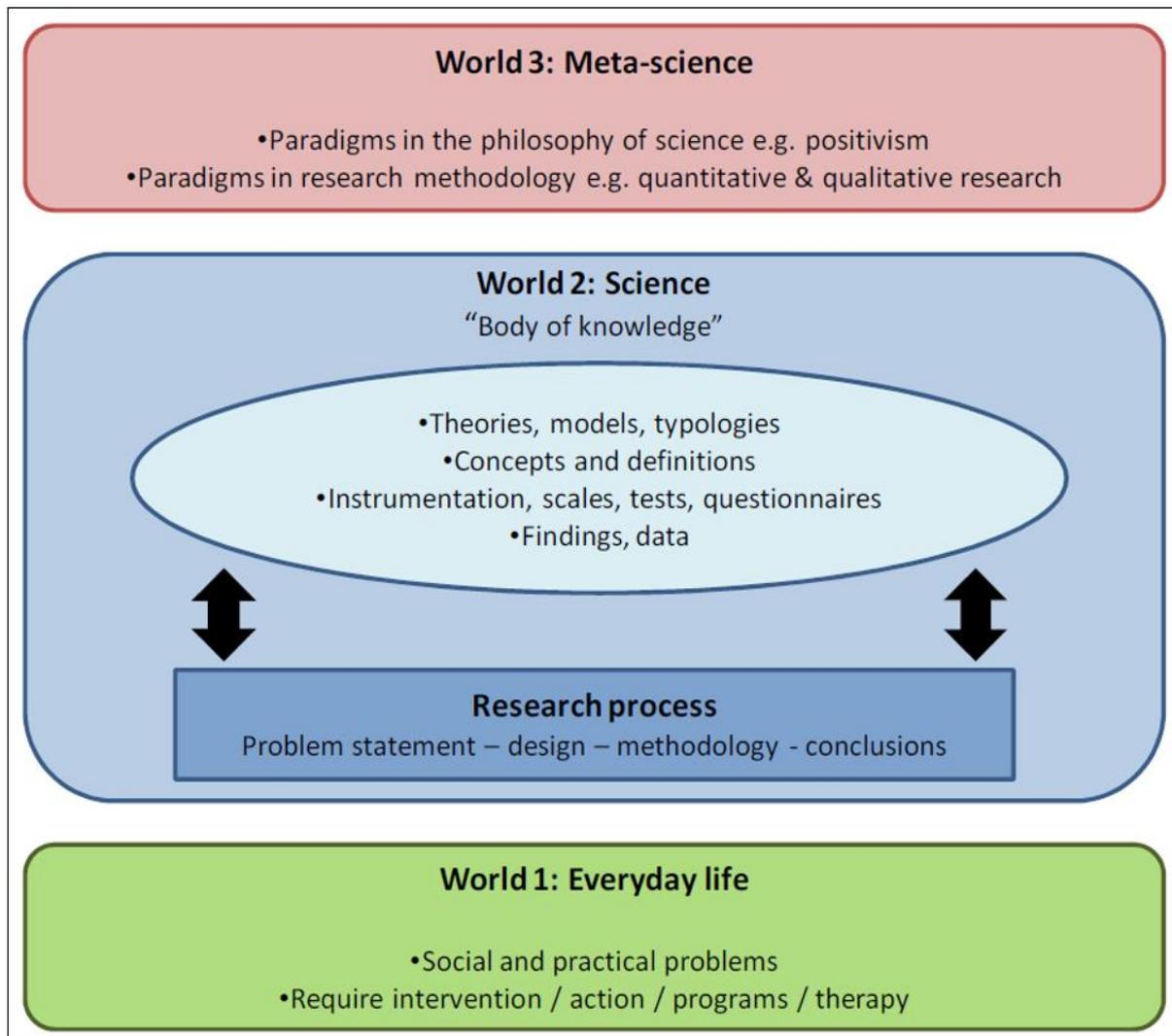
### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

All studies require the researcher to design a research method that will best answer the research questions they have. This chapter will start by distinguishing between the different research paradigms, research designs and data-collection methods. This chapter will provide explanations and interpretations of research paradigms, research designs, collection methods and qualitative research methodology, and also supply the rationale for the application of the qualitative design to this study. The chapter will also explain the research instruments chosen for this study and list their strengths and weaknesses and highlight the reasons why the instruments were selected. The analysis techniques that were used to analyse the data collected during the study will be described and the rationale behind the choice of the analysis techniques will be provided. The chapter will provide the limitations and ethical considerations of the study before concluding.

### **3.2 MOUTON'S THREE WORLDS FRAMEWORK**

In order to fully understand the world of scientific research, Mouton (2001:137) proposes that researchers use the Three Worlds Framework. The three-world framework is a simple framework that explains the relationship between the real world, science and meta-science. The three worlds are used to reflect on how the researcher's choices of research methods affect the way they investigate and create knowledge about the 'real life' problems they have identified (Mouton, 2001:137).

Figure 3.1 illustrates Mouton's Three Worlds Framework.



**Figure 3.1: Relationship between meta-science, science and everyday life knowledge**

Source: Mouton, 2001:140

The worlds presented in the figure are discussed in the next section.

### **3.2.1 World 1: The world of everyday life and lay knowledge**

World 1 represents a world where ordinary people go about their lives and face everyday problems and solve these problems with wisdom, common sense and knowledge gained from their experiences. This is where people use the knowledge they have to survive, and this knowledge allows them to cope with everyday tasks.

World 1 is where researchers aim to solve problems and their research informs programme development, policy design, policy implementation and decision-making (Auriacombe & Holtzhausen, 2014:15). The research that takes place in world 1 is

intended to fix the problem that was identified, and research in world 1 is used to find the best solutions.

### **3.2.2 World 2: The world of science and scientific research**

According to Mouton (2001:138), the overriding goal for science is to search for truthful knowledge. In world 2, scientists observe the problems in world 1 with the intention of finding knowledge to generate scientific models and theories that explain and solve the problem identified. Auriacombe and Holtzhausen (2014:15) further expand the explanation of world 2, as one where researchers focus more on literature, theories and existing concepts generated from the identified problems in world 1. Myers and Yearwood (2012:298) state that world 2 is created when the observations of the problems in world 1 are scientifically formalised. Through formalised observations, a body of knowledge that is valid and reliable can be created using different research methods.

The research in world 2 is used to further scientific knowledge through a set of academic disciplines, theories, hypotheses and existing concepts. In world 2 the researcher aims to further scientific knowledge by testing out the available theories and models on the problems identified in world 1. The theories, models, concepts findings and data that were generated in world 2 enable the researcher to answer the question: 'why does such a problem exist in world 1?'. This body of knowledge allows the researcher to formulate hypotheses and design research methods that will generate solutions to the problems identified in world 1.

### **3.2.3 World 3: The world of meta-science**

The meta-science world comprises of trusted meta-disciplines, such as research ethics, research philosophies and methodologies. Scientists use these meta-disciplines to search for truthful knowledge. These meta-disciplines are trusted as they produce credible and valid knowledge. Researchers need to constantly reflect on their research problem in world 1, and consider the different research designs and instruments that are available to measure the phenomenon identified in world 2 (Mouton, 2001:138).

Reflecting on how we view the world, can help us align the knowledge that exists in world 2 with the research philosophy and methodology found in world 3. Essentially,

world 2 forms part of the literature review and world 3 forms part of the research design. The choice of research philosophy and methodology will enable the researcher to confirm or deny the already existing knowledge (Myers & Yearwood, 2012:298).

### **3.3 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY**

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2015:124), the term 'research philosophy' refers to a "system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge". Creswell (2014:36) defines research philosophy as "general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study". Mason (2014:49) echoes that research philosophy is "concerned with views about how the world works and, as an academic subject, focuses, primarily, on reality, knowledge and existence".

The approach to research and creation of knowledge needs to be aligned with the researcher's research philosophy, as the research philosophy is composed of the researcher's views of how the world operates. The way an individual views the world, influences the way the individual conducts research to gain and create knowledge (Creswell, 2014:36; Guba & Lincoln, 1994:105; Mason, 2014:49; Saunders *et al.*, 2015:125). The way one views the world would influence the research design selected and data-collection instruments used.

For the purpose of the present study, the researcher's epistemological position is that data about the phenomenon of policy design and implementation is contained in the perspectives of the participants who are involved in the implementation of the business management training programme at the NYDA.

Research philosophies contain a set of philosophical assumptions that are made up of ontology, epistemology and methodology that will be discussed below.

#### **3.3.1 Philosophical assumptions**

Paradigms are encompassed by three elements which are referred to as philosophical assumptions, namely, ontology, epistemology and methodology (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994:99; Scotland, 2012:9). Paradigms are combinations of ontology, epistemology and methodology that researchers use to organise their research (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2011:11). Moreover, paradigms are seen as the trusted scientific guidelines that are used to seek knowledge during research and are determined by the

researcher's ontology, epistemology and methodology. The concepts of ontology, epistemology and methodology will be discussed below.

### **3.3.1.1    *Ontology***

According to Saunders *et al.* (2015:127), "ontology refers to the nature of reality and it determines how you see the world". Ontology consists of the researcher's belief about what the nature of reality is, and if reality is singular or multiple (Yin, 2011:311). Blaikie (2007:13) and Denzin and Lincoln (1994:99) also believe that ontology is concerned with what the researcher believes to be the nature of reality. Authors agree that ontology is concerned with how researchers see the world, what reality looks like, and what compels the researcher to choose instruments that will be able to extract the state of reality without compromising the data.

### **3.3.1.2    *Epistemology***

According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994:99), epistemology asks the following question: "what do we know about the world? What is the relationship between the inquirer and the known?" Khan (2014:300) gathered that epistemology is "concerned about how knowledge is acquired". Epistemology is concerned with how to secure, communicate and create knowledge (Scotland, 2012:9). The choice of the qualitative or quantitative method to collect data, is a decision that is influenced by the researcher's epistemological assumption about acquiring, transferring and generating knowledge. The manner in which the researcher perceives reality and its relationship with the inquirer or researcher influences the way that they will collect data and therefore create knowledge.

### **3.3.1.3    *Methodology***

Methodology helps the researcher collect the data needed to create knowledge, using different data-collecting methods (Khan, 2014:300). According to Scotland (2012:9), methodology is "concerned with why, what, from where, when and how data is collected and analysed". Methodology is concerned about the qualitative or quantitative data-collection instruments that are used to obtain data from world 1. The data that is collected can help the researcher achieve their research objectives and interpret reality. According to Hennink *et al.* (2011:12), "methodology that is applied is embedded in the ontological and epistemological assumptions of the researcher".

### **3.3.2 Research paradigms**

According to Saunders *et al.* (2015:135), there are five major philosophies: positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, postmodernism and pragmatism. Creswell (2014:35) and Mertens (2009:8) list only four major philosophies, namely, postpositivism, constructivism, transformative and pragmatism. Guba and Lincoln (1994:105) also list four of what they call paradigms, namely, positivism, postpositivism, critical theory and constructivism. Denzin and Lincoln (1994:99) state that “the following paradigms structure and organise qualitative research: positivism, postpositivism, and critical theory and related positions”.

The authors do not seem to agree on a universal list of research philosophies or paradigms, as what they consider the most important philosophies differ from the one to the other.

To correctly position the present study, the researcher will focus on two paradigms, namely, positivism and postpositivism.

#### **3.3.2.1 Positivism**

According to Denscombe (2002:5), positivism is a social research approach that makes use of the natural science model to explain phenomena. Positivism makes use of the natural sciences approach to social sciences, and it forms a foundation for experimental research and quantitative studies (Hennink *et al.*, 2011:14). This paradigm requires researchers to be objective and follow the natural science rules when conducting research. It is essential that the rules of being objective and recording only facts using quantitative research instruments are observed.

The ontology of the positivist paradigm believes that there is only one true reality that is real, external and independent (Mertens, 2009:11; Saunders *et al.*, 2015:136). In the positivist paradigm, it is believed that the nature of reality of independent objects can only have one truth and they can only cause one single effect to the other independent objects that are being studied.

Hennink *et al.* (2011:14) explain that the epistemological approach of positivism is where researchers test hypotheses formulated from theoretical concepts and test them against empirical data that they have collected. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994:204), the “investigator and the investigated ‘object’ are assumed to be

independent entities, and the investigator must be capable to study the object without influencing it or being influenced”. What constitutes as acceptable knowledge in positivism, is knowledge that is observable and measurable, whereby cause and effect can be derived from the facts collected by the researcher (Mertens, 2009:11; Saunders *et al.*, 2015:136).

According to Saunders *et al.* (2015:136), the methods used in positivism are “typically deductive, highly structured, large samples, measurement and quantitative methods of analysis”. The methodology applied in the positivism paradigm is primarily the quantitative method, where data is numerical and the respondents are referred to as subjects; where the collection instruments are surveys, exit interviews and opinion polls (Hennink *et al.*, 2011:16).

According to Guthrie (2010:43), positivism does the following:

- Studies the world and people in it as objective things;
- Views data as being independent of the observer;
- Accepts data as scientific evidence only if it is collected by direct observation according to strict rules;
- Breaks down data to isolate elements that demonstrate cause-and-effect and scientific laws;
- Considers that the scientific method is itself objective.

### **3.3.2.2 Postpositivism**

Postpositivism emerged as a reaction to the positivism paradigm, as the positivism paradigm was objective and only focused on facts instead of the meaningful experiences of participants (Hennink *et al.*, 2011:14). Postpositivism believes that reality is a social construct, constructed through the lived experiences of individuals, and that this reality or knowledge is lost when strict scientific rules are applied where facts are considered as the only reality (Creswell, 2009:8; Mertens, 2009:16; Saunders *et al.*, 2015:140).

In this paradigm, it is essential that the researcher is subjective, as the realities of individuals are influenced by their religion, beliefs, culture and the environment they live in. According to Mertens (2009:16), the assumption in the constructivist paradigm

is that knowledge exists in the lived experience of people, and researchers should understand the complex world in which that knowledge is constructed.

The ontology of the postpositivism believes that there are multiple realities that are socially constructed, unlike in the positivism paradigm where there is only one reality that exists (Creswell, 2009:8; Mertens, 2009:11). Saunders *et al.* (2015:136) agree that the ontology of postpositivism believes that reality is subjective, multiple, and socially constructed through culture, language, multiple interpretations, multiple meanings and multiple realities. The researcher is subjective in that they are dealing with multiple participants who have had different experiences with the research problem that is influenced by their experience with language, religion and culture.

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994:206), in the postpositivism paradigm the “investigator and the investigated objects are assumed to be interactively linked, with the values of the investigator inevitably influencing the inquiry”. In this paradigm the researcher prefers a more interactive manner of collecting data where they focus on narratives, therefore, making the data collection more of an interaction, where the researcher and the researched can influence each other (Mertens, 2009:19; Saunders *et al.*, 2015:136). Researchers in this paradigm strive to lessen the distance between them and the object that they are researching, and thus, the interaction between the researcher and object becomes transactional.

The methodology of the postpositivism paradigm is a qualitative method that is mainly dominated by interviews, observations, focus groups and document reviews (Mertens, 2009:19). According to Saunders *et al.* (2015:136), the methods used in this paradigm are usually inductive, small sample, in-depth investigations and qualitative in nature. The data-collection methods in this paradigm should accommodate the transactional relationship between the researcher and the researched. The methods should accommodate and allow the participant to reflect on their life experiences, while answering questions from the researcher. Mertens (2009:19) states that the questions from the researcher “cannot be established before the study begins, rather they will evolve and change as the study progresses”.

According to Guthrie (2010:43), the following applies to postpositivism:

- Regards knowledge as subjective and value laden;
- Views data as dependent on the relationship between the knower and the known;

- Favours naturalistic, non-experimental research, where the researcher does not manipulate the research setting or subjects, or put data in pre-defined categories;
- Views knowledge as subjective, holistic and not based on cause and effect; and
- Considers that scientific methods are social constructs.

### **3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Research designs are essentially designs or approaches that are available to the researcher. The appropriate research design can help a researcher collect and understand the data that is available. Research design is the arrangement of research approaches based on the researcher's perspective on the issue being investigated. According to Webb and Auriacombe (2006:588), research design is the plan that the researcher develops in order to obtain the ability to answer his or her research questions. Research design is the process of determining the best way to search for what you are looking for (Babbie, 2004:87). Bryman (2012:46) states that the framework of collecting and analysing data is provided by the research design.

The researcher has a choice between three research methods, namely, quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. The choice made by the researcher provides him or her with specific procedures in collecting and analysing data (Creswell, 2009:11).

#### **3.4.1 Quantitative method**

The quantitative method is related to the positivist worldview and collects numerical data. The quantitative method examines relationships between variables by using surveys, structured interviews, and structured observation. The data is analysed using a number of statistical techniques (Creswell, 2009:16; Mertens, 2009:3; Saunders *et al.*, 2015:166).

The quantitative method has a number of advantages. The data can be collected and evaluated quickly by the researcher. The strict scientific rules used by the researcher to rigorously collect and critically analyse data ensures reliability (Choy, 2014:102).

However, the quantitative method also has disadvantages that the researcher has to consider. According to Choy (2014:102), large sample numbers are required in a quantitative study. This becomes problematic if the project is of a large scale which makes it impossible for the researcher to conduct the study without adequate

resources to help with the large sample. Another disadvantage of the quantitative method is that the numerical data is unable to include people's beliefs, lived experiences and perceptions. Moreover, the method does not allow the researcher to understand the context of the research site (Choy, 2014:102).

### **3.4.2 Qualitative method**

The qualitative design falls within the broader ambit of a postpositivism paradigm. It is an inductive approach to research that examines people's lived experiences using interviews, focus groups, observations and field notes to collect data that is thereafter thematically analysed (Creswell, 2014:32; Mertens, 2009:226; Saunders *et al.*, 2015:570; Tewksbury, 2009:39; Yin, 2011:7). According to Mertens (2009:225), the qualitative method offers an in-depth description of a specific programme, experiences or setting.

As a research method, the qualitative method has a number of advantages in terms of the collection of data. Choy (2014:102) states that the qualitative method offers the ability to ask questions that seeks to understand the assumptions, underlying values and beliefs of the participants. Tewksbury (2009:39) echoes that the "data collected offers more informative, richer and enhanced understanding compared to the quantitative method". A further advantage of the qualitative method is that the collection of data using interviews is open-ended and allows participants to highlight issues that are most important to them (Choy, 2014:102).

However, the qualitative method does have its shortcomings. Choy (2014:102) highlights a number of weaknesses but mentions one weakness that is inherent to the qualitative method, is that the results in data cannot be objectively verified. Some more weaknesses that Choy (2014:102) mentions include the following: the data-collection process using open-ended interviews takes a long time; a skilled interviewer is needed to collect data because some important issues might go unnoticed by an inexperienced interviewer; and the analysis of data is a tiresome process as the researcher has to record, transcribe and categorise the collected data.

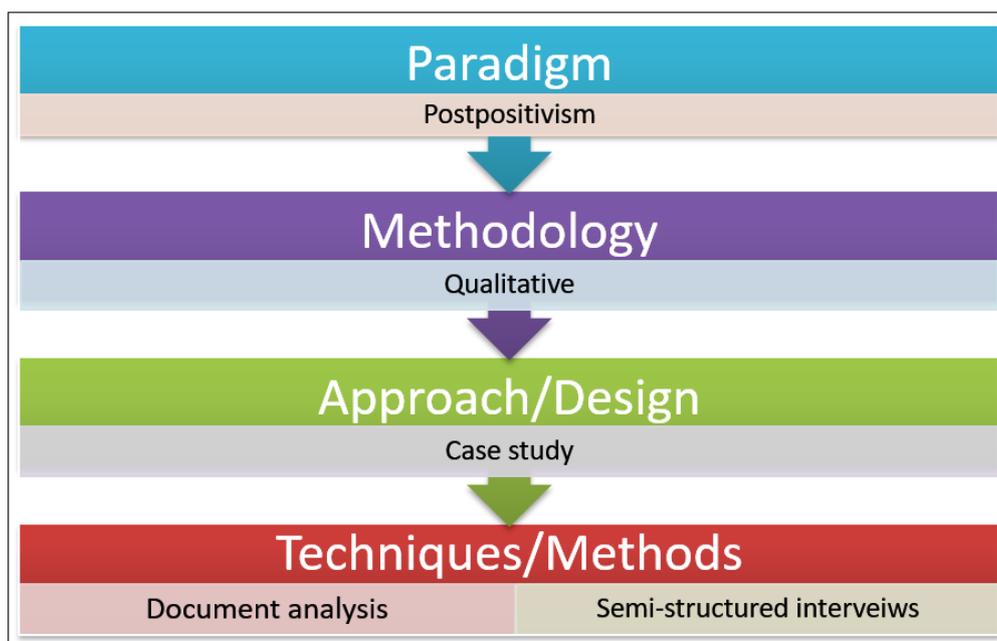
### **3.4.3 Choice of research design**

The research approach adopted for the current study is a qualitative approach, as the study investigated the implementation of the BMT. Qualitative research is carried out

to understand the context or setting in which the participant experiences the phenomenon (Creswell, 2013:48). The researcher chose the qualitative approach for the present study to gain a deeper understanding of the implementation of the BMT, to explore the experiences of the implementers, and to understand the context under which the policy is implemented.

Qualitative researchers are interested in the perspectives of people and the process of how and why those perspectives form (Palys, 2008:697). Creswell (2013:49) states that qualitative studies require commitment, as an extensive amount of time is spent in the field, and the researcher is engaged in complex data analysis and long transcriptions while conducting social and human science research.

In order to understand the implementation of the BMT, the researcher had to construct a research design and data-collection method that would best explore and explain the experiences of the participants in the study (Ngulube, 2015:5). The method chosen should best address and provide answers to the research questions that are as valid and reliable as possible (Richards & Morse, 2013:49). The researcher believed that the choice of research design and data-collection method, as presented in Figure 3.2, was the most fitting for this study. The study of the BMT implementation warrants a qualitative research method, a case study design, and the collection of data using semi-structured interviews.



**Figure 3.2: Paradigm – Design – Data collection method**

Source: Researcher's own compilation, 2019

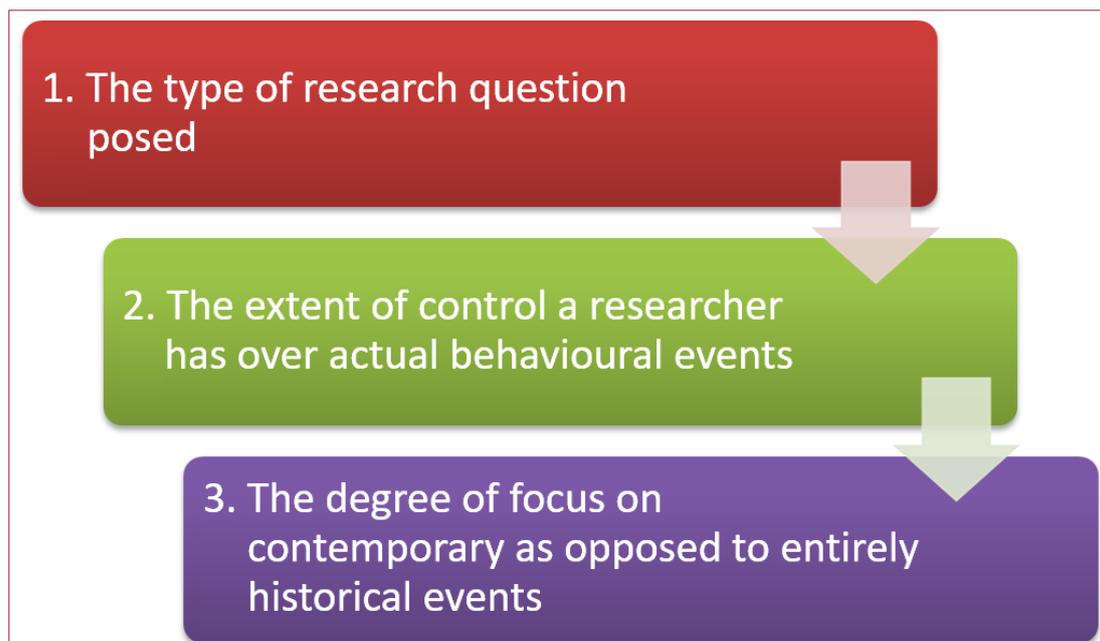
### 3.5 CASE STUDY

Yin (2009:17) defines the case study method as a method that is used to scientifically make an in-depth inquiry about a phenomenon that occurs in a particular context. Kumar (2014:155), Guthrie (2010:67), Baxter and Jack (2008:544) and Kothari (2004:113) agree with Yin, and they add that the case study method can focus on projects, communities, institutions and individuals.

According to Yin (2012:5), case studies are “pertinent when your research questions address either a descriptive question – what is happening or what has happened – or explanatory question – how or why did something happen?”. To present evidence that is rigorous and fair, case studies make use of multiple data-collection techniques, such as interviews, observations and documents (Webb & Auriacombe, 2006:600; Yin, 2012:10).

Furthermore, Kothari (2004:113) highlights that the purpose of case study methods is to locate the factors that influence the behaviour of a given unit. Organisational settings can affect processes and create behavioural patterns that can be measured by using the case study method.

Yin (2014:44) lists three conditions that need to be present for a researcher to consider using the case study method. The conditions listed by Yin are displayed in Figure 3.3.



**Figure 3.3: Three conditions for case study method**

Source: Yin, 2014:44

The first condition required for a case study is that the research questions posed should be 'how' and 'why' questions, as these questions are explanatory. These questions will allow the researcher to find out how and why a certain phenomenon occurs in a certain context. The current research study asks what factors affect the implementation of the BMT, why these factors affect the implementation, and how the implementation can be improved.

The second condition that Yin (2014:44) mentions has to do with the extent of control on behaviour and events. In the case study method, the researcher should not be able to control the events and behaviour within the case study. If there is control of events and behaviour, then the method is no longer a case study but an experiment (Yin, 2014:48). However, the presence of the researcher can affect the behaviour of the participants being interviewed or observed, but the behavioural change would not have a great impact on the phenomenon being researched. In the current study, the researcher did not have control over the events and behaviour of the NYDA officials in the implementation of the BMT.

The third and final condition that Yin mentions, is related to the focus of the study being on contemporary events, rather than historical ones. Case studies focus on contemporary events that can be observed and the participants can be interviewed, unlike history that focuses on past events, artefacts, and primary and secondary documents (Yin, 2014:48). For the purpose of the present study, the current events related to the implementation of the BMT, was the primary focus.

The selection of the case study method cannot be done without considering the limitations of the method. With the use of multiple data-collection methods, there may be a great amount of data and the data collection will be time consuming. As a result, the data might be overwhelming and difficult to analyse. It is usually difficult to present findings from complex social situations in a simple way in case study design.

To overcome or reduce the limitations of the case study approach, Yin (2012:6) highlights that researchers need to define their 'case'. When defining the 'case', researchers confine their research to a person, organisation, behavioural condition, event or social phenomenon, and as a result, the data they collect will be limited to the defined 'case' only. By defining their 'case', the researcher will be saving time and money, and the data analysis may be less difficult.

The researcher chose the case study method to answer the research questions in the present study. The case study method allows the researcher to focus on the individuals involved in the implementation of BMT at the NYDA.

### **3.5.1 Units of analysis and observation**

According to Sedgwick (2015:1), a unit of observation is the unit which is the 'who' or 'what' the data is collected from or measured. The National Youth Development Agency is both the case and the unit of analysis, while the individuals that are involved with the implementation of the Business Management Training Programme are the unit of observation. The researcher will be using multiple data-collection methods, and triangulating the data collected to be able to better explain the complex social situations that occur in the 'case'. The data-collection methods will be discussed in the next section.

According to Yin (2012:6), the "case serves as the primary unit of analysis in a study". Blackstone (2015:56) defines the unit of analysis as "the entity that you wish to be able to say something about at the end of your study". Blackstone also highlights the importance of unit of observation, stating that the unit of observation is something that you measure, collect or observe to gain more knowledge about your unit of analysis.

Furthermore, the unit of analysis is determined by what the researcher is trying to find out, meaning that the research questions of the study will assist the researcher in defining their unit of analysis. The unit of observation is determined by the methods of data collection, therefore, in case studies the 'case' is the unit of analysis and the unit of observation changes according to the data-collection method (Blackstone, 2015:57; Wessels, Pauw & Thani, 2009:81).

In this study, the unit of analysis is the National Youth Development Agency and the unit of observations are individuals and the Entrepreneurship Development Policy. There is more than one unit of observation, because in this study, the data is triangulated using two data sources. The unit of observation for the document analysis method is the official document of the BMT, and the unit of observation for the semi-structured interviews is the participants.

## **3.6 CRITERIA TO ESTABLISH RIGOUR**

Rigour in research is used to ensure that the knowledge that is produced by the researcher is reliable and valid and not influenced by the researcher's personal bias.

In quantitative research, researchers employ validity, reliability, and objectivity to establish rigour. Golafshani (2003:599) holds that reliability is the extent to which the results of the study can be replicated, and that validity establishes that the instrument used, has been designed to collect the intended data and that the data collected is accurate.

In qualitative research, credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability are used to establish rigour (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:276; Krefting, 1991:215–217). Babbie and Mouton (2001:273) believe that the “objective of qualitative studies is to discover credible and truthful knowledge”. To ensure this credible and truthful knowledge, researchers apply several strategies to establish rigour in qualitative studies. Credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability and their strategies will be discussed below.

### **3.6.1 Credibility**

Credibility establishes whether the knowledge that has obtained from the collected data can be trusted, and that the data that has been collected represents the original views of the participants (Anney, 2014:276; Krefting, 1991:217; Shenton, 2004:64). Credibility concentrates on the data-collection instruments used to collect data, and the correct interpretation of the views and life experiences of the participants.

According to Anney (2014:276), Guba (1981:84–86), Krefting (1991:217) and Shenton (2004:64–69), researchers use the following strategies to establish credibility: prolonged engagement in the field or research site, triangulation, member checks and peer examination, as briefly explained below.

- Prolonged engagement is when the researcher spends sufficient time at the organisation to gain an understanding of the organisational environment and to establish a relationship with the participants (Shenton, 2004:65). Guba (1981:84) holds that the benefit of prolonged engagement is that it allows the participants to adjust to the researcher's presence, and therefore, do not consider him or her to be threat, and are comfortable in relaying truthful information.

- According to Weyers, Strydom and Huisamen (2014:207), triangulation can be seen as the use of multiple methods, sources of data or theories to collect and deduce data about a phenomenon. The purpose of triangulating the data-collection methods is to increase comprehensiveness, confirm trends and identify inconsistencies, and improve credibility, dependability and confirmability.
- The term 'member checks' refers to a process where the researcher takes the transcribed interviews and verifies them with the participant in question. This is done so that the participant can confirm what the researcher has transcribed is correct and is what they intended to convey.
- Anney (2014:276) explains that peer examination is when the researcher seeks scholarly support from other experienced professionals, such as academic staff. Supervisors or promoters of the researchers can help the researcher in their studies as they are more experienced in producing truthful knowledge, and the supervisors can help the researcher produce credible and truthful knowledge.

### **3.6.2 Transferability**

Babbie and Mouton (2001:277) define transferability as “the extent of how findings can be applied in other context or with other respondents”. Transferability refers to the extent to which the research design could be applied to another context with different participants. Qualitative researchers can confirm transferability by using the following strategies: thick descriptions and purposive sampling (Anney, 2014:278; Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Guba, 1981:86; Shenton, 2004:69).

- Thick description is when the researcher provides extensive descriptions of their research process, from data collection, context of the study, and the production of the final report (Anney, 2014:278). The thick description assists the reader to have full insight into the processes that were followed during the collection, analysis and reporting of data. Thick description enables the readers to replicate the study using the same data-collection and analysis instruments, albeit in a different context.
- The use of purposive sampling helps the researcher to focus on participants that have specific knowledge about the phenomenon that is being researched, therefore maximising the quality of data being collected (Anney, 2014:278). Furthermore, other researches can use the same purposive sampling criteria to replicate the research study in another context with similar participants.

### **3.6.3 Dependability**

Babbie and Mouton (2001:278) explain that dependability is confirmed when the findings of two research studies, conducted in similar contexts, produce similar results. Dependability confirms that similar findings would be obtained if the study is repeated, employing the same research design and same participants (Shenton, 2004:71).

Detailed descriptions of the research process enable other researchers to follow the same steps in the research process. The researcher can enhance dependability by using the following strategies: thick description, triangulation, peer examination and stepwise replication (Anney, 2014:278; Guba, 1981:86; Krefting, 1991:221). Guba (1981:87) describes stepwise replication as a procedure where two or more researchers analyse the same data separately, and at the end compare the findings. This process would be done to confirm that the data analysis produces similar results, and that the results were not affected by the researcher's bias.

### **3.6.4 Confirmability**

According to Shenton (2004:64), confirmability establishes objectivity, and ensures that the findings of the study are not affected by the researcher's bias. Krefting (1991:221) believes that confirmability "suggests that another researcher could arrive at comparable conclusion given the same data and research context". Confirmability strategies confirm to the reader that the researcher's interpretation of the findings is the result of the participants' views and not the views of the researcher. According to Guba (1981:87) and Krefting (1991:221), the following strategies are used to ensure confirmability: triangulation, peer examination and the practice of reflexivity. (Triangulation and peer examination have been previously discussed in the paragraphs above.)

To ensure confirmability of a study, the researcher is required to have field notes or a journal that contain details of personal reflections on the study and all the events that occurred during the study (Anney, 2014:279). The reflexive journal is used to record the researcher's personal observation during the study, and these observations could be used to cross check the researcher's objectivity when interpreting the findings of the study.

## **3.7 DATA-COLLECTION METHODS**

As mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, the researcher chose two data-collection instruments for this study. The instruments were document analysis of the NYDA Entrepreneurship Development Policy and semi-structured interviews. The aim of the chosen instruments was to allow the researcher to identify key issues and themes that would shed more light on the implementation of the BMT and its effectiveness. The selection of two research methods was to allow triangulation of the data that had been collected.

### **3.7.1 Document analysis**

According Bowen (2009:27), document analysis is a procedure used to evaluate and review printed and electronic documents for the purpose of examining and interpreting data to gain understanding and develop empirical knowledge. Document analysis is a research method that requires the researcher to choose documents that are relevant to the researcher's study. Furthermore, the selected documents would become the units of observation under the document analysis data-collection method. These documents contain text and images that were created without the researcher's input. The researcher analyses the text or images and derives data from the documents.

There are various types of documents that can help the researcher unearth meaning, develop understanding and gain insight that is important to the research problem (Bowen, 2009:29).

Bowen (2009:30) lists the following as the uses of documents in research:

- Documents can provide data on the context within which research participants operate;
- Information in the document can suggest some questions that need to be asked and situations that need to be observed as part of the research;
- Documents provide supplementary research data;
- Documents provide a means of tracking change and development;
- Documents can be analysed as a way of verifying findings or corroborating evidence from other sources.

The Entrepreneurship Development policy document contains the rationale, goals, objectives and desired policy outcomes. The Entrepreneurship Development policy document was analysed to enable a deeper understanding of the objective and purpose of the policy, and to further understand the context within which the participants operate.

The Entrepreneurship Development policy document provided the researcher with a better understanding of the background and context, and gave the researcher additional questions to ask the participants from the NYDA. The following documents were analysed for the purpose of the present study:

- NYDA annual reports 2017 - 2018;
- National Youth Commission Act 19 of 1996;
- National Youth Development Agency Act 54 of 2008;
- National Youth Policy 2015 - 2020;
- National Youth Development Agency Strategic Plan 2014 – 2019.

As with all research methods, document analysis has a number of limitations that might hinder research if the researcher does not pay attention to these limitations. The document being analysed might have been selected with bias by the researcher, access to documents may be blocked, and the document might have insufficient details that can be used to answer the research question (Bowen, 2009:32).

The benefits of document analysis outweigh the limitations, which is why the researcher chose this specific data-collection method. Document analysis is less time consuming, documents are always available to the researcher, documents are cost effective, documents list exact dates and names, documents cover broad events over a long span of time, and unlike humans, documents are stable and suitable for repeated reviews (Bowen, 2009:31).

The researcher only gained access to the Entrepreneurship Development Policy once research permission had been granted by the NYDA, and he had requested documents in relation to the BMT. In selecting the relevant documents for analysis, the researcher regarded (1) the National Youth Policy 2015 - 2020, (2) NYDA annual reports 2017 – 2018, (3) National Youth Commission Act 19 of 1996, (4) National Youth Development Agency Act 54 of 2008, and (5) National Youth Development

Agency Strategic Plan 2014 – 2019, as documents that were vital to this research and central to answering the research questions in the study.

Research into policy design and implementation requires the researcher to become familiar with the policy that is being implemented. This allows the researcher to obtain background information on and provides context to that which the participants are experiencing on a daily basis. The document analysis method allows for the researcher to constantly consult and review the document and obtain data that will be triangulated with data from interviews to minimise bias and establish credibility (Bowen, 2009:38).

### **3.7.2 Semi-structured interviews**

A semi-structured interview is an interview approach that allows the interviewer to change the sequence and structure of the interview, depending on the responses by the participant being interviewed (Gray, 2009:373; Robson, 2002:231). According to Hardon, Hodgkin and Fresle (2004:24), semi-structured interviews use an open interview style that allows interviewers to continue asking questions until they are satisfied that they have collected enough information from the participants' answers. Although the interviewer has prepared a set of questions, there is no need to follow the planned sequence of questions, and the interviewer can ask further questions that might emanate from the participants' answers. With the semi-structured interviews as data-collection method, the individuals being interviewed become the units of observation.

The advantages and disadvantages of the semi-structured approach will be discussed below.

**Table 3.1: Advantages and disadvantages of semi-structured interviews**

<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
Semi-structured interviews are flexible and adaptable.	It is time-consuming with regards to scheduling, preparing, seeking permission, transcribing and analysing.
The line of inquiry can be changed to understand the respondent's motives.	Conducting semi-structured interviews is expensive.
Interviewer is able to probe for a more detailed response.	Semi-structured interviews require a skilled interviewer.
An informal friendly atmosphere is created and allows the participant to relax.	Difficult to generalise findings.
The interview schedule ensures that a core list of questions is asked in each interview.	The researcher must avoid bias when analysing.

Source: Gray, 2009:372; Hardon *et al.*, 2004:28; Robson, 2002:229

The semi-structured interview approach was selected for the present study after considering the advantages and disadvantages. In addition, semi-structured interviews were selected as they gave the participants a chance to present their perspectives about their experiences in relation to implementing the BMT. Semi-structured interviews also allowed the researcher to further probe the participants to gain a better understanding of their experiences.

Participants were selected based on their involvement in the implementation of the BMT at the NYDA. These participants included those that managed the implementation and those that implemented the BMT programme. The semi-structured interviews were conducted by the researcher, and they were also digitally recorded and stored on a cloud drive. The participants that took part in the semi-structured interviews were senior managers responsible for the planning, managing and evaluation of the implementation of the BMT who are located at the NYDA head office in Midrand, Gauteng, and employees at the City of Tshwane Branch.

The purpose of the semi-structured interviews was to gain a deeper understanding of the implementation of the BMT, by obtaining reliable and trustworthy data from participants that partake in the implementation of the policy in their daily lives.

A number of predetermined questions were formulated and were used in the interviews with all the participants. The questions were designed to gain a deeper understanding of the implementation of the BMT. The researcher found that the semi-

structured interview data-collection method is adaptable and that the sequence of the questions could easily be changed. The researcher could start the interview with easy questions that set the participants at ease. The semi-structured interview allowed the researcher to ask further probing questions, and also allowed the participants to ask questions to seek clarity from the researcher.

However, scheduling the interviews was time-consuming, as the researcher often had to reschedule interviews. The researcher had to travel between the NYDA head office and the City of Tshwane branch to conduct all the interviews which became costly, as several interviews were conducted.

The semi-structured interview data-collection method was selected as one of the most appropriate data-collection methods for this study. Furthermore, in order to ensure that the researcher would be interviewing the right people, the sample for the study needed to be defined, as discussed in the next section.

### **3.8 SAMPLING**

The phenomenon being studied dictates which sampling method a researcher should use (Groenewald, 2004:45). According to Kumar (2014:155), case study research usually uses purposive, judgemental or information-oriented sampling techniques. The researcher chose to employ the purposive sampling method.

Sample selection in qualitative studies has a tremendous impact on the overall quality of the study (Coyne, 1997:623). The selection of the research sample determines the quality of the data that will be collected and analysed by the researcher. The data that is needed to answer the research questions determines the population sample.

According to Palinkas, Horwitz, Green, Wisdom, Duan and Hoagwood (2015:533), purposive sampling is widely used in qualitative studies to identify information-rich cases of interest. This study used the purposive sampling technique to select participants who are knowledgeable and experienced with the implementation of the BMT at the NYDA.

The selected sampling technique is a purposive sampling strategy that is used to identify and select all cases or participants that meet some predetermined criterion (Palinkas *et al.*, 2015:535). Suri (2011:69) states that sampling is used to set explicit inclusion or exclusion criteria for information-rich participants. The criterion set for this

study will exclude participants at the NYDA who are not involved in the implementation process of the BMT.

Dolores and Tongco (2007:151) state that a set criterion is needed to determine what would constitute an inappropriate and appropriate participant. The participants for this study were carefully selected according to their role in the NYDA, their role in the implementation process, and their experience with the phenomenon. The criteria used for participants in this study were as follows:

- Senior managers;
- Worked at the NYDA for more than five years;
- Designated to work with the implementation of the BMT.

The researcher set the exclusion criteria according to the purpose of the study. Purposive sampling requires the researcher to look for individuals that will offer high quality data that will allow the researcher to answer their research question and fulfil the purpose of their study. Palys (2008:697) states that a small number of participants that are purposively selected can improve the results of the research more than a large number of randomly selected participants. The researcher had planned to interview a sample of eight participants.

Participants were chosen according to their role in the implementation of the BMT. If the participants did not fit the criteria set by the researcher, they were excluded from the sample. Their roles were mainly senior managers that managed, planned and implemented the BMT in the NYDA. In the process of setting the criteria for the purposive sample the researcher contacted the head office of the NYDA and set up a meeting to seek permission to conduct research and to enquire about potential participants for the study.

### **3.9 DATA ANALYSIS**

In qualitative research, data analysis refers to the process of organising and preparing the collected data for analysis by coding the data into themes, and presenting the data in tables, graphs and figures (Creswell, 2013:180). The data analysis approach must also complement the objectives of the study, as not all approaches result in the same standard of interpretation. Various data analysis approaches are applied in different

research designs. This study used the case study approach to best address the research questions listed in the study.

Data analysis is part of research design and needs to be designed to ensure that proper analysis of data occurs (Maxwell, 2009:236). The data collected will be analysed using different data analysis methods, as the data-collection methods differ. The data analysis methods are discussed below.

### **3.9.1 Content analysis**

Content analysis is the process of organising content or information into categories related to the central questions of the research (Bowen, 2009:32). Content analysis means analysing content from interviews or the observational field in order to identify the main aims that emerge from the participant's responses (Kumar, 2014:318). According to Bryman (2012:290), content analysis is an approach to analysing documents and text in efforts to quantify the content in the documents and texts. Content analysis is a process whereby relevant data is analysed and reduced into manageable text that is used to answer the research questions.

### **3.9.2 Analysis of semi-structured interview data**

According to Maxwell (2009:237), the "goal of coding in qualitative data analysis is to 'fracture' and rearrange the data into categories that facilitate comparison between categories".

The analysis of the semi-structured data in this study was carried out in the following manner, to ensure proper data analysis:

- All the collected data that was recorded including field notes were transcribed and saved on separate Microsoft Word documents;
- All the transcribed interviews were read through by the researcher;
- The data was coded using the computer programme Atlas.ti;
- Main themes were identified from the data;
- Responses were categorised according to the themes identified; and
- Identified themes and their meanings were reported on.

### 3.9.3 Transcribing standards

Transcribing is the act of transforming spoken word from recordings into written text (Halcomb & Davidson, 2006:38; Lapadat, 2000:204). Even before transcribing can take place, the researcher has a few decisions to make with regards to what is to be transcribed, in what format, and if non-verbal communication should be transcribed (Lapadat, 2000:205). Transcribing may require the researcher to include contextual information regarding pauses or periods of silence that take place in interviews because transcripts cannot capture everything that happens during an interview (McLellan, MacQueen & Neidig, 2003:66).

Lapadat (2000:205) states that it is impossible to have one complete system of transcribing that would be able to serve all research purposes. A transcribing system is where the researcher decides which aspects of transcribing will best suit their study. The researcher should create a transcription system that will benefit their research purpose and objectives. Selecting the wrong transcription system will have implications on the interpretation and analysis of the transcribed data. The researcher should base their decisions on their theoretical stance, research purpose and analytical intent (Lapadat, 2000:206).

To systematically generate transcripts, all transcriptions should include all grammatical errors, slang, non-verbal sounds like laughs and sighs, and background noise (McLellan *et al.*, 2003:66). Transcriptions need to be very detailed in order to capture tone of voice, timing, pauses, speed and emphasis, as these elements might be important in the interpretation of the data (Bailey, 2008:128). Capturing a research interview verbatim is necessary to establish dependability, trustworthiness and reliability of the study (Stuckey, 2014:7).

If the researcher is not transcribing their own data, then they should instruct the transcriber on which transcribing system to use. Stuckey (2014:8) highlights the importance of a transcriber, mentioning that the transcriber is the first person in line to interpret the data. According to McLellan *et al.* (2003:66), the transcriber must consider where and when to punctuate, this is done so that the intent and emphasis of the participant is not lost.

However, a detailed transcription that includes all the elements mentioned by MacLean, Meyer and Estable (2004:114) and Bailey (2008) might result in the

transcription taking much longer to transcribe. The researcher will have to determine if the elements such as sighs, pauses, laughs and tone are important to the study. If the researcher is only interested in the content of the recording then there is no need to include sighs, pauses and tone in transcriptions (Lapadat, 2000:214).

According to Bailey (2008:128), in some projects, certain data is not considered as data, and as a result, some parts of the data will be selected for transcription and some not. In some projects, the greeting that takes place in the beginning of an interview might not be important, however, in some projects greeting and social talk might be important.

Each interview should be transcribed by an experienced transcriber and be proofread by the researcher (Bailey, 2008:129; Halcomb & Davidson, 2006:40; MacLean *et al.*, 2004:114; McLellan *et al.*, 2003:72). The researcher is the most suited proof reader, being familiar with the research and terminology used in the study. However, the transcriber should also be familiarised with the terminology and jargon used in the study, as this eliminates the many errors that might occur during transcription (Lapadat, 2000:216; MacLean *et al.*, 2004:120). Many errors are avoided when the transcriber is made part of the research team by informing them of the research content, jargon and transcription template (MacLean *et al.*, 2004:122).

The researcher should make a transcription template available to ensure that all the transcripts are identical in structure and appearance, especially if a computer analysis program is to be used (McLellan *et al.*, 2003:69). Transcripts should be stored in an easily accessible place, and backups should be updated when analysis has taken place (McLellan *et al.*, 2003:69). If a computer analysis program is to be used to analyse data, the researcher needs to become familiar with the computer program (McLellan *et al.*, 2003:72).

Confidentiality should be ensured by removing or replacing identifiers such as names, positions, places of work or profession from transcripts (MacLean *et al.*, 2004:116). If the research interviews are confidential, it is recommended for the transcriber to sign a confidentiality form (MacLean *et al.*, 2004:119).

Transcribers can make a number of errors while typing and listening to the audio tape at the same time. To prevent such errors, transcribers should listen to the audio and read their initial transcription to check for errors (Halcomb & Davidson, 2006:40;

MacLean *et al.*, 2004:120). Even though this step may be more time-consuming, it prevents many errors.

MacLean *et al.* (2004:121) mention errors that might occur because of class or cultural differences, and state that it is best for the interview to be conducted in the home language of the interviewee. Some meaning could be lost in the translation of the interview or the interviewee might not be able to express themselves in the preferred language of the researcher or transcriber.

To ensure quality, the researcher needs recording equipment that will produce high quality recordings. Low quality recordings will affect the transcription, and may compromise the analysis. The researcher needs to ensure they have the right equipment for one-on-one interviews and focus groups (Bailey, 2008:130).

As previously alluded to, it is best to interview, transcribe and analyse in the language of the interviewee (MacLean *et al.*, 2004:121). In a study by Bock, Mazwi, Metula and Mpolweni-Zantsi (2006), where they conducted an analysis of what was 'lost' in the interpretation and transcription process of selected testimonies from the Truth and Reconciliation Commission, they found that testimonies that took place in isiXhosa were not properly translated into English, and that the official transcripts omitted some facts. This led to some transcription errors, where essential information was not captured.

To ensure that quality transcriptions were created for this study, the researcher followed these steps:

1. Attended Atlas.ti training;
2. Defined what is data and what is not data;
3. Tested the quality of the recording equipment;
4. Employed a multilingual and experienced transcriber;
5. Requested the transcriber to sign a confidentiality form to protect the identities of the participants;
6. Familiarised the transcriber with the study, terminology and jargon used;
7. Detailed out the transcription template;
8. Requested the transcriber to transcribe the data verbatim and omit names and positions of the participants;

9. Requested the transcriber to spot check their work before submitting the transcriptions;
10. Checked all the interviews by listening to the audio and reading the transcribed text;
11. Started analysis and coding of the transcriptions on Atlas.ti.

#### **3.9.4 Coding and themes**

Coding is the process of using numerical or textual codes to categorise data into manageable chunks, classifying raw data into similar categories, making it easier for the researcher to analyse grouped data (Cloete, 2007:516). After collecting data and transcribing the data, the researcher needs to go through the data and organise this data and assign codes to similar responses from participants. The coding of data allows the researcher to group similar responses, and group them into themes.

Open coding was used in this study. Open coding is when the researcher does not have pre-set codes, and all the codes used have been developed and modified from the collected data, using the coding process (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017:3355).

Themes are patterns that highlight significant or interesting parts of the collected and coded data that are in relation to the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006:82; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017:3356). A theme should draw attention to the data that is in relation to the overall research question.

### **3.10 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The policy process has five stages, namely, agenda setting, policy formulation, policy adoption, policy implementation and policy evaluation. This limits the study in that it focuses only on one stage of the policy process when other stages might have affected the implementation of the policy. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the stages preceding the implementation stage can greatly affect the outcome of the implementation of the policy.

The case study for this study was the NYDA, a public entity that is tasked with the development of youth in SA. The research study is limited to the NYDA, and only the NYDA can answer the research questions posed in Section 1.3, allowing the researcher to achieve the research objectives listed in Section 1.3.

The programme in question, the BMT, is a programme that only the NYDA implements, therefore, no other institutions could have been considered. It was also not possible to interview all the NYDA employees to get their views about the implementation of the BMT.

Another limitation is that the sample was limited to a small number of participants that are involved in the implementation of the BMT programme.

### **3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

The implementers of the BMT at the NYDA are the selected sample for this study. To have the participants comfortable in an environment they are familiar with, the interviews were conducted at the NYDA head office and the NYDA City of Tshwane branch. The management at the NYDA was approached and permission to conduct research was requested, and subsequently granted.

For transparency purposes, the permission letter given to the researcher by the respective managers from the NYDA was presented to all participants before the interview. The permission letter informed the participants of the consent, stated the purpose of the study and that the information collected was going to be used for research purposes only.

According to Groenewald (2004:44), research studies that focus on a phenomenon are only concerned about the perspectives of the people involved in the phenomena. Participants reflect on their personal experiences with the phenomenon and how it affects them. Such detailed and personal information has potential to harm the participant if their identity is known.

To protect the participants' identities, pseudonyms were used to label their interview documents, for example, **NYDA 82**. Before each interview, the researcher obtained the participant's permission to voice record the interview. It was explained to every participant that taking part in the research was voluntary and that they had the right to withdraw from participating in the study at any time.

The consent form informed the participants about the type of information that was needed from them, what the information would be used for, why such information was sought, and how the information supplied would directly and indirectly affect them

(Kumar, 2014:283). The consent form also stated that participant's identity would be kept private and confidential to ensure their autonomy, privacy and dignity.

All those involved with a research study, whether directly or indirectly, are considered participants of the said research study (Kumar, 2014:283). As a participant in the research study, the researcher has a number of ethical issues to consider when it comes to their position in the research study. These considerations include avoiding bias, using an inappropriate research methodology, incorrect reporting and inappropriate use of information (Kumar, 2014:288).

Kumar (2014:287) highlights bias as being the biggest concern when considering ethical issues relating to the researcher. Bias is when a researcher deliberately hides what they find in their study or disproportionately highlights some aspects of the study.

For the purposes of the present study, the researcher strove to be unbiased, objective and honest at all times towards the participants, the collection of data, the interpretation of data and the reporting of the findings. Field notes were used to ensure that the researcher stayed unbiased throughout the collection, analysis and reporting of data.

### **3.12 CONCLUSION**

This chapter provided an explanation of Mouton's three worlds, and presented a description of the different philosophical assumptions and research paradigms. The philosophical assumptions and research paradigms of the researcher were highlighted. This chapter also defined the qualitative and quantitative research methods and explained the rationale for the application of the qualitative design.

The three required case study conditions were discussed and measured against this research study. The selection of the case study method was explained, and the rationale behind its selection was highlighted.

The criteria to establish rigour were discussed and aligned to the research study. The chapter provided the description and rationale behind the selected research instruments, data-collection methods, sampling and the data analysis techniques chosen for this study.

The data analysis methods were discussed, the researcher outlined transcription standards, and the steps in the coding and thematic analysis of the collected data. The limitations of the study and ethical considerations were also discussed. The researcher highlighted how the identity of the participants at the NYDA would be protected.

## **CHAPTER 4:**

# **CASE STUDY OF NYDA AND ITS LEGAL FRAMEWORK**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents a discussion of the legal framework of the case study. There are several statutes and policies in SA that inform the existence of the National Youth Development Agency. Furthermore, the National Youth Development Agency is informed by several policies and guidelines developed to ensure the development of the youth in SA. These legislations, policies and guidelines include the African Youth Charter, National Youth Commission Act 19 of 1996, National Youth Development Agency Act 54 of 2008, National Youth Policy of 2015-2020, National Development Plan, SA's New Growth Path and the Umsobomvu Youth Fund. The legal framework listed above will be discussed and also how these legislations, policies and guidelines ensure that the NYDA reaches its objectives in developing the youth in SA. However, these legal frameworks will be listed according to their policy level as discussed in Section 2.4 of Chapter 2.

The focus of this study is the Business Management Training Programme that is at the operational policy level at the NYDA. The BMT is a NYDA programme that ensures that the NYDA reaches its objectives in developing the youth. This chapter discusses the NYDA's strategic plan, with a special focus on economic participation as a key performance area. The economic participation key performance area is a strategic objective for the NYDA. Therefore, this chapter discusses the economic participation key performance area and its supporting programmes.

### **4.2 THE AFRICAN YOUTH CHARTER**

Although the African Youth Charter is not a South African executive policy, it is at a continental geographical level. That is why the charter is discussed first in this chapter. The African Youth Charter (AYC) is a framework that was adopted by the African Union (AU) in the year 2006. The AYC has a set of prescribed youth development responsibilities for its member states. These responsibilities include education and skills development, poverty eradication and the socio-economic integration of the youth, sustainable livelihoods and youth employment, health, peace and security, law enforcement, sustainable development and protection of the environment (African

Union Commission, 2006:6). The NYDA has aligned their strategy to that of the AYC, since SA is a member state in the AU. The programmes listed in the NYDA's strategic plan 2015 -2020 contribute to the efforts of the AYC, namely, education and skills development, socio-economic integration, youth employment and health.

### **4.3 NATIONAL YOUTH COMMISSION (ACT 19 OF 1996)**

The National Youth Commission (NYC) is an executive policy that was established by the National Youth Commission Act 19 of 1996 to establish a National Youth Policy that will empower the youth and redress the imbalances of the past (Parliament, 2008:7). Ngubeni (2016:68) states that the NYC was created to be an institution that acts as a lobbyist, seeking to mainstream the development of youth in SA. Kanjere (2016:81) goes further, and states that the NYC was tasked to "promote national reconciliation among young people from different races".

Section 8A (i) of the National Youth Commission Act (1996) states that the NYC shall develop and monitor the implementation of the National Youth Policy (NYP). As a result, the NYC is required by law to ensure the development of youth in SA by formulating and monitoring the implementation of the NYP.

The National Youth Commission Act was repealed in 2008, when the National Youth Development Agency Act 54 of 2008 was passed. The repeal of the National Youth Commission Act saw the merger of the NYC with the Umsobomvu Youth Fund to form the National Youth Development Agency.

### **4.4 NATIONAL YOUTH DEVELOPMENT AGENCY ACT (54 OF 2008)**

The National Youth Development Act 54 of 2008 is an executive level policy that established the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA) as a national public entity. According to the National Youth Development Agency Act 54 (2008), the NYDA is aimed at coordinating its efforts, functions, and financial affairs to ensure youth development in SA.

The NYDA was established to replace the NYC and the UYF and merge their functions to form one institution that addresses the youth development issues at national, provincial and local government level. The NYDA derives its powers from the National

Youth Development Act 53 of 2008, National Youth Policy (2015–2020) and the Integrated Youth Development Strategy.

According to the NYDA Annual report (2016-2017:1), the activities of the NYDA can be summarised as follows:

- Lobbying and advocating for integration and mainstreaming of youth development in all spheres of government, the private sector and civil society;
- Initiating, implementing, facilitating and coordinating youth development programmes; and
- Monitoring and evaluating youth development interventions across the board, and mobilising youth for active participation in civil society engagements.

Section 5 of the National Youth Development Agency Act (2008) lists several functions that the NYDA must institute in order to achieve its objectives:

1. Establish competencies and capabilities in its operations, including the following functional areas:
  - National Youth Service and Social Cohesion;
  - Economic Participation;
  - Policy, Research and Development;
  - Governance, Training and Development;
  - Youth Advisory and Information Services; and
  - National Youth Fund.
2. Establish offices of the agency at provincial and local levels and appoint the necessary personnel to those offices.
3. The agency must manage and administer the Umsobomvu fund.

The NYDA has key performance areas that help them achieve the functions listed in section 5 of the National Youth Development Agency Act 54 of 2008. The policy imperatives are: Economic participation, education and skills development, health and well-being, policy and research, and governance. This study will focus on the Business Management Training Programme, which is under the economic participation key performance area.

The economic participation key performance area ensures that SA youth participate in the economy; similarly, the education and skills development key performance area ensures that the youth in SA are skilled and ready for employment and entrepreneurship. To ensure social cohesion and national youth service, the NYDA administers the health and well-being key performance area. Research is conducted to enhance policy and develop information that will advise other institutions on youth development, using the policy and research key performance area. The role of the governance key performance area is to make sure that the offices and branches of the NYDA have an efficient and effective staff complement (NYDA, 2017:1).

The NYDA offers programmes that address their functional areas, and these programmes are available throughout the country. The agency must ensure that there are centres throughout the country that are fully staffed with qualified staff. The agency is required to administer these programmes, along with other services, that promote the development of the youth in SA (NYDA, 2017:2).

#### **4.5 NATIONAL YOUTH POLICY (2015-2020)**

The National Youth Policy (NYP) is an executive policy that was passed by parliament in the year 2002, however, there were other youth initiatives that were undertaken by the government. These youth initiatives include the National Youth Commission Act (19 of 1996), National Youth Policy 2000, and the National Youth Development Framework 2002/2007 (South Africa, 2009:3).

The NYP is a document that has played a significant part in ensuring the implementation of interventions for the youth in SA since 1997 (South Africa, 2009:5). The NYP seeks to correct the injustices of the past by creating an environment that enables the youth to optimally develop as individuals, and develop as part of society. According to the National Youth Policy (2015), the policy is “informed by the South African Constitution, the United Nations World Programme of Action for Youth, the African Youth Charter (2006) and the National Development Plan (2012)”.

The NYP is a national policy that is reviewed every five years, and the purpose of every review was to close the gaps identified during the implementation of the previous youth policy. The latest NYP is built on the success of the previous policy and takes the lessons learnt into account. The NYP (2015–2020) focuses on increasing

employment, decreasing crime perpetrated by youth, and decreasing HIV/AIDS infections. The NYP (2009–2014) focused on integrating youth development into the mainstream of government policies, strengthening the culture of patriotic citizenship and national cohesion.

The objectives of the NYP (2015–2020) are as follows:

- Consolidate and integrate youth development into the mainstream of government policies, programmes and the national budget.
- Strengthen the capacity of key youth development institutions and ensure integration and coordination in the delivery of youth services.
- Build the capacity of young people to enable them to take charge of their own well-being by building their assets and realising their potential.
- Strengthen a culture of patriotic citizenship among young people, and help them to become responsible adults who care for their families and communities.
- Foster a sense of national cohesion, while acknowledging the country's diversity, and inculcate a spirit of patriotism by encouraging visible and active participation in different youth initiatives, projects and nation-building activities.

The objectives of the NYP, as listed above, are aligned with the programmes of the NYDA, namely the economic participation, education and skills development, policy and research, health and wellbeing programme. According to the Integrated Youth Strategy (2011:7), the “National Youth Policy was adopted as a central ‘navigator’ for all NYDA activities in SA”.

The NYDA is expected to coordinate the development of youth by implementing the NYP through national programmes that it designs and oversees with NGOs, the private sector and organs of state. The NYDA has to ensure that youth development activities and programmes align with the National Development plan.

Table 4.1 shows an alignment of the NYP objectives with the competencies and capabilities of the NYDA Act. This table shows that the NYDA Act and the NYP complement each other with regards to the development of the youth. From the table below, we can deduce that when the NYDA sets goals to fulfil their competencies for youth development, those goals also align with the NYP's objectives.

**Table 4.1: Alignment of NYDA Act 2008 and the NYP 2015–2020**

NYDA Act 2008 competencies and capabilities	NYP 2015–2020 Objectives
Economic Participation	Consolidate and integrate youth development into the mainstream of government policies, programmes and the national budget.
Governance, Training and Development Policy, Research and Development	Strengthen the capacity of key youth development institutions and ensure integration and coordination in the delivery of youth services.
Governance, Training and Development	Build the capacity of young people to enable them to take charge of their own well-being by building their assets and realising their potential.
National Youth Service and Social Cohesion	Strengthen a culture of patriotic citizenship among young people and help them to become responsible adults who care for their families and communities
National Youth Service and Social Cohesion	Foster a sense of national cohesion, while acknowledging the country's diversity, and inculcate a spirit of patriotism by encouraging visible and active participation in different youth initiatives, projects and nation-building activities.

Source: Researcher's own compilation, 2019

## 4.6 NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

The National Development Plan is an administrative-level policy, because it mainly deals with transforming executive policy into practice. In May 2010, the president of SA appointed a national planning commission to plan and draft a National Development Plan (NDP). According to the National Development Plan: Executive Summary (2012:15), the planning commission listed the following nine challenges for SA:

- Too few people work;
- The quality of school education for black people is poor;
- 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;
- SA remains a divided society.

The nine challenges mentioned by the planning commission led to the National Development Plan draft being tabled in 2013 to address these challenges faced by SA. The NDP is set to unite SA by eliminating poverty, reducing inequality, growing an inclusive economy and building capabilities by the year 2030 (Presidency of South Africa, 2013:1).

The planning commission recognises the role of SA youth in boosting the economy, increasing employment and reducing poverty. As a result, the planning commission (2012:20) has adopted a 'youth lens' which has the following proposals:

- Improve the school system, including increasing the number of students achieving above 50% in literacy and mathematics, increasing learner retention rates to 90%, 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.
- Strengthen and expand the number of FET colleges to increase the participation rate to 25%.
- A tax incentive to employers to reduce the initial cost of hiring young labour-market entrants.
- Expand leadership and make training vouchers directly available to job seekers.
- A formalised graduate recruitment scheme for the public service to attract highly skilled people.

In the NDP's attempts to grow the economy and eradicate poverty by 2030, it has a particular focus on better education and better economic opportunities for the youth of SA. Therefore, the NYDA is expected to align its efforts to develop the youth of SA with the plans detailed in the NDP. The objective of increasing employment and having

more youth participate in the economy of the NDP can be realised with the NYDA's economic participation key performance area and its programmes, such as the Business Management Training programme.

#### **4.7 SOUTH AFRICA'S NEW GROWTH PATH**

According to the New Growth Path (NGP) Framework (2010:6), the New Growth Path's main objective is to create jobs in SA, a target of five million jobs were set for the year 2020. The NGP is an administrative level policy that will be implemented by government institutions in SA. According to Meyer (2013:8), the NGP focuses on reducing poverty, unemployment, levels of inequality, improving the coordination, planning and implementation of economic policies.

As mentioned above, the NYDA partners with and assists organs of state with initiatives that focus on employment and skills development. The NYDA has aligned its strategic plans to support the NGP with programmes that contribute to enterprise development, broad-based black economic empowerment, education and skills development (NYDA, 2014:5).

#### **4.8 UMSOBOMVU YOUTH FUND**

The Umsobomvu Youth Fund (UYF) was a government created financial institution, that was tasked to promote skills development, entrepreneurship and job creation among the youth of SA (Kanjere, 2016:81). The Umsobomvu Youth Fund was established in 1999, and its mission was to have SA youth actively participate in the mainstream economy (Umsobomvu Youth Fund, 2009:3).

The UYF issued loans to the youth for them to start businesses and create employment for other South Africans. The UYF not only financed the youth in their business ventures, but also had several programmes that were used to develop the youth. These programmes were namely: Skills development and transfer, Entrepreneurship and enterprise development, Enterprise finance and the Boss programme (Umsobomvu Youth Fund, 2009:31). Some of the programmes that were used by the UYF to develop the youth are still being used today by the NYDA to support some of the NYDA's strategic objectives. These programmes include the grant

programme, Business Management Training and mentorship. The Business Management Training programme is the focus of this study.

The UYF was aimed at supporting young entrepreneurs by ensuring the transfer of skills, business consultancy, linkages to business opportunities and business mentorship. The programmes were offered across the country using the 121 youth advisory centres (Umsobomvu Youth Fund, 2009:32). In 2009 the Umsobomvu Youth Fund and National Youth Commission were merged to form the National Youth Development Agency.

#### **4.9 NATIONAL YOUTH DEVELOPMENT AGENCY STRATEGIC PLAN 2014 -2019**

The NYDA strategic document is a forecast planning tool that ensures that the mandate of the NYDA is achieved. The NYDA strategic plan is an administrative-level policy that is implemented by the NYDA. The NYDA strategic plan is the result of translating executive policies like the NYDA act and the NYC act into practice.

With the number of challenges affecting the youth, the NYDA requires solutions that reduce poverty and inequality and that promote the development of youth in SA (NYDA, 2014:7).

Figure 4.1 lists the NYDA's strategic objectives and their supporting key performance areas. As shown in the figure, there are four strategic objectives and five supporting key performance areas listed in the strategic plan 2014 – 2019.

This study focuses on the NYDA's Business Management Training Programme which is under the Economic Participation key performance area that feeds into the Improved and sustainable livelihood opportunities for young people in SA strategic objective. These different components will be discussed below. Even though Figure 4.1 lists a number of NYDA objectives, only the economic participation objective will be discussed.



**Figure 4.1: NYDA's strategic objectives (Strategic plan 2014 – 2019)**

Source: Researcher's own compilation, 2019

#### **4.9.1 Improved and sustainable livelihood opportunities for young people in South Africa**

The goal of this strategic objective is to provide interventions that will lead to decent employment, education, entrepreneurship and skills development to all young people aged between 14 and 35 (NYDA, 2017:30, 2018a:5). This study focuses on the economic participation key performance area which is aligned with the “Guide efforts and facilitate economic participation and empowerment and achievement of education and training” objective in the NYDA act 54 of 2008. The “improved and sustainable livelihood opportunities for young people in South Africa” strategic objective, lines up with the following NYDA Act 54 of 2008 objectives:

- Develop an integrated youth development plan and strategy for SA;
- Guide efforts and facilitate economic participation and empowerment and the achievement of education and training;
- Initiate programmes directed at poverty alleviation, urban and rural development, and the combating of crime, substance abuse and social decay amongst youth;
- Endeavour to promote the interests generally of the youth, particularly young people with disabilities.

According to the NYDA's strategic plan (2018b:34), these interventions related to improved and sustainable livelihood opportunities for young people in SA are covered by economic participation and the education and skills key performance areas. However, only the economic participation key performance area will be discussed.

## **4.10 ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION**

The main goal of the economic participation key performance area is to enhance the participation of young people in the economy (NYDA, 2014:16). This economic participation enhancement will be facilitated through improved job creation, provision for business support and entrepreneurship participation, and skills development programmes (NYDA, 2017:30).

The economic participation key performance area aims to increase the participation of the youth in the economy by having a number of projects or sub-programmes that assist the youth with funding, training, access to NYDA information services, and business development programmes. The economic participation key performance area will improve the livelihoods of youth in SA by ensuring the youth's participation in the economy by granting them financial and non-financial support (NYDA, 2018a:2).

### **4.10.1 Economic participation key performance areas**

The economic participation key performance area has a number of key performance indicators (KPIs). Key performance indicators are data components that are used to assess the performance of a project (Famakin & Ogunsemi, 2012:334). KPIs are important activities that indicate the success or failure of projects. According to the Strategic Plan 2014–2019, the economic participation key performance area has three objectives and seven KPIs with their supporting programmes.

Table 4.2 lists the KPIs and programmes of the economic participation key performance area.

**Table 4.2: Economic participation’s strategic objectives, KPI and programmes**

Strategic Objective	Key Performance Indicator	Programme
To provide socio-economic empowerment interventions and support for young people.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Number of youth-owned enterprises supported through the Grant programme.</li> <li>- Number of beneficiaries supported with key fundamentals for success by the NYDA.</li> <li>- Number of jobs created and/ or sustained through supporting entrepreneurs and enterprises.</li> <li>- Number of jobs facilitated through placements in job opportunities.</li> <li>- Establishment of the Youth Fund.</li> <li>- Establishment of the NYDA Skills Fund.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Grant Programme</li> <li>- NYDA Grant Funding</li> <li>- Market Linkages</li> <li>- Mentorship</li> <li>- Business Management Training</li> <li>- BBBEE and Sales Pitch</li> <li>- Voucher Programme</li> <li>- Business Consultancy Voucher Programme</li> <li>- Youth Fund</li> <li>- NYDA Skills Fund</li> </ul>
To provide increased universal access to young people.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Number of new satellite offices operationalised for young people to access NYDA information.</li> <li>- Number of outreach vehicles procured for young people to access NYDA information.</li> <li>- Number of new information kiosks operationalised for young people to access NYDA information.</li> </ul>	

Source: Researcher’s own compilation, 2019

Some of the KPIs listed in Table 4.2 need to be improved to better assess the performance of the NYDA in achieving its goals. The establishment of the youth and NYDA skills fund cannot equate to a KPI, instead it should be changed to “number of beneficiaries supported with the youth fund” and “number of participants supported with the NYDA skills fund. There is not much to measure in the single act of establishing a fund, however, policy evaluators can measure how many people the funds helped and compare that to the targets that have been set.

Although Table 4.2 lists 10 programmes that fall under the economic participation key performance area, the study focuses only on the Business Management Training programme that feeds into two of the NYDA KPIs, namely:

- Number of beneficiaries supported with key fundamentals for success by the NYDA.
- Number of jobs created and/ or sustained through supporting entrepreneurs and enterprises.

#### **4.11 NYDA ENTREPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT POLICY**

The NYDA Entrepreneurship Development Policy is a 2014 operational-level policy document that details the processes and implementation of the Entrepreneurship Development Programme (EDP). The document outlines the detailed operational requirements of the EDP (NYDA, 2014:4). The NYDA Entrepreneurship Development Policy was created to standardise the implementation and offering of the EDP in the NYDA branches across SA. The policy sets out the steps and procedures the NYDA should follow when implementing the EDP.

The EDP's main goal is the creation of jobs and sustainable livelihoods for the youth through the provision of business skills training and the development of personal entrepreneurial competences (NYDA, 2014:3). The EDP is a programme that is used to introduce entrepreneurship to the youth of SA, and it motivates them to open up successful businesses that will result in job creation and economic participation.

The EDP consists of two programmes, namely, the Entrepreneurship Awareness Programme and the Business Management Training Programme. The Entrepreneurship Awareness programme aims to motivate the youth to pursue entrepreneurship by offering basic information on entrepreneurship and business, while the Business Management Training programme offers formal training in support of setting up and sustaining a business (NYDA, 2014:3).

The NYDA Entrepreneurship Development Policy (2014:7) lists the following as the objectives of the EDP:

- To inculcate an entrepreneurial culture amongst SA youth through training;

- To provide entrepreneurship awareness training to the youth, with the aim of motivating them to choose entrepreneurship as an option to employment;
- To develop the necessary skills, knowledge and values of aspiring and existing entrepreneurs through training, in support of them starting and sustaining their businesses.

Conditions under which the EDP can be offered, who it is offered to, and which other programmes can be offered after the EDP has been completed are set out in the NYDA Entrepreneurship Development Policy. The policy sets out the applicability of the EDP and the specific exclusions. According to the NYDA Entrepreneurship Development Policy (2014:7), EPD is not offered to entrepreneurs who:

- Fall within the tobacco, gambling, gaming or sex industries;
- Are NYDA staff members;
- If the business is owned by NYDA staff members, Board Committee Members or member of the Accounting Authority;
- Where a relative of a staff member applies to EDP the said individual shall recuse himself from all pre- and post-approval activities;
- The programme shall not provide its offering to the personnel of a business. The offerings are specific to aspiring and existing entrepreneurs.

Apart from the exclusions listed above, the EDP does not have any other exclusions in terms of industry sectors. This means that any aspiring entrepreneur in any industry sector can apply for the EDP. According to the NYDA Entrepreneurship Development Policy (2014:7), preference is given to business ideas with a higher probability of youth job creation.

To qualify for the EDP at the NYDA you have to be a SA youth, be between 14 and 35 years of age, possess an SA identity document, be an aspiring entrepreneur and have an existing business (NYDA, 2014:8). However, the National Youth Policy (2015–2020) considers the citizens of SA between the ages of 15 and 35 as youth, and not those from the age of 14. The age difference might be explained by the fact that the NYDA Entrepreneurship Development Policy has not been updated since 2014.

The NYDA Entrepreneurship Development Policy also sets out the qualifying criteria for the personnel that have to deliver the EDP to SA youth. The EDP has to be

delivered by experienced facilitators with knowledge of business development or experience in the industry sector. These requirements are listed as fundamental to the implementation of the EDP (NYDA, 2014:8).

The implementation roles and responsibilities for the NYDA head office and its branches are detailed in the NYDA entrepreneurship development policy. In the offering of the EDP, the head office is accountable for the overall programme's strategic direction and annual operational plans, while the branches are accountable of the implementation of the EDP (NYDA, 2014:9). The NYDA head office must ensure that the branches are able to implement the EDP by providing the required resources that will enable the branches to achieve the objectives set out in the EDP.

The EDP consists of two programmes that are used to inspire and prepare SA youth to be entrepreneurs, to create jobs and participate in the economy. The focus of the study is on the Business Management Training Programme, which will be discussed in detail below.

#### **4.11.1 Business Management Training Programme**

The NYDA has partnered with the International Labour Organisation (ILO) in offering the business management training programme under the initiative called Start and Improve Your Business (SIYB). The SIYB's focus is on creating better employment for people through the establishment, maintenance and improvement of businesses (NYDA & ILO, 2015a:i).

The ILO is an agency of the United Nations that promotes human and labour rights, social justice, develop policies and helps to improve the economic and working conditions for all women and men in 187 member states (ILO, 2019b).

The manuals used in the Business Management Training Programme (BMT) were all developed by the ILO. The Programme is implemented using a three-tier structure whereby a master trainer trains the trainers, and then the trainers train the aspiring entrepreneurs (NYDA & ILO, 2015a:i).

The BMT is a training initiative that is aimed at enabling youth to have access to relevant entrepreneurial skills, knowledge, values and attitudes for their businesses (NYDA, 2015). The BMT programme trains the youth in managing their business and trains them in the skills needed to survive in the dynamic economic environment. This

programme enables the young entrepreneurs to manage their business through the stages of start-up, early development and growth and expansion (NYDA, 2015).

The BMT is located in the Economic Development Unit which is under the Planning Design and Development Department within the NYDA. The BMT is one of the product offerings of the economic development unit. The BMT is managed from the head office by the economic development unit, and the implementation is carried out by the trainers that are in the NYDA branches. The branches are managed by another department called Inter-Governmental Relations Department which oversees the operation of the NYDA branches. The inter-governmental department does not have any vested interest in the implementation of the BMT, as they have other services that they have to administer.

The BMT programme includes the following courses: Generate Your Business Idea (GYBI), Start Your Business (SYB) and Improve Your Business (IYB) (NYDA, 2015). The courses mentioned above ensure that the youth of SA are able to participate in the economic sphere and create employment by creating new businesses or improving their existing businesses.

According to the NYDA annual report (2018a:31), 21 808 youth were supported through programmes, such as the BMT programme. This was done to ensure entrepreneurial success and job creation.

To qualify for the BMT programme, participants must be SA citizens, be between the ages of 18 and 35, have a valid SA identity document and the business must be 100% youth-owned (NYDA, 2015). However, there is a noticeable contradiction in the age groups that are covered for NYDA services, as the NYP range is between 15 and 35, the NYDA Entrepreneurship Development Policy range is 14 – 35, and the qualifying criteria for the business management programme is 18 – 35. There is no consistency between the NYP and NYDA documents.

The application process for the business management training programme includes forms that are filled out by the aspiring entrepreneurs which are then assessed by the appointed trainer for that specific course. The trainer assesses the application forms using a document called the SIYB selection tree.

The SIYB selection tree is used to establish if the individual who applied for the BMT, qualifies and meets all the requirements set for the BMT programme, and to determine

which courses they should be signed up for. The selection tree is used to determine which course an applicant belongs to by looking at the literacy level, appropriate age and the business situation and future plans for the business.

Once the application has been assessed, it must be captured on the NYDA's Customer Management System (CRM) and then the applicants must be invited for the training they qualified for. CRM is an internal system used by the NYDA to register and track the progress of the applicants.

The NYDA has a document called the Business Management Training Process Implementation document which lists all the processes that need to be followed by the branch service administrators, coordinators and trainers. The BMT process implementation document explains the duration of each course in the BMT, application process, planning and implementation of the BMT training programmes, quality assurance and reporting and record keeping processes (NYDA, 2018c:7).

According to the Business Management Training Programme process implementation document (2018c:2), the trainers and the branch service administrator will need to plan and prepare the following: Invitations and confirmations, travel, catering, training manuals, training venue, stationary, certificates and the start date of their scheduled training sessions. The trainers also have to ensure that that each training programme has the following documents: session plan, registers and evaluation forms.

Table 4.3 lists all the BMT courses and all the documents to ensure quality assurance and reports.

**Table 4.3: BMT courses and quality assurance documents**

BMT Course	Documentation
<b>Generate Your Business Idea</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Completed session plan</li> <li>- Training attendance register</li> <li>- Training evaluation forms</li> <li>- Certificate issuance template</li> <li>- Copy of certificates</li> <li>- SYIB facilitator report</li> </ul>
<b>Start Your Business and Improve Your Business</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Completed session plan</li> <li>- Training attendance register</li> <li>- Training evaluation forms</li> <li>- Sales pitch attendance register</li> <li>- Certificate issuance template</li> <li>- Copies of certificates</li> <li>- SYIB facilitator report</li> </ul>

Source: Researcher's own compilation, 2019)

The major difference between the three BMT courses is that the Start Your Business and Improve Your Business courses have a presentation component that needs an extra attendance register. In this presentation the aspiring entrepreneurs need to present their business improvements ideas. The programmes that are included in the business management programme will be discussed below.

#### **4.11.1.1 *Generate Your Business Idea***

The Generate Your Business Idea (GYBI) course enables potential entrepreneurs to generate concrete business ideas (NYDA, 2015). The GYBI is a course that assists aspiring entrepreneurs to make choices in the type of businesses they want to pursue by identifying and analysing different business ideas and selecting the most promising one (NYDA & ILO, 2015a:i).

The training course runs over three days and the modules covered in the course are as follows:

- You are an Entrepreneur;
- A market is waiting for you;
- Your own Business Idea List;

- The best Business Idea for You; and
- Your own Business Idea.

#### **4.11.1.2 Start Your Business**

The Start Your Business (SYB) course enables entrepreneurs to formulate a detailed business plan of their newly generated business idea. The training also enhances their skills and knowledge by introducing new market dynamics through a discussion of short cases (NYDA & ILO, 2015b:i). The SYB course takes six days to complete, with one day set aside for a presentation (NYDA, 2015).

The participants have to make a mandatory presentation after the five-day training course. According to the BMT process implementation document (2018c:4), the presentations should take place one or two weeks after the initial training; this is done to give the entrepreneurs time to prepare. On the day of the presentations the participants can attend an optional Sales Pitch Training, where participants are trained on presenting sales pitches.

On the same day, participants have their compulsory presentation sessions. The participants' presentations must cover the following aspects:

- Business Product/ Service;
- Market;
- Staffing/ Organisation/ Management;
- Purchasing/ Costing;
- Financial Planning;
- Capital Required.

The Start Your Business course includes the following modules:

- Assess Your Readiness to a Start a Business
- The Business Plan
- Reinforce Your Business Idea
- The Marketing Plan
- Staff
- Organisation and Management

- Buying for your Business
- Greening Your Business
- Costing Your Goods & Services
- Financial Planning
- Required Start-Up Capital
- Types and Sources of Start-Up Capital
- Starting the Business

#### ***4.11.1.3 Improve Your Business***

The third course in the business management training programme, Improve Your Business (IYB) is aimed at enabling entrepreneurs to develop skills and improve plans for their business (NYDA, 2015). The IYB course is targeted towards already established businesses that want to improve sales, reduce costs and sustain the business (NYDA & ILO, 2015c:i). Therefore, the IYB course is not for aspiring entrepreneurs but for established entrepreneurs who have had their businesses for at least a year.

The IYB course is divided into two courses of five days each. Similarly to the SYB course, the presentations are done one or two weeks after the initial training. The same presentation aspects covered in the SYB course are also covered in the IYB presentations.

The modules included in the course are as follows:

#### **Improve Your Business Course 1**

- Marketing
- Buying and Stock Control
- People and Productivity

#### **Improve Your Business Course 2**

- Costings
- Record Keeping
- Planning for your Business

Upon completion of the BMT programme, aspiring entrepreneurs become eligible for other entrepreneurial funding programmes, such as the Grant, Voucher, Mentorship, Market Linkages and Co-operative Governance programme within the NYDA. The entrepreneurial funding programmes listed above are designed to assist young entrepreneurs with financial and non-financial support (NYDA, 2015).

By making non-financial support programmes like the BMT programme a prerequisite for financial support, the NYDA ensures that the youth that are granted financial support will be able to manage these finances, grow their business and create jobs.

With the creation and sustaining of 4 071 jobs in the 2017/ 2018 financial year through the grant programme, the NYDA have enabled more youth participation in the economy (NYDA, 2018a:31). With the NYDA ensuring the participation of youth in the economy through its programmes, the institution also contributes to the eradication of poverty, which is a main objective of the National Development Plan.

## **4.12 CONCLUSION**

This chapter discussed several pieces of legislation and policies that inform the existence of the NYDA, from the start of the initiative by the government to develop the youth of SA, with the establishment of the National Youth Commission. The government mandated the NYC with the task of developing, coordinating, and implementing the NYP to redress imbalances of the past.

The vital role of the Umsobomvu Youth Fund in assisting the youth of SA to start and grow their businesses and employ other youth in their companies was discussed. The National Youth Commission and the Umsobomvu Youth Fund were the foundation of the NYDA. These institutions were merged to form an agency that will be able to continue the pursuit of developing the youth and enable them to actively participate in mainstream economy.

The National Youth Development Agency Act 54 of 2008 and how it ensures that the NYDA centres its function around the development of youth in SA and uses the National Youth Policy as a mechanism to achieve its objectives were covered.

The alignment of NYDA activities to support the integration and mainstreaming of youth development in all spheres of government was highlighted by the discussion of the African Youth Charter, SA's New Path and the National Development Plan.

This researcher also discussed the NYDA's strategic plan, which highlighted the number of key performance areas together with their supporting programmes. The importance of the economic participation key performance area and its supporting programmes were highlighted in this chapter. The entrepreneurship development policy that explained how programmes should be implemented was discussed. The business management training programme was discussed that aims to ensure that the youth of SA participates in the economy by forming, maintaining and growing their business, and as a result, increasing the rate of employment and decreasing poverty.

## **CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS AND RESULTS**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter reports on the fourth objective of the study as discussed in Section 1.4. In this chapter, the researcher reflects on the data collection that was undertaken during the study. These are personal reflections on the data-collection process and the difficulties faced while collecting data at the NYDA.

This chapter focuses on the analysis of the empirical data collected during the semi-structured interviews with the selected NYDA employees. With the use of a purposive sampling method, participants were selected that included managers, training coordinators and trainers of the BMT programme. The purposive sampling qualified those that were involved in the implementation and management of the BMT programme at the NYDA head office and the City of Tshwane branch.

The aim of the BMT programme is to help the NYDA reach its objective of having more youth participate in the economy. However, after three years of implementation the BMT programme has been unable to decrease youth unemployment, increase the number of successful entrepreneurs, and have more youth participate in economy. According to the NYDA annual report (2019:51), only 6 231 youth were beneficiaries of the EDP services, with only 5 025 jobs created for the 2018/2019 period.

This study has been conducted to find out what challenges are experienced by the NYDA in implementing the BMT programme. This is an important objective as youth unemployment in the first quarter of 2019 for youth aged between 14 and 24 was at 55.2 %, and for the ages 25-34 was at 34.2% (Stats SA, 2019b:10).

### **5.2 EMPIRICAL WORK REPORT**

The data collection resulted in six semi-structured interviews of approximately 60 minutes each. The participants were asked structured questions from the interview schedule. There were no sub-questions, however, the researcher probed on some of the participant's key responses, especially if the participant's answers did not cover certain topics of interest. The interview schedule covered the following areas of interest:

- The BMT programme and how it fits into the NYDA's goals and objectives;
- The main challenges experienced in implementing the BMT programme;
- How those challenges were dealt with;
- The human and physical resources for implementation of the BMT; and
- In terms of the implementation of the BMT, did the participant have input on how it should be implemented.

All the interviews were conducted in English and were tape recorded. The verbatim responses to each question were then transcribed by a transcriber, according to the transcription standards mentioned in Section 3.9.3. The transcripts were then reviewed by the researcher and revised, where necessary. A thematic analysis was then carried out by the researcher using the analysis software Atlas.ti.

There was a total of eight participants that were identified, however, only five participants were interviewed. One of the five participant was interviewed twice during the data collection process resulting in six interviews. The data collected for the study will be presented in two parts: the first part will contain the data that was collected from the NYDA head office in Midrand, and the second part will contain the data collected from the employees at the City of Tshwane branch. The data will be presented in this way to highlight the different experiences of implementing the BMT. The two data sets are from two different hierarchical levels, namely, managers and supervisors, and implementers of the BMT. The data presents their experiences and challenges they experienced in implementing the BMT at the NYDA.

The first section of this chapter discusses the researcher's experience in collecting the data at the NYDA. The second section of the chapter will present the data from the semi-structured interviews, and in the third section the themes that were identified in the data analyses will be discussed.

### **5.3 RESEARCHER'S REFLECTION**

As stated in Section 3.3 of the study, the researcher's epistemological position is that data is contained in the lived experiences of the selected participants at the NYDA who managed and implemented the BMT programme. The researcher decided to

embark on a qualitative research method in which semi-structured interviews were used as the data-collection method.

The semi-structured interview as data-collection method has its advantages and disadvantages, as stated in Section 3.7.2. This data-collection method gave the researcher the ability to obtain in-depth information about the implementation of the BMT programme at the NYDA. The interview process was informal, and the participants were made comfortable and could relay more information. However, the semi-structured interview data-collection method was time-consuming, specifically, in terms of obtaining permission, scheduling, transcribing and analysing. Another disadvantage was that some participants did not want to be recorded, as they felt that some of the information could have been sensitive and could compromise their position at the NYDA.

The researcher had to apply to obtain permission to conduct research at the NYDA. To be granted permission, the researcher was expected to write a letter to the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the NYDA, requesting permission to conduct research regarding the implementation of the BMT programme. The CEO requested the risk team to go through the application and highlight if there was any risk that the NYDA might be exposed to with regards to the research. Thereafter, the Corporate Strategy and Planning unit granted permission to conduct research at the NYDA (Appendix B). Once the permission was granted, the researcher could start collecting data.

The process to obtain the permission to research the implementation of the BMT at the NYDA was riddled with a number of challenges. The challenges experienced by the researcher delayed the data-collection phase of the study. The NYDA only granted the researcher permission to do the research three months after submission of the application letter.

The main reason for the delay was due to the fact that emails sent to the NYDA were not answered. It also proved to be difficult to get hold of the relevant people that could approve the research application. There were no set procedures of approving research applications, as employees within the NYDA were unaware of the approval processes. If and when you do get the contact details of the relevant people, you were referred to another person.

Another challenge was that the NYDA operates with a switchboard and the employees do not have a direct office telephone line. Most of the time when the researcher called to obtain feedback regarding the research application, it was difficult to get hold of the relevant person. Either the switchboard was not answered, or the relevant person would not be at their desk.

The research application was approved only after the researcher went to the NYDA head office to complain about the approval process that was taking too long, and causing the delay of the research study. It was not clear whether the delay was due to reluctance to grant research permission or complacency of the Corporate Strategy and Planning unit personnel.

After the research application was granted and the permission letter was received, the researcher had to schedule the data collection with the NYDA's Economic Development unit and the City of Tshwane branch employees. The permission to conduct research was granted on 25 June 2019, and the first scheduled meeting only occurred on 10 July 2019.

The Economic Development Unit is a unit at the NYDA that oversees the implementation of the BMT programme and other programmes that help the NYDA achieve their Economic Participation strategic objectives. These programmes listed in Table 4.2 include the Grant Programme, NYDA Grant Funding, Mentorship, Voucher Programme and Business Consultancy. Employees in the Economic Development Unit were targeted for participation in the study as they are in charge of the implementation of the BMT programme at the NYDA.

The Economic Development Unit consists of an executive director, senior manager, manager, and an administrative person that are involved in the implementation of the BMT programme at the NYDA head office. During the data-collection period, the executive director, senior manager and the branch manager were not available. One of the trainers at the branch was not a qualified BMT trainer, and as a result, that trainer was not considered as a participant and was excluded from this study.

The first data-collection interview occurred on 10 July 2019 at the NYDA head office, where the BMT manager and the BMT admin employee were interviewed. A follow-up interview was conducted on 17 July 2019 with the BMT manager, since during the

previous interview, the BMT training manuals, EDP policy and BMT implementation process documents were supplied to the researcher.

It must be noted that the BMT manager and the BMT administrative employees were unlike all the other NYDA employees that the researcher interacted with. The commitment and dedication of the BMT manager and BMT admin employee renewed the researcher's faith in conducting research where humans are involved.

The BMT manager and BMT administrative employees' team responded to their emails and were helpful in securing appointments with the personnel at the City of Tshwane branch. As a result, the researcher took a liking to the BMT team at head office. However, this fondness and liking almost clouded the researcher's judgment, and the researcher developed a personal bias towards the data collected at head office. The bias favoured the data collected at the NYDA head office over the data collected at the City of Tshwane branch. The following is quoted from the researcher's field notes:

*"Today I had to recognise my bias as I was interviewing one of the trainers, I felt like defending one of the people I had previously interviewed at head office. My favouritism came from how the head office participant was efficient in replying to emails and honouring my appointments as I had been struggling with people from the NYDA replying to my emails. In a sense I got attached to them. So, when the branch office participant was speaking ill of the head office participants, I felt like defending the employees from head office, however, I had to remind myself that as a data-collection instrument I needed to be objective and not take sides or disregard the data and information that I was getting from the participants at the branch".*

To establish rigour, the researcher kept field notes to ensure confirmability. The field notes then assisted the researcher to record experiences during and after the interviews, and this action would ensure that when data analysis occurred the bias would be acknowledged. By acknowledging personal bias, the researcher can be objective, interpretations and the findings would reflect the views of the participants and not of the researcher.

The reporting and analysis of the findings will be discussed below.

## 5.4 REPORTING AND ANALYSING OF FINDINGS

This section presents the data, with the analysis and interpretation of the data collected through the semi-structured interviews. The first part will focus on the data collected at the NYDA head office from the manager and administrator of the BMT programme. The second part will focus on the data collected from the employees at the NYDA City of Tshwane branch; these employees include the branch coordinator and two trainers of the BMT programme.

The primary intention of the interviews with the employees that were involved with implementing the BMT programme, was to enable the researcher to address the main research question, as well as to achieve the main objective of the study. The findings are reported in the following sequence:

- firstly, the question that was asked is indicated,
- secondly, summarised responses from the participants are reported by the researcher, and
- thirdly, some verbatim responses relating to the question are presented in italics.

### 5.4.1 Report and analysis of findings from data collected through interviews (Managers at NYDA head office)

Four employees at the NYDA head office were identified according to the sampling method indicated in Section 3.8. An executive director, senior manager, manager and an administrative staff member were selected to be interviewed at the NYDA head office. However, the executive director and the senior manager were not available for data collection, due to their busy schedule and illness.

The interviews took place in a meeting room at the NYDA head office; this was done to ensure privacy and confidentiality. The office floor plan at the NYDA is based on an open-plan office design. An open-plan office is an office that has no interior walls and rooms, meaning that employees share one open work space with little to no privacy (Oldham & Brass, 1979:267). The findings of the interviews are reported on below.

#### **Question 1: What is the Business Management Training Programme?**

**Responses:** All of the participants knew what the BMT programme entailed and how many courses are available in the BMT. The participants mentioned that not all the

courses within the BMT are being used. The only courses that are being utilised are the GYBI and SYB. The third and final programme, IYB, is not being utilised, as the IYB requires the business to be more formalised. Most of the business that are supported by the BMT programme are more survivalist, and are not as formalised or have the expected growth that is required by the course.

They both cited that the BMT on its own is not enough, and that it needs to be supplemented with the Life Skills training. The Life skills training programme is used to help the clients to know if they are aspiring entrepreneurs or not. All the participants cited that in the past some of the clients that took part in the BMT programme dropped out midway, as they had found out that they were not aspiring entrepreneurs.

Participant **NYDA 40** said the following regarding the IYB course not being utilised:

*“The challenge we have is that the businesses that we serve are not at your IYB, they are more of your operating expansion, your higher-end business and the young people that we serve right now are not at that end. So we find that we are mostly in the space of Generate Your Business, which is your survivalist kind of businesses or your idea generation and Start Your Business is where we are looking more at your business that has been operating and never formalised or has registered but never started to implement or has been implementing but not really there at the level of IYB”.*

Participant **NYDA 40** said the following regarding the Life Skills training programme before the actual BMT takes place:

*“But since we’ve been implementing the programme since 2017...we found that young people are actually...I wouldn’t say not ready, but they come with a little bit of uncertainty, some little baggage of some sort if I may say so and in the last financial year, we introduced Life Skills. Life skills is one of the product offerings within the education and skills programme. So, what we’ve done is, we’ve taken a module out of the life skills programme, which is a personal development plan as an introductory to our programme. So before we get to actually do the Start Your Business trainings, we make sure that we actually have had the young people go through the life skills training, particularly personal development plan, because I think that kind of is a decider of whether I want to go into business or whether I want to go into employment or what do I want to do with my life and*

*you know, all those uncertainties and whatever, it needs to be spelt out somewhere there.”*

**Question 2: What are the main challenges in implementing the BMT?**

**Responses:** The participants cited a number of challenges that they experience in the implementation of the BMT programme at the NYDA. The major challenge for them was that the branches were not following the implementation processes which are set out for them. These administrative challenges make it difficult for them to report or be able to see the impact of the BMT. The set procedures from head office are disregarded by those who are at the branches, especially when it comes to reporting on the BMT training.

As discussed in Section 4.11.1 and Table 4.3, the set procedures that the trainers need to follow are the administration procedures of the implementation of the BMT. Trainers have to complete documentation before, during and after training sessions take place. These documents include training plans, attendance registers, certificate issuance forms and training reports.

The second major challenge mentioned by the participants is that some of the staff at branches includes trainers that do not have the required equipment, which makes it difficult for the trainers to implement the BMT successfully. The main reason that they highlighted this challenge was that within the NYDA there is a lack of resources and lack of commitment coming from the support units. These support units need to ensure that the branches and trainers have the resources needed for them to be able to implement the BMT.

The third challenge is that the head office staff lack the capacity to ensure the implementation of the BMT, as they are two employees that must compile BMT reports from 21 branches, with a turnaround time of five days. This is also a tedious exercise, as all the reports are processed manually because the NYDA’s electronic system has not been working for several years. Furthermore, some of the branches across SA do not have access to the internet or telephone lines. Therefore, when there are errors in the training reports, the head office staff sometimes cannot get into contact with the branches in question.

Participant **NYDA 50** cited the following about trainers not following the processes:

*“We more have problems from trainers, where you’ll find that they might have said pitching will have to be done two weeks after the training where they will do it on the last day, they will hand out manual on the last day, and you saw the manual...its...you have to have the manual with you from the first day...Or they just don’t give you a manual. You’ll have names on the registers. And we’ll do a follow up. We’ll call a client and say he’s never been to any NYDA training. We also have the signing of the register, you’ll find out, they’ve signed register on the first day for the whole week. We have unclear names...signatures that’s different on the register and on the pitching register, so you might find the trainer signed on behalf, which is not allowed.”*

Participant **NYDA 40** stated the following:

*“So now we did the training, we did the evaluations, facilitator can put the report together then they get their monthly report done by their managers. They give a report to the co-ordinator and then the co-ordinator consolidates the branch report that comes to us. So now I get a report that says this is what we’ve done, this is the challenges, the highlights, whatever, whatever, these are the activities of training that we’ve done for the month right? And I get all the training registers. When I get the training registers, I review them, I know okay this is so and so, this is the training that they did and I cross reference it against their registers, so I know and then, okay, before that, the branch, in their own planning, is supposed to have a training plan but we know the training plan...it doesn’t happen that way.”*

Participant **NYDA 40** cited the following, which was one of the major challenges in the implementation of the BMT:

*“the tools of trade because if I’m a trainer I need to go out there, and I don’t have a laptop, or I don’t have a projector, I don’t have a 3G, or I want to...you know, use videos in my classes and I’m not able to do all of that, so those are the challenges but, look and it’s a challenge that’s been going on for a while... or the fact that I have an outdated laptop that dies on me while I’m about to present. Those are the gaps that we have.”*

*“We don’t have an electronic system right now. We don’t have a database right now that I can tell you lets go back 10 years from now. We have Customer Relations Management systems (CRM) but most branches are not using it. And like, we have a not very good infrastructure set up so they’ll tell you they have connectivity problems and that’s why they cannot use CRM. We can’t actually see the growth of our participants, if you came here for a Generate Your Business (GYB) and then came back for Start Your Business (SYB) maybe a year later, or whatever, we wouldn’t know and we wouldn’t know what the improvement in your...so we take you in as a new client all the time.”*

Participant **NYDA 50** stated the following with regards to some of the branches not having the required equipment:

*“So those are part of the management issues within a branch that has to be resolved. You get there, and you’ll be told, oh the administrator doesn’t have a computer. But now those are infrastructure matters the managers are supposed to attend to by Inter Governmental Relations unit.”*

Participant **NYDA 50** said the following when asked about the capacity of their team in handling all their duties with regards to the implementation of the BMT:

*“It’s only the two of us, I think as the branches are going to increase, us as well we need to increase. We cannot have two people doing work for 52 branches. At the current moment we are coping, it is a lot of work, but we are managing.”*

Participant **NYDA 40** said the following with regards to capacity:

*“We are implementing four products in this space. It’s hectic. Yes, the additional support would be nice. We don’t have a good system running, so we have a three day turnaround time to produce a report on a monthly basis and we get files from 21 districts and right now we don’t cope. The timeline is too short and I cannot raise queries, review a report all at one go... because all of those reports come scanned to us.”*

### **Question 3: How do you deal with these challenges?**

**Responses:** The participants mentioned that there is not much that they can do. They are forced to work with the little resources they have to make sure that the implementation of the BMT continues. The challenges mentioned above have been

escalated to management at the NYDA, however, not much has been done to address these challenges.

Participant **NYDA 50** said the following when asked about the challenge of the trainers not completing the required documents correctly:

*“There’s this thing in NYDA that, you can’t tell me. I know better than you and I’m gonna do it the way I’ve been doing it forever because this is a fairly new register, they do look different. Some of them are still using that old register.”*

Participant **NYDA 40** said the following when asked how they dealt with trainers not having tools of the trade:

*“And if someone tells you, I don’t have a computer that I’m working from right now. What must you do? It still comes back to the branch manager and a coordinator because branch managers have submitted a report directly to Intergovernmental Relations (IGR) on a monthly basis. But sometimes you can throw your toys to get things done, so that your team is able to function. There would be cases where IGR does not know that certain people don’t have laptops, or it might be a case of the coordinator is tired of reporting because somebody at IGR is not doing their job.”*

#### **Question 4: Does the NYDA provide enough human and physical resources to implement the BMT?**

**Responses:** The resources provided for the implementation of the BMT are not enough, especially at the NYDA head office. There are only two people at head office that are responsible for the BMT programme nationally, which makes the reporting of BMT training from 21 branches difficult. As participant **NYDA 50** mentioned in response to question 2, more staff members at head office will be needed for the implementation of the BMT, as the NYDA is planning to add more branches nationally. However, the addition of more branches would lead to policy failure, as there would not be enough capacity to ensure the successful implementation of the BMT programme at the NYDA. The participants also highlighted that other essential units that support the implementation of the BMT are also under-staffed.

Participant **NYDA 40** stated the following about the capacity of the supply chain unit at the NYDA:

*“Also, I think the capacity in the supply chain team is a problem, because you’ll find someone from Cape Town has to be pressed for three names and then maybe they don’t have, I don’t know their turn-around time is. So, then that causes delays, sometimes, in some areas, you’ll find that the trainer actually held the training back because of no catering.”*

**Question 5: How would you improve the implementation of the BMT?**

**Responses:** The participants cited that allocating more resources would have a major impact in the implementation of the BMT. The NYDA will have to ensure that the trainers are supported in terms of getting the equipment and resources needed for the implementation of the BMT. Furthermore, adding more human resources to the economic development unit would help the implementation, as reports will be done in time.

The participants also highlighted that the BMT implementation can be improved by holding people accountable for their actions, and trainers need to follow the correct processes when implementing the BMT programme. Currently the NYDA penalises trainers that do not follow procedures when submitting the required documents by deducting a certain number of trained clients from their targets, which in turn affects their performance appraisal. The trainers need to complete the documents properly and submit their reports in time. Furthermore, trainers need equipment and resources for the implementation of the BMT, and the supporting structures need to play their part in ensuring that the trainers and branches have all the support needed for the successful implementation of the BMT.

Participant **NYDA 40** said the following about having support in the implementation of the BMT:

*“The problem I have is that I don’t think we (NYDA) understand who are delivery vehicles and who our support lines. That is my own view because for me, your SCM (Supply Chain Management), your finance, ICT (Information and Communications Technology) and your communications they are your support. So, if you can’t support me ICT to go at a branch to get a computer, then there’s a problem, I can’t be sitting six weeks because you cannot fix the telephone line.”*

When asked about what would improve the implementation of the BMT programme participant **NYDA 50** mentioned that:

*“It is actually holding people accountable. Providing the basic infrastructure, number one but just basically holding people accountable”*

**Question 6: Do the trainers need experience in business management and entrepreneurship?**

**Responses:** The trainers of the BMT programme need to be experienced in business and entrepreneurship. However, in 2014 before the NYDA went through a restructuring, trainers worked in their respective specialised areas. After the 2015 restructuring at the NYDA, it was decided that trainers should not specialise and should train every programme that is available at the NYDA. As a result, all the training at the NYDA was adapted so that one trainer could offer all of them to clients.

The participants mentioned that after the restructuring, some of the trainers at the NYDA were not qualified to be implementers of the BMT, as they did not have the knowledge of business development or experience in the industry sector, as spelled out in the 2014 NYDA Entrepreneurship Development Policy that was discussed in the previous chapter. Participant **NYDA 40** mentioned the following:

*“In 2015 we went through restructuring. So, a lot of people kind of, were placed and were not exactly matched with the skillset and then what they did is in the past we had a trainer who was only doing skills training. Then we had a trainer who was only doing business training. And then in that 2015 restructuring, they merge these two into one trainer. So, you find that my expertise is actually on the Life Skills job preparedness... and yours Life Skills...your skill set is from a business point of view. We brought them together and we said you must make it happen. I'm not sure if it was the right way to go but it was really difficult. But I think over time what we then did is then all of them went for some sort of Life Skills training, some sort of orientation on the job preparedness programme and some of them who are experienced in training. They were able to pick up the material much easier. And we still have challenges, I'm not going to lie about this, we still have challenges with our team is because not all of them are certified trainers.”*

Participant **NYDA 40**, went on to further say that:

*“So, when we came into this in 2017 then under ILO we brought in training again, skills training, sort of...to kind of bridge the gap. But right now, I think all of them at the same level in terms of I can do both.”*

#### **5.4.2 Reporting and analysis of findings from data collected through interviews (Employees at the City of Tshwane Branch)**

Four employees at the NYDA's City of Tshwane branch were identified, according to the sampling criteria described in Section 3.8. The branch manager, branch coordinator and two trainers were selected. However, the branch manager was not available for data collection due to unforeseen circumstances. The interviews took place in the boardroom and offices to ensure privacy and confidentiality. The findings and analysis of the interviews are discussed below.

##### **Question 1: What is the Business Management Training Programme?**

**Responses:** The participants' responses reflected their extensive knowledge of the BMT programme as a programme that enables clients to be able to generate, start and improve their businesses. The BMT clients are helped using three courses, namely, Generate Your Business Idea, Start Your Business and Improve Your Business. These courses are prerequisites for other NYDA programmes that offer support to clients with financial and non-financial help.

The participants also noted that before the clients take part in the BMT, there is a Life Skills course that is used to assess the readiness of the clients to take part in the BMT. This is done to prevent dropouts throughout the BMT programme.

Participant **NYDA 82** said the following about the Life Skills course being included in the BMT training:

*“We used to have a programme called entrepreneur awareness. So that people know when they get into the space of entrepreneurship what is it that they should expect. Um...but we still do, in our trainings, especially when we do life skills because people who join...who would be part of the SYB programme, there's an assessment too, that we call the selection tree, which is also an ILO tool. And from that tool we then can determine that, okay, this person can go into SYB and then we then subject them to Life Skills training. It can be one module per programme, two modules, three modules, which means...it can be one day, two*

*days or three days. But in between, we also, because we know that they would be coming for SYB we then, we talk about entrepreneurship we still do a presentation what we used to do on a entrepreneurship awareness so that those that are not really, really sure, they would say that, you know, what, this is not for me and they can go out.”*

**Question 2: What are the main challenges in implementing the BMT?**

**Responses:** The participants at the City of Tshwane branch cited several challenges they are experience with the implementation of the BMT programme.

The first challenge that was highlighted was not having the resources needed to implement the BMT. This was also the biggest challenge that the NYDA head office participants highlighted. Tools such as laptops, projectors, CRM system and training rooms were listed as tools needed to implement the BMT. The participants at the branch have cited that they do not have the tools of the trade needed to implement the BMT, yet they are expected to reach their targets and implement the BMT programme. The participants say that they must use their own resources to make sure they implement the BMT and other training courses offered at the NYDA. The branch staff are not compensated or refunded for using their own airtime to make calls, send out text messages and data they have used to read and send out emails. The branch staff also mentioned that the offices that they currently occupy are not conducive for training.

The second challenge that participants indicated was that everything they have escalated to management about the BMT programme does not get addressed or resolved. They have submitted several complaints to head office, but nothing seems to happen. The branch moved offices, and ever since moving to the new location, the branch has had no telephone lines or access to the internet. The branch has been unable to offer some of the services they should offer to the youth. A number of the concerns that the branch has highlighted to head office have not been addressed and they have to wait a long time to get a response from the head office with regards to the challenges that they face.

The third challenge that the participants mentioned was that there is too much admin that goes with implementing the BMT. There are a great number of forms that need to be completed. The participants mentioned that in order to cope, they have a cycle

where they do training for a week and spend another week doing admin for the training that had taken place in the previous weeks. Some of the participants mentioned that they were not trained on the different documents that are needed for the implementation of the BMT programme. Some participants mentioned that head office is only interested in compliance to the administration, and not the impact of the BMT.

Participant **NYDA 82** said the following about the training rooms:

*“Our training rooms do not have a white board to write on, the space is not enough, the projector is only a meter away from the wall, so the projection is small. The projector needs to be mounted on the wall and we need to have audio. You need speakers in a properly setup training room.”*

Participant **NYDA 31** said the following when asked about their tools of the trade:

*“I have been using the same Laptop for 10 years, I can’t even use the projector because my laptop switches off when I connect it. We moved to the new office from the old office December last year, we don’t even have phones or internet access today.”*

Participant **NYDA 62** mentioned the following about procuring the BMT manuals:

*“Last year we had issues of running out of BMT manuals because SCM was unable to get a supplier to print the manuals. This year they are still dealing with the same problems they still do not have a supplier who will be able to print these manuals for us. How can we offer training without manuals?”*

Participant **NYDA 62** noted the following with regards to support from management:

*“I have been sending emails and I have cc’d the executive director, the senior manager and the manager about my issues and till today only the manager has replied to it. The executive director and the senior manager still have not replied, and I still have that challenge today. No amount of escalation helps.”*

Participant **NYDA 31** said the following when asked about writing reports:

*“I don’t do those reports. There is a part of the report where you speak about your challenges, I wrote about my challenges for three months and they did nothing with it. That does not make sense. Why should I write a report because*

*you won't even read it or do anything about it? They have not come back to me about my challenges, so I won't write reports."*

Participant **NYDA 82** mentioned the following, when asked about the support from head office:

*"We had an internet café at the old branch, young people could sit here, search for information because the premise, the initial premise of a branch was access to information. So, it was a channel for young people...a platform for young people to access information, physical information and digital information. So that's why we had an Internet café. I'm not quite sure whether in this new concept if it's going to happen or not, and if it is at the rate in which it is going on, I don't know when it's going to happen."*

Participant **NYDA 82** said the following regarding the admin for the BMT programme:

*"You know I could have trained many people I could have trained many people, I could have done many things. I must do admin too. Even when I am in the class, you must check everybody's name, you must call them like cows. If it is online, they can actually sign themselves in online."*

Participant **NYDA 62** mentioned the following regarding the admin for BMT:

*"We were not trained on all these forms that they have, we were just told to make sure that they were completed correctly. But how do you make sure they are completed correctly when you have not been trained on how they should be?"*

Participant **NYDA 31** mentioned the following about the admin process for the BMT:

*"I only use these documents when there is an audit coming, we are having one in September I still have to go and make sure...but I always do that. Even when audit comes they only check the numbers and not the impact that's the problem. We deal with the process plan more than the content."*

### **Question 3: How do you deal with these challenges?**

**Responses:** The participants cited that they do not have a choice but to use their own resources to deal with the challenges they are experiencing. However, there are some challenges that are beyond their control, and they cannot deal with some of the challenges listed above in response to Question 2.

Some of the participants use their own discretion in implementing the BMT to deal with some of the challenges they experience and to implement the BMT the best way they see fit. Some of the participants use their discretion in the way they deliver the BMT programme and do not deliver the programme as it should be according to the manual.

Participant **NYDA 31** mentioned the following:

*“Even with our catering, we have a challenge with the catering. We just say...even if the catering’s in the office, we have a monthly...I work on the six weeks. I don’t work on the monthly schedule. I work on the six week schedule. For me now it works, because I used to work on four weeks. But because of those challenges with the CRM, I use six weeks”*

*“We use WhatsApp and coordinate these trainings, I don’t mind this since I am passionate about what I am doing. I always go the extra mile to get things done. I always use my other phone to send a SMS to say we are having a class next week and so forth.”*

Participant **NYDA 82** mentioned the following solution for one of his challenges:

*“I had 20...no...30 people come into...30 yeah, 30 people coming into my class. On the last day there were 10 people. I’ve been asking, what could have gone wrong. Given this participant that knows science, not commerce. I realise, it was the language and I started then. That’s one. Number two, it’s presentation skills. So, then I started to cover two things on the first day. When do we do the manual...because we start with Life Skills.”*

*“So, language also plays a very important role in the space of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship training. So, I also compliment or supplement the information here with, because some of the terms they are also not familiar with. This book has been made very simple for them to understand. But as we go along they...they need more information than what they get.”*

**Question 4: Does the NYDA provide enough human and physical resources to implement the BMT?**

**Responses:** The participants cited that the resources provided for the implementation of the BMT are not enough. The various units at the NYDA do not have the needed

human resources and that affects the implementation of the BMT and other services at the NYDA.

Participant **NYDA 82** said the following when asked about the human resources at the NYDA:

*“So, I think it's a...some departments, I think we overlook them by not having sufficient staff. Our IT staff compliment if you go to IT at head office its about 6 people, responsible for more than 21 branches. So, when that person goes to Free State, they don't know how to split themselves, when they go somewhere.”*

Participant **NYDA 62** mentioned the following with regards to the staff complement at the City of Tshwane branch:

*“We have three trainers in the branch but only two trainers are qualified to train clients in the BMT programme. We only have two people to reach a target of 1000 clients at the branch. The ILO requires that you pass your training to qualify as a BMT trainer. The third trainer was working at head office and has no training experience, they then transferred them to the branch as a trainer, we sent them for training and they did not qualify to be a BMT trainer.”*

#### **Question 5: Is implementing the International Labour Organisation’s (ILO) BMT beneficial to SA youth?**

**Response:** The participants are not all in agreement with regards to the BMT being beneficial to the youth of SA. Some say that the BMT programme is beneficial, as the training occurs in a sequence that is able to channel the youth in an entrepreneurial path. The programme starts with the GIYB, where the youth generate business ideas, then it then moves to the second programme where the youth start their business and draw up business plans, and in the end the programme assists the youth to improve their business.

Responses from some of the participants indicated that the BMT programme is not suitable for the SA environment, and that the programme should be adapted to cater for the SA environment. Some of the participants expressed that some of the requirements of the BMT discriminate against some of the youth in SA, therefore, only catering to a select few.

Participant **NYDA 82** stated the following about the BMT being beneficial to the youth in SA:

*“So, um, there is knowledge that we have, which we compliment the training with. For an example, you can then compile a financial statement, but compiling a financial statement is not enough. It’s important for you to do financial statement analysis, you know. So, there’s various tools trainers bring into the class, just to expand the knowledge, in fact it is to compliment what the ILO has done, but it lays a very smooth foundation”*

Participant **NYDA 31** mentioned the following when asked if the ILO’s BMT was suitable for SA:

*“It does not give you to say, you need to understand your target market and how you communicate, how they will receive your product or your service...the selection tree was supposed to be that. When you say to them, design it in such a way that they want to follow ILO. ILO is not for us, and I always encourage NYDA to say develop your own material.”*

*“At some point there needs to be an objective, what is the objective? Objective is not to have the right participant, the objective is to have the impact to say that person when they came here they were blank and now I have developed them and they now have business idea.”*

*“Have you ever seen an outside person believe in you as somebody and the person you work with does not believe in you, It’s a challenge and with this ILO, believe me, it’s going fail to a point where clients will start to complain it means I need to change the approach and use these examples of the activities because they are not saying anything to our market, they are not saying anything.”*

*“80% of all people who get grants they’re from my classes, because I always go the extra mile when I do things. You know why? I use 40% of this material that we use, 60% I source because if you look at the ILO whatever, they use blanket approach when it comes to South African environment.”*

#### **Question 6: How would you improve the implementation of the BMT?**

**Responses:** Some of the participants spoke about improving the BMT programme in a number of ways. However, they agreed that the duration of the courses should be

revised and that not all people could attend the six days it takes for the SYB and IYB sessions. Some of the participants indicated that it would be better if the NYDA created its own BMT programme and not make use of the current BMT created by the ILO.

Participant **NYDA 62** mentioned the following:

*“With the SYB and IYB course which are six days long and have a pitching session on the last day. The pitching should happen during the course, it should happen on the fifth day. The people we train do not have money to travel here for six days. Sometimes we have to ask for money from colleagues so that some of the students can be able to go home after training.”*

**Question 8: Do the trainers need experience in business management and entrepreneurship?**

**Response:** Most of the trainers at the City of Tshwane branch are qualified to implement the BMT programme. The participants all agreed that trainers of the BMT need to be qualified and have some background in entrepreneurship, as only using the BMT training manual is not enough to successfully implement the programme.

Participant **NYDA 62** mentioned the following:

*“BMT trainers need to have experience in business management and they need to have a business background. We are supposed to have three trainers here at the branch but the third one did not qualify to facilitate the BMT because he did not have the business management experience that is needed.”*

Participant **NYDA 31** mentioned the following about qualifications:

*“I think practise what you preach, not exactly business, but have in depth into business. They must have knowledge because at some point... do you know that I specialise in business management. But do you know that sometimes I conduct research on other industries? Like the other day, I was focusing on industrial analysis on transportation to say the gaps that we have the Bolts, the Ubers, the what-whats, the impact they have... I was doing it because I want knowledge because in class you will find that someone has that sort of idea at some point.”*

*“You have to go the extra mile, don’t rely on this, there’s no way, if possible, don’t give any one person the job if they are not qualified in business*

*management or entrepreneurship so that even the standard can improve you can't rely only on your ILO trainer qualification to implement this programme. I'm currently doing a Bachelor's in Business Administration."*

## 5.5 THEMATIC ANALYSIS

Thematic analysis is used to identify important patterns in the data. These patterns are then organised into themes that are used to address the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006:79; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017:3353). Thematic analysis allows the researcher to organise the large amount of data into manageable themes. These themes can then be used to address the research questions posed in the study.

A total number of two main themes and seven sub-themes were identified during the detailed thematic analysis process (Braun & Clarke, 2006:87). The identified themes are related to identifying the challenges that affect the implementation of the BMT programme at the NYDA. The main themes identified are poor planning of the implementation process and implementation support.

This section presents the data, with an analysis and interpretation of the data collected through the open-ended interviews. The section will focus on presenting the thematic analysis of both data sets from the NYDA head office and City of Tshwane branch. The sub-themes identified are over-ambitious policy content, absence of penalties and incentives, over-reliance on compliance, organisational support, poor resource planning, change management and culture of complacency.

Table 5.1 below presents the findings of the thematic analysis.

**Table 5.1: Findings of thematic analysis of the NYDA head office**

<p><b>Theme 1: Poor Planning of Implementation Process</b></p> <p>Sub-theme 1.1: Over-ambitious policy content</p> <p>Sub-theme 1.2: Absence of penalties and incentives</p> <p>Sub-theme 1.3: Over-reliance on compliance</p>	<p><b>Challenges in implementing the Business Management Training Programme</b></p>	<p><b>Theme 2: Implementation Support</b></p> <p>Sub-theme 2.1: Organisational support</p> <p>Sub-theme 2.2: Poor resource planning</p> <p>Sub-theme 2.3: Change management</p> <p>Sub-theme 2.4: Culture of complacency</p>
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The themes as listed in the table above were identified using the coding process described in Section 3.9.4 of the study. The relevant themes that emerged from the semi-structured interviews that were conducted at the NYDA head office and City of Tshwane branch were identified through the coding process. The themes are discussed below.

### **5.5.1 Theme 1: Poor planning of implementation process**

The theme of poor planning of the implementation process looks at the process of the implementation of the BMT programme at the NYDA. The implementation processes entail all the processes and activities that are carried out by the NYDA in implementing the BMT programme. Participants indicated the challenges they experienced with the processes of implementing the BMT programme. The implementation process of the BMT presented various challenges for both the employees at the head office and the employees at the City of Tshwane branch.

#### ***5.5.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Over-ambitious policy content***

The targets set for the BMT by the NYDA seem to be rather ambitious, especially with the limited resources that the NYDA has to implement the programme. The staff members at the NYDA indicated that there were limited resources available in the implementation of the BMT programme. Both staff members at the head office and the City of Tshwane branch mentioned that the challenges they had was that they had to manage implementing the BMT with limited resources. They indicated that more branches across the country will be added, and that the targets for the number of clients they should train in the BMT keep increasing, however, the resources at the NYDA are not increased.

The implementation of the BMT is highly affected by the limited resources that are available at the NYDA, and the high targets set for the BMT programme also add its own challenges to the implementation of the programme. There are high targets that are set for the BMT, even with the limited resources that are available at the NYDA. The NYDA seems to set targets that are too high and that place additional strain on the employees that implement the BMT.

Employees at the NYDA have to use the limited resources available to them to reach the targets set for the success of the BMT programme. The staff indicated that the

NYDA is increasing the targets and the number of branches, however, they are not increasing the resources that are needed to service the new branches and the new targets.

#### **5.5.1.2 Sub-theme 1.2: Absence of penalties and incentives**

The head office staff cited that there is an absence of penalties for employees at the NYDA who do not follow the prescribed processes. The trainers that do not follow the documentation process of the BMT are not held accountable, nor are they penalised for not following the set documentation procedures. The only penalties that have been initiated was that the number of clients trained were deducted from the trainer's targets. However, as indicated in the data, the trainers did not really care about targets, rather some of them were concerned about the impact they were making.

The absence of penalties for employees at the NYDA has created implementation challenges that made it difficult for the head office employees to capture the information required for them to complete their work. The employees at the head office need to collect training reports from the employees at branch level to collate a report for their seniors.

These training reports are documents that report on the number of training sessions that have been completed, how many trainees completed the training, and which training courses were conducted by the employees at the branches. The challenge that was highlighted by the head office participants was that the branch employees are not completing these reports correctly, nor were they submitting these reports on time.

The training reports need to be submitted on time and completed correctly for the head office employees to be able to collate and submit their monthly reports. However, with their limited human resources it becomes a challenge for two employees to collate a report consisting of submissions from 21 branches, especially if the training reports are incomplete and late.

The City of Tshwane branch employees mentioned that the way that the BMT is supposed to be implemented creates a challenge, as there are too many documents that are required by head office. There are too many activities that focus on the administration of the implementation of the BMT, and they complained that the admin activities take away time from the actual implementation of the BMT.

The City of Tshwane branch seemed to complete these reports for audit purposes, as they had an audit team that was coming for a site visit in September 2019 (shortly after the data-collection period of the present study). This also highlighted that the head office employees are insisting on their documents being completed correctly as the information is used for audit purposes.

There were certain limitations that were mentioned by the City of Tshwane participants. They mentioned that the processes of implementing the BMT discriminated against some of the SA youth. They mentioned that the programme does not allow them to cater to the youth who are disabled, those who cannot write, and those who do not have a grade 12 qualification. As a result, the trainers cannot train those youth that also deserve to be part of the target market of the NYDA.

#### ***5.5.1.3 Sub-theme 1.3: Over-reliance on compliance***

The participants highlighted that the processes at the NYDA focus on chasing targets and do not focus on making an impact. The manner in which the BMT is evaluated and monitored shows that the NYDA is only concerned about the number of clients they have trained, and if they have spent the budgeted funds for the year. The participants indicated that the targets of clients they have to train increases every year, regardless of the challenges that they face in implementing the BMT.

The documents needed to implement the BMT are used for audit purposes and not to improve the implementation of the BMT or assess the impact of the programme. The NYDA seems to be only concerned about the number of people who have attended the training and not how the training has impacted the clients.

The intent of the NYDA being target-orientated creates challenges for all staff members. Staff members at the branch must constantly be conscious of the targets that are set for them and they also have to come up with solutions for achieving those targets with limited resources. To this end, some trainers even admitted to submitting falsified attendance registers with clients who did not attend the BMT training. This affects the successful implementation of the BMT programme, as the implementers are only interested in chasing targets and not the impact they should be making.

Another challenge that is created by being target-oriented is that staff members at the NYDA head office are constantly looking for mistakes in the training reports submitted by the staff members from the branches. The constant scrutiny of how training reports

have been completed, creates an environment of mistrust and one that is only concerned about how many clients attended the training and not the impact the programme has had in increasing the number of youths participating in the economy.

Head office mainly focuses on how many clients the trainers are training, and how they are capturing their reports, and not on the challenges the trainers are facing in implementing the BMT programme. Some trainers have even resorted to several unethical tactics to reach their targets. For example, some trainers let the clients sign for all the training days on the first day of training, which creates the false impression that the clients attended the whole week, when there is no record of how many days of training they actually attended. This pressure to perform has the trainers under pressure to only focus on the targets rather than the implementation of the BMT.

However, the findings also indicated that there are some trainers who do not care about the targets set for them by head office. These trainers care more about the impact that they are making on the youth of SA. These trainers have trained clients that did not meet the minimum requirements for the BMT, as some trainers believed that the BMT's minimum requirements discriminated against the youth of SA.

## **5.5.2 Theme 2: Implementation support**

The theme of implementation support is made up of the issues that were mentioned by the participants with regards to the factors that are needed to support the implementation of the BMT at the NYDA. This section discusses how the support systems within the NYDA affect the implementation of the BMT. Implementation support includes those aspects and factors that support the implementation of a policy or programme. These support systems include, but are not limited to other units within the NYDA.

### ***5.5.2.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Absence of policy integration and coordination within NYDA***

All the participants agreed that the level of support from the NYDA for the implementation of the BMT programme is not sufficient. The NYDA portrays itself as an organisation that ensures that the development of the youth in SA is prioritised. However, the findings indicate that the NYDA does not have their systems, resources and structures integrated and coordinated to ensure the successful implementation of the BMT programme. There are a number of business units in the NYDA that create

a number of challenges in the implementation of the BMT programme, and if these units are misaligned, the implementation of the BMT will not be successful.

These challenges hinder the successful implementation of the BMT programme. They affect the implementation of the BMT because without the support of the SCM, IT, IGR and the HR units in the NYDA, the implementation of the BMT will not be successful.

These units need to coordinate to create an environment or support system that will enable the successful implementation of the BMT programme. In order for the implementers to have access to equipment that is needed to implement the BMT, the SCM as well as the IT department need to have processes that work and that will not delay the purchase or supply of these support systems and resources.

The human resource unit is also seen as an implementation support structure that has to ensure that the head office and the branches have qualified staff members to ensure the successful implementation of the BMT programme. The HR unit has to ensure that there are sufficient staff members per unit and that the units are able to support the implementation of the BMT programme.

In all the interviews, the participants expressed that they had escalated the challenges that they were experiencing to their managers, however, nothing was done to address the challenges that they were experiencing. There are a number of times that the participants highlighted that they have tried to escalate their issue to senior managers, and the senior managers did not respond to their communication. The findings indicate that the NYDA is experiencing challenges and cannot support their staff members that are implementing the BMT programme.

The lack of organisational commitment in addressing these challenges at the NYDA has created an environment where the participants find themselves in situations where they have to face these challenges or give up on implementing the BMT. All the participants indicated that they had to continue implementing the BMT and reach their targets without the support of the NYDA.

#### **5.5.2.2 Sub-theme 2.3: Poor resource planning**

The participants have indicated that they have been implementing the BMT without the required equipment needed for implementation. The participants indicated that they did not have the proper resources to implement the BMT programme. This

highlights poor resource planning from the NYDA. The NYDA has not been prioritising their employees' needs for these essential resources, and nothing has been done to help them. Not having the tools of the trade has affected the participants in the implementation of the BMT.

The participants expected that as employees of the NYDA, they would be furnished with the necessary tools and equipment to allow them to carry out their duties. Furthermore, the participants highlighted that the NYDA still expected them to reach targets and carry out their duties without the necessary tools and equipment.

#### **5.5.2.3 Sub-theme 2.4: Change management**

The participants mentioned that the NYDA went through a restructuring in 2015 where some positions were merged and some were deemed redundant. The participants indicated that employees in the NYDA were moved to positions which they were not qualified for and they were later given training. However, not all the employees were able adjust to these new positions that required extensive experience and specific qualifications.

Employees were moved to positions that they were not qualified for and that created challenges in that the implementation of programmes at the NYDA was affected. Even with the training that was offered after the restructuring, some of the employees were not comfortable in their positions and could not fully implement these programmes.

The findings indicate that in 2015, the NYDA did not follow the correct measures or processes of restructuring and change management. This had a significant effect on the NYDA's training capability, as trainers were assigned to positions they were not fully qualified for.

#### **5.5.2.4 Sub-theme 2.5: Culture of complacency**

Participants expressed that there was a culture of complacency at the NYDA. They indicated that it was normal for employees at the NYDA not to reply to their emails, and for employees not to be held accountable for not carrying out their duties. The participants expressed that complaining about their challenges was not effective, as nothing happened, and that there was nothing they could do about it.

The participants showed a lack of desire to correct their situation, and they just accepted their current situation as part of life at the NYDA. They do not bother to

escalate new challenges, as they know that nothing will be done about them. Therefore, they regard their situation as being normal and they just try their best in implementing the BMT programme. The culture of complacency affects the implementation of the BMT, as implementers will sometimes not bother to carry out some essential tasks necessary for the implementation of the BMT.

## **5.6 CONCLUSION**

The chapter reflected on the researcher's experience of collecting data through semi-structured interviews and highlighted the researcher's possible bias that developed during the data collection. This chapter reported on the findings and presented the thematic analysis of the data collected from the semi-structured interviews with employees at the NYDA head office and employees from the City of Tshwane branch. The participants discussed their experiences and challenges in implementing the BMT programme at the NYDA. The two main themes and seven sub-themes were discussed. Participants reflected on the poor planning of the implementation process of the BMT and the lack of implementation support they received from the NYDA. In the next chapter entrepreneurship training programmes will be discussed.

## **CHAPTER 6:**

# **ENTREPRENEURSHIP TRAINING PROGRAMMES**

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter reported on the findings and themes that emanated from the data collected at the NYDA head office and City of Tshwane branch. The thematic analysis highlighted the challenges that employees are facing at the NYDA in implementing the BMT programme. The previous chapter answered one of the research questions of the study, specifically the fourth research question: “What are the challenges that the NYDA faces in implementing the BMT?”

Due to the low number of participants in the study, there is a possibility that data saturation was not reached. As mentioned in chapter 5 section 5.2, that eight participants were identified, however, only five were interviewed. This chapter serves as a triangulation method used to further understand the data that was collected and presented in the previous chapter. The chapter will review the literature concerning entrepreneurship programmes. In this chapter, the concept of entrepreneurship education and training will be defined, and the design and architecture of entrepreneurship education and training will be discussed.

### **6.2 ENTREPRENEURSHIP TRAINING PROGRAMMES**

Entrepreneurship is a driver for economic development through job creation, innovation and poverty alleviation (Brixiova, 2010:440; Chimucheka, 2014:403; Frese, Gielnik & Mensmann, 2016:196; Parton, Robb & Valerio, 2014:129). Promoting entrepreneurship will create employment for a great number of South Africans, reduce crime and alleviate poverty (Jwara & Hoque, 2018:2). According to Van Der Westhuizen (2019:232), entrepreneurship is critically important as it makes a contribution towards economic growth, job creation, combats poverty, redresses past imbalances, and reduces crime and other social ills.

However, according to Brixiova (2010:440), high-income countries tend to produce opportunity entrepreneurs, while the low-income countries produce necessity entrepreneurs. Necessity entrepreneurs are those that start businesses because there

is no other form of income available to them, while opportunity entrepreneurs start businesses to take advantage of an opportunity (Block & Sandner, 2009:119).

Opportunity entrepreneurs have a significant positive effect on the development of a country, while necessity entrepreneurs hardly have any effect on development (Brixiova, 2010:440). Block and Wagner (2010:155) mention that the major differences between opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs are found in human capital and profitable opportunities. Opportunity entrepreneurs take advantage of more profitable opportunities and tend to employ more people than necessity entrepreneurs. One of the NYDA participants mentioned that most of the entrepreneurs they train in the BMT programme are necessity entrepreneurs.

Entrepreneurial training programmes are used to promote responsibility, entrepreneurial thinking, change attitudes and motivate individuals (Jwara & Hoque, 2018:4). These programmes equip people with the ability to identify possible business opportunities, and supply them with the skills to start and grow their own businesses, therefore, reducing poverty, unemployment and addressing social ills. However, the success of entrepreneurial training programmes depend on the conducive economic, political and social conditions (Echtner, 1995:128; Ndala & Pelsler, 2019:7). For entrepreneurs to have successful businesses, they require an environment that will be able to accommodate start-up and growing businesses. Entrepreneurial training programmes require a conducive environment that will benefit new and existing businesses.

Before reporting on the training of entrepreneurs one must differentiate between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship training. According to Martinez, Levie, Kelley, Sæmundsson and Schøtt (2010:11), entrepreneurship education builds on the knowledge of what an entrepreneur is and what entrepreneurship is about, whereas, entrepreneurship training has to do with building knowledge with the purpose of starting a business. Essentially, the major difference is that entrepreneurship education teaches people about entrepreneurs and not necessarily about how to become an entrepreneur.

Booth-Jones (2012:21) feels that as different as the approaches might be, both entrepreneur training and education need to be combined. Students or aspiring entrepreneurs need to be encouraged about entrepreneurship through training and

education. It would not be enough to just teach people on how to become an entrepreneur if they do not understand what an entrepreneur is. Entrepreneurship education is key in creating a culture of entrepreneurship that can help resolve the inequality in SA (Van Der Westhuizen, 2019:233).

Martinez *et al.* (2010:11) continue to say that entrepreneurship training is more specific in its purpose, as the people that take part in it are those aiming to start businesses, whereas, the people that take part in entrepreneurship education have a rather vague purpose. Parton *et al.* (2014:34) state that entrepreneurship training usually assists with the building of knowledge and skills so that potential and current entrepreneurs can start or grow their businesses.

Booth-Jones (2012:20) argues that the lessons in entrepreneurial education are still important, however, entrepreneurial training is what is needed to ensure the skills of running and maintaining a business. Entrepreneurship education and training has usually been aimed at small medium and micro enterprises owners and managers. However, recently it has been offered to a wider range of people, ranging from those without any educational qualifications to those with doctoral qualifications (Van Der Westhuizen, 2019:233).

Entrepreneurship education and training is a combination of education and formal training that provides individuals with the mindset and skills to participate in entrepreneurship activities, and it supports both potential and practicing entrepreneurs at any educational level (Parton *et al.*, 2014:1).

Dana (2001:412) states that when it comes to entrepreneurial education and training, attention needs to be paid to the different mindsets in developing economies. Entrepreneurial training and education is usually a problem in developing economies (Dana, 2001:412), as training will have to take place in the language the programme is in and most of the time you find that the developing countries' population does not fully understand or know the said language. It is important to adapt the training programme to accommodate the local language, culture and level of literacy. Attention must be paid to the environment and there needs to be an awareness of the existing cultures and historical experiences.

Echtner (1995:122) states that to be an entrepreneur one needs to be innovative and have risk-taking attributes and that these two attributes should be used as pre-

requisites to taking part in entrepreneurial education and training. Echtner goes on to mention that entrepreneurial education and training should be used to teach the business management tools to those people that have the entrepreneurial traits of being risk-takers and innovative. Pre-selecting those who can take part in the entrepreneurial education and training will ensure successful entrepreneurial endeavours (Echtner, 1995:122).

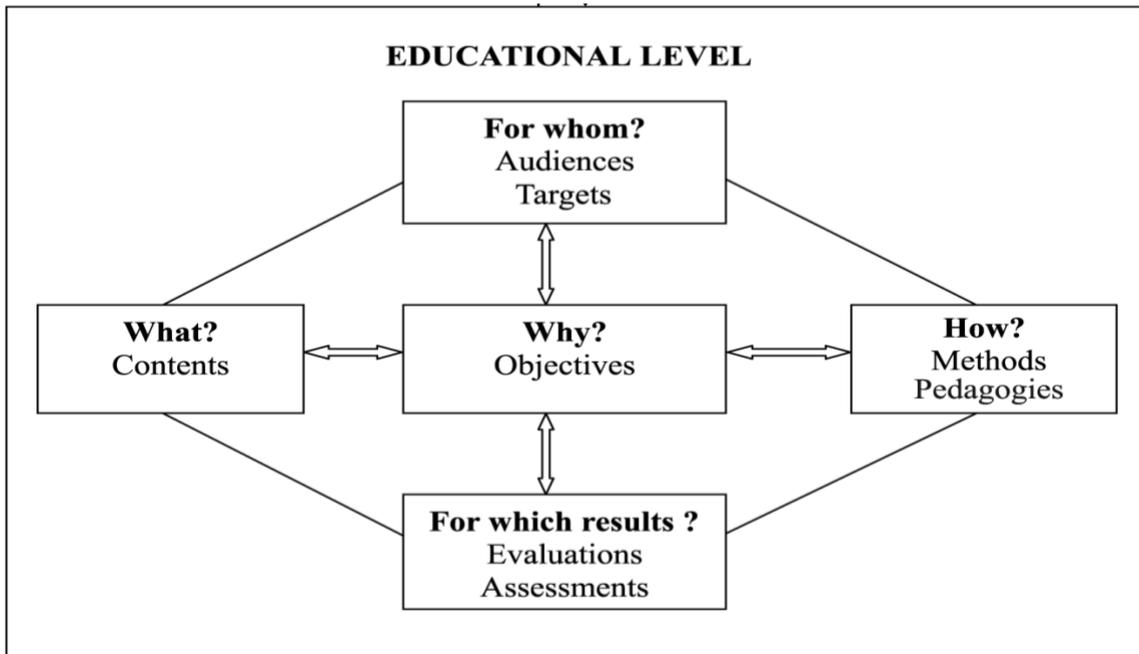
The NYDA uses the SIYB selection tree to pre-select the people that will take part in the BMT programme. As explained in Section 4.11.1, the selection tree is used to measure the literacy and educational level of a person who has applied to be trained on the BMT programme.

In SA accessibility is still limited in entrepreneurship training and education. Educators and law-makers have to consider ways of broadening the access to entrepreneurship training and education, so that it is accessible beyond universities and schools (Martínez *et al.*, 2010:12). Booth-Jones (2012:2) mentions that the poor education and training in SA present a massive problem. At the moment, the BMT is only accessible to those people who have a certain level of education and who can read and write in English. Therefore, the BMT is not accessible to all the youth in SA, limiting the reach of the NYDA with regards to having more youth participate in the economy.

### **6.3 DESIGN AND ARCHITECTURE FRAMEWORK FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION**

According to Fayolle and Gailly (2008:575), entrepreneurial training is directed towards different objectives, audiences, contents and methods. They continued to state that an entrepreneurship programme should answer five questions, namely, why, for whom, for which results, what and how.

Figure 5.1 illustrates the design and architecture framework for entrepreneurship education and training. These five questions will be discussed below.



**Figure 6.1: Design and architecture framework for entrepreneurship education and training**

Source: Fayolle & Gailly, 2008

### 6.3.1 Objectives of entrepreneurship education and training

According to Fayolle and Gailly (2008:575), training objectives have to be outlined when designing a programme, because socially the objectives of the entrepreneurial training programme should be to alleviate poverty by equipping participants with the necessary skills to identify opportunities, start, grow and maintain a business. The objectives of entrepreneurial education should be socially driven and have objectives that have the socio-economic spirit of value creation (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008:576).

The objectives of entrepreneurship education and training should be focused around the development of knowledge, skills, techniques and the transfer of knowledge (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008:576). Government entities, private institutions and universities should ensure that their entrepreneurship programmes ensure that the students have the skills, techniques and knowledge to capitalise on the opportunities that they identify. The knowledge from these programmes should ensure that the students can face every challenge and turn these opportunities into successful businesses.

Entrepreneurs are needed to help combat the unemployment in SA, therefore, people need to be trained and equipped with entrepreneurial capabilities (Van Der Westhuizen, 2019:238). Entrepreneurship programmes should use a range of different methods of teaching that ensure that the entrepreneurial capabilities are taught and

result in successful entrepreneurs. The objective of the entrepreneurship programme should be explicit in creating successful entrepreneurs.

Entrepreneurship programmes need to have supporting services to ensure that the start-ups are successful for those people that were trained (Van Der Westhuizen, 2019:239). Even though there has been a correlation between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intent, it does not always result in new businesses being started because the intent diminishes sometime after training (Van Der Westhuizen, 2019:240). Programme designers need to ensure that there is support after training to ensure that business start-ups materialise and that entrepreneurial intent does not diminish.

In designing the entrepreneurship programme, designers need to also align the after-training support, such as funding, mentorship and more advanced training. The BMT has been spilt into three stages, as explained in Section 4.11.1. After attending stage one of the training the students can then advance to more advanced training. It would be important for the organisation to ensure that seamless support is offered to the aspiring entrepreneurs after they complete all the required training. However, as discovered in the chapter on data collection, the NYDA has had challenges in offering their after-training support, such as the funding and mentorship programmes.

Morris and Kuratko (2014:4) state that organisations should examine their commitment to entrepreneurship. This will not only determine the scope of the programme but also the sustainability of the entrepreneurship programme. The commitment of the NYDA must be examined in terms of how committed they are to their objective of enhancing the participation of young people in the economy through improved job creation, provision for business support and entrepreneurship participation and skills development programmes. As highlighted in Section 5.4, the NYDA will need to align their systems, resources and structures to ensure the successful implementation of the BMT.

According to Majurin (2014:2), the Start and Improve Your Business (SIYB) “aims at increasing the viability of micro, small and medium enterprise through management principles suitable for the environment of developing countries”. As stated in Section 4.11.1 of the study, the aim of the NYDA’s Entrepreneurship Development Policy was to provide business skill training and the development of entrepreneurial

competences. The NYDA's objectives are clear, as stated in Sections 4.9 and 4.11, namely, to create jobs for the youth of SA through opening their own businesses and being able to create jobs for other youth. The objective of the NYDA and the SIYB are similar in the quest to increase the number of entrepreneurs.

### **6.3.2 Target audience for entrepreneurship training**

The client of an entrepreneurship policy is an individual that has intentions of becoming an entrepreneur (Lundstrom & Stevenson, 2006:52). The identification of a target audience should emanate from the objectives of the programme. If the objectives are to create new successful entrepreneurs, then the focus should be on those who do not have businesses but have the intention of starting one.

According to Parton, Robb and Valerio (2014:123), entrepreneurship programmes target different audiences. Their targets vary from students in secondary education, higher education students, potential and practicing entrepreneurs. The BMT excludes secondary education students, as the participants need to have already finished grade twelve before they can be admitted to the programme. The first and second modules of the BMT, namely, the GYB and SYB, target those who are inspiring entrepreneurs, while the IYB mainly targets those who are already practicing entrepreneurs.

According to Echtner (1995:127), entrepreneurial programmes should screen its participants carefully and ensure that it selects participants who are prone to taking risks and that are innovative in nature. The screening of participants ensures that the programmes produce entrepreneurs who will open up successful businesses. Echtner (1995:127) further states that even with the entrepreneurial training and education, participants that do not have the entrepreneurial traits mentioned above, will most likely not become entrepreneurs. Morris and Kuratko (2014:3) state that even though everyone has the potential, most will lack the capabilities, skills, attitudes and knowledge that define entrepreneurial competence.

However, some entrepreneurs or people are innovative, risk-takers, self-confident and motivated, but they are challenged by a lack of education (Jwara & Hoque, 2018:3; Oyelola, Igwe, Ajiboshin *et al.*, 2014:152). The question could be posed whether education should be a requirement for admission to the BMT, rather than selecting an individual with the typical attributes of an entrepreneur. According to Herrington and

Kew (2017:43), the current education system in SA has failed to equip the youth with skills that will allow them to compete in the rapidly changing economy.

Elliot (2019:2) states that poverty will have an impact on the motivation for people to become entrepreneurs. This means that people will try to become entrepreneurs because of their current situation and not because they want to be entrepreneurs. Therefore, the people that sign up for entrepreneurship programmes might not have the education or personality traits needed to become entrepreneurs. The motive or motivation of wanting to become an entrepreneur should be understood by the designer of the programme. In understanding the target audience, the designer can either exclude these people or add programmes that would help them become entrepreneurs by instilling the needed education and traits. This would tie into the objectives of the programme, and whether the programme seeks to reduce poverty or create sustainable entrepreneurs.

The most unequal societies in the world are found in SA (Elliott, 2019:10). South Africa is in a unique position with regards to their target audience for entrepreneurship education. There is high inequality and poverty across the country, and excluding people who want to try to be an entrepreneur so that they can escape poverty will both be an injustice and a benefit of some sorts. It is an injustice in denying them the opportunity to escape poverty, while at the same time being a benefit, as resources are not wasted on those who do not have the necessary traits to become entrepreneurs.

A study done by Uctu and Essop (2019) looked at a Swiss South Africa business development training programme, where SA engineers were given the opportunity to be taught about tech-entrepreneurship. This study was done because although there were a lot of innovative engineers, their products or innovations did not reach the market because they did not have the entrepreneurial know-how. In the study it was found that 300 participants signed up in phase one of the training programme, and in phase two the number of participants dropped to about 20 to 30 participants. By phase three of the training programme, there were only 10 participants left. The reason for the huge dropout rate in phase two was due to lack of interest in entrepreneurship.

The Swiss South Africa Business Development training programme would have had a higher success rate if they had screened their participants before starting with phase

one. This would have decreased the dropout rate in phase two of the training programme.

Clarifying the target group enables the designer of the programme to align the needs of the participants, their particular context and the programme objectives (Parton *et al.*, 2014:126). Entrepreneurship programme designers should align their objectives and the target audience's experience with entrepreneurship with the particular context. Designers should look at every target and consider their background, context, objectives and the social needs. This would allow the designer to select the services that will be needed by the participant after taking part in the programme. For example, the participant might need mentorship, financing or more lessons in budgeting and marketing, or a whole programme that is designed for people with low literacy levels.

Assessing the target audience's education level allows the designer to include or exclude certain modules or lessons in a programme. Accounting and financial literacy are common focuses in most entrepreneurship programmes, however, that would depend on the target group (Parton *et al.*, 2014:126). Entrepreneurship programmes should target various audiences with different needs and abilities, and this should include those with low literacy levels.

Elliot (2019:2) states that education is an enabler in entrepreneurship. However, in SA, entrepreneurship is more prominent among students that have attended traditionally advantaged universities and not the historically disadvantaged universities. Entrepreneurial education and training has mainly been restricted to tertiary institutions in SA, and it was only introduced in schools in the year 2000. However, not all schools offer the subject nor do they have teachers with entrepreneurial experience (Van Der Westhuizen, 2019:235). Some youth have not been exposed to entrepreneurship education and training, therefore, their exposure should be considered when detailing out the target market for entrepreneurship education in SA.

However, Mamabolo, Kerrin and Kele (2017:3) argue that if the skills needed for entrepreneurship are identified and applied, the feasibility of entrepreneurship will increase, regardless of the current weak education system. Van Der Westhuizen (2019:233) states that there has been an important debate in literature on whether entrepreneurship is teachable, and the author argued that entrepreneurship is

teachable. Entrepreneurial attitudes can be instilled, and people have behaviours, qualities and abilities that can be developed through learning (Van Der Westhuizen, 2019:233).

According to Matsheke (2015:19), entrepreneurship programmes should be targeted at different categories of people who have different education levels and training needs. Mamabolo *et al.* (2017:2) agree that entrepreneurs would benefit from the type of entrepreneurial training that is aligned to their developmental stage and sector activity.

Majurin (2014:24) states that start-ups, micro and small business that operate in the informal economy are the main clientele of the SIYB training package. This statement confirms that the BMT programme by ILO is not suitable for SA, especially, if the NYDA aims to have the youth participate in the economy and be able to create employment. The objective of the programme should be to create opportunist entrepreneurs, and not necessity entrepreneurs, as necessity entrepreneurs hardly employ anyone and there is hardly any growth. With opportunist entrepreneurs, there is the ability to expand and employ more people, therefore, achieving the objectives set out in the NYDA Act, NYDA strategic plan and policies.

When designing an entrepreneurship programme it is important to consider factors that can affect the target audience in participating in the training. Programmes need to be designed with the target audience in mind. The design should consider their background, education, exposure to entrepreneurship, literacy level, language preference and entrepreneurial intent. Entrepreneurship programmes should be designed at different educational levels, so that everyone can have access to the programme.

### **6.3.3 Evaluation criteria for an entrepreneurial programme**

Fayolle and Gailly (2008:577) state that the identification of the evaluation criteria for an entrepreneurial programme is as important as all the other aspects in designing a programme. The selection of the evaluation criteria should be carried out while the programme is being designed. The selection of the evaluation criteria for a programme that covers a vast amount of objectives, audiences and methods can pose many challenges (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008:577).

The selection of the evaluation criteria should not focus on all the objectives, audiences and methods it addresses, but should focus on the types of skills, tools and abilities the programme is trying to instil in its selected target audience. There are a number of indicators that can be used to measure entrepreneurship training, namely, entrepreneurial ability, skill, intention, attitude, satisfaction and motivation (Liu, Kulturel-Konak & Konak, 2020:4705).

Nasr and Boujelbene (2014:713) suggest that researchers should evaluate the following indicators when evaluating an entrepreneurial programme:

- Reactions of the participants at the end of the programme;
- To what extent learning took place;
- To what extent the training resulted in entrepreneurial behaviour; and
- The amount of benefit the training has had on the individual or business.

Liu *et al.* (2020) and Nasr and Boujelbene's (2014) suggestions are applicable to specific objectives of the said programme, meaning that the evaluation indicators of two programmes will not be the same. Some programmes will measure different indicators, and for a programme to evaluate different indicators from those listed above does not make the evaluation invalid.

However, most entrepreneurial programmes aim to increase the number of entrepreneurs, transfer entrepreneurial skills and attitudes, and grow existing businesses. Liu *et al.* (2020:4705) mention that in comparing the effectiveness of entrepreneurship training there is no uniform framework that is used. The evaluation indicators should be aligned with the objectives of the entrepreneurial programme that are specific to the context of the environment.

As discovered in Chapter 5 of the study, the NYDA is not evaluating any of the indicators listed above. As some of the participants indicated, the head office is only concerned about how many people attended training and not if the skills have been transferred to the learners. By not evaluating the indicators that are aligned with the programme objectives, the NYDA will not know if the programme is indeed effective in creating more entrepreneurs.

#### **6.3.4 Content of an entrepreneurship programme**

The contents of an entrepreneurship programme should enable an inspiring entrepreneur to understand why entrepreneurs are motivated to pursue business, know what to do, and how to take an idea from conception to operation, and with who and when to grow their business and network (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008:578).

According to Ramchander (2019:2), what makes an entrepreneur is the following: innovation, opportunity recognition, inclination for risk-taking and persistence. Awogbenle and Iwuamadi (2010:834) state that entrepreneurs should have the skills to take initiative, seek and identify opportunities, develop a budget, project resource needs, and be able to communicate effectively. Mamabolo *et al.* (2017:2) list the following as skills needed for entrepreneurship: financial management, human resource management, start-up, social and interpersonal, leadership, personality, marketing, technical and business management skills.

The content of an entrepreneurial programme should encourage entrepreneurial intent, followed by the skills to carry out that intent. After taking part in the programme, entrepreneurs should be able to channel their entrepreneurial intent towards the opportunities they identify in their environment, and should be able to use their new-found skills to start a successful business. According to Manyaka-Boshielo (2019:2), entrepreneurial training helps students identify solutions to the problems that surround them, and this gives them the ability to exploit those opportunities.

According to Booth-Jones (2012:iii), there should be a strong emphasis on the practical and theoretical content of entrepreneurial training. Some authors have stressed that for entrepreneurial education and training to work there needs to be a link between the training programme and the localising of the training content. Dana (2001:412) states that to be able to train people, you first need to understand their cultural values, historical experience and mindset.

An entrepreneurship programme should have core components, such as teaching students how to carry out a feasibility analysis, how to design a business plan and compile a financial proposal. However, programmes should also add relevant material that is unique to the particular environment and cultural setting (Echtner, 1995:126; Fayolle & Gailly, 2008:575; Matsheke, 2015:20; Parton *et al.*, 2014:124). Wilkinson (2017:24) states that adapting entrepreneurial programmes ensures that the

programme stays relevant to the situation of the country, and it can easily help industries that need development and growth.

The content of the programme should address some of the social needs that are present in the environment, and allow for learning on how to entrepreneurially approach these social needs. Furthermore, government institutions, private institutions and universities should ensure that their content for these entrepreneurship programmes address the social needs of SA. However, by only concentrating on the local or environmental content, the entrepreneur's global view may be limited which may also impact on their international expansions.

According to Majurin (2014:22), "high quality materials which respond to the needs of clients are one of the success factors of SIYB. Maintaining this quality is thus critical for the continued expansion and sustainability of the programme". However, the learning materials used by the NYDA have not been adapted to the SA environment, and this may limit the expansion and the sustainability of the BMT.

Furthermore, Majurin (2014:23) states that there are market assessments that the ILO undertakes that give an indication on the types of adaptations that should be carried out. In the case of the materials that have been used in SA by the NYDA for the past several years, there is no indication that there have been any adaptations to suit the local environment. According to literature, it is in the best interest of the programme to use content that has been localised.

The design of the entrepreneurship programmes has to accommodate its audience with regards to their exposure to entrepreneurship (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008:577). In SA the youth are made up of different people with various backgrounds, education levels and exposure to entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship education and training should be designed for all these various backgrounds, and there should be programmes developed for those in university, those with limited education, survivalist entrepreneurs and opportunist entrepreneurs.

The problem with the current content in entrepreneurship programmes is that the focus is on aspiring managers and functional managers, and not on the needs of aspiring entrepreneurs (Matsheke, 2015:14). Entrepreneurship programme content needs to be focused on both the existing and the aspiring entrepreneurs. Focusing on the existing entrepreneurs will have a great effect on those entrepreneurs who are starting

up their businesses because they would not qualify to be trained with the skills that they would need to start, maintain and grow a business.

### **6.3.5 Methods and pedagogies of an entrepreneurship programme**

Entrepreneurship can be encouraged or taught through education and training, however, it is important to establish what is to be taught and how it must be taught (Booth-Jones, 2012:14). Van Der Westhuizen (2019:240) states that instilling entrepreneurship intent is largely influenced by the course content and teaching methods used. There are a number of ways that entrepreneurship can be taught and there is no universally accepted approach. The choice will largely depend on the objectives, contents, and constraints in the institutional context (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008:579).

Echtner (1995:127) states that entrepreneurial programmes should use case studies, experimental exercises and real-life projects instead of the traditional lecture style format. Ramchander (2019:3) advocates for the use of guest speakers, experimental learning, field trips, visiting actual ventures and actual venture creation as ways of teaching entrepreneurship.

Training programmes become more beneficial to a trainee when the programme is administered over a longer period of time (Booth-Jones, 2012:iii). The BMT programmes at the NYDA are offered over an average of three to six days. Booth-Jones indicates that entrepreneurial programmes would be more beneficial if they are administered over a longer period, where the trainee can benefit from the long exposure to entrepreneurial training.

Fayolle and Gailly (2008:579) state that after setting the objectives and identifying the constraints of the entrepreneurial programme, the right teaching methods can be selected. Using traditional teaching methods in entrepreneurship may not have the desired results. Facilitators need to consider the use of new approaches in teaching entrepreneurship (Matsheke, 2015:22; Mukata, Ladzani & Visser, 2018:84).

According to Booth-Jones (2012:30), the facilitator plays a critical role in ensuring that learning is taking place during the programme. The facilitator needs to be experienced and they should be assisted by practicing entrepreneurs in order for the programme to be successful (Echtner, 1995:128). Entrepreneurs need to creatively think and work

to find possible solutions, and teachers need to facilitate this process of entrepreneurial thinking (Chiu, 2013:46).

As much attention is paid to the programme and the entrepreneur, the same attention needs to be paid to the role of the facilitator (Booth-Jones, 2012:31). Only experienced and practical consultants who have been in business themselves should offer practical advice to entrepreneurs; this ensures that the skills that are transferred are acceptable (Herrington & Kew, 2017:44). If positions for trainers are filled by people who are not qualified, adequately skilled and who do not have entrepreneurial experience, poor results should be expected (Van der Spuy, 2019:12).

The data collected reflected that the NYDA often used trainers who do not have the needed entrepreneurial experience required for training entrepreneurs. It was highlighted that in order to become a trainer for the BMT all a trainer had to do was attend training done by a master trainer for a duration of 10 to 14 days (Majurin, 2014:13). The data also highlighted that some of the trainers at the NYDA still use the old lecture style of training, and that they do not use new teaching methods that work for entrepreneurship. There were some of the trainers that used guest speakers, however, this was not a standard practice across the NYDA.

The teaching methods are of great importance in entrepreneurship education and training. Without using teaching methods that work, the students will not be able to obtain the necessary skills needed for entrepreneurship. The teaching methods used to train entrepreneurs need to ensure that the content benefits the student and that the objectives are reached. Regardless of how well the programme is designed, if the teaching methods are not beneficial to the students, then the entrepreneurial programme will not have the expected outcome.

## **6.4 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has discussed the literature related to entrepreneurship programmes. The chapter also highlighted the design and architecture of programmes that aim to train entrepreneurs. In this chapter, the differences between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship training were discussed. It was found that as much as these two concepts differ from each other, they are both important in the quest to create more entrepreneurs.

The design and architecture of entrepreneurship education and training were discussed. In designing an entrepreneurship programme a few questions need to be answered. These questions relate to the objectives, target audience, evaluation assessments, content, methods and pedagogies. These questions are important in the design of the entrepreneurship programme, and answering these five questions allows the designer to ensure that successful entrepreneurs are trained. The objectives of the entrepreneurship programme predetermine what is evaluated, what is taught, how it is taught, and to whom. However, the objectives should not be regarded as the most important aspect of entrepreneurship design. Each of the aspects is equally important and equally affects the design of the programme.

## **CHAPTER 7: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS**

### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter the concept of an entrepreneurship training programme was discussed. The chapter was used to triangulate the data that was collected and presented in Chapter 5 of the study. In this chapter the last research objective, of recommending and concluding the study will be considered.

After the thematic analysis of the data and findings, recommendations based on the findings can be made. This chapter will present the recommendations with regards to the challenges that the NYDA face in implementing the BMT. This chapter will provide the synopsis of previous chapters and provide for findings and recommendations. The final part of this chapter will provide the summary and make concluding remarks about the conceptualisation of the BMT at the NYDA.

### **7.2 ALIGNMENT OF CHAPTERS WITH RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The sections below provide a synopsis of the chapters in the study and shows how they are aligned with the research objectives of the study. This is to provide an overview of the study as presented in the different chapters.

#### **7.2.1 Summary of Chapter 1**

Chapter 1 provided a brief overview and general introduction to the study. In the first chapter, the background and rationale of the study were discussed. The chapter provided an overview of how the research study was carried out in order to answer the research questions and achieve the listed research objectives.

Chapter 1 highlighted the high rates of unemployment among the youth and how it has affected the youth of SA. It highlighted the necessity and the importance of the study by looking into the conceptualisation of the BMT. The NYDA is one of the custodians of youth development and implements one of the programmes intended to help alleviate the high rate of youth employment in SA. However, the NYDA remains challenged in reaching its objectives of assisting more youth to participate in the

economy, and even with the BMT that has been in implementation since 2014, youth unemployment rates are still high.

Chapter 1 listed the research objectives of the study. The research objectives were derived from the research questions listed in Chapter 1. The most important of the objectives was to discover what challenges the NYDA faces in implementing the BMT, and to also to provide recommendations in order to improve the implementation of the BMT.

The researcher briefly discussed the chosen research methodology for the research study and this was further discussed in Chapter 3. In conclusion, the researcher outlined the chapter layout detailing how every research question will be addressed by the researcher.

### **7.2.2 Research Objective 1**

*To determine what has been published on public policy conceptualisation and design, implementation and evaluation (Chapter 2)*

Chapter 2 of the study considered what literature has been published on public policy conceptualisation and design, implementation and evaluation. This chapter is related to the first research objective of the study: To review literature that has been published on policy implementation. This research objective resulted from the fourth research question: What has been published on public policy conceptualisation and design, implementation and evaluation?

Published literature on public policy formulation and policy implementation was reviewed in this chapter. This chapter highlighted the different policy models, policy decision-making models and the different stages of public policy formulation.

Chapter 2 of the study reflected that there are a number of factors that can contribute to implementation issues. That it is not only the implementers that can influence the implementation of a policy, but factors that are in the policy formulation stages before the implementation stage. This chapter indicated the importance of the processes in public policy formulation that occur before policy implementation. This included processes, such as the role players in agenda setting, root cause analysis, policy design and policy decision-making.

Root cause analysis is one of the most important process in policy formulation as it uncovers what the root cause of the policy problem is. This allows the policy-maker to design a policy that will address the actual problem, and not the symptoms created by the problem. As much as the root cause analysis process is important in policy formulation, the policy design process is also paramount.

This chapter provided the necessary grounding for this study, as it provided the researcher with the theoretical framework to review the implementation of the Business Management Training Programme at the NYDA. The focus was on policy implementation literature as it allowed the researcher to answer the main research question of the study.

The main research question was to find out what challenges are faced by the NYDA in implementing the BMT training. The policy implementation literature allowed the researcher to be able to analyse the implementation of the BMT. This chapter focused on the approaches to policy implementation, and reflected on how the top-down and bottom-up approaches could influence the implementation of policy.

### **7.2.3 Research Objective 2**

*To describe the research design and methodology for the conceptualisation and implementation of a training intervention such as the Business Management Training programme (Chapter 3)*

Chapter 3 of this study addressed the second research question, “How should the conceptualisation and implementation of the Business Management Training programme be researched”?

This chapter discussed the best way to investigate the conceptualisation and implementation of the BMT at the NYDA. In this chapter, the researcher explored the different research paradigms, research methodologies, research approaches and data-collection methods. This was done to answer the second research question and the second research objective of selecting the best way to research the implementation of the BMT at the NYDA.

In this chapter, the researcher chose the best method to research the implementation of the BMT. The different research paradigms, including the qualitative and

quantitative methodologies were explored. This exercise allowed the researcher to choose the most suitable research design and data-collection method for the study.

In Chapter 3, reasons were presented in the choice of research design and data-collection methods chosen by the researcher. The researcher saw fit to select the qualitative methodology, a case study approach using semi-structured interviews as a data-collection method to effectively understand the experience of implementing the BMT at the NYDA.

#### **7.2.4 Research Objective 3**

*To outline the legislative framework of the National Youth Development Agency (Chapter 4)*

Chapter 4 of the study presented the legal framework of the selected case study: the National Youth Development Youth Agency. This chapter addressed the third research objective: To outline the legislative framework of the National Youth Development Agency, which was derived from the second research question: What is the nature of the legislative framework of the National Youth Development Agency?

In this chapter, the history of the NYDA, several pieces of legislation, policies and guidelines that govern the NYDA were discussed. The chapter discussed how the National Youth Development Agency Act 54 of 2008 aligns with the National Youth Policy 2015-2020 and the national development plan. This chapter highlighted how the activities, operations, competencies and capabilities align with the objectives of the National Youth Policy 2015-2020.

Furthermore, the chapter focused on the improved and sustainable livelihood opportunities for young people in SA, which is one of the strategic objectives of the NYDA. This strategic objective provides services that enable the youth in SA to become employable, educated and entrepreneurial.

The key performance area of Economic Participation was discussed in this chapter. The Economic Participation key performance area has several key performance indicators that feed into it. However, the study only focused on the Business Management Training Programme, were the SA youth are enabled to be entrepreneurial through courses that ensure that they have the appropriate skills, values, attitudes and knowledge.

#### **7.2.5 Research Objective 4:**

*To identify the challenges that the NYDA faces in implementing the Business Management Training Programme (Chapter 5)*

Chapter 5 of the study presented the data that was collected to answer the fourth research question: What challenges does the NYDA face in implementing the Business Management Training Programme? This chapter addressed the fourth research objective: To identify the challenges that the NYDA faces in implementing the Business Management Training Programme.

In this chapter, the data that was collected from the semi-structured interviews with the NYDA employees from the head office and the City of Tshwane branch was presented.

The data was presented separately to reflect the different challenges that the employees at the NYDA head office and the employees at the City of Tshwane branch experience in implementing the BMT programme. The following participants were interviewed: the policy manager, policy administrative staff, BMT trainers and branch coordinator. The semi-structured interviews were recorded and transcribed. The transcribed interviews were coded and grouped into themes. The data was then thematically analysed, after which two main themes and seven sub-themes were identified.

The themes highlighted the challenges that are faced by the NYDA. The main challenges that were highlighted are ambitious policy content affecting the implementation process, and lack of coordination that affects the implementation support.

#### **7.2.6 Research Objective 5**

*To outline the generic attributes and challenges of business training interventions (Chapter 6)*

Chapter 6 of the study presented the concept of an entrepreneurship training programme. This chapter addressed the fifth research question of the study: What are the generic attributes and challenges of business training interventions?

In Chapter 6, the concept of an entrepreneurship training programme was discussed. The difference between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurship training was defined and it was found that both these concepts, when applied together, enhance the training of aspiring entrepreneurs.

The importance of entrepreneurship programmes in creating new successful entrepreneurs was highlighted. The chapter highlighted the traits and skills that are needed by aspiring entrepreneurs. Aspects of designing an entrepreneurship programme were discussed, where four important entrepreneurship programme design questions were posed. The four questions represent essential steps in the design of an entrepreneurship programme. The questions covered aspects such as programme objectives, target audience, evaluation assessments, content and methods of teaching.

#### **7.2.7 Research Objective 6**

*To determine what the NYDA should do to improve the implementation of the BMT programme (Chapter 7)*

Chapter 7 of the study addresses the sixth research question: How can the implementation of the BMT be improved? The fourth study objective derives from the fourth research objective: To determine what the NYDA should do to improve the implementation of the BMT programme.

Based on the findings presented in Chapter 5, the recommendations and conclusions are discussed in this chapter.

### **7.3 CHALLENGES IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE BUSINESS MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAMME**

A policy is a product of several processes and decisions that are undertaken to solve a problem that has been identified by stakeholders. These processes and decisions affect the implementation and the outcome of the policy. Challenges exist at every stage of the policy process, and not just at the implementation stage. However, when the challenges occur during the formulation of the policy, they affect the implementation of the policy.

When looking at the challenges experienced in the implementation of a policy, every stage of the policy formulation process needs to be examined. This should be done to ensure that the challenges being experienced in the implementation stage do not emanate from the previous stages of the policy process. Challenges that emanate from the agenda setting, policy formulation and policy adoption require different solutions. These are solutions that require either the redefining of the policy problem, reformulating the policy and/ or choosing an alternative policy option.

Those tasked with implementing policy are the first ones to experience challenges in the process of converting policy goals and objectives into tangible services. The exercise of successfully implementing a policy requires several processes and resources.

The challenges in implementing the BMT programme at the NYDA will be discussed first, followed by a discussion of the core challenges faced by implementers at the NYDA.

### **7.3.1 Implementation of the BMT programme**

When examining the implementation challenges of a policy, one must always first consider the policy that is being implemented. This should be done to ensure that there are no issues in the policy that would cause any implementation problems. The Business Management Training programme was developed by the International Labour Organisation for emerging economies. Howlett and Ramesh (1995:138)(2003:163) defined policy decision-making as a process where appointed officials select the best policy option from a small number of alternatives. These policy alternatives are best formulated in-house, rather than borrowed from somewhere else. However, the BMT was created by the ILO and not by the NYDA, and this might create some implementation challenges.

The choosing of a pre-formulated programme (BMT) shows that the NYDA did not follow the entire policy process to ensure that the policy alternative they adopted would address the problem of unemployment and the lack of economic participation of the youth in SA. As highlighted in Chapter 6 of the study, entrepreneurship programmes need to be localised to have a greater impact.

According to the 2016-2017 NYDA annual report, the activities of the NYDA include, but are not limited to initiating, implementing, facilitating and coordinating youth development programmes. However, with regards to the BMT programme, the NYDA did not initiate or formulate the programme but had an agreement with the ILO to implement their BMT programme. The ILO had initially developed the BMT programme for emerging economies and did not formulate the BMT specifically SA, meaning that the BMT does not address the specific challenges that the youth face in SA.

Anderson (2000:109) defined policy formulation as a process of formulating appropriate solutions that solve policy problems. Applicable policy solutions are needed for specific policy issues or problems. This ensures that the policy addresses the root cause of the policy problem and eventually eliminates it. However, the findings highlighted that the implementation of the ILO's BMT does not fully address the main objective of assisting the youth to become active participants in the economy.

The findings indicated that the BMT was lacking in some respects in terms of ensuring that the SA youth participate in the economy. Not only should the BMT ensure that successful entrepreneurs are trained but it should also ensure that it is sustainable and adaptable to the local environment. It was highlighted in the findings Section 5.4.1 that the businesses that are started by the youth at the NYDA are survivalist and not opportunist businesses. According Choto, Tengeh and Iwu (2014:95), a survivalist business is a business that operates on a small scale and generates income to sustain a livelihood below the poverty line.

What SA needs are entrepreneurs that will open opportunist business and not survivalist ones. In Section 6.3, the design and architecture frame of entrepreneurship education was discussed. The BMT's objective (why) needs to be revisited, the programme needs to be designed in a manner that will ensure that it trains innovative entrepreneurs that will start thriving businesses that operate in the economy. As a result of only survivalist businesses being created, not many people are being employed, nor do the businesses initially create growth.

The problems experienced with the implementation of the BMT do not only come from the way the BMT was designed, but also from the operational side of the implementation at the NYDA. As reported earlier, most of the implementation issues experienced at the NYDA have to do with the limited resources available in the

implementation of the BMT. Not having enough resources negatively impacts policy implementation. Without the correct amount of resources available, the implementation of policy is limited. The data indicated that most of the employees could not carry out their implementation tasks as there were not enough staff, qualified personnel, tools of the trade and financial resources.

### **7.3.2 NYDA challenges**

Cloete and De Coning (2005:141) stated that the success of policy depends on how the institutions interact with the policy. The institution should have processes and an environment that ensures the successful implementation of the policy. The findings indicated that there are some policy implementation processes at the NYDA that hinder the implementation of the BMT programme.

Earlier in this dissertation, in Section 4.11.1, it was revealed that the planning of the BMT occurs in a planning, design and development department, while the implementation occurs under the inter-governmental relations department. This causes a number of problems, as indicated by the participants. For example, challenges have been experienced due to specific instructions from head office and lack of resources. The planning, design and development department needs to coordinate their efforts with inter-governmental relations department, which sometimes may take time. As a result, there are a number of implementation problems, not only operationally, but also from holding trainers accountable, as reporting lines are not aligned with the relevant department. Such challenges emphasise the need for the NYDA to apply integrated and sustainable policy practices when conceptualising and designing the new BMT.

With the NYDA being one of the custodians of youth development and with the high rate of youth unemployment in SA, these unfortunate conditions might put the NYDA under pressure to obtain high targets. The targets set for the BMT are ambitious, and with its limited resources, the NYDA cannot successfully implement the BMT. The challenge of a lack resources has been discussed above, and it is clear that the NYDA does not have enough resources to reach its set targets.

## **7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

This section considers the findings from the research study with regards to the implementation of the BMT. Recommendations will be considered in this section.

### **7.4.1 Design of the BMT**

As highlighted in the data and in Chapter 6 of the study, the current design of the BMT is not aligned with the SA environment, and the NYDA will have to design a new or amended BMT programme that will be suitable for the SA environment.

The NYDA will have to consider the six questions presented by Fayolle and Gailly (2008) and create a new programme. In this new programme the NYDA will have to relook at the objectives of the programme and ensure that they address SA's current needs with regards to the high youth unemployment, quality of education and access to entrepreneurial training and education.

Table 7.1 shows the suggested design and architecture framework for the BMT.

**Table 7.1: Suggested design and architecture framework for BMT**

Criteria	Suggestions
<b>Why? Objectives</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Policy goals and objectives should be toned down. These are currently over-ambitious.</li> <li>- Policy goals and objectives should be focused on local challenges and not generic, developing state challenges as contained in the BMT of the ILO.</li> <li>- The designers of the BMT need to be innovative and entrepreneurial, and first collect data on the youth in SA and their tendencies in terms of entrepreneurship.</li> </ul>
<b>For Whom? Target Audience</b>	<p>The BMT has a specific target audience, however, it should include the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Potential and practicing entrepreneurs;</li> <li>- Youth in Secondary schools;</li> <li>- Entrepreneurs with low literacy levels.</li> </ul> <p>The NYDA should also develop a more detailed participant screening process that will enable them to train those who want to be entrepreneurs.</p>
<b>For Which results? Evaluation</b>	<p>The data has revealed that the NYDA is only concerned about the number of youth trained in the BMT programme, a compliance orientation. However, the NYDA should pursue an outcome orientation and evaluate the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Transfer of entrepreneurial skills and attitudes;</li> <li>- Number of successful entrepreneurs; and</li> <li>- Growth of existing businesses.</li> </ul> <p>The NYDA should continually evaluate the impact and outcome and allow feedback to ensure that the BMT is redesigned and improved.</p>
<b>What? Content</b>	<p>The BMT's content is not based on the SA environment. The training content of entrepreneurial education and training should be localised to the SA environment and be aligned to the literacy level of the clients. Localised entrepreneurship content enables the programmes to react to local industry needs. The content should contain the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Innovation;</li> </ul>

Criteria	Suggestions
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Feasibility analysis;</li> <li>- Business plan;</li> <li>- Financial proposal;</li> <li>- Financial Management;</li> <li>- Start-up management</li> <li>- Marketing management;</li> <li>- Business Management.</li> </ul>
<p><b>How? Methods and pedagogies</b></p>	<p>The teaching methods that are used in the implementation of the BMT have been limited to a lecture-style method. To further ensure that entrepreneurial skills are transferred, different teaching methods should be used and facilitated by qualified personnel. The following methods should be used:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Case studies;</li> <li>- Experimental learning;</li> <li>- Real-life projects;</li> <li>- Actual venture creation.</li> </ul> <p>The designers of the BMT should be innovative and research new ways that the BMT can be taught and include these methods in their designs.</p>

Source: Researcher's own compilation, 2020

Using the table above, the NYDA should design a new BMT programme that will be able to address the unique needs of SA. The NYDA should ensure that whatever programme that they are implementing should be a programme that addresses the needs of youth entrepreneurs in the country. After designing a new BMT programme the NYDA should ensure that as an institution, it should be able to successfully implement the programme.

#### **7.4.2 Implementation of the BMT**

To ensure successful implementation, there are a number of conditions and factors that are required. However, the institutional environment is the most important factor that should be considered. Within the institutional environment, several processes enable the successful implementation of a policy. Without the right support structures in the institution, the success of implementation will be limited.

The institutional environment is important in the success of implementation. The NYDA should integrate their policies, coordinate and align their systems. By aligning systems and policies, the NYDA ensures that the implementation of policy occurs without any challenges. The BMT had a number of challenges regarding the coordination of certain systems and policies. There are certain departments that are supposed to support the planning, design and development, and the inter-governmental relations department in implementing the BMT at the NYDA. The NYDA should reduce their ambitious objectives and targets and align them with the resources that they currently have. The less ambitious the objectives and targets are, the less pressure is put on the supporting departments that already have limited resources.

The procurement processes at the NYDA need to coordinate with the implementation of the BMT. With less ambitious objectives, the procurement department should be able to keep up with the requests from trainers when they require assistance with equipment, stationery and catering services.

The NYDA will need to evaluate their systems and processes that are necessary to support the implementation of the BMT. Coordination of policies, departments, systems and processes allows for the coordinated implementation of the BMT. The result of the coordination of systems and processes will ensure that trainers get the support needed to implement the BMT.

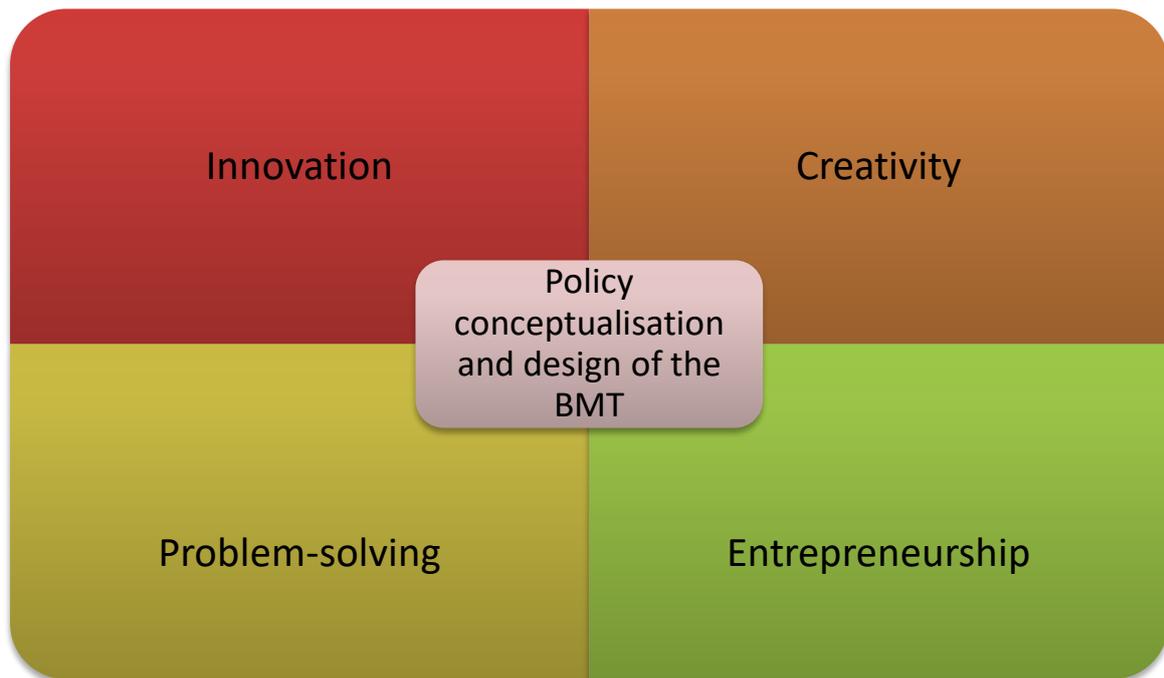
The re-commitment by leaders and an established penalty and incentive system at the NYDA will set a precedence of a conducive work environment where everyone works together to achieve the objectives of not only the objectives of the BMT, but the objectives of the NYDA. The commitment of the implementers will be restored, as the frustrations and challenges of implementing the BMT will be reduced. The policy designer should include incentives and penalties for those who achieve or do not achieve the BMT objectives.

The successful implementation of the BMT requires a conducive institutional environment and qualified trainers who can train aspiring entrepreneurs. The trainers at the NYDA need to be experienced entrepreneurs. The trainers at the NYDA need to be experienced and be involved in entrepreneurship as this ensures the transfer of knowledge on how to handle the different challenges in starting and running a business.

To become a trainer of the ILO's BMT a person only has to go for 10 to 14 days' training. After the 14 days they are regarded as a qualified trainer for the BMT. However, more employees who are experienced and have been exposed to entrepreneurship are needed to train successful entrepreneurs through the BMT. More intensive training for a longer period is needed for trainers to be able to train future entrepreneurs. When the NYDA designs a new entrepreneurship training programme, it will need qualified staff that will be able to deliver the programme and adjust it to the SA environment when needed. The policy designer will need to include the required qualifications for trainers that will be involved in the implementation of the BMT.

To increase the impact of the BMT, the NYDA will have to re-evaluate their programme, commitment and targets. The targets that the NYDA have set are too ambitious for an institution with such limited resources and capability. The NYDA will be in a better position if they reduce the targets that they have set and focus on setting targets that can be accommodated by the resources they have.

The focus of the NYDA needs to be redirected to the impact that the BMT is having on the youth of SA. Investing the limited resources in a smaller target would ensure that the youth that take part in the BMT are successful and create successful businesses that will help alleviate poverty and reduce youth unemployment.



**Figure 7.1: NYDA’s model for policy conceptualisation and design of the BMT**

Source: Own compilation, 2020

Figure 7.1 illustrates a suggested model that the NYDA should use in the conceptualisation and design of the BMT. Figure 7.1 summarises the factors and recommendations discussed in the above section. These four factors will help the NYDA in designing their own BMT that they can implement to achieve their objectives. If the NYDA does not address these four factors, the implementation of the BMT will remain unsuccessful, and will have little to no impact on the high rate of youth unemployment.

## 7.5 DIRECTION FOR FUTURE STUDIES

The focus of this study was to gain an understanding of why the NYDA’s implementation of the BMT has had such a low impact in addressing the high rate of youth unemployment. The study wanted to understand what factors influence the implementation of the BMT and how the implementation of the BMT could be improved.

As explained in Section 3.10, the NYDA was the only chosen case for this study and the NYDA is a large institution that services the whole of SA. With the NYDA’s high number of branches across the country, the research could only be conducted at the City of Tshwane branch. Similar studies can be conducted at other branches of the

NYDA using the same research approach. It is recommended that future researchers explore the impact of the BMT from the perspective of the end-users.

## **7.6 CONCLUSION**

In this final and concluding chapter of the study, recommendations with regards to the challenges that the NYDA faces with the implementation of the BMT were discussed. The researcher discussed recommendations regarding the design of the BMT and the implementation of the BMT. Recommendations were made to improve the BMT programme and the implementation of the programme. The recommendations discussed above will assist the NYDA to improve the BMT programme and ensure that the programme has a better chance of success.

The findings of this study indicated that the challenges that the NYDA is experiencing are due not only the implementation of the BMT but also to the design of the programme. The BMT from the ILO does not address the local needs of SA, therefore, it is unlikely to have the desired success. The BMT attempts to achieve some of the objectives of the NYDA, however, it does not have the desired effect of training successful entrepreneurs that are able to reduce the already high youth unemployment rate.

Much progress is needed in the design and implementation of the BMT. The NYDA must reevaluate the impact of the BMT to see if the programme from the ILO has the necessary effect on the employment of the youth of SA. As noted above, these challenges can be addressed by designing a new entrepreneurship education and training programme.

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# APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



## DEPARTMENT: PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 12 February 2018

Dear Mr Dube

Ref #: PAM/2018/001 (Dube)  
Name of applicant: Mr IP Dube  
Student#: 50144758

**Decision: Ethics Clearance Approval 8 February 2018 to 7 February 2021**

**Name:** Mr IP Dube, student#: 50144758, [dubeip@unisa.ac.za](mailto:dubeip@unisa.ac.za), tel: 012 429-3831  
[Supervisor: Prof WN Webb, tel: 012 429-6909, [webbwn@unisa.ac.za](mailto:webbwn@unisa.ac.za)]

**Research project** "The implementation of the National Youth Policy in the Tshwane Municipality" **Qualification:** MADMIN (Public Administration)

Thank you for the application for **research ethics clearance** by the Department: Public Administration and Management: Research Ethics Review Committee, for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for the period **8 February 2018 to 7 February 2021**. If necessary to complete the research, you may apply for an **extension** of the period.

You are, though, required to submit the letter from the National Youth Development Agency in which permission is granted to you to do this research, to this Ethics Committee within **30 days** of the date of this letter.

**For full approval:** The application was **expedited and reviewed** in compliance with the *Unisa Policy on Research Ethics* and the *Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment* by the RERC on 7 February 2018. The decision will be tabled at the next College RERC meeting for notification/ratification.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.
- 2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to this Ethics Review Committee.
- 3) The researcher will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.



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- 4) Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
- 5) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study, among others, the **Protection of Personal Information Act 4/2013**; **Children's Act 38/2005** and **National Health Act 61/2003**.
- 6) Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
- 7) Field work activities **may not** continue after the expiry date given. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Kind regards

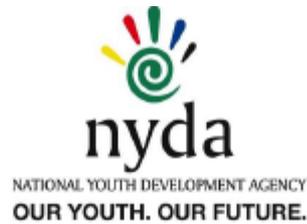


**Prof Mike van Heerden**  
Chairperson:  
Research Ethics Review Committee  
[vheerm@unisa.ac.za](mailto:vheerm@unisa.ac.za)



**Prof MT Mogale**  
Executive Dean: CEMS

## APPENDIX B: PERMISSION LETTER



23 October 2018

To: Itumeleng Dube  
Per email: [dubeip@unisa.ac.za](mailto:dubeip@unisa.ac.za)

### PERMISSION LETTER FROM THE NATIONAL YOUTH DEVELOPMENT AGENCY

This letter serves to acknowledge the request by Itumeleng Dube to conduct his research on *The Implementation of the Grievance Policy at the NYDA*.

As The Chief Executive Officer I grant the permission for Itumeleng Dube to conduct his/her research at our organisation.

Kind regards,

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Waseem Carrim CA (SA)  
Chief Executive Officer  
National Youth Development Agency

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## APPENDIX C: DECLARATION OF PROFESSIONAL EDIT



Dear Mr Dube

This letter is to record that I have completed a language edit of your MCom dissertation entitled, "Policy Design and Implementation: A Case Study of the Business Management Training Programme at the NYDA".

The edit that I carried out included the following:

- Spelling
- Grammar
- Vocabulary
- Punctuation
- Pronoun matches
- Word usage
- Sentence structure
- Correct acronyms (matching your supplied list)
- Captions and labels for figures and tables
- Spot checking of 10 references

The edit that I carried out excluded the following:

- Content
- Correctness or truth of information (unless obvious)
- Correctness/spelling of specific technical terms and words (unless obvious)
- Correctness/spelling of unfamiliar names and proper nouns (unless obvious)
- Correctness of specific formulae or symbols, or illustrations.

Yours sincerely



Retha Burger

12 June 2020