

JOINT EDUCATION TRUST

AUDIT OF THE YOUTH DEVELOPMENT SECTOR

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I-INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the Joint Education Trust	1
1.2 JET'S funding policy for youth projects	1
1.3 Introduction to the youth audit	2
1.4 Aims and objectives of the youth audit	3
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	4
2.1 Introduction to the literature review	4
2.2 Purpose of the literature review	4
2.3 British youth services	4
2.4 Australian youth services	5
2.5 German youth services	6
2.6 Swedish youth services	7
2.7 Norwegian youth services	8
2.8 Developing nations in Africa	9
2.9 South African literature review	10
2.9.1 The era of resistance politics, 1976-1989	10
2.9.2 Youth unemployment and job creation, 1990-1996	10
2.10 Lessons for South Africa	11
CHAPTER 3-METHODOLOGY	13
3.1 Research design	13
3.1.1 Design of the questionnaire	13
3.1.2 Sample	13
3.1.4 Processing	14
3.1.5 Analytical techniques	14
3.1.6 Summary of the dataset	14
3.2 Methodological constraints	15
CHAPTER 4 - PROGRAMMES PROVIDED	16
4.1 Introduction	16
4.2 Programme design	16
4.3 Programme presentation	17
4.4 Range of programmes offered	18
4.4.1 Job creation programmes	19
4.4.2 Educational programmes	20
4.4.3 Social welfare programmes	20
4.4.4 Life skills programmes	20
4.4.5 Career guidance programmes	20
4.5 Skills developed by the programmes	21
4.6 Accreditation status of the programmes	22
4.7 Languages used to present programmes	23
4.8 Training methods	24
4.9 Training infrastructure	25
4.1 Training tools	26

4.9.2 Project facilities	27
CHAPTER 5 - TARGET POPULATION	29
5.1 Matching youth to services - selection procedures	29
5.2 Numbers reached by programmes	29
5.2.1 Programme applicant and trainee numbers	29
5.2.1 Programme attendance, attrition and failure rates	30
5.3 Workshops run by projects	
5.3.1 Number of workshops run in 1994 and 1995	
5.3.2 Number of workshop participants in 1994 and 1995	
CHAPTER 6 - ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION	34
6.1 Introduction	34
6.2 Programme assessment and evaluation	34
6.3 Project assessment of trainee gains	34
6.4 Trainee assessment of programmes	36
6.5 External evaluation of programmes	36
6.5.1 Agencies involved in the evaluation of projects	37
6.6 Categories of service provision - evaluation status	38
6.7 Types of evaluations conducted on projects	39
6.7.1 Programme evaluations	41
6.7.2 Impact evaluations	41
6.7.3 Operational evaluations	41
6.7.4 Evaluations for strategic planning	41
6.8 Types of evaluations conducted in the different regions	42
6.9 Recommendations which have emerged from evaluations	43
6.9.1 Recommendations regarding trainees	43
6.9.2 Recommendations regarding curriculum	43
6.9.3 Recommendations regarding project staff	43
6.9.4 Recommendations regarding funders	44
6.9.5 Recommendations regarding strategic planning	44
CHAPTER 7 - DATABASES AND TRACKING SYSTEMS	45
7.1 Introduction	45
7.2 Maintenance of databases	45
7.3 The different types of databases used	45
7.4 Types of information stored on databases	46
7.5 Use of information held on databases	46
7.5.1 Databases and trainees	47
7.5.2 Databases and programme curriculum	47
7.5.3 Databases and project staff	48
7.5.4 Databases and everyday operations	49
7.5.5 Databases and strategic planning	50
7.5.6 Databases and funders	51
7.6 Implementation of tracking systems	51
7.6.1 How do these tracking systems work?	52
7.6.2 At what intervals are trainees tracked?	53
7.6.3 Difficulties experienced with tracking	53

7.6.4 Lessons learnt from tracking initiatives	55
7.6.5 Impact of tracking initiatives	55
CHAPTER 8 - STAFFING	57
8.1 Introduction	57
8.2 Analysis of trends in the categories of personnel	57
8.3 Comparative ratios for the categories of personnel	58
CHAPTER 9 - FINANCE	59
9.1 Introduction	59
9.2 Total income, expenditure and fixed assets of projects	59
9.3 Unit costs of the projects surveyed	60
CHAPTER 10 -GOVERNANCE	61
10.1 Introduction	61
10.2 Governance structures and stakeholder representation	61
CHAPTER 11 - ISSUES ARISING FROM THE SURVEY	63
11.1 Introduction	63
11.2 Funding	63
11.3 Service provision	63
11.4 Programme design	63
11.5 Programme accreditation and the National Qualifications Framework	64
11.6 Databases and tracking	65
11.7 Evaluation and impact	65
11.8 Affirmative action	66
11.9 Governance	66
11.10 Concluding remarks	67

LIST OF TABLES

NO.	CONTENTS	PAGE
1	Summary of the dataset	14
2	Status of projects which did not respond to the survey	15
3	Sources of programme presentation in youth projects	18
4	Categories of service provision	19
5	Percentage of programmes devoted to each of the various seven skills	21
6	Proportion of programmes surveyed regionally and nationally which are accredited	23
7	Proportion of the youth projects which award certificates	23
8	Percentage of programmes using various languages, by region and nationally	24
9	Percentage of programmes using various training methodologies	25
10	Percentage of programmes using various training tools	26
11	Percentage of projects with access to various facilities	27
12	Proportion of youth projects with selection procedures	29
13	Total number of trainees reached by projects	30
14	Average number of trainees reached by projects	30
15	Attendance, attrition and failure rates at projects	31
16	Number of workshops run by projects	32
17	Number of participants attending workshops	33
18	Proportion of projects using various assessment methods	35
19	Percentage of programmes assessed by trainees, and the method of assessment used	36
20	Evaluation status of projects in the different regions	37
21	Evaluation status of projects in the different categories of service provision	38
22	Types of evaluations conducted in the categories of service provision	40
23	Percentage of youth projects which maintain a database	45
24	Results of tracking initiatives of regions	56
25	Categories of personnel in youth projects	57
26	Programme versus administration and service staff ratios	58
27	Income, expenditure and fixed assets of youth projects for 1995	59
28	Unit costs for categories of service provision	60

LIST OF FIGURES

NO.	CONTENTS	PAGE
1	Major sources of design input for youth programmes	17
2	Expertise used to present JET-funded youth programmes	18
3	Categories of youth service provision funded	19
4	Percentage of programme time devoted to skills trained	22
5	Percentage of programmes using different languages	24
6	Percentage of programmes using different training methodologies	25
7	Percentage of projects using various training tools	26
8	Percentage of programmes with access to various facilities	28
9	Comparison of attrition rates at projects in the different regions	31
10	Percentage of projects which run workshops	32
11	Breakdown of methods used to assess trainee gains at youth projects	35
12	Agencies involved in the evaluation of youth projects	38
13	Internal and external evaluation in the categories of service provision	39
14	Types of evaluation in the categories of service provision	40
15	Types of evaluation in the different regions	42
16	Primary use of databases with regard to trainees at youth projects	47
17	Primary use of databases with regard to programme curriculum	48
18	Ways in which project staff use trainee databases	49
19	Ways in which trainee databases are used in everyday operations	49
20	Ways in which trainee databases are used for strategic planning	50
21	Ways in which trainee databases are used for funders	51
22	Intervals at which tracking takes place in projects	53
23	Difficulties experienced in tracking trainees	54
24	Categories of personnel in youth projects	57

LIST OF APPENDICES

NO.	CONTENTS
1	Copy of the covering letter and survey questionnaire
2	Copy of the covering letter and follow-up survey questionnaire
3	List of respondents to the survey
4	List of skills trained at individual projects
5	List of programme evaluators
6	Unit costs of projects surveyed
7	Bibliography

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CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Joint Education Trust

The Joint Education Trust (JET) is a partnership between private corporations and business, education, labour and political organisations. It was established to improve the quality of education and the relationships between education and the world of work. In order to succeed in these aims, JET identified five priority or key focus areas within which it provides funding. These areas are:

1. Training early childhood development teachers
2. Teacher development and support
3. Vocational and further education
4. Adult basic education and training
5. Youth development.

In addition to funding projects in these areas, JET has begun a process of systematically auditing each area. To date JET has been commissioned to undertake an audit of all teacher development non-governmental organisations (NGOs) as part of a wider national audit of all teacher education institutions. As all JET-funded teacher development organisations were included, useful information concerning this area of JET's funding policy has been generated, as well as information about each of the grantees in the sector. This was followed by audits of the early childhood and youth development grantees.

1.2 JET's funding policy for youth projects

JET's primary function is provision of finance to projects which assist in decreasing the gap between the quality of education and the world of work. In order to retain a clear focus with regard to funding policy, as well as to meet the requirements of its primary function, JET has formulated guidelines specific to each of the key sectors that it funds.

In the youth development sector, JET's priorities are to fund youth projects which lead directly to employment or income generation for young people who have fallen out of the school system¹. JET's experience in youth project funding has resulted in several hypotheses about appropriate criteria for youth funding policy. These hypotheses can be considered on two levels, namely, the project and programme levels². On the project level it is hypothesised that the following criteria are important:

1. project management skills in conjunction with committed and experienced leadership,
2. peer support and youth involvement in the conceptualising and development of programmes,
3. dedicated project staff with aspirations revolving around development and not personal career mobility,
4. networking links with formalised training and education institutions.

At the programme level it is hypothesised that the following criteria, which relate to the internal processes and content of youth programmes, are important:

¹ See JET Bulletin, Focus on Youth Development, Graeme Bloch, June 1995

² See 1

1. Programmes need to be focused on niche markets, which have been investigated and developed at local level. These programmes must match the trainees particular needs, knowledge and capacities.
2. The training methodologies need to be adapted to the target audience. Learner centred, experiential and empowering teaching methods are sought.
3. The curriculum needs to be multifaceted and holistic embracing both hard and soft skills, literacy and numeracy, as well as life skills.

JET's funding policy may seem restrictive in terms of the range of youth projects available as many important areas like social, recreational, religious as well as formal academic programmes are excluded. However, this decision has been arrived at after much deliberation, with the consensus being that job creation within the youth sector is a national priority.

1.3 Introduction to the youth audit

1.4

After the landmark research of the Community Agency for Social Enquiry (CASE) into issues facing South African youth³, and the Co-operative Research Programme: South African Youth (SAY)⁴, a plethora of research has been conducted into problems facing out of-school South African youth. Much of the research conducted has focused on three areas:

1. Identification and definition of problems and challenges facing South African Youth; for instance, Bloom's 1994 research into social fragmentation and the development of identity⁵.
2. Profiling of youth according to their attitudes, perceptions, aspirations and fears; for instance, Kotze et al's 1994 research into the socio-political beliefs and attitudes of South African matriculants⁶.
3. Investigation and recommendations with regard to youth policy; for instance, de Villiers 1994 guidelines on the rights of children in international law.⁷

The results of these investigations have pointed to the urgency of resolving and facilitating the resolution of problems facing South African youth. Popular and not so popular phrases have been coined to describe the subjects of this research, for example, "the Young Lions", "the lost generation", "out-of-school youth" and "marginalised youth". All of these descriptions have contributed to encouraging perceptions which romanticise, alienate, disassociate and stereotype South African youth. These descriptions also point to several gaps in research on South African youth.

First, beyond defining, profiling and formulating policy on youth problems, there has been no effective audit of service provision and service providers to South African youth who are out of school. Attempts at auditing youth service provision in South Africa have been inadequate. For example, an audit conducted by the Education Policy Unit at the University

³ Everatt and Orkin (1993), Growing up Tough: A national survey of South African Youth,, Community Agency for Social Enquiry.

⁴ Slabbert, Malan, Marais, et al. (1994), Youth in the New South Africa.

⁵ Leonard Bloom (1994). Social fragmentation and the development of identity, in Van Zyl Slabbert, Malan, Marais, et al, (eds) , Youth in the New South Africa.

⁶ Hennie Kotze, Johann Mouton, Anneke Greyling, Heide Hackmann & Amanda Gouws: The sociopolitical beliefs and attitudes of South African matriculants in Slabbert, Malan, Marais, et al, (eds) , Youth in the New South Africa (1994).

⁷ Bertus de Villiers (1994). Rights of children in international law: Guidelines for South Africa, in Slabbert, Malan, Marais, et al, (eds) , Youth in the New South Africa,.

of the Witwatersrand⁸ did not provide a comprehensive audit of out-of-school youth service provision. This report did, however, provide a context within which youth policy formulation has taken place. A more recent attempt at auditing out-of-school youth service provision was conducted by the Centre for Adult Education at the University of Natal⁹. This report was severely hampered by time restrictions and the nature of the research brief. Furthermore, its principal brief was to assess capacity in the field of adult basic education (ABE) and not to do an audit or comprehensive survey of all organisations and opportunities for out-of-school youth.

Second, policy formulation in the absence of an audit of service providers from the government, non-governmental, educational, training and business organisations would be inadequate since the potential for creating or duplicating provision that exists is high. This could lead to the wastage of resources, which are already scarce in the youth development sector.

Third, even though all of the service providers to youth may share the same general mission, that is, to prepare young people for a productive adulthood, the pattern of service delivery is not characterised by a common perspective or coherent framework. The system of service delivery to youth is characterised by the fact that it is not a system at all, but rather, an amalgam of distinct strategies, programmes and initiatives delivered by the above-mentioned service providers.

The problems identified above all point to the fact that research on youth needs to cross the rubicon of defining youth problems and making policy recommendations without baseline data (an audit) on the structure of existing youth services provision. In line with this clearly defined research need, JET initiated the present investigation of an audit of youth development organisations. Even though the scope of the audit extends only to JET-sponsored youth projects, the results of the audit provide baseline information which is probably representative of the sub-sector.

1.4 Aims and objectives of the youth audit

During the month of July 1995, the evaluations department at JET in conjunction with the youth sector division began the process of conceptualising an audit of the youth development sector. The purpose of the audit was twofold:

1. To establish a database of JET-funded youth projects nationally; and
2. To construct a profile of the youth projects funded by JET.

The core parameters of this audit were identified and a questionnaire was designed. The completed research instrument was posted to JET-funded youth projects. A preliminary analysis of the data was conducted which culminated in the development of brief profiles of each organisation. These profiles were published in the Youth Job Skills Conference Publication of September 1995. The present report is a continuation of the process initiated in July 1995.

⁸Education Policy Unit, Out-of-School Youth Report: Policy and Provision for Out-of-School and Out-of-Work Youth, March 1996.

⁹Centre for Adult Education, Education and development provision for out-of-school youth, University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg, Jan-Feb, 1996.

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction to the literature review

The present chapter examines international perspectives on youth development and tries to understand youth service provision through the lenses of different culture, policies, and programmes. These multiple viewpoints can give us greater depth of perspective and enable us to improve youth service provision in South Africa. The young people we talk about are often in deep trouble. They live in dysfunctional environments and are surrounded by ineffective social institutions which are a legacy of the past non-democratic system. At the same time, however, these young people have been instrumental in creating social and political change which has transformed this country. Thus while these young people are considered "at risk", we cannot in the same breath fail to acknowledge that they are "at strength" as well. Given the correct opportunities, these young people have the strengths and energies which can be used to shape productive lives for their families, communities and country.

2.2 Purpose of the literature review

Although the topics are interrelated, the present literature survey does not attempt to directly address particular youth problems such as delinquency, dependency, drug abuse or teenage pregnancy. Nor does it address specialised youth services such as juvenile justice, foster care, or mental health services. Rather, the focus is on generalised youth issues such as normal development, youth as participants in society and the development of the economic potential of youth. The orientation is more developmental and less problem focused.

2.3 British Youth Services

Youth service and youth work in Britain are integral parts of the social service system. The British Youth Service (BYS) is an organised, comprehensive system for delivering youth policy, based on a foundation of local youth clubs. The general orientation is developmental rather than deficit orientated¹.

2.3.1 Activities

Youth services delivered by the BYS form part of the education system and are concerned with personal development and social education through a diverse range of leisure time activities. Special efforts are made to reach unattached or unaffiliated youth who avoid established programmes. Counselling is provided in many youth clubs by adult youth workers. Special populations are identified, namely, unemployed, homeless, drug abusers, etc. The emphasis of interventions on these special populations is developmental and preventative, unlike the dominant approach in the USA which is more orientated towards remediation of individual difficulties. Community service is encouraged as there is a growing appreciation of the educational value of service to the community, e.g., the Duke of Edinburgh's Award, which honours community service activities in youth work².

¹Foreign and Commonwealth Office (1986). The Youth Service in Britain, pamphlet no. 271/86. London: Central Office of Information, Reference Services.

²Boaton, Frank, and Darling, Alan (1980). The 1980s and Beyond. The Changing Scene of Youth and Community Work. London: British Youth Council.

2.3.2 Research

The British produce a large amount of research, orientated, principally around the concept of youth culture. Research is mostly anthropological in nature, with the findings indicating that young people cannot find jobs, do not fit in, and are creating cultures of their own³.

2.3.3 Outlook

Youth service with its goals of personal development and social education is declining, with the British government now tending to focus more on youth work within institutional settings, i.e., schools, social work agencies, and counselling and advice services relating to work preparation. Thus youth service provision in Britain is shifting towards providing young people with the learning, experience and career exploration necessary for successful integration into the economic mainstream⁴.

2.4 Australian Youth Services

In the 1960s attention to youth issues gained strength under the general rubric of youth empowerment⁵. Youth work was institutionalised in Australia during the 1980s when youth was recognised as a special client group of the government. With government funding and explicit social justice policies around youth affairs, the issue of youth became a political construct and youth problems were for the first time viewed at a formal political level. Before 1985, there was not much systematic information on young people in Australia, but during the International Youth Year intense efforts were made to rectify that deficiency. There is currently much debate in Australia around economic and political aspects of youth unemployment, homelessness, income maintenance, and youth rights.

2.4.1 Activities

The Office of Youth Affairs (OYA) was set up in February 1977, and has a number of responsibilities. Firstly, the OYA co-ordinates all commonwealth policies, programmes and proposals affecting young people. Secondly, the OYA has a programme of assistance to youth organisations which provides grants to projects. These grants are aimed at helping projects extend services, broaden participation of young people, involve young people in management and decision-making, and improve planning and co-ordination. Thirdly, it also promotes youth service development to improve the quality, co-ordination, and relevance of youth services. This includes developing effective methods of identifying youth needs, documenting and disseminating information on existing youth service mechanisms, testing new programmes, and improving in-service training for youth workers. Fourth, the OYA promotes international youth exchanges. Fifth, concerning specific problems, the OYA also has a Community Employment Programme aimed at disadvantaged young people. Youth unemployment is very high in Australia and the employment programme undertakes specific projects. Australia has been quite inventive and successful in this area⁶.

2.4.2 Research

Youth research conducted in Australia has focused on the definition of what constitutes youth work. There is still no national directory describing services or education programmes, nor is there a method to ascertain actual numbers of practitioners working within the broad

³Michael Sherraden (1992). Community Based Youth Services in International Perspective, Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development & William T Grant Foundation Commission on Youth and America's Future.

⁴Smith, Mark (1988). Developing Youth Work. Milton Keynes and Philadelphia: Open University Press.

⁵Maunders, David (1990). Youth work as a response to Social Values, Youth Studies 9 (2), 42-50.

⁶Ruth, Eversley (1990). Aboriginal Children and Their Families: History and Trends in Western Australia, Youth Studies 10 (1), 34-41.

spectrum of services to children and youth. The field of research into youth remains extremely fragmented⁷.

2.4.3 Outlook

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, it appears that the former Australian emphasis on empowerment is being superseded by an enterprise culture in youth policy, which focuses on employment, business training, and self-sufficiency⁸.

2.5 German Youth Services

Germany is often cited as the first modern welfare state, with examples of extensive state provision in social affairs dating back to Otto von Bismarck in the late 19th century. It has provided numerous examples of youth organisation, with one of the more unfortunate ones being the Hitler Youth. Emphasis of German youth work is placed on political education, cultural awareness, personal development, practical experience in social and work affairs, social duties, etc. There is an explicit recognition that in a complex and modern society, the demands for education and training can no longer be met by home and school alone. Additional capacity needs to be developed in terms of youth organisations, since if this does not occur, there will be an increase in youth problems and more importantly, reduction in skills levels.⁹

2.5.1 Activities

In Germany a great array of leisure-time activities is made available, including sports, hobby centres, continuing education courses, trips and youth exchanges. International youth work plays a very prominent role in Germany and there is an explicit goal of enhancing international understanding, tolerance and peace¹⁰. There is a distinct attention to issues of mass youth culture. Youth culture is recognised as a reality and there is a policy orientation that youth culture can be shaped, in certain ways, toward constructive rather than destructive purposes. Most importantly, German politics has recognised that schooling by itself cannot do everything, and implemented a system of apprenticeship called the "dual system" - so named because students are taught in schools and the workplace¹¹. Seventy per cent of German youth between the ages of 16 and 19 participate in one of 380 apprenticeships. They work three to four days a week on the job under the supervision of a trained craftsperson, and the remainder of the week at a state-funded technical school. At the end of their training, apprentices take an exacting national exam which is set by the industry along with the unions and education ministry. Upon successfully passing the exam, the apprentices earn nationally recognised certificates in their chosen craft.

2.5.2 Research

Much research is published on youth affairs in Germany. Most of the research tends to focus on legal structures, organisations and philosophies. The research seems to suggest that although youth issues are problematic, if they are thought through and organised better, they will be solved.

⁷ Denholm, C & Ling, P. (1990). Education and Training in Youth Work, *Youth Studies*, 9 (2), 24-27.

⁸ Maunders, David (1990). Youth Work as a Response to Social Values, *Youth Studies*, 9 (2), 42-50.

⁹ Michael Sherraden (1992). Community Based Youth Services in International Perspective, Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development & William T Grant Foundation Commission on Youth and America's Future.

¹⁰ International Youth Exchange and Visitor's Service (1981). Youth Organisations and Youth Service Institutions in the Federal Republic of Germany. Munich: Juventa Verlag.

¹¹ Richard Mendel (1994). The American School to Career Movement: A Background Paper for Policymakers and Foundation Officers.

2.5.15 Outlook

This is a period of great change in Germany. The youth populations of the East and West are not identical, and in many respects they are not comfortable with one another. With unification, and the large influx of foreigners, nationalistic tensions are rising and testing the tolerance of youth and youth service providers. Ethnic violence is at its highest since the Nazi era and is exacerbated by the competition for jobs, housing and social welfare funds.

2.6 Swedish youth services

For many years Sweden has been considered the most successful welfare state in the world, travelling a middle way between capitalism and socialism, a country where economic productivity and growth have been accompanied by high taxation and extensive state services. With regard to youth services, the government prescribes the overall goals. These goals, however, are broad and can be interpreted in different ways by the regional and municipal authorities. Thus even though municipalities have specific goals, they are generally in harmony with state goals¹².

2.6.1 Activities

Sweden seeks to provide young people from age 7 to 25 with the best possible prerequisites to develop into adulthood. Nationally there is a general sentiment that it is a good thing for youth to belong to organisations. After school child care is understood as a preventative service called "fritidshem". Operating under different auspices, this system serves 7-12 year olds in centres located where the children live and go to school, and they operate from about 6.30 am to 6.30 p.m. For children 12-14, there are centres for youth open in the evenings for recreation and socialising. There is also a system of clubs targeted at 15-25 year olds, which seems to have a higher status than the systems for younger youth¹³.

2.6.2 Research

Much of youth research conducted in Sweden is orientated towards programme evaluation. Swedish youth research is often innovative, for example, the whole city of Vasteras is a test site for intensive youth interventions¹⁴. Youth engage in activities ranging from producing their own television programmes to running their own independent newspaper. The results of this research have been very positive. According to the Mayor of the city, youth perform well when they know they are considered important and have resources invested in them.

Some researchers however have asked the question: are Swedish youth being undermined through overcaring? ¹⁵. Even though conditions are remarkably good and the lifestyle healthy, the social caring can be oppressive and some young Swedes feel powerless and isolated. The young people do not rebel, they follow advice, but tend to feel that they have no space of their own. In sum, the research tends to indicate that Swedish youth are mostly passive in the face of pervasive adult influence, but show little resentment. Although there is participation by youth, it is often shallow and conforms to adult expectations. It is not clear if improved citizenship or true involvement results from this type of participation. For example, Swedish youth show little involvement or interest in social or political affairs¹⁶.

¹²Seligson, Michelle (1988). School-Age Child Care in Europe, report prepared at the Wellesley College School-Age Child Care Project for the Ford Foundation (unpublished).

¹³Sherraden, Michael (1992). Community Based Youth Services in International Perspective, Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development & William T Grant Foundation Commission on Youth and America's Future.

¹⁴Henriksson, Benny (1991). Youth as a Resource, Future Choices, 2 (3), 73-75.

¹⁵Seller, Amanda (1991). Swedish Youth: Undermined through Overcaring? Youth Studies, 10 (1), 17-19. 's

¹⁶Wilson, Bruce (1991). The Swedish Way and Youth Research, Youth Studies, 10 (1), 17-19.

2.6.16 Outlook

As in many other nations, there is a growing split between two groups of youth in Sweden. The first group, consisting of native Swedish, finish school and enter the labour market with a minimum of disruption to the social equilibrium. The second group, composed largely of first generation youth from immigration backgrounds, are having a much more difficult time integrating into the social and economic mainstream. The nation is no longer as homogeneous as it once was, and perhaps ten per cent of Swedish, youth run the risk of experiencing long-term problems¹⁷.

2.7 Norwegian youth services

Norway is a homogeneous and tolerant society, with a very high proportion of affiliated youth, that is, youth who are connected to a youth organisation. The public; sector became involved in youth work in the 1950s, when the Department of Youth and Sport and the Storting (Norwegian National Assembly) offered the first financial support for youth organisations. Youth organisations are recognised for their ability to create a feeling of affiliation amongst youth and also to prevent disruption and rootlessness. Regarding goals, the important elements of public youth policy in Norway are inclusion,, participation, responsibility, active selection of values and active recreation¹⁸.

2.7.1 Activities

Activities tend to relate to the everyday life of youth in school, employment, leisure, housing and other areas. By the age of 12-14, large numbers of children have left scouting and Christian organisations, but they sign up with new clubs. At the ages of 14-16, well over half of all Norwegian youth of both genders are members of sports clubs. Over 90 % of 14 year olds are members of more than one organisation, the most usual combination being a sports and recreation club¹⁹. Youth organisations promote a wide range of interests from open air life to politics, to social and cultural activities. They provide practical skills and transmit attitudes and values consistent with democratic participation. Political awareness is also promoted through the funding of political youth organisations which serve to prepare the youth for serving in political parties. Services are also targeted at special problems (drug abuse, crime, etc.) with the aim being preventative rather than curative.

2.7.2 Research

Research in youth affairs is strongly supported by the Norwegian government, which also encourages experimentation and innovation with regard to youth programming. Youth policy includes explicit objectives for youth service providers to gain experience through new initiatives, service methods, and organisational forms. Multidisciplinary research efforts are not uncommon and the tone of research is practical and applied. Unlike most research on youth affairs conducted in the countries reviewed, Norway places a great emphasis on evaluating the effectiveness of youth service provision²⁰.

2.7.3 Outlook

The Norwegian model of youth development has been careful to avoid some of the problems of its Scandinavian neighbour, Sweden. Real attempts have been made to include youth at every level of decision making. Proof of these attempts has been the insistence of

¹⁷ Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (1986). Youth and Work in Sweden. Paris: OECD 's

¹⁸ Ministry of Cultural and Scientific Affairs (1985). Youth and Sports in Norway. Oslo: Ministry of Cultural and Scientific Affairs.

¹⁹ Sherraden, Michael (1992). Community Based Youth Services in International Perspective, Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development & William T Grant Foundation Commission on Youth and America's Future.

²⁰ Youth - Participation and Responsibility (1982-1983). Report by the Norwegian Storting.

the Starting on not creating a youth ministry, but leaving the responsibility of co-ordinating and implementing youth affairs with all ministries. In the absence of a youth ministry, a special co-ordinating system has been implemented to ensure participation and active involvement in youth policy development from all ministries. With regard to ensuring equity of youth services provision to native and immigrant Norwegian youth, dedicated efforts have been made to involve immigrant youth in sports and recreational programmes, youth organisations, and public services.

2.8 Developing nations in Africa

Many African countries won independence with youth at the forefront of their struggle. In the period after independence, these countries faced serious problems with regard to harnessing the energy of youth to the benefit of the nation. Most of these countries opted for developing youth ministries, or appointed a youth officer in each major ministry to ensure that youth concerns were raised when policies were being formulated. Youth development in these countries is primarily focused on how young people fit into the economic development of the country²¹.

2.8.1 Activities

The primary activities in youth development on the African continent are orientated towards economic and life skills training. Economic skills training focuses on areas such as vocational training, entrepreneurial skills development and saving and loan schemes. Most of the economic skills training is directed at the informal sector. Life skills training focuses on adolescent health issues, family life education, and Aids and other sexually transmitted diseases²².

2.8.2 Research

In many of the countries beleaguered by lack of resources, limited technological development, and inefficient and often corrupt public bureaucracies, the infrastructure available for research on youth affairs is just not adequate. Youth research and information systems are not well developed and there is a lack of research sophistication. Systematic data, when it exists, may be quite unreliable and in some cases, it is simply fabricated for political purposes²³.

2.8.3 Outlook

The issues facing youth development on the African continent range from inadequate policy formulation to a lack of resources to implement youth services. These issues are further compounded by attempts to politically manipulate youth movements. The system of youth development is not a system at all. However, in spite of the serious limitations (infrastructural, political and a lack of resources) that exist in Africa and the developing nations, there is a growing optimism that with possibilities extended by democracy, peace and real economic development, will have a positive impact on youth development²⁴.

²¹Daniel Sifuna (1996). Assessing Approaches to Youth Unemployment in Africa, in the Education Policy Unit Out-of-School-Youth Report.

²²Mark Gevisser (1991). Youth in Africa: Analysing youth development in Kenya and Uganda, in Putting youth on the national agenda, a compilation of seven reports researched and written by the Community Agency for Social Enquiry.

²³Daniel Sifuna (1996). Assessing Approaches to Youth Unemployment in Africa, in the Education Policy Unit Out-of-School-Youth Report.

²⁴Graeme Bloch (1996), Report on the OAU Conference on Youth and Development, Addis Ababa.

2.9 South African literature review

With the social and political inequities which existed in our recent past, the direction, or more correctly, the lack of direction which has been prevalent in South African youth development, makes a coherent review of the literature difficult. In most North American and European countries, the development of youth policy is clearly linked to worsening economies and the shrinkage of job opportunities. This holds true to some extent in the South African context, but the issues become increasingly complex when the social and political conditions which prevailed here are included in the range of lenses used to view the sector. For the purpose of the present audit, developments in the sector will be reviewed from 1976 to 1989 and from 1990 to the present time.

2.9.1 The era of resistance politics, 1976-1989

During this period, the primary actor in the development of youth policy was the illegitimate state. During the 1976 school protests, few young people were organised into overtly political youth organisations. These protesters were generally identified as students²⁵. After the 1976 school protests, there was a proliferation of youth organisations since ex-student activists recognised the importance of youth organisation as distinct from youth mobilisation. As a result, youth groups began community work projects such as assisting with funeral preparations, which in turn served as a forum to raise political issues and also helped them earn the respect and support of their fellow township residents. With the national mobilisation and organisation of youth against the pathological and oppressive political instruments of the state during the mid-1980s²⁶, youth moved to the forefront of resistance politics. The uprising of the 1980s revitalised the exiled African National Congress (ANC), and illustrated the importance of internal organisations such as the United Democratic Front (UDF) and of the youth in particular. The response of the state was to develop strategies which revolved around education and work, aimed at controlling resistance from youth. Most of these initiatives did not succeed, among the more spectacular failures being the Special Employment Creation Programme undertaken by the Department of Manpower.

2.9.2 Youth unemployment and job creation, 1990-1996 .

In the period of political transition between 1990 to 1994, many of the youth wings of liberation movements were demobilised as South Africa underwent its transition to democracy. The role of black youth, particularly black male urban youth, who had played a key role in the resistance politics of the late 1970s and throughout the 1980s, was changed to a more passive one, as liberation leaders engaged the illegitimate state in negotiations. With the political transition still being negotiated during this period, various agencies such as the Community Agency for Social Enquiry (CASE) in conjunction with the Joint Enrichment Project (JEP), the Education Policy Unit of the University of the Witwatersrand (EPU) in conjunction with the National Youth Development Forum (NYDF), the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) were all engaged in the process of youth policy formulation in preparation for the creation of a legitimate state. All the research conducted seemed acutely aware of the fact that youth were politically demobilised, but were not offered any alternative channels of expression or action. Young people in South Africa faced immense problems which bore serious implications for society: poor economic growth and job creation and hence high unemployment. Furthermore, poor schooling, lack of recreation facilities and a continued

²⁵ Jeremy Seekings (1993). Heroes or Villains? Youth Politics in the 1980s. In Putting youth on the national agenda. Seven reports researched and written for the Joint Enrichment Project by the Community Agency for Social Enquiry.

²⁶ 'School reject or eject?' Contextualising 'out of school youth' in the new South Africa, Prospects, vol. XXV, no.3, September 1995

lack of political representation compounded these problems. Each of the policy documents from the above agencies emphasised the importance of research. This indicated that intervention at the level of national policy was needed to address problems and challenges faced by the youth development sector. An important aspect of the policy research undertaken during this period was the general consensus that the concept of youth needed to be disaggregated. The CASE and JEP collaboration research disaggregated youth in terms of degrees of marginalisation²⁷, the Plank/USAID report²⁸ disaggregated youth in terms of different categories of 'disempowerment' and the HSRC report, rather familiarly, disaggregated youth on the basis of race²⁹

The latest report on the youth development sector is the EPU and NYDF collaborative youth research³⁰. This research was aimed specifically at providing "...an overview of existing provision for out-of-school youth, analysing existing policies, recommending new policy options and formulating a plan of implementation for the proposed policies³¹". This report goes a long way toward contextualising youth policy formulation in South Africa, but does not provide an audit of out-of-school youth provision. The report does identify the primary service providers (namely the state, NGOs and private organisations), but focuses more on the difficulties and logistics of obtaining service provision data from these sources, than on trying to start the process of mapping the sector. The report justifies its failure as follows:

"It struck us that disaggregating the location and needs of the target population and matching this with an extremely diverse, uneven, and even more heterogeneous set of institutions may be an utopian ideal. This suggested the need to focus which did not fall into this trap, but which is also at the same time manageable"³².

Auditing service provision is crucial to rational planning and policy formulation for the youth development sector, and it has to start somewhere. As mentioned in Chapter 1, there still exists no systematic audit of all service provision in the youth development sector.

2.10 Lessons for South Africa

Youth policy and provision in South Africa is still in its infancy and there is immense potential for far reaching changes to be effected in this field. From the literature review, a few important lessons for youth policy and provision in South Africa can be ascertained:

1. A major category of goals in youth service provision in the countries reviewed covers benefits to individual participants. In all of the European countries reviewed, the benefits to participants take a number of forms, but the two most prominent are personal needs and personal development of youth. As far as personal needs and personal development are concerned, all of the countries reviewed have elaborate welfare systems and vibrant voluntary sectors which take responsibility for assisting youth according to their individual needs. Under these circumstances, a youth culture has developed which is inward looking, consumption inclined, and pleasure oriented, and to some extent segregated from adult responsibilities and values. South African youth policy and provision should guard against creating a system of youth provision which impedes the transition to adulthood by increasing or prolonging the dependency of youth. This can perhaps best be accomplished by the

²⁷Everatt, D & Orkin, M () 993), 'Growing-up tough': A national survey of South African Youth.

²⁸D. Plank et al, (1993), 'South Africa, Training for Employment Concept Paper'.

²⁹F. van Zyl Slabbert, et al, Youth in the New South Africa: Towards Policy Formulation

³⁰Education Policy Unit Youth Report, March 1996

³¹Education Policy Unit Youth Report, March 1996 - Pg. 1

³²Education Policy Unit Youth Report, March 1996 - Pg. 16

creation of institutions and activities that involve young people in responsible roles and that at the same time cater for personal needs and personal development.

2. Three of the five European countries reviewed, namely, Germany, Britain and Norway have placed a strong emphasis on cultural integration of youth. South Africa has a fragmented past where ignorance and the lack of knowledge of fellow citizens existed because of the racial divide. Furthermore, these deep divisions were complicated by the gulf between the rich and poor, the technologically advantaged and those with obsolescent skills. Youth service policy and provision would be well advised to recognise these factors and create capacity for cultural integration in youth services which would target divisions of class, ethnicity, race, gender, religion and geographical region. The German model of youth policy and provision during the immediate post-war years is exemplary in this regard.
3. All the countries reviewed (including the developing African nations) have oriented their youth policy and provision towards economic development and productivity. Economic development in youth services may place direct emphasis on development infrastructure and productive capacity, which is explicit in the developing nations reviewed. Alternatively, economic development is incorporated into youth services by an emphasis on youth employment and entrepreneurial activity. From the literature review, it is clear that during the 1980s, a distinct change in direction occurred in Britain and Australia, where greater attention was placed on community-based youth employment and entrepreneurial activities. The results of this shift in emphasis are not yet available, but with a youth unemployment rate of 52%³³, youth policy and provision should perhaps investigate the appropriateness of such an emphasis in our country.
4. The European countries reviewed maintain advanced economies, and all of them place a strong emphasis on economic education and training. This trend holds true not only for the countries reviewed, but also in youth development activities in much of the world, where education and job training are being increasingly stressed³⁴. Germany, in particular, has recognised that formal schooling does not have a sufficient format for individual education. There is too much to learn, and schooling cannot cover all of it. Youth services are therefore organised as informal education to supplement classroom education. In Germany, youth education and training is expressed as human capital development, while in Japan youth education and training is regarded as investment in an economic asset. Both the German and Japanese systems of youth education and training are national investment strategies, as opposed to the more conventional welfare strategies used by many other nations. Youth policy and provision in South Africa needs to consider the integration of education and training capacities with a strong economic emphasis if we are to integrate our youth in the global economic village.

The lessons mentioned above suggest some directions that youth service provision in South Africa could explore.

³³David Everatt (1995). School Reject or Eject? Contextualising Out-of-School-Youth in the New South Africa. *Prospects*, vol.xxv, no. 3, September 1995.

³⁴United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (1981b). *New Approaches to Rural Youth and Development in Latin America and the Caribbean*. Paris: Unesco.

CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

A cross-sectional survey design was employed to collect the data from the youth development projects sponsored by JET. The design was cross-sectional in that it provided a snapshot of the youth development sector across the different provinces; and it was a survey in that it provided data about the youth development sector at a particular point in time. The combination of cross-section and survey design in this research seemed appropriate as it fulfilled the requirements of the research first, by describing the nature of existing conditions in JET's youth development sector; second, by providing baseline data of existing conditions which could assist in identifying, defining and comparing standards of performance in the youth sector; and finally, by providing baseline data from which further retrospective and prospective enquiry can take place.

3.1.1 Design of the questionnaire

The following areas were covered in the main questionnaire:

- Area 1: Organisational questions
- Area 2: Governance
- Area 3: Project staff
- Area 4: Accreditation information
- Area 5: Programme information
- Area 6: Trainee information
- Area 7: Financial information
- Area 8: Facilities
- Area 9: Future

Appendix 1 contains a copy of the covering letter and survey questionnaire used in the initial research. A second questionnaire which dealt with programme evaluation, databases, and tracking systems was sent to the projects in May 1996. A copy of the follow-up questionnaire and covering letter is included in Appendix 2.

3.1.2 Sample

The target population was defined as all youth development organisations sponsored by JET. At the time of conducting the survey this numbered 44 projects¹.

3.1.3 Data collection

The questionnaire was posted to the youth projects. An appeal in a covering letter accompanied the questionnaire and invited the youth projects to respond to the questions. Contact persons on the JET project team were listed in the event that any of the projects required assistance with responses to questions.

¹See Joint Education Trust Annual Review, 1994.

3.1.4 Processing of data

As the completed data was returned to the project team at JET, a process of editing the returned questionnaires began. This involved scanning the questionnaires, identifying errors or omissions of data, and clarifying details with the projects where necessary. Once this task had been accomplished, the data obtained was reduced. The process of data reduction involved post-coding the data received in order to make it amenable to analysis on computer-based statistical packages. The coded data was captured in tables on a spreadsheet format.

3.1.5 Analytical techniques

For the purposes of this audit descriptive statistical techniques such as frequency counts, averages and percentages were used. It should be noted that data received was self-report data and in many cases no system of checking the authenticity of the data was available. The research initiative was further complicated by the fact that organisations taking part in this audit were reporting to their (under, which may have biased their responses.

3.1.6 Summary of the dataset

A total of 44 JET-funded youth projects nationally were included in the audit. Details regarding the number of projects per region which responded to the survey and those which did not are summarised in the following table.

Table 1 - Summary of the dataset

Region	Responded	Did not respond	Total
Eastern Cape	3	1	4
Free State	1	0	1
Gauteng	8	7	15
Kwazulu-Natal	7	1	8
Northern Cape	2	0	2
Northern Province	1	1	2
North West	1	1	2
Western Cape	7	1	8
National Projects	0	2	2
Totals	30	14	44

Table 1 shows that 68 % of the total sample responded to the survey in the audit. Most of the regions had a high response rate (an average of 79 %), with the exception of Gauteng, where only 53 % of the sample responded. A list of the projects which responded to the survey is contained in Appendix 3. Details regarding the status of projects which did not respond to the survey are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2 - Status of projects which did not respond to the survey

Status of projects	Number
Still funded by JET	7
Not funded by JET but still provide a service	5
Closed down operations	2
Total	14

Table 2 shows that 50 % of the projects which did not respond to the survey are still funded by JET, 36 % are not funded by JET but still provide a service and 14 % have closed down operations.

3.2 Methodological constraints

The use of the cross-sectional survey design has distinct advantages over cohort or interview research. Some of the more notable advantages are that it is time and cost efficient, the number of candidates that can be reached is extensive, the overall reliability is generally good and sources of error are limited to the research instrument and sample. On the other hand, the cross-sectional survey design has many inherent disadvantages. These include:

1. Cross-sectional survey designs are inappropriate in causal research as they are not ongoing in their collection of data (like cohort designs), but rather provide a snapshot of the state of affairs at a particular point in time;
2. they provide limited opportunity for asking questions unless they are used in conjunction with interviews or focus groups;
3. they provide limited opportunity for probing responses and so invariably lose some of the finer detail and texture of individual responses; and
4. they rely to a greater extent on the researchers' ability to understand and write up the information gathered, rather than present the data in the subject's own understanding and description.

Some of these disadvantages were apparent in the present research. For instance, some respondents had difficulty in understanding the type of information required to respond to certain questions, even though they contacted the project team at JET. A further difficulty encountered was the fact that some rural youth projects had restricted access to telephones and fax facilities. In these cases, respondents did the best they could to answer the questions.

These methodological difficulties undoubtedly had a negative impact on the research results, but in our view this was outweighed by the positive and useful information derived from using the cross-sectional survey design.

CHAPTER 4 - PROGRAMMES PROVIDED

4.1 Introduction

The chief activity of all the projects surveyed is training programmes for youth. This chapter describes information received from the projects about who is involved in the design and presentation of these programmes, the type of programmes offered, the skills developed, accreditation status, languages employed, and training methods and tools used.

Some projects also offer workshops, which are touched upon in the next chapter, when the total numbers reached by the activities of the projects are reported on.

4.2 Programme Design

Past experience, both in South Africa and abroad, indicates that the starting point in effective youth programme design should be an awareness and understanding of the needs and characteristics of young people. Once this is accomplished the target of programme design is to apply the elements of effective practice in ways that address the needs of the population being served. Youth programme design in South Africa (pare April 1994) was orientated toward controlling resistance, remediation of individual difficulties, pathology and deviance. This trend is clearly illustrated during the national insurrection of the mid-1980s. During that time, youth began to play a prominent part in resistance and a number of programmes (or strategies) initiated by the then government were aimed at controlling resistance, and were developed around the themes of education and work. Within the framework of apartheid, education was expanded, and the Department of Manpower undertook a Special Employment Creation Programme. This initiative was doomed to failure. One of the crucial lessons learnt from it was that education and training for work needs to go beyond equipping people for low wage, low skill positions in the labour market. It should include the broader concept of higher level education and training for positions which demand problem-solving and decision-making, and offer appropriate compensation¹.

Present initiatives in youth programme design emphasise a model that tends to be developmental, broad based, inclusive and participative². Common sense, experience and research all point to the fact that the more at risk the target population, the more extensive the range of services needs to be in order to have substantial and sustainable impact³. Research in multidisciplinary fields such as education, economics, psychology, sociology and political science may also inform programme design. Research in these fields contains a substantial body of information on effective practices that can directly inform the design of programmes for youth. For instance, research findings from the field of adolescent psychology, evaluation research on alternative forms of education and training, and research on cognitive development could provide us with knowledge beyond the confines of our own area of speciality and could enrich the elements of programme design which make them effective.

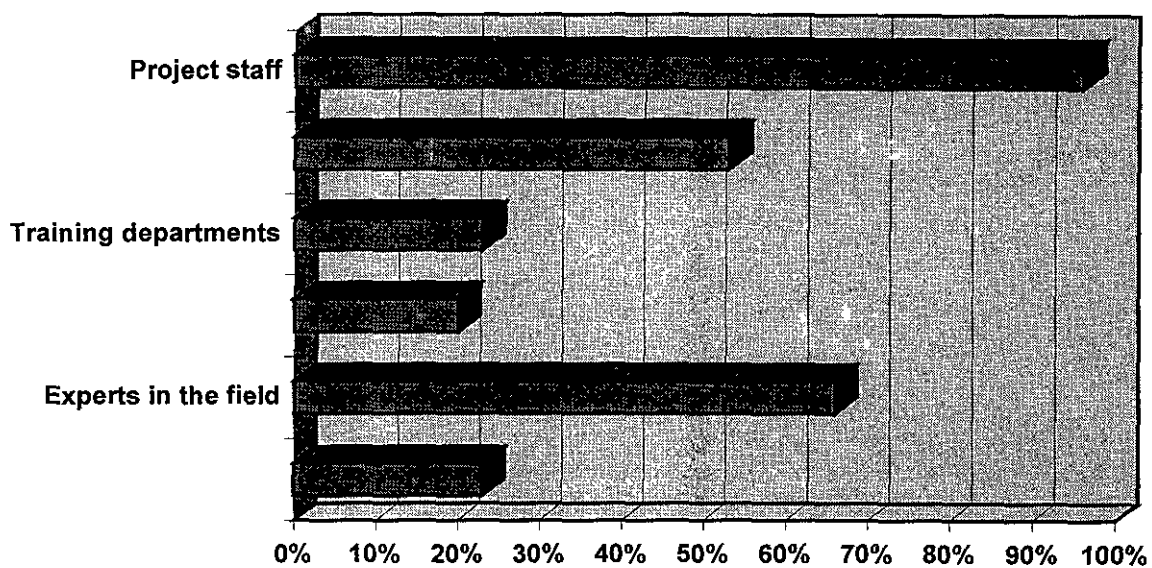
In the present audit attempts were made to assess the extent to which people with different expertise are involved in the design of youth programmes. Youth projects were requested to provide information on which of these people were involved in the design of their programmes, namely, project staff, representatives from institutes, training departments, colleges and technikons, experts and others. The information received from these projects is summarised in the Figure 1.

¹EPU Youth Report, March 1996.

² See JET Bulletin, Focus on Youth Development, Graeme Bloch - June 1995.

³Cuman, S.P. & Melchior, A. (1994). Moving towards quality programmes: Defining criteria for quality programme design based on lessons from research and experience. Center for Human Resources - Brandweis University.

FIGURE 1 - MAJOR SOURCES OF DESIGN INPUT FOR YOUTH PROGRAMMES



From Figure 1 it is evident that at the national level of youth projects there is little involvement of training departments (23 %), colleges and technikons (20 %) or other programme design practitioners in the design of youth programmes. These results suggest that there is a lack of links/partnerships between youth development projects and formal educational and training institutions. Possible implications of this are, first, these projects may not have access to research and knowledge about effective practices from other fields generated by education and training institutions. This knowledge of effective practices could directly inform and improve programme design. Second, links and partnerships with educational and training institutions could, by their very nature, encourage projects to share their experience in the field with researchers. Researchers in turn, may be able, through field-based research, to identify and make practical suggestions for programme design. The importance of these implications cannot be avoided when considering the work of the National Qualifications Framework and its efforts in ensuring appropriate standards of quality in education and training in South Africa. Finally, from the information obtained on programme design input, the question of this researcher is: at what level is the input of the target population (that is, youth) brought into programme design in this sector?

4.3 Programme Presentation

The starting point of any discussion revolving around effective programme presentation is the recognition that there exists no single model of presentation which works for all youth. While one young person may benefit from a highly structured presentation style, another may need a more flexible and practically orientated presentation style. In the present audit, youth projects were requested to provide information on the extent to which they draw on expertise other than their project staff to present their programmes. The information received from the youth projects is summarised in Table 3.

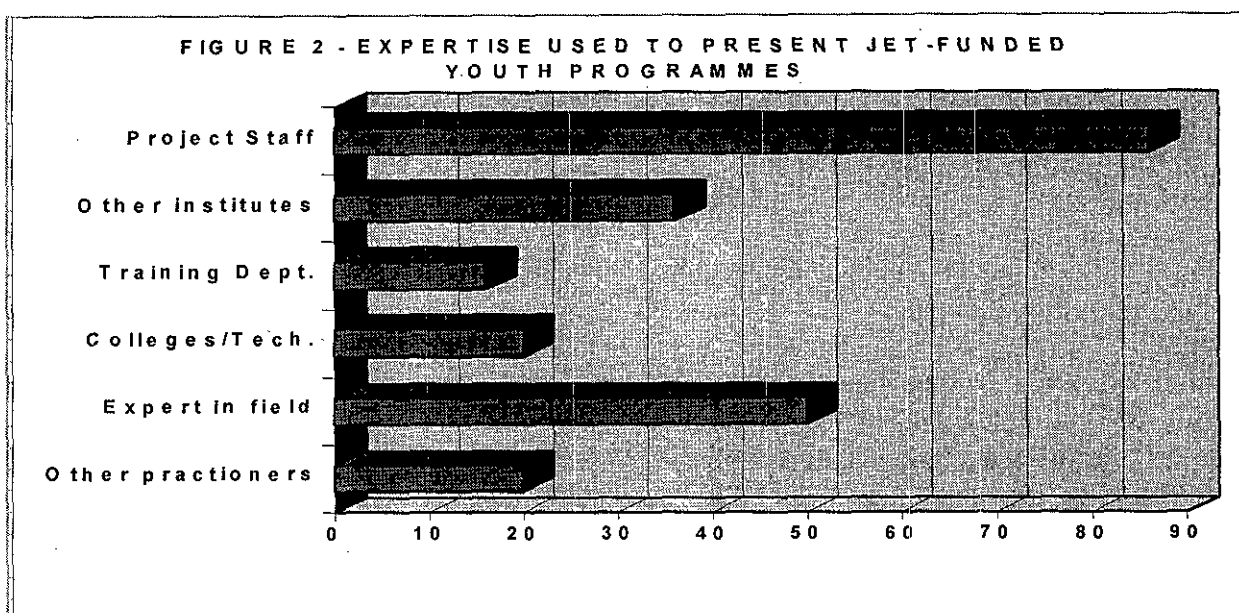
It is important for any youth programme to draw on local resources and circumstances to enhance its model of presentation, so that it meets the needs of the young people it serves. Just as at the level of programme design where a multidisciplinary team input is encouraged, so too is a multidisciplinary team of presenters encouraged at the level of programme implementation. In practical terms this translates into scheduling certain

modules in youth programmes in such a way that the most appropriate or suitably qualified person presents the modules to the young people at the programme.

This also means that it will not always be necessary for project trainers to present all the programme modules, but rather the project could draw on a local expert or visiting international expert to enhance the quality of the module's and programme's presentation. Figure 2 provides a breakdown of the sources of expertise used by youth projects to present their programmes. From Figure 2 it is evident that the projects surveyed have a distinct preference for having their programmes presented by their own project staff.

Table 3 - Sources of programme presentation in youth projects

Number of projects	Region	Project staff %	Other institutes %	Training boards %	College technikon %	Expert in field %	Other %
3	Eastern Cape	100	66	33	66	66	0
1	Free State	100	0	0	100	0	0
8	Gauteng	100	25	0	12	37	0
7	Kwazulu-Natal	42	42	28	28	28	42
2	Northern Cape	100	50	0	0	100	50
1	Northern Province	100	0	0	0	100	50
1	North West	100	0	100	0	100	0
7	Western Cape	100	42	14	0	57	28
30	Averages	86	36	16	20	50	20



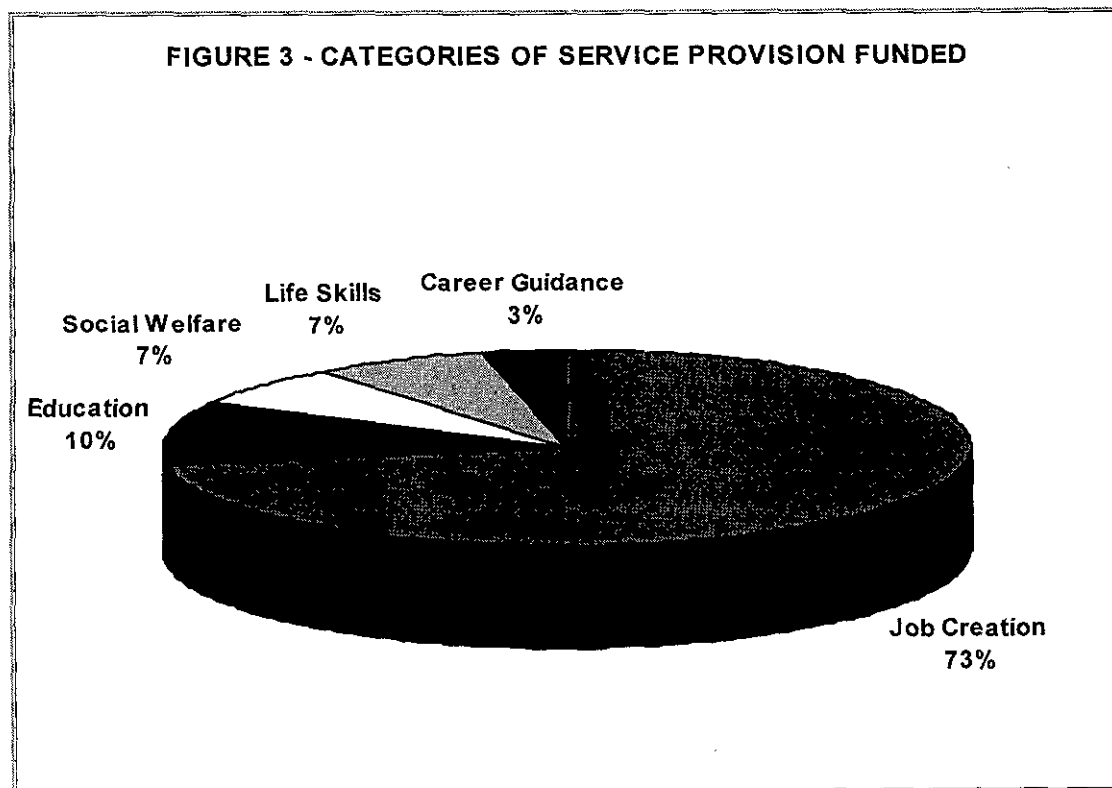
4.4 Range of programmes offered

The programmes offered by JET-funded youth projects fall into five broad categories, namely, job creation, education, social welfare, life skills and career guidance. These categories were arrived at by examining the stated aims and objectives of the various programmes. Even though all the projects surveyed offer programmes with a combination of these categories, consideration was given to the main thrust of the programmes when determining a project's area of focus. For instance, even if a business skills training programme contained elements of life skills and career guidance, it is categorised as job creation if its predominant aim is to provide business training to candidates. The results of categorising the projects surveyed into the different areas of focus are summarised in Table 4

Table 4 - Categories of service provision

Number of projects	Region	JC	ED	SW	LS	CG
3	Eastern Cape	2	0	1	0	0
1	Free State	1	0	0	0	0
8	Gauteng	7	0	1	0	0
7	Kwazulu-Natal	5	0	0	2	0
2	Northern Cape	1	1	0	0	0
1	Northern Province	0	1	0	0	0
1	North West	0	1	0	0	0
7	Western Cape	5	1	0	0	1
30	Totals	21	4	2	2	1

From Table 4 it is clearly discernible that the bulk of projects focus on job creation (JC = 21 projects or 70 %). The next highest category of service provision is education (ED = 5 projects or 10 %). Social welfare (SW) and life skills (LS) follow with 2 projects (6.66 %) each. Finally, the career guidance category has just 1 of the youth projects (3.33 %) providing that service. Table 4 reflects JET's priority of funding programmes which lead to employment or income generation. These results are illustrated in Figure 3.



4.4.1 Job creation programmes

The job creation programmes offered vary from training to assist the young adult access employment in the formal sector to small business and entrepreneurial training. The length of these programmes varies in the different regions, but the average length is 101 days, which translates into 3 months per programme. Even though these programmes seem to be covering a wide base of skills training, the impact of these job creation programmes has yet to be demonstrated. Later in this report (Chapter 7) focus will be directed towards database and tracking systems, which are critical aids in assessing the impact of programmes. At that stage, a more critical discussion will be presented on the issue of the impact of job creation programmes.

4.4.2 Educational programmes

Five of the JET-funded youth programmes focus on educational service provision in the area of literacy. These programmes are mainly based in the rural regions of the North West, Northern Province and Northern Cape. They are primarily aimed at the eradication of illiteracy among out-of-school youth in these areas. The rationale is that some basic education is a prerequisite for further education and training.

4.4.3 Social welfare programmes

JET funds the education and training component of two youth projects which provide social and welfare services for youth. These projects typically involve the care of street children, and by introducing educational and skills training to this target population, these projects hope to improve their ability to cope with and overcome the street culture they have become accustomed to. It must be emphasised that even though these training and educational modules are structured, they are flexible enough to be presented to these children if and when they are available. This indicates the nature of the problems faced by this particular area, wherein the projects have to compete with the alternative and alluring street culture which tends to draw the children back onto the street. These initiatives redefine the traditional modes of interaction between the street children and these projects. Whereas in the past street children would be dependent on the project for food, warmth and a temporary shelter, they can now also obtain some form of education and skilling from these places of retreat.

4.4.4 Life skills programmes

All of the programmes offered by JET-funded youth projects have a component of life skills in their curriculum. However, two projects based in the trouble-torn KwaZulu-Natal region, focus solely on life skills. These projects submitted funding proposals; to JET reflecting the civil, ethnic and political strife in this region and the need for youth projects aimed at life skills such as conflict management and negotiation. Both the proposals were considered and approved on the basis that they addressed a definite need in that region. JET's experience in the youth development sector indicates that "Youth are generally disempowered, lacking the social and cultural capital to get ahead"⁴. Bloch explains further that South African youth "...have been buffeted and tempted from all sides and interventions thus need a range of dimensions"⁵. Bloch then identifies some of the life skills which may be appropriate in the programme curriculum of youth projects. They are language and communication skills, leadership development, time management and other practical job seeking skills such as the writing-up of curricula vitae. Bloch's assertion that curriculum development in youth programmes needs to be "multifaceted and holistic" is further supported by Potgieter, who argues that solutions aimed at youth development need to be multi-layered as the problems facing them are complex⁶.

4.4.5 Career guidance programmes

Only one youth project sponsored by JET focuses on career guidance. Career guidance programmes are normally associated with youth in the formal sector of education, that is, at schools, technikons or university. Out-of-school youth normally have minimal or no access to career guidance. With the economy not generating enough jobs for young people entering the labour market, and the fact that there are serious shortages of skilled labour in several sectors of the labour market, it becomes especially important for youth to identify sectors in the labour market which promise prospective employment.

⁴See JET Bulletin, June 1995. Focus on Youth Development, Graeme Bloch.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Potgieter, Febe (1995). A national youth development strategy: The role of the state and civil society, in JET Conference Publication, Youth Job-Skills Training: Strengthening provision and developing policy.

4.5 Skills developed by the programmes

The range of programmes offered by the youth projects was dealt with in the previous section. This section concentrates on the type of skills taught in these programmes. For purposes of convenience, the types of skills developed by the programmes have been broken down into seven categories:

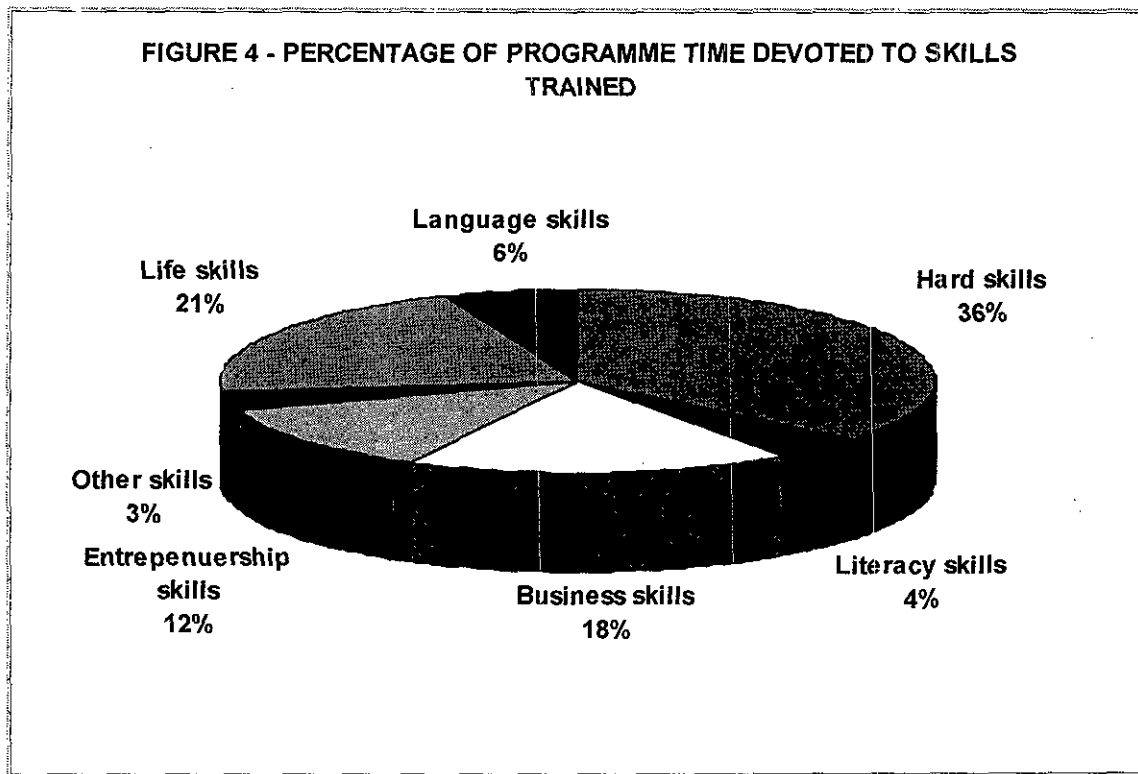
1. **Hard skills:** those skills which involve some form of concrete and practical training which will enable the trainee to produce, create or engage in an activity which could lead to economic reward. Examples of these skills are brick-laying, electrical appliance repairs, plumbing and typing.
2. **Business skills:** those skills which are related to the world of work and business. They could encompass theoretical and practical training in business and may be experiential in nature. Example of these are drawing up an income and expenditure statement, maintaining financial records, the principles of marketing and selling skills.
3. **Entrepreneurial skills:** those skills which increase the ability of the candidate to spot and take advantage of market opportunities that exist in the environment. They focus on encouraging candidates to think of business opportunities that exist in new technologies or ranges of services.
4. **Life skills:** those skills which focus on increasing the social and cultural capital of the candidate. They may be of a practical, theoretical or experiential nature. Even though they are not directly related to increasing the economic potential of the candidate, if applied outside the programme environment, they do enhance the ability of the candidate to access legitimate forms of economic activity.
5. **Language skills:** those skills which relate to the terminology of the programmes offered. Much of the terminology used in these programmes is alien or new to the candidates. Thus these language skills are aimed not at the finer grammatical or technical features of any particular language, but rather at the functional understanding of the concepts used in the programmes.
6. **Literacy skills:** those skills which relate to the candidates' ability to read, write and comprehend the materials provided during these programmes. In some instances, candidates may have difficulty in engaging in these activities (regardless of the medium of instruction). These programmes thus incorporate a literacy component in their curriculum to overcome this barrier to the candidate's development.
7. **Other skills:** any skills not listed above, but which form a part of the programme's curriculum, such as numeracy and other skills specific to the project's sphere of activities and the environment it operates in.

Projects were requested to state what proportion of their programmes fell into each of the seven skill categories described above. A breakdown of the skills developed by these JET-funded youth projects regionally and nationally follows in Table 5. A list of the breakdown by individual project is provided in Appendix 4.

Table 5 - Percentage of programmes devoted to each of the various seven skills

Number of projects	Region	Hard skills	Bus. skills	Ent. skills	Life skills	Lang. skills	Liter. skills	Other skills
3	Eastern Cape	40	17	15	15	13	0	0
1	Free State	5	20	50	10	5	5	5
8	Gauteng	36	25	10	15	4	7	3
7	Kwazulu-Natal	50	6	10	32	1	0	1
2	Northern Cape	19	24	14	26	13	4	0
1	Northern Province	90	5	5	0	0	0	0
1	North West	18	0	13	37	11	18	0
7	Western Cape	19	19	12	28	9	4	9
30	Average	35	17	12	20	6	4	3

From Table 5 it is evident that most of the programmes develop most of these seven categories of skills, but they attach different priorities to each. The priority attached to a skill expresses itself in terms of the percentage of programme time and content allocated to that skill's development. For instance, in the KwaZulu-Natal region, projects attach a high priority to hard skills training: on average, 50 % of programme time and content is devoted to hard skill training in this region. By the same token, projects in the Western Cape attach a high priority to life skills training: on average nearly 30 % of programme time and content is devoted to life skill training in this region. The priority that projects attach to different skills development is to a great extent also manifested in the design of programmes.



4.6 Accreditation status of the programmes

Accreditation is the procedure by which an authoritative body gives formal recognition that an institute, body or person is competent in terms of a specific purpose⁷. Table 6 illustrates the proportion of programmes nationally and regionally which are accredited and those which are not. From Table 6 it is evident that a large proportion (77 %) of the programmes offered by JET-funded youth projects have not been subjected to some form of accreditation appraisal in terms of their content and the results they achieve. This seems to suggest that there is a lack of established links between these youth development projects and formalised education and training institutions. The significance of the National Qualifications Framework to youth projects will be explored in the last chapter of this report.

With regard to the development sector, and specifically the youth development sector, it is becoming increasingly important to ensure the best quality of service delivery and the maximisation of development of people reached by donor funds. These twin pressures are not only expressing themselves at the level of delivery (that is, development projects), but also at the level of facilitative mechanisms (that is, funders and donors) involved with development.

⁷ HSRC, Ways of Seeing the National Qualifications Framework, September 1995

Table 6 - Proportion of programmes surveyed regionally and nationally which are accredited

Number of projects	Region	Accredited
3	Eastern Cape	67 %
1	Free State	0 %
8	Gauteng	38 %
7	Kwazulu-Natal	29 %
2	Northern Cape	0 %
1	Northern Province	0 %
1	North West	100 %
7	Western Cape	57 %
Total = 30	Nationally	23 %

At the level of delivery, it is extremely important for projects to ensure that the youth passing through their programmes have a demonstrable understanding and the capability to perform tasks consistent with this understanding as specified by the project's aims. Recognition of the project's programmes through accreditation, by some form of authoritative and formal body, should act as a guarantee that the aims, methodologies and systems of a project meet an appropriate standard and quality. It is increasingly important for funders to have tangible evidence that the programmes being implemented in the youth sector impact positively on youth. It is envisaged that programmes which do not have a positive and demonstrable impact on youth would not attain accreditation status until they do so. The accreditation status of projects would thus provide a good screening tool for donor agencies when deciding on which projects to sponsor.

Certification, in terms of the youth projects, refers to the awarding of certificates to trainees who have successfully completed these programmes. In most cases, these certificates are only backed by internal sanction of the youth projects concerned. Awarding of these certificates depends on what the project defines as competent performance of the trainee. These certificates serve as recognition and proof that the trainee has successfully completed the programme concerned. In the absence of an overall national qualifications framework, the weight and worth of these certificates are undetermined. The proportion of projects which award certificates to trainees is summarised in Table 7.

Table 7 - Proportion of the youth projects which award certificates

Number of projects	Region	Award certificates
3	Eastern Cape	66 %
1	Free State	100 %
8	Gauteng	75 %
7	Kwazulu-Natal	85 %
2	Northern Cape	50 %
1	Northern Province	100 %
1	North West	100 %
7	Western Cape	85 %
Total = 30	Nationally	83 %

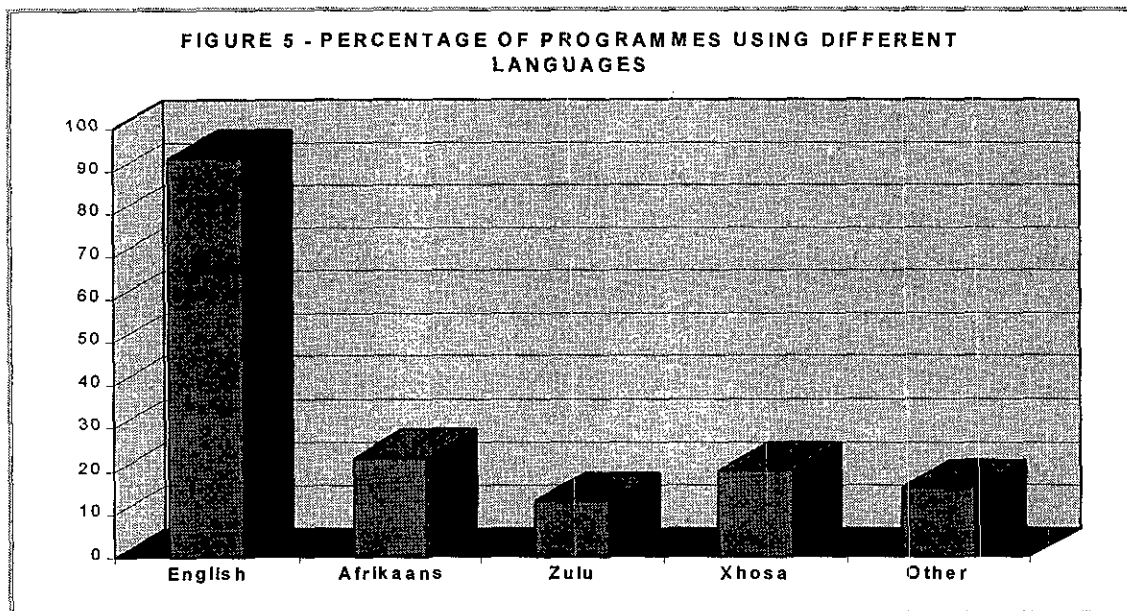
4.7 Languages used to present programmes

This audit of youth projects investigated the use of different language mediums for programme instruction and the results are summarised in Table 8. It is clearly discernible that at the national level, English is by far the most frequently used medium of instruction: 93 % of projects report using English all or some of the time. In most instances the other languages are used as a back-up; presenters switch to the vernacular if necessary to facilitate a better understanding of concepts not readily grasped by trainees. For instance,

even though all of the projects in the Eastern Cape use English as their primary medium of instruction, they are inclined to switch to Afrikaans or Xhosa if participants do not grasp concepts which are explained in English. In Kwazulu-Natal presenters are inclined to switch to Zulu, Xhosa, Afrikaans or another language if necessary to facilitate a better understanding of concepts.

Table 8 - Percentage of programmes using various languages, by region and nationally

Number of projects	Region	English	Afrikaans	Zulu	Xhosa	Other
3	Eastern Cape	100	33	0	100	0
1	Free State	100	0	0	0	0
8	Gauteng	100	12	0	0	25
7	Kwazulu-Natal	85	14	57	14	14
2	Northern Cape	50	50	0	0	0
1	Northern Province	100	0	0	0	100
1	North West	100	0	0	0	100
7	Western Cape	100	42	0	28	0
Total = 30	Nationally	93	23	13	20	16



4.8 Training methods

With specific reference to the JET-funded youth development sector, Bloch⁸ has noted that South African youth are "...largely alienated from traditional schooling and even work disciplines. Courses thus need to be varied and exciting, with a large base of learner centred and experiential processes. At the same time empowerment is important..." For the purposes of this audit, the training methodologies used by the programmes were broken down into six categories, namely, lectures, group learning exercises, practical activities, role-play, observation and other. The proportion of programmes which use these methodologies nationally and regionally are summarised in Table 9 and Figure 6.

At both national and regional levels, a large proportion of the programmes report using all the different training methodologies surveyed. However, it is not known how much of a programme is presented in each methodology. This is important since a programme may report that it uses lectures, role-plays and group learning to train its trainees, but on examination it may come to light that role-plays are only used in presenting one module

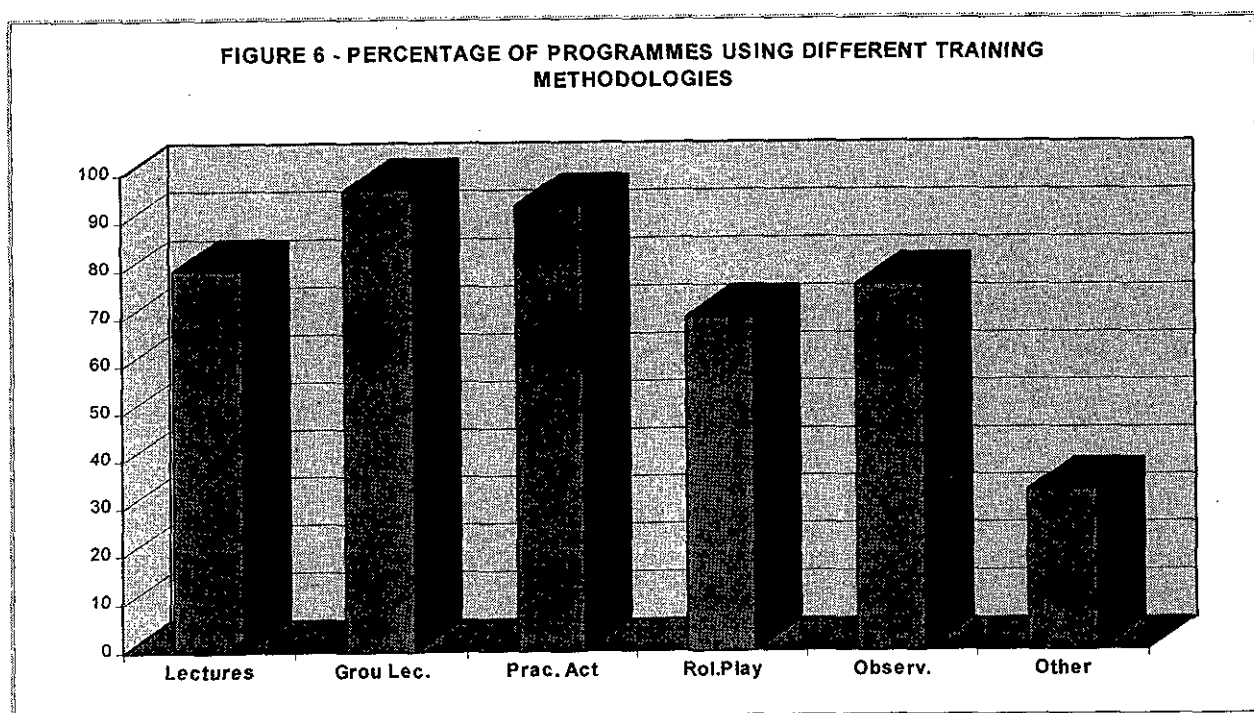
⁸See JET Bulletin. June 1995. Focus on Youth Development, Graeme Bloch.

the entire programme. Similarly, group learning may only be used in another two modules and lectures may be used for the majority of the modules presented.

Table 9 - Percentage of projects using various training methodologies, by region and nationally

Number of projects	Region	Lectures	Group Learning Exercises	Practical Activities	Role Play	Observation	Other
3	Eastern Cape	100	100	100	33	67	33
1	Free State	100	100	100	100	100	100
8	Gauteng	88	100	100	88	50	25
7	Kwazulu-Natal	71	86	86	43	71	43
2	Northern Cape	50	100	50	50	100	0
1	Northern Province	0	100	100	0	100	0
1	North West	0	100	100	100	100	0
7	Western Cape	100	100	100	100	100	43
30	Nationally	80	97	93	70	77	33

FIGURE 6 - PERCENTAGE OF PROGRAMMES USING DIFFERENT TRAINING METHODOLOGIES



The use of different training methodologies is important, but becomes significant when they are used to the extent that they change the programme from the formal academic lecturing style to a more balanced mix of varied training methodologies to sustain trainee participation and learning. Thus for instance, a youth programme could have lectures in the morning (when concentration and attention spans are greatest), role-plays after tea (providing variation and introducing fun and excitement to learning) and practical activities in the afternoon (when the attention and concentration spans are at their weakest). This example demonstrates how training methodologies in programme design could be varied according to concentration and attention spans of young people. The training methodologies could also vary according to a whole range of other variables like the aims of the programme, the target population being trained, and the training infrastructure available.

4.9 Training infrastructure

The present audit also looked at the infrastructure available to projects for implementing their training programmes. Two essential features were considered, namely training tools and project facilities. Each of these aspects will be considered independently.

4.9.1 Training tools

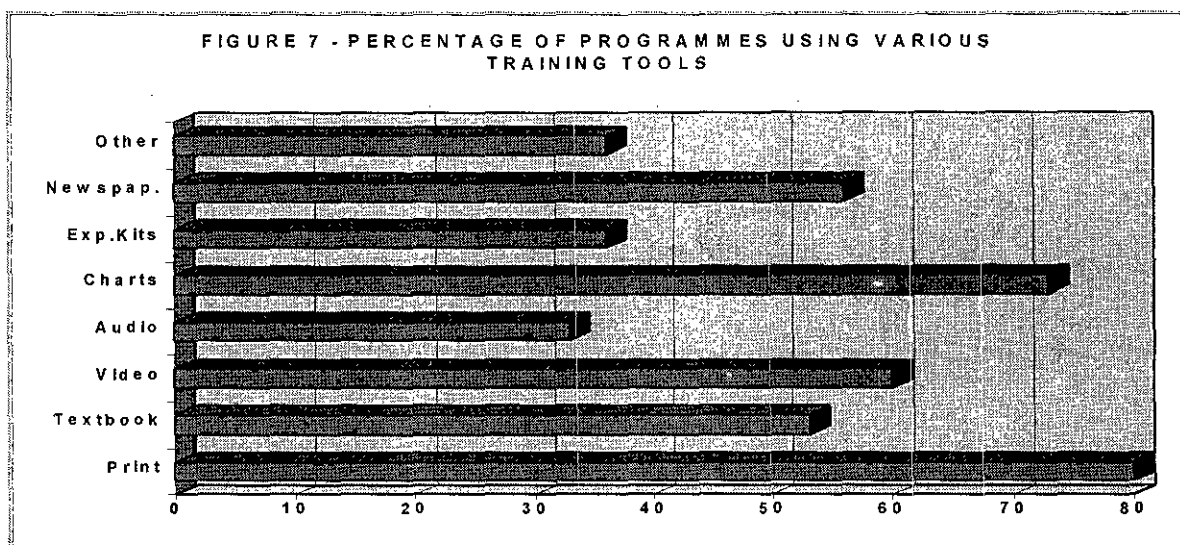
A whole range of training tools are used to present programmes to youth. The type of training tools used are determined by the following factors:

1. the focus area of the training. For example, business training would probably require calculators, accounting textbooks and other business-related materials;
2. the types of training methodologies used. For instance, a first aid course will probably choose theoretical, practical and role-play activities as its main methodologies. This would involve the use of printed material covering theoretical aspects, the practising of various treatment procedures covering the practical aspects, and role-playing to demonstrate understanding of the treatment procedures taught to trainees;
3. the level of functioning of the prospective trainees. For instance, if one were training rural women in basket weaving, using a textbook on the finer points of basket weaving would probably alienate the target group from the training process;
4. the age and generation specific preference of the prospective trainees. For example, older trainees may prefer textbooks to video recorded materials and computers.

Table 10 - Percentage of projects using various training tools

No.	Region	Print	Text book	Video	Audio	Chart	Exp. kits	News paper	Other
3	Eastern Cape	100	100	66	33	100	0	66	0
1	Free State	100	100	100	100	0	100	0	100
8	Gauteng	62	50	50	12	75	37	62	50
7	Kwazulu-Natal	57	42	28	0	57	28	42	28
2	Northern Cape	100	50	100	100	100	0	50	0
1	Northern Province	100	0	0	0	100	100	0	0
1	North West	100	100	100	100	100	0	100	0
7	Western Cape	100	42	85	57	71	57	71	57
30	Averages	80	53	60	33	73	36	56	36

From Table 10 it can be seen that most projects use most of the training tools, with the exception of audio training tools which are used by only 33 % of the projects and experimental kits which are used by 36 %. The proliferation of multimedia educational and training materials is reflected by the increasing use of video training tools (60 %) among the projects surveyed. This trend is likely to continue in the future and presents interesting possibilities for cost effective mass service delivery in youth development. Interactive distance learning and technology-assisted service delivery thus may provide some alternatives to the current system and means of service delivery.



4.9.2 Project facilities

The availability or non-availability of facilities to organisations engaging in training has a direct impact on its service delivery capabilities. Nowhere is this more evident than in the development sector, which constantly faces financial uncertainty. In the current youth audit the availability of several key facilities or resources was investigated. The results of this investigation are summarised in Table 11.

Table 11 - Percentage of projects with access to various facilities

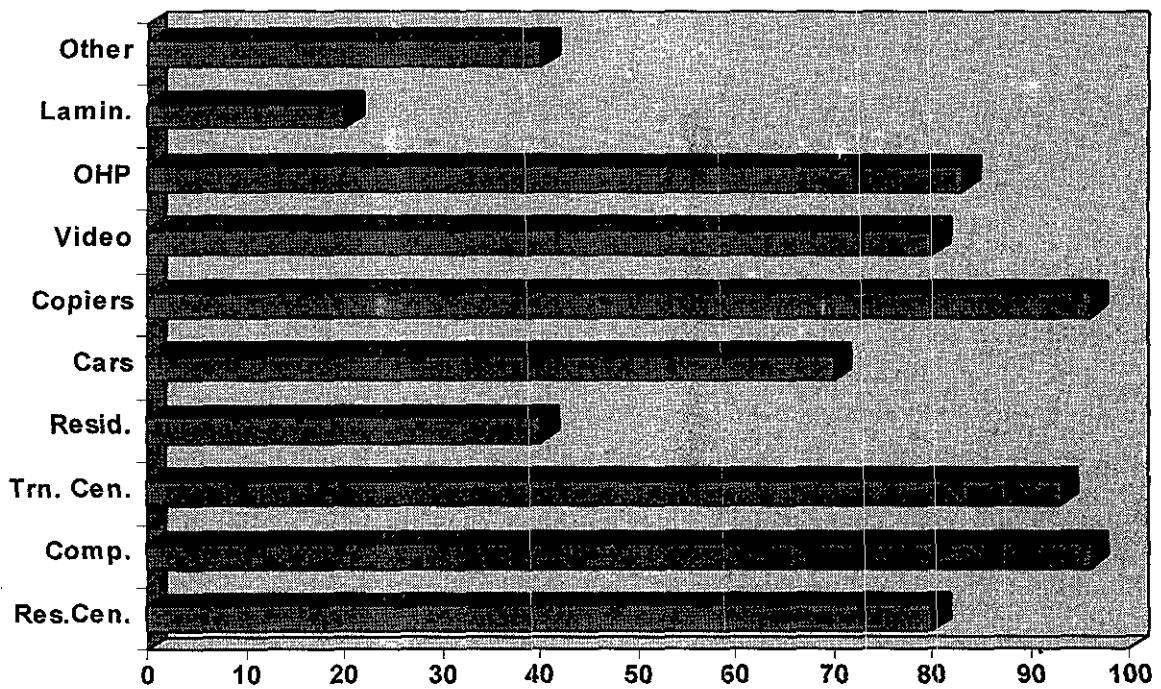
No.	Region	Resource Centre	Computers	Training Centres.	Residence	Cars
3	Eastern Cape	33	100	100	66	66
1	Free State	100	100	0	100	100
8	Gauteng	87	100	87	25	50
7	Kwazulu-Natal	85	85	100	57	85
2	Northern Cape	100	100	100	100	100
1	Northern Province	100	100	100	100	100
1	North West	0	100	100	0	100
7	Western Cape	85	100	85	14	57
30	Averages	80	96	93	40	70

Table 11 continued - Percentage of projects with access to various facilities

No.	Region	Copier	Video	OHP	Laminating Machines	Other
3	Eastern Cape	100	33	100	33	0
1	Free State	100	100	100	100	100
8	Gauteng	100	75	75	0	50
7	Kwazulu-Natal	85	85	57	14	42
2	Northern Cape	100	100	100	50	50
1	Northern Province	100	100	100	0	0
1	North West	100	100	100	0	0
7	Western Cape	100	85	100	28	42
30	Averages	96	80	83	20	40

Table 11 shows that the projects have good access to facilities such as resource centres (80 %), computers (96 %), training centres (93 %), cars (70 %), copiers (96 %), video machines (80 %) and overhead projectors (83 %). Most of the projects (60 %) do not have access to residences for trainees attending their programmes. This limits the ability of the project to recruit from a wider region than the community within which it is based, as trainees from areas outside that community cannot be offered accommodation during their period of training at the project.

**FIGURE 8 - PERCENTAGE OF PROJECTS WITH ACCESS TO
VARIOUS FACILITIES**



CHAPTER 5 - TARGET POPULATION

5.1 Matching youth to services - selection procedures

The existence of selection procedures for a programme, academic course or any other form of activity implies that choices are made with regard to the best or most suitable candidates. In the present youth audit, the proportion of projects which had selection procedures was assessed. The information received from projects is summarised for the national and regional levels in Table 12.

Table 12 - Proportion of youth projects with selection procedures

Number of projects	Region	With selection %
3	Eastern Cape	33
1	Free State	100
8	Gauteng	87
7	Kwazulu-Natal	71
2	Northern Cape	50
1	Northern Province	0
1	North West	0
7	Western Cape	85
30	Averages	70

Youth projects which install selection procedures in their recruitment are probably looking for candidates most likely to benefit from the interventions they provide. The danger of introducing selection procedures or mechanisms in the youth development sector is that these interventions will not reach unsuccessful candidates who have the greatest need for them. Thus selection procedures not properly conceptualised become an exclusionary instrument rather than a positive developmental tool. Selection procedures constructed to include the widest possible range of youth and also provide useful information of "where they are at" developmentally seems to be the route to go.

5.2 Numbers reached by programmes

An important component of this audit was to assess the numbers of youth reached by projects surveyed. JET sees this activity as the first step to obtaining baseline data upon which further quantitative and qualitative investigations into the effectiveness of these projects can be initiated. Furthermore, on a more pressing and basic level, this data would also help JET attain an indication of return on investment of the funds it ploughs into the youth development sector.

5.2.1 Programme applicant and trainee numbers

The total number of applicants for programmes offered at projects was 18 762 for 1995. Of these prospective candidates 84 % (15 673) were accepted as trainees for the programmes offered. This represents a 18 % increase in the total number of trainees over the previous year (13 281). This 18 % increase in trainee numbers was achieved with a 2.5 % increase in funds, from R12 million in 1994 to R12.3 million in 1995.

Table 13 - Total number of trainees reached by projects

Number of projects	Region	Applicant numbers 1995	Trainee numbers 1994	Trainee numbers 1995
3	Eastern Cape	3 585	2 100	3 400
1	Free State	361	350	297
8	Gauteng	3 880	1 550	2 476
7	Kwazulu-Natal	7 183	6 200	7 149
2	Northern Cape	130	55	175
1	Northern Province	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
1	North West	600	600	603
7	Western Cape	3 023	2 426	1 573
30	Totals	18 762	13 281	15 673

Table 14 provides the average number of applicants and trainees reached by projects on a regional and national level.

Table 14 - Average number of trainees reached by projects

Number of projects	Region	Applicant Numbers 1995	Trainee Numbers 1994	Trainee Numbers 1995
3	Eastern Cape	1195	700	1133
1	Free State	361	350	297
8	Gauteng	485	193	309
7	Kwazulu-Natal	1026	1033	1021
2	Northern Cape	65	28	88
1	Northern Province	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
1	North West	600	600	603
7	Western Cape	431	346	224
30	Averages	625	458	522

5.2.2 Programme attendance, attrition and failure rates

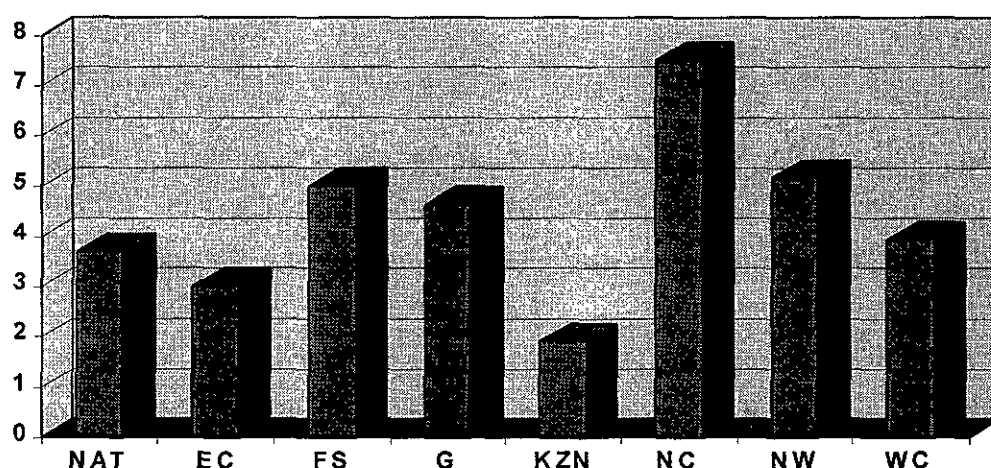
The projects surveyed were also requested to provide information on their attendance, attrition and failure rates. The information received is summarised in Table 15. From Table 15 it is clear that the projects surveyed have extremely good attendance rates (93 %), low attrition rates (4 %) and negligible failure rates (1 %). With regard to attendance, research has found that the three main reasons why out-of-school youth are not attending school are minding cattle, caring for relatives and involvement in their parents' businesses¹. The same research found that once youth have prematurely ended their schooling and attempted to re-engage with further studies or training, the primary reasons for their absenteeism, attrition and failure are problems with child care, transport, and personal and family safety. Despite these difficulties, many out-of-school youth who are accessible and in need, feel positive about themselves and are keen to re-engage with the learning sphere. These youth are involved in organisations and regularly access the media. The low absenteeism, attrition and failure rates at the projects surveyed in this audit support these research findings.

¹Everatt, D. & Jennings, R. (1995). Educated for servitude? A national survey of "out-of-school youth" in South Africa.

Table 15 - Attendance, attrition and failure rates at projects

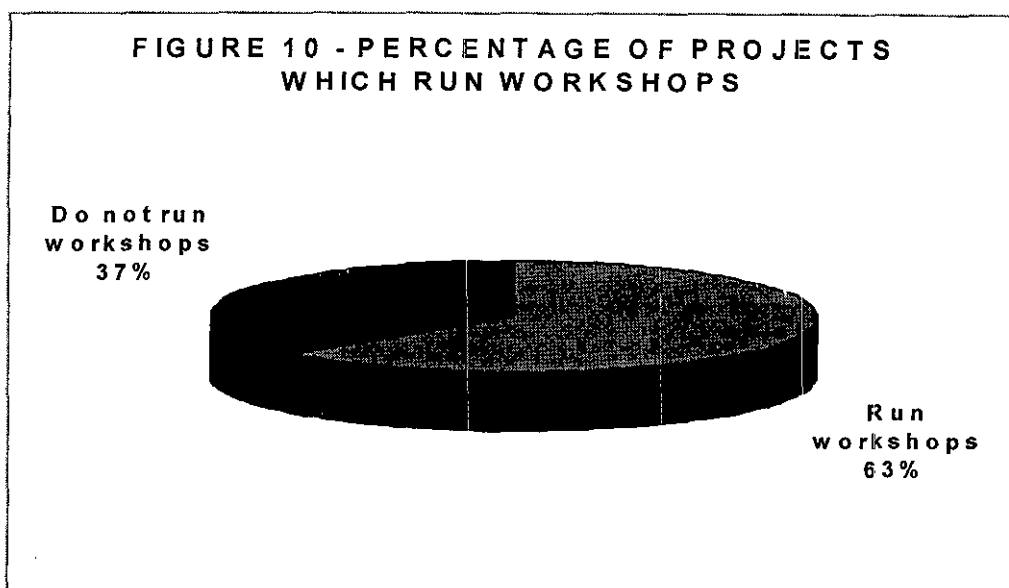
Number of projects	Region	Attendance rates 1995	Attrition rates 1995	Failure rates 1995
3	Eastern Cape	95 %	3 %	0 %
1	Free State	95 %	5 %	0 %
8	Gauteng	95 %	5 %	1 %
7	Kwazulu-Natal	92 %	2 %	1 %
2	Northern Cape	83 %	8 %	0 %
1	Northern Province	95 %	Not Available	Not Available
1	North West	85 %	5 %	3 %
7	Western Cape	93 %	4 %	2 %
30	Averages	93 %	4 %	1 %

FIGURE 9 - COMPARISON OF ATTRITION RATES AT PROJECTS IN THE DIFFERENT REGIONS



5.3 Workshops run by projects

In addition to the training programmes described above, some projects offer workshops. For the purposes of this audit a clear distinction is made between people attending a training programme and those attending a workshop. People attending a training programme are regarded as trainees and those attending a workshop are regarded as participants. This distinction becomes important for reporting purposes, where the numbers of candidates reached and the mode in which they were reached is important. In the present audit it was established that 63 % of the projects surveyed ran workshops, and that 50 % of the workshops run by these projects were directly related to the training programmes offered by the projects. The other 50 % of workshops run by these projects were related to community needs. Thus for instance, during the general elections held in April 1994, many of the projects engaged in voter education workshops. During the recent floods many of the projects arranged workshops on the prevention of diseases which normally accompany flooding.



5.3.1 Number of workshops in 1994 and 1995

From the Table 16, it is apparent that the number of workshops run by projects nationally, increased by 151 % from 1994 to 1995. At the regional level, the number of workshops run by projects in the Eastern Cape, Free State, Gauteng and Western Cape decreased. Of particular importance is the large number of workshops run in the Kwazulu-Natal region during 1994 and 1995. The bulk of these workshops were run by a project which was piloting the introduction of conflict resolution and negotiation skills in a region which is plagued by political violence. This once-off project sponsored by JET inflates the figures on the number of workshops run in that region.

Table 16 - Number of workshops run by projects

Number of Projects	Region	Workshops run in 1994	Workshops run in 1995
3	Eastern Cape	11	7
1	Free State	17	11
8	Gauteng	8	7
7	Kwazulu-Natal	133	528
2	Northern Cape	40	56
1	Northern Province	3	7
1	North West	7	7
7	Western Cape	32	9
30	Totals	251	632
	Average per project	8	21

5.3.2 Number of workshop participants in 1994 and 1995

Table 17 shows that the number of participants at workshops run by projects nationally increased by 104 % from 1994 to 1995. Again the total number is inflated by the once-off pilot project of conflict resolution and negotiation skills workshops in the Kwazulu-Natal region. At a regional level, the number of participants at workshops run by projects in the Eastern Cape, Free State, Northern Cape and Western Cape decreased.

Table 17 - Number of participants attending workshops

Number of Projects	Region	Number of Participants in 1994	Number of Participants in 1995
3	Eastern Cape	1345	1060
1	Free State	58	52
8	Gauteng	192	285
7	Kwazulu-Natal	3691	15437
2	Northern Cape	1850	164
1	Northern Province	7	30
1	North West	49	57
7	Western Cape	1229	93
30	Totals	8421	17178
	Average per project	280	572

CHAPTER 6 - ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION

6.1 Introduction

With the drafting of the youth commission bill by parliament there is now a basis for progress and development of youth affairs in South Africa. What does seem to be lacking in the youth development environment is information by way of clear standards to translate the legislative and policy impetus into guidelines for effective programme design, presentation or implementation and evaluation. In the present youth audit, information with regard to assessment and evaluation was requested. This information may inform policy formulation and development practices and so assist in translating youth policy into high quality programmes.

6.2 Programme assessment and evaluation

In order to ensure effective youth development, a system of evaluation which is individualised and ongoing, performance based, and functionally orientated has to be put in place in projects which supply youth services. The issue of functionally orientated evaluation refers to the fact that few of the skills and competencies trained in youth programmes can be adequately assessed through traditional paper and pencil type tests. In order to assess these skills and competencies effectively, this system needs to adopt a mix of traditional and performance-based assessment and evaluation strategies. This system focus on the following areas of projects:

1. Project assessment gains made by youth who access these services (that is, trainee assessment);
2. Trainee assessment of programmes to determine if programme interventions match their needs.
3. External evaluation of the programme performance in terms of the impact it creates on the trainees and their communities.

The three areas above provide a sound basis for conducting evaluation of youth programmes. Taken together, they are powerful tools for youth project management. In the present audit of youth projects, information on these aspects of assessment evaluation were requested.

6.3 Project assessment of trainee gains

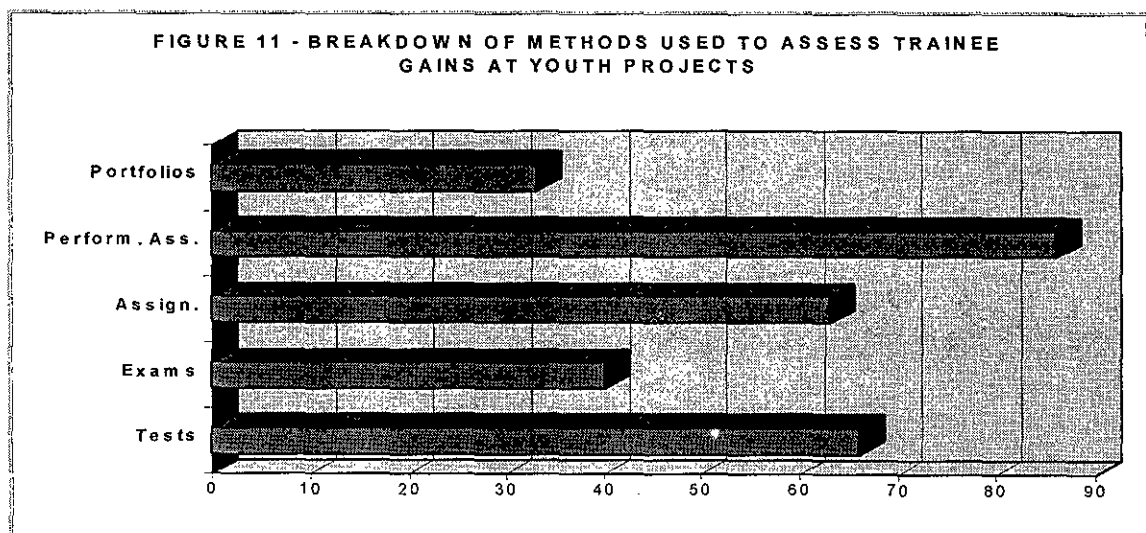
Trainee benefits from programme interventions depend on a variety of factors, which include the design of the programme, the methodologies used to implement the training in the programme and the training tools used to reinforce and concretise the programme's interventions. The degree to which the candidate has benefited from the programme interventions has to be assessed with some tool designed to measure assimilation of the knowledge, both theoretically and practically. Well-designed training programmes almost always include a component which covers trainee assessment. An encouraging feature of this survey is the fact that all the projects have some form of assessment procedure to evaluate; trainee gains from the programmes offered. These assessment procedures take various forms, namely, tests, exams, assignments, performance assessments and trainee portfolios. The percentage of programmes using each of these methods is shown in Table 18.

Table 18 - Proportion of projects using various assessment methods

Number of projects	Region	Tests %	Exams %	Assignments %	Perform. assess. %	Portfolios %
3	Eastern Cape	100	100	100	66	33
1	Free State	100	0	100	100	100
8	Gauteng	87	25	37	87	12
7	Kwazulu-Natal	42	28	28	71	14
2	Northern Cape	100	100	100	100	0
1	Northern Province	100	0	100	100	100
1	North West	100	100	100	100	0
7	Western Cape	42	42	85	100	57
30	Averages	66	40	63	86	33

From Table 18 it is evident that exams (40 %) and portfolios (33 %) are the least common forms of assessing trainees. Tests (66 %), and assignments (63 %) are more frequently used, whilst performance assessment (86 %) is the most popular form of assessing gains made by trainees. The problems associated with performance assessment are many, with a few of the more pertinent ones being: (1) What constitutes competent performance? (2) How do these projects standardise their ratings of competent performance?. (3) Is there inter-rator reliability in their assessment of competent performance? In other words, if two separate assessors had to rate the same candidate, would they reach the same rating? If rating criteria and procedures are clearly specified, it is likely that the two assessors would arrive at the same rating for the candidate; the existence of such specifications would be an indicator of inter-rator reliability of the assessment process. (4) How do these projects assess competent performance with large groups?

The questions that emerge with regard to performance assessment are also applicable to some extent to all of the other methods used to assess trainee gains. None of these questions could be answered with the type of data requested in the questionnaire. These are important questions which need to be addressed. Greater clarity (or even more confusion) may arise once the National Qualifications Framework begins its regulatory functions in earnest.



6.4 Trainee assessment of programmes

The projects were also requested to provide information on whether their programmes were assessed by trainees, and if so, what method of assessment was used. The information received from the youth projects is summarised in Table 19.

Table 19 - Percentage of programmes assessed by trainees, and the method of assessment used

Number of projects	Region	Assessed by trainees %	Questionnaire %	Interview %	Written report %
3	Eastern Cape	100	67	100	67
1	Free State	100	100	100	100
8	Gauteng	75	75	37	25
7	Kwazulu-Natal	57	42	57	0
2	Northern Cape	50	50	50	50
1	Northern Province	0	0	0	0
1	North West	0	0	0	0
7	Western Cape	100	28	71	42
30	Nationally	73	50	57	30

Trainee assessment of programmes provide a counter-balance to the project's assessment of trainee gains, and helps to integrate the ideas of trainees into improving the design of the programme for future candidates. With regard to the assessment of trainee expectations, 73 % of the projects have mechanisms to evaluate the degree to which the programme met trainee expectations and needs. There are several issues regarding how the feedback of trainees is used by projects. Firstly, the difference between trainee expectations and their needs have to be clearly defined before curriculum changes are made to programmes on the basis of this type of information. Secondly, projects often use this type of "feel good" information to validate the efficacy of their programmes to funders. This type of information is no substitute for independent external evaluations of programme efficacy. Finally, the conceptualisation, design and conditions under which instruments assessing trainee expectations and needs are administered, need to be carefully monitored, before the feedback received from trainees can be used to effect changes to project functioning and programme curriculum.

6.5 External evaluation of programmes

A crucial aspect of programme evaluation is external and independent verification of the programme's efficacy in meeting its goals and objectives. In order to do this, it is important for the programme to define a meaningful set of desired programme outcomes against which its performance and impact on the community it serves can be evaluated. In the present audit of youth programmes, projects were requested to provide information regarding the external and internal evaluation of their programmes.

At the regional level of the projects surveyed, an average of 57 % of the projects have had external and 17 % internal evaluations. A summary of the percentage of projects evaluated in the different regions is presented in Table 20 below.

Table 20 - Evaluation status of projects in the different regions

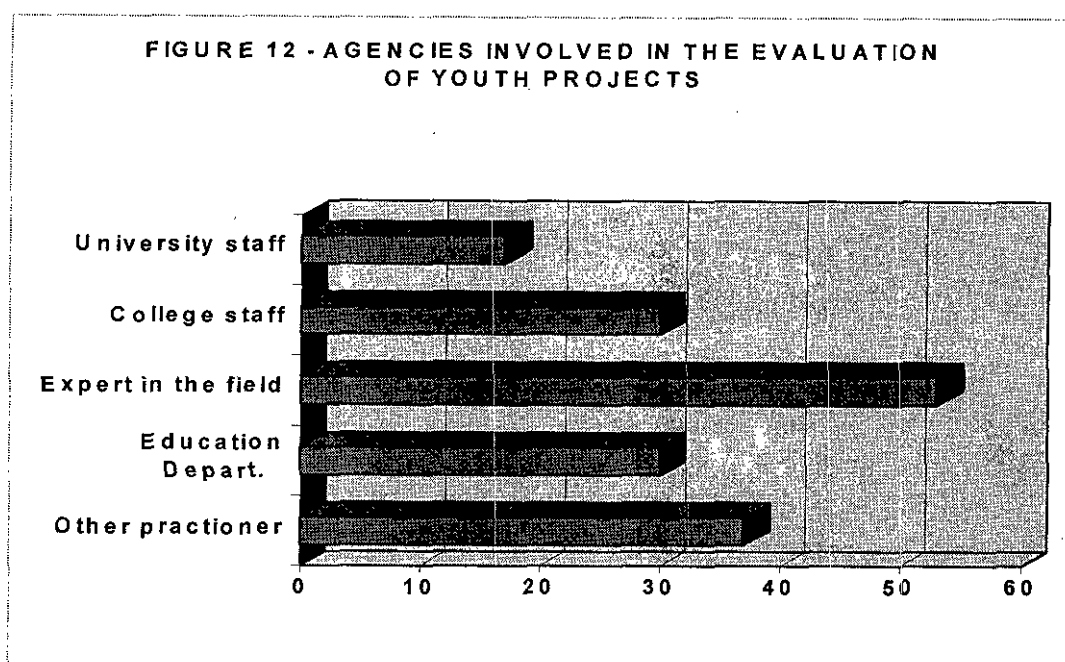
Number of projects	Regions	Evaluated externally	Evaluated internally
3	Eastern Cape	0 %	33 %
1	Free State	100 %	0 %
8	Gauteng	63 %	25 %
7	Kwazulu-Natal	43 %	0 %
2	Northern Cape	50 %	50 %
1	Northern Province	0 %	100 %
1	North West	0 %	0 %
7	Western Cape	100 %	0 %
30	Nationally	57 %	17 %

From Table 20 it is evident that projects are increasingly recognising the importance of evaluating the quality and impact of the programmes they present. Even though most of the projects are willing to subject their programmes to external and independent evaluations, obtaining finance to do so is difficult. An encouraging feature is that projects without finance for external evaluation, are attempting to evaluate their programmes internally. The issue of the objectivity of internal evaluations of quality and impact may be justifiably raised regarding this practice. However, the positive attitude towards evaluation within these projects, reflected by their attempts at self-evaluation, may ultimately benefit the target populations they serve.

The results presented in Table 20 are informative, but they provide no information regarding the agencies involved in the evaluations, the evaluation status of projects in the different categories of service provision, the types of evaluation conducted, and the manner in which these evaluation results were used. Due to a lack of information on these important aspects of programme evaluation, a follow-up survey which dealt with programme evaluation and databases and tracking systems was conducted on the projects in May 1996. A copy of the follow-up questionnaire and covering letter is included in Appendix 2.

6.5.1 Agencies involved in the evaluation of projects

The results obtained from this follow-up survey revealed that a wide range of agencies and individuals are involved in the evaluation of the projects surveyed. These evaluators range from university and college staff to experts in the field. Education department officials and other practitioners are also included in this range. A list of the individuals and agencies involved in these evaluations, and the projects evaluated, as well as when these evaluations were conducted is given in Appendix 5.



6.6 Categories of service provision - evaluation status

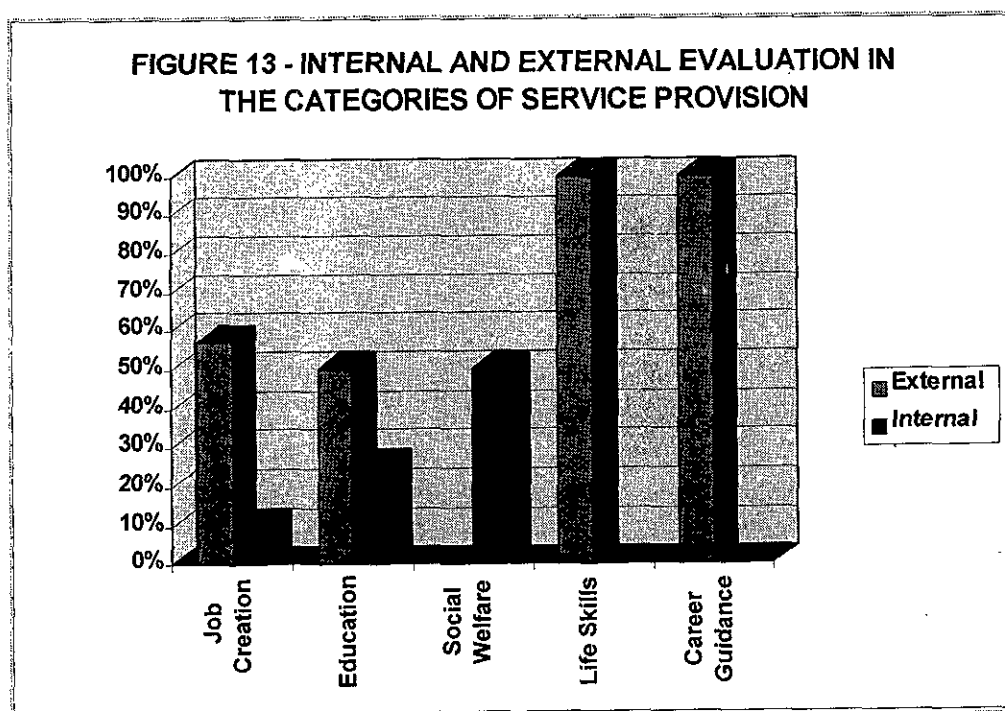
From the information obtained in the follow-up survey, the proportion of programmes in the different categories of service provision which were evaluated was calculated. These results are summarised in the Table 21.

Table 21 - Evaluation status of projects in the different categories of service provision

Number of projects	Category of service provision	Evaluated externally	Evaluated internally
21	Job Creation	57 %	10 %
4	Education	50 %	25 %
2	Social Welfare	0 %	50 %
2	Life Skills	100 %	0 %
1	Career Guidance	100 %	0 %
30	Averages	57 %	17 %

From Table 21 it is evident that some of the projects in all of the categories of service provision, with the exception of Social Welfare projects, have undergone some form of external evaluation. In the category of Job Creation, which contained the largest number of projects (21), over half of the projects (57 %) had been externally evaluated. With regard to the two Social Welfare projects, which specialised in the care of 'street-children', no external evaluation of the programmes had taken place. This was further investigated in consultation with the projects concerned. It was established that the field of street children recovery and development in our country is still in its development stage, and that interventions provided by programmes of this nature are still a matter of research. Furthermore, because of the lack of a unified empirical system or procedure for investigating the field of street children recovery and development, these projects have designed their programmes to establish a base upon which research in the field can be conducted. Added to this, these projects have embarked on internal evaluations of the efficacy of the programmes they offer, in consultation with national and international stakeholders in

the field of street children recovery and development. The information obtained from this exercise was useful and indicated that some of the projects surveyed were extremely conscious of the evaluation process, and the benefits that could accrue to the target population if the results of evaluations were constructively used.



With regard to the remaining categories of service provision, the aims of the evaluations conducted were examined. These aims were categorised into four types of evaluations, namely, programme, impact, operational and strategic evaluations. These types are defined in the following section.

6.7 Types of evaluations conducted on projects

Programme evaluation refers to evaluations which focus on the curriculum of the programmes offered. Impact evaluation refers to the effects that these programmes have had on the target populations' lives and their communities. Operations evaluation refers to organisational development initiatives relating to the project staff and systems. Strategic evaluation refers to assessments of the project's position in the development field or market place, and focuses on the process of positioning the project in the future.

These four types of evaluation follow a rough logical sequence. For instance, at the inception of a project, much attention is directed at ensuring that the programme delivered is pitched at the correct level and needs of the target population. One way of determining this is through an evaluation of the programme curriculum.

After a period of time, questions regarding the extent to which candidates who have completed the programme are successfully applying the skills or knowledge learnt in their lives begin to emerge. A possible way of answering these questions would be to evaluate the impact of the programme according to appropriately defined success outcomes.

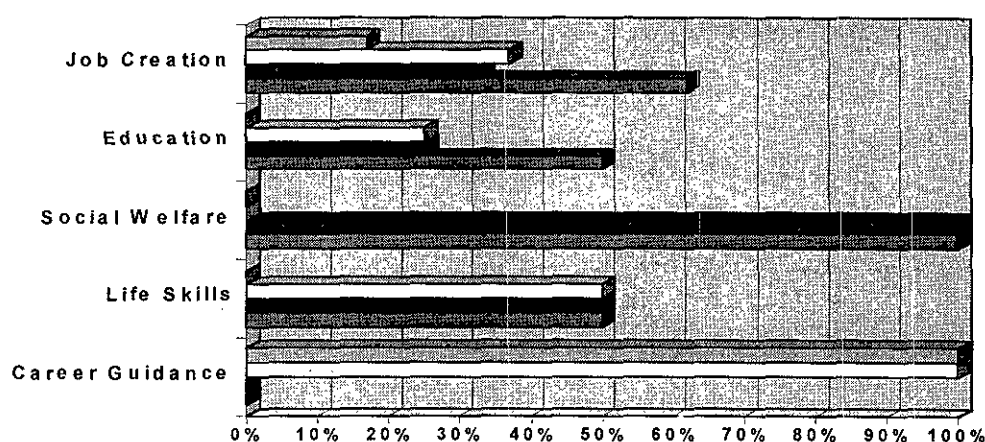
Assessment of impact does not end the evaluation feedback loop. The positive or negative outcomes of impact research could point to programmatic or operational excellence or deficiencies that may need to be maintained or improved. At this stage, operational systems relating to project staff and the systems they work with may require evaluation. The results of this operational evaluation could be used to effect changes and adjustments to the project with the aim of assisting it to accomplish its objectives.

The last level of evaluation in this feedback loop is evaluations for strategic planning. Once the project has, through the process of evaluation, begun to deliver the service it provides at the optimum level of quality and efficiency, the project may consider its future direction. It may look at replication of its services by opening another branch, it may look at its long-term sustainability from a financial or funding perspective, it may even consider extending its core services to cater to other needs of the target population. The possibilities regarding the future directions of projects are limitless, but they need to be evaluated for their viability and consistence within the project's goals. It is at this stage that the need for evaluations for strategic planning become apparent.

Table 22 - Types of evaluations conducted in the categories of service provision

Number of Projects	Categories of service provision	Programme	Impact	Operations	Strategic planning
21	Job Creation	62 %	33 %	37 %	17 %
4	Education	50 %	25 %	25 %	0 %
2	Social Welfare	100 %	100 %	0 %	0 %
2	Life Skills	50 %	50 %	50 %	0 %
1	Career Guidance	0 %	0 %	100 %	100 %
30	Averages	60 %	47 %	47 %	20 %

FIGURE 14 - TYPES OF EVALUATION IN THE CATEGORIES OF SERVICE PROVISION



These levels or types of evaluation do not necessarily occur in the sequence described above. Furthermore, not all projects may find it necessary to conduct all the types of evaluations described. The types or levels of evaluation described only provide a framework for understanding and interpreting the evaluation data received from projects surveyed. Table 22 and Figure 14 provide a summary of the types of evaluation conducted in the different categories of service provision.

6.7.1 Programme evaluations

From Table 22 it is evident that projects in all of the categories of service provision, with the exception of Career Guidance, have had a proportion of their programmes evaluated. Only one project existed in the category of Career Guidance, and this project did not present a generic programme to all the clients it served. Rather, the service it provided (career guidance) was related to the individual and specific needs of the client.

6.7.2 Impact evaluations

It is notable that almost half (47 %) of the projects surveyed have had some form of external evaluation of the impact of the programmes they offered. An interesting aspect of this result is the question of whether 'push' or 'pull' forces are at work with regard to assessing impact of programmes. On the one hand, projects may be compelled by funders to prove the impact of their interventions. On the other hand, projects may be commissioning evaluations of impact to assess the degree to which they are successfully meeting the needs of the target population they serve. The reasons why projects are engaging in assessment of their impact are important and so too are the ways in which they use the results. These issues will be explored later in this chapter when we look at the recommendations which have emerged from evaluations.

6.7.3 Operational evaluations

An examination of Table 22 also reveals that almost half of the projects surveyed (47 %) have had evaluations of their operations from an organisational development perspective. This result seems to suggest that even though projects are operating in the developmental sector, many of them are having their operational systems and staff evaluated to improve their levels of efficiency and the quality of the service that they deliver. The result also suggests that projects are not only focusing on programmatic factors (like curriculum) but also operational factors specific to the project (like staff competence, administrative and financial systems) as criteria in judging the overall performance of their functioning.

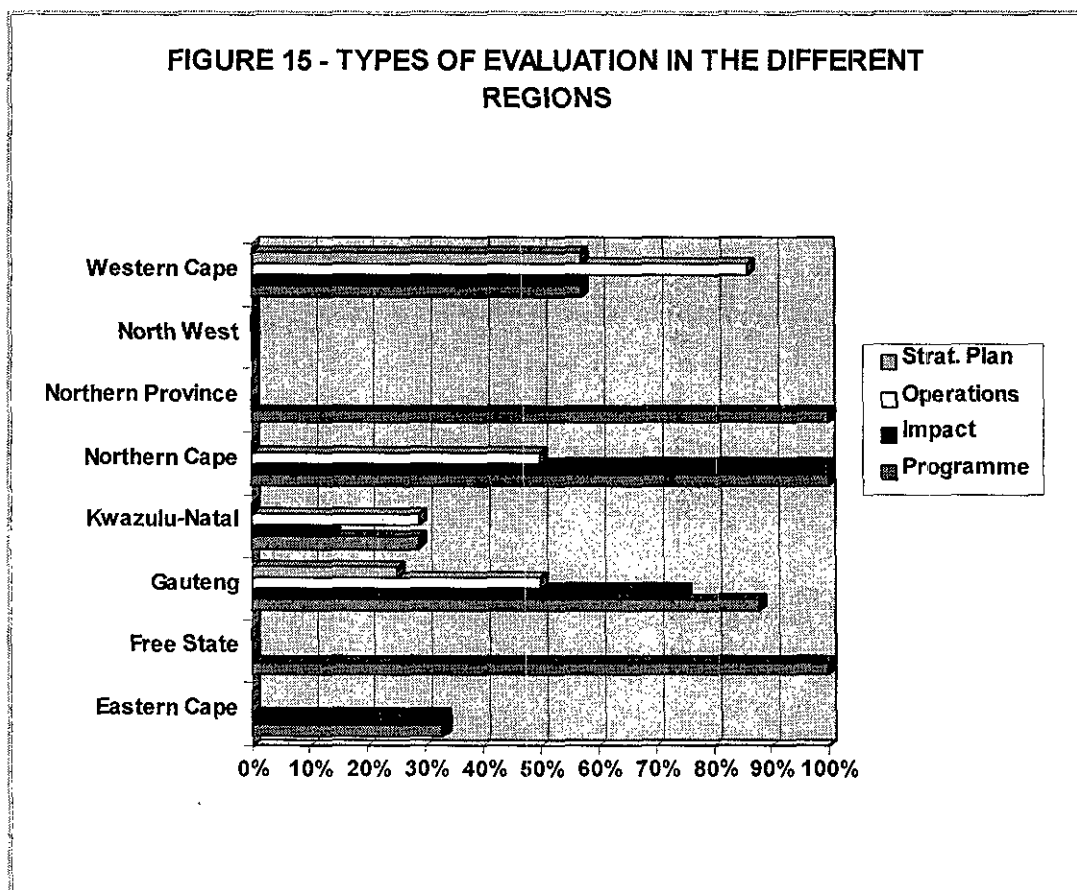
6.7.4 Evaluations for strategic planning

Finally, only a small proportion of the projects surveyed (20 %) have engaged in evaluations for strategic planning. Projects may argue that evaluations of their programmes, impact and operations all provide invaluable information needed for strategic planning, and that in fact, all the information they receive from these evaluations is used for strategic planning. It is the view of this researcher that the paucity of evaluations of this type reflects the uncertainty of the environment within which these projects operate. This uncertainty is manifested by an absence of longer-term planning regarding the positioning of the projects in the sector as a whole and gives rise to multiple questions regarding the future of the projects surveyed. Some of the questions that could be investigated in evaluations for strategic planning are: the issue of diversifying funding bases of projects to ensure

sustainability; the issue of cost recovery for the services provided; the position of the project in the sector it services; the relationship of the project to other important stakeholders in that sector; and the ability of the project to enter into relationships with government and the private sector with the intention of winning contracts for service provision in the areas they service. These questions, if not carefully examined for the purposes of strategic planning, could lead to much of the useful information acquired by evaluations of programmes, impact and operations that the projects are currently engaged in, not being used to optimal effect.

6.8 Types of evaluations conducted in the different regions

Figure 15 provides a summary of the types of evaluations conducted by projects according to region. A brief analysis of some of the trends apparent from the data follows. From Figure 15, it is evident that very little or no evaluation of programmes occurs in the Kwazulu-Natal and North West regions. It is also evident that no evaluations of impact have been conducted in the Free State, Northern Province and North West regions. Operational evaluations and evaluations for strategic planning occur very infrequently in all of the regions, with the exception of Gauteng and the Western Cape. A possible reason for this may be the lack of funds to conduct external evaluations or, alternatively, the sophistication or stage of development of the projects in these regions. A further reason may be that the Culture of evaluation needs to be strengthened in these regions. From the proportion of programmes in the Gauteng and Western Cape regions which have been evaluated, one could infer that a strong culture of programme evaluation exists in these regions. The question of who is responsible for driving the development of a culture and climate conducive to evaluation is complex, but needs to be debated in the development sector as a whole.



6.9 Recommendations which have emerged from evaluations

This section examines some of the recommendations made to projects as a result of evaluations. From a qualitative analysis of the evaluation results reported by projects, it emerged that recommendations made to projects fell into five categories, namely, trainees, programme curriculum, project staff, funders and strategic planning. The essence of the recommendations made to projects in each of the categories is dealt with separately below.

6.9.1 Recommendations regarding trainees

Projects were alerted to problems experienced by trainees attending their programmes, for instance, trainees felt that transport to the project was expensive. The recommendations included comment on the motivational level of trainees and, also made suggestions as to how it could be improved, for instance, inclusion of student representative council structures in the projects, as well as encouraging full participation of trainees in the programme presentation. Project evaluators also made recommendations relating to recruitment and selection procedures, post-programme support and the need for tracking. The need for developing and pilot testing appropriate materials and tailoring programmes to particular target populations were also among the recommendations made. Where the research indicated that trainees could not assimilate programme materials, some projects were advised to present language instruction to trainees. Finally, some projects were advised to build capacity in trainees by forging partnerships with other service providers since interventions needed to be long term for sustained results to occur.

6.9.2 Recommendations regarding curriculum

Most recommendations to projects regarding curriculum focused on identifying components that needed to be included, excluded, streamlined or expanded in programmes. Some recommendations went further, often advising projects to develop stage appropriate materials which complied with some form of nationally recognised standards, and also which had to be field tested before being presented to the target population. A few projects were advised to revisit their programme curricula and assess if the components of these curricula were related to the project's core objectives. In some instances, the extent to which a programme's curriculum was linked to the curriculum of another programme was explored, or the extent to which one programme curriculum prepared trainees for a more advanced programme was investigated. A few of the recommendations questioned the relevance of formal education curricula in the development sector. Finally, some of the more ambitious recommendations looked at the possibility of designing programme curricula whose outputs could serve as a research base for the particular sector.

6.9.3 Recommendations regarding project staff

Most of the recommendations regarding project staff identified training needs and assessed the competency of staff to run the programmes offered. These recommendations included suggestions to upgrade skills and emphasised the importance of self-monitoring by staff of their inputs into programmes. Some of the recommendations suggested linking staff training and development to desired programme outputs, and went further by suggesting the redeployment of staff across strategic programme components. A large proportion of the recommendations commented on the motivation of project staff, citing inadequate communication channels, human resource shortages and the lack of capacity within the projects,

and the lack of affirmative action in senior positions as reasons for poor motivation levels. A small proportion of the recommendations suggested that projects institute some sort of performance appraisal system to measure and link staff achievement to promotion within the projects. Finally, some of the recommendations examined the performance of project staff relative to the systems they were required to work in. These recommendations often criticised the inadequacy of financial and administrative systems and suggested that poor staff performance was a symptom of these inadequate financial and administrative systems.

6.9.4 Recommendations regarding funders

Most of the recommendations made to projects with regard to funders focused on the issue of accountability. These recommendations suggested that one way of improving accountability with funders was providing evidence of the projects' inputs and outputs in terms of unit costs. Another way suggested was by the use of statistical information obtained from the project's database. Some of the recommendations suggested that the research results identified unfolding needs of the projects, and that these results could be used to justify the need for programmatic changes to funders. Finally, a few of the recommendations focused on diversifying funding bases of the projects evaluated.

6.9.5 Recommendations regarding strategic planning

Most of the recommendations to projects relating to strategic planning focused on funding issues. They included suggestions regarding the improvement of fund-raising capabilities of projects, the reduction of unit costs, and the need for self-sufficiency through cost recovery initiatives. Some of the recommendations related to new programme development in projects. They emphasised the need for systemic links between desired programme outputs and programme development. A few of the recommendations suggested that there is a need for ongoing evaluations of projects and also highlighted the importance of evaluation results providing the basis for strategic decisions. A small proportion of the recommendations suggested organisational development interventions in the projects evaluated. This included, amongst other initiatives, the project reanalysing its mission statement and development approach. Finally, a few isolated recommendations to the projects were related to exploring partnerships with the state education department, the need for disseminating information to national and international fraternal organisations, and the need for computer networking technology.

CHAPTER 7 - DATABASES AND TRACKING SYSTEMS

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on the assessment and evaluation of youth projects. While discussing the assessment and evaluation of youth projects, mention was made of the need for accurate data over time to monitor the programme's and trainees' progress. Inherent in this assertion are two important aspects which relate to the content of the present chapter. The first aspect relates to accurate data. The collection of accurate data in youth programmes allows the youth project to create a database, that is, a structured set of data accessible in various ways. The second aspect relates to maintaining the database over time, for example from the time a student enters a training programme to the time s/he finds a job. When a database is maintained over time, it becomes more than just a structured collection of data, it becomes a tracking tool.

7.2 Maintenance of databases

In the original questionnaire projects were asked whether they maintained databases. The information they provided is summarised in Table 23.

Table 23 - Percentage of youth projects which maintain a database

Number of projects	Region	Maintain a database
3	Eastern Cape	100 %
1	Free State	100 %
8	Gauteng	87 %
7	Kwazulu-Natal	86 %
2	Northern Cape	100 %
1	Northern Province	100 %
1	North West	100 %
7	Western Cape	100 %
30	Average	93 %

Table 23 indicates that an average of 93 % of the youth projects surveyed maintained a database. Even though this information is useful it does not convey the type of information captured, how this information is stored on these databases, and for what purposes this information is used. In an attempt to answer the above-mentioned questions, projects were sent a follow-up questionnaire in May 1996. A copy of the questionnaire and covering letter is contained in Appendix 2. Twenty-seven of the original thirty projects responded to the follow-up survey. The rest of this chapter reports on results obtained from this follow-up questionnaire.

7.3 The different types of databases used

Projects were requested to provide information on how they captured and stored trainee data. The different types of systems used by projects to capture and store trainee records are record books (43 %), computers (40 %), trainee registers (50%) and individual trainee files (33 %).

A large proportion of the projects (57 %) surveyed used a combination of different systems to store trainee records. These projects maintained that they found maintaining a single system or database without backup systems not ideal. For

instance, if the project held all of its trainee data on a computer instead of individual trainee files, they would have difficulties in taking the relevant information on visits to ex-trainees in the field. Thus, from a purely logistical point of view, individual trainee files which could be updated on the spot (that is, while an ex-trainee was being visited) provided the best solution to the project's everyday operations.

A few projects complained about the high cost involved in setting up computerised database systems. Even though these projects had strategically made the decision to do so, they were faced with the dilemma of diverting funds towards setting up such a system or using the same funds for service provision.

7.4 Types of information stored on databases

Projects that participated in the follow-up survey (n=27) were probed on the types of information they stored on their database systems. Interesting information regarding the integration of databases into project functioning was obtained from this aspect of the survey. Two projects (6 %) reported that they maintained different databases for the different information needs required for their projects. For instance, while most projects reported that their databases were used primarily for recording and analysing trainee information, the projects who maintained several databases reported that they maintained databases for commercial as well as impact purposes, in addition to their trainee databases. These projects reported that the use of purely paper database systems did not allow for meaningful analysis of trends in their projects. They had therefore opted for computerised database systems which facilitated in-depth analysis of the data they captured.

The vast majority of the projects surveyed (93 %) maintained trainee database systems which were designed with the primary intention of storing trainee details for a permanent record. The types of information commonly stored on these databases related to personal details of the trainees. For example, 90 % of the projects recorded trainee names, 90 % recorded trainee addresses, 87 % recorded telephone numbers if available, 87 % recorded the home language of trainees, 80 % recorded the trainees' age, 77 % recorded the highest standard passed by trainees, and finally, 73 % recorded previous employment experience of the trainee. Some of the more interesting information captured on a few databases related to income levels of trainees prior to attending the programme, criminal records, youth and community involvement, personal ambitions, hobbies, religion and membership of clubs.

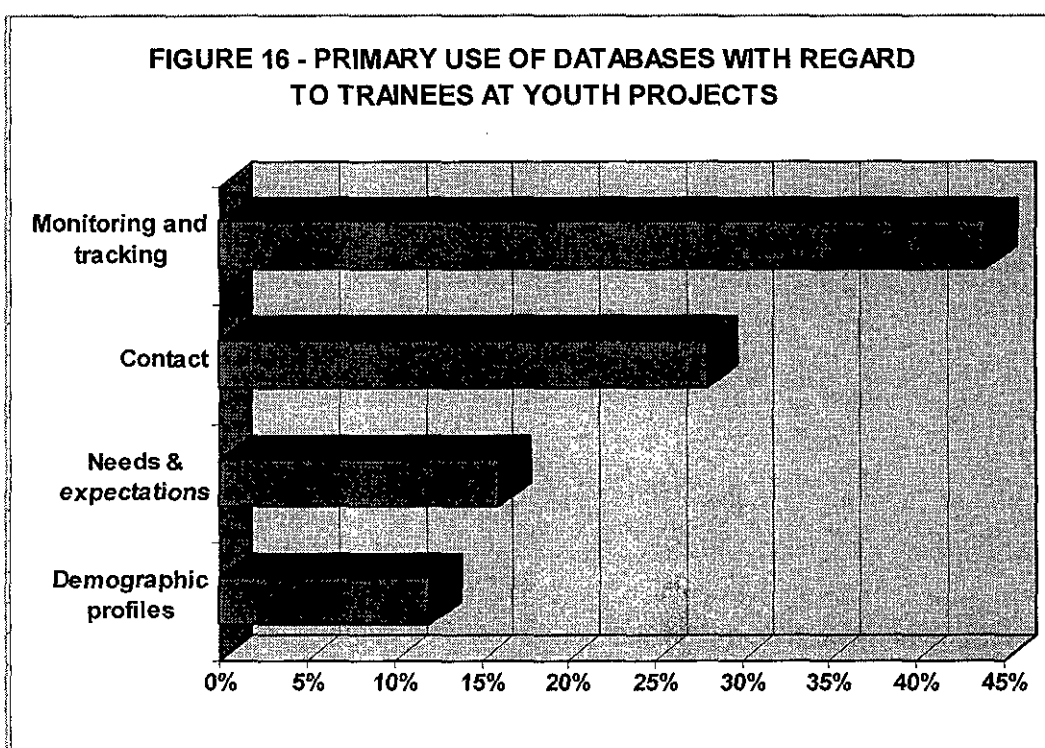
A trend detected in this survey is the increasing use of databases for recording information other than the personal details of trainees. These details pertain to trainee performance on the programme, trainee needs and expectations and trainee evaluation of the programme.

7.5 Use of information held on databases

The audit attempted to assess how the information captured by projects on their database systems was used. Information obtained from this aspect of the survey suggested that the data is used in six broad aspects of the projects' environment, namely trainees, programme curriculum, project staff, funders, everyday operations and strategic planning. A description of some of the more common uses of databases in these aspects of the projects' environment follows.

7.5.1 Databases and trainees

A large proportion of the projects surveyed (44 %) reported that the primary use of their trainee databases was related to the monitoring and tracking of individual trainee progress during and after the programme. This included the recording of selection test results, post programme assessment of trainee gains from the programme, absenteeism, counselling visits and problems experienced by the trainee. The results of such tracking initiatives will be assessed in the section on tracking systems later in this chapter. About a third of the projects (28 %) reported that the personal details of trainees held on their databases were used for the purpose of contacting trainees or next-of-kin in the event of emergencies, problems relating to trainee participation on the programmes, and also for post-programme tracking of ex-trainees. Some of the projects (16 %) maintained that they used this information for establishing how trainees found out about the programme, what their expectations were of the programme, and what they hoped to achieve once they had completed the programme. A few projects (12 %) indicated that they used the information on these databases to construct and monitor demographic profiles of their trainees for the purpose of gaining insight into the target population they served.

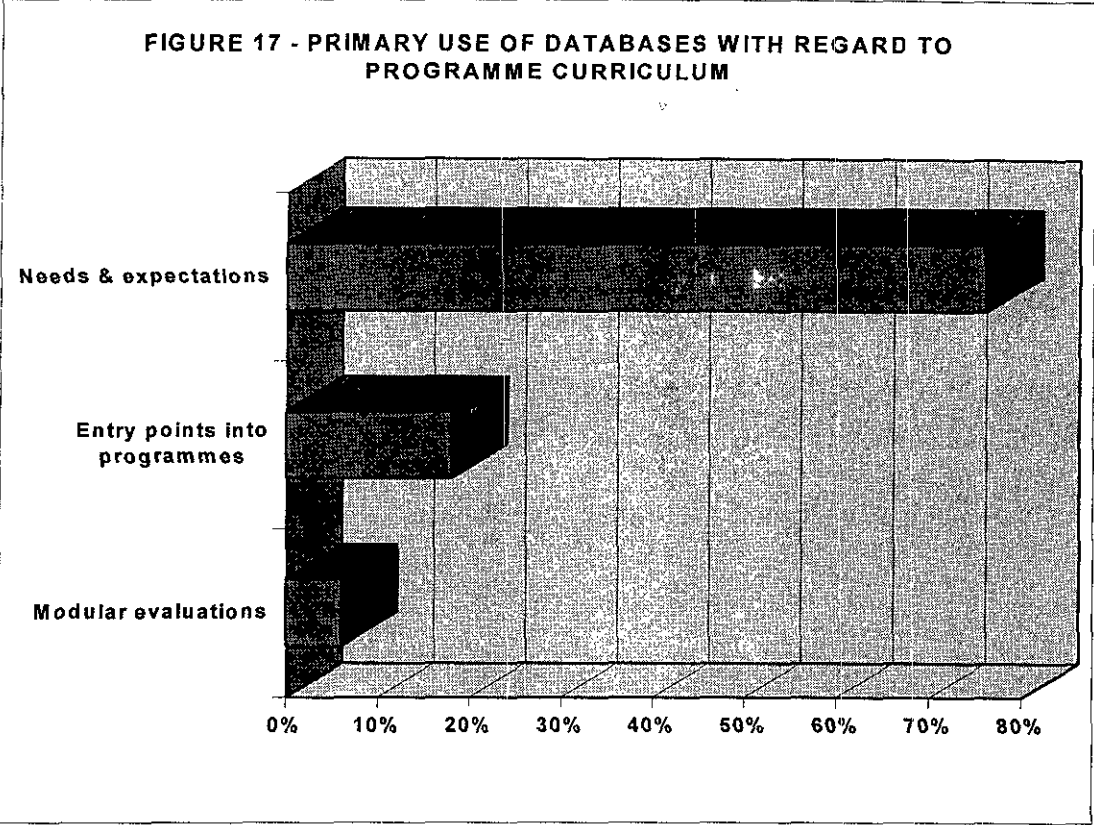


7.5.2 Databases and programme curriculum

The vast majority of projects surveyed (76 %) reported that they used information on their databases relating to trainee needs and expectations to effect changes to their programme curriculum. Some of the projects explained further that information regarding educational levels, gender, urban or rural base, and business or work experience of trainees resulted in changes to programme curriculum, which reflects an awareness of, and sensitivity to, trainee needs.

A small proportion of the projects (18 %) reported that information on their databases was used to determine appropriate entry points for trainees into programmes.

Two projects (6 %) used the information on their databases for modular evaluation of components of their training programmes. This information was then used to effect appropriate programme changes.

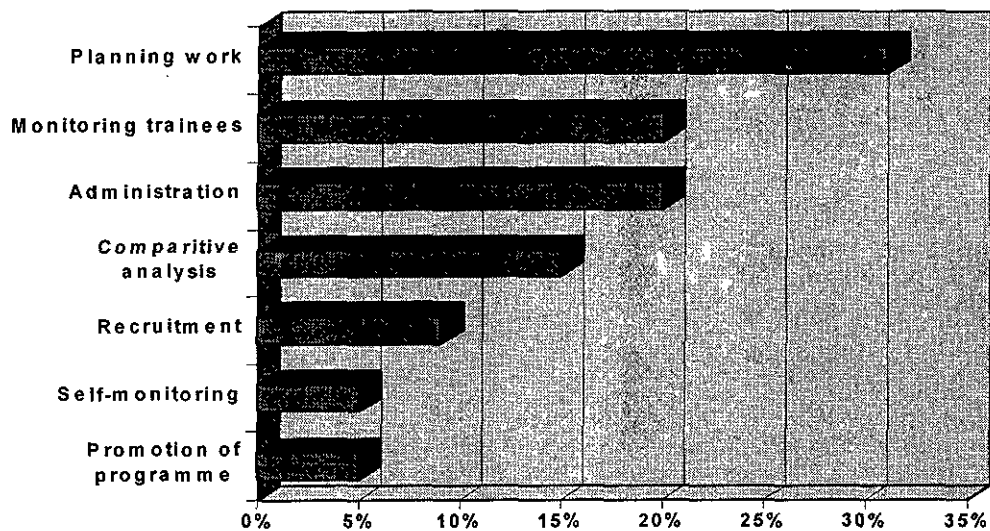


7.5.3 Databases and project staff

Approximately a third of the projects surveyed (31 %) reported that their databases were used by project staff to assist in planning their work in order to maximise efficiency and effectiveness in their organisations. This was achieved through regular monitoring of the progress of trainees (20 %), as well as improved! administrative capacity (20 %) made possible by their trainee databases. Some of the projects (15%) reported that their staff used the databases for comparative analysis of different programmes run.

A few projects (9 %) reported that project staff used the database to assess the extent to which their recruitment strategies in the different areas they serviced were succeeding. Finally, a minority of projects reported that their projects staff used the trainee database for other activities such as promotion of the programme in the target population (5 %) as well as monitoring of their performance against key performance indicators.

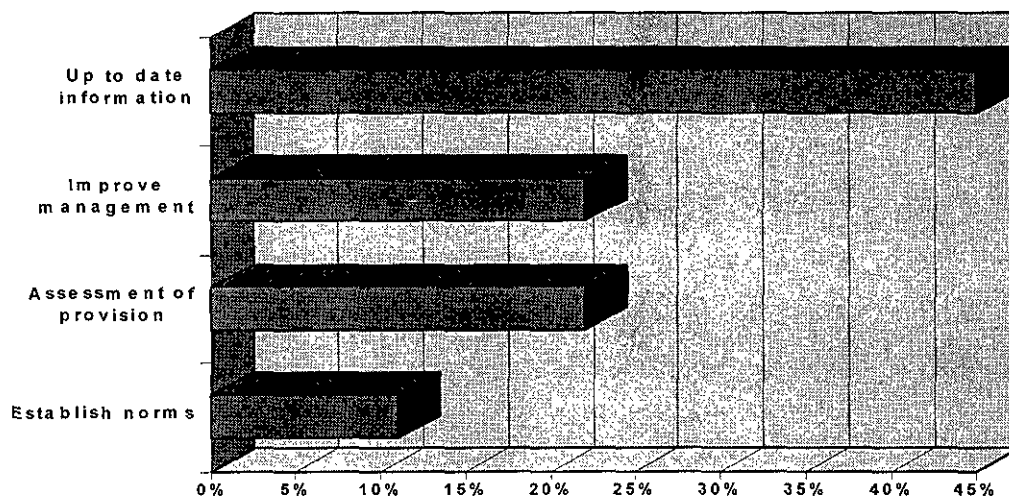
FIGURE 18- WAYS IN WHICH PROJECT STAFF USE TRAINEE DATABASES



7.5.4 Databases and everyday operations

Just under half of the projects surveyed (45 %) reported that they used their trainee databases during everyday operations for obtaining up-to-date information regarding the programmes they run. The types of information that were used included trainee numbers for programmes, absenteeism rates, reports regarding the status of tracking initiatives, and recruitment initiatives.

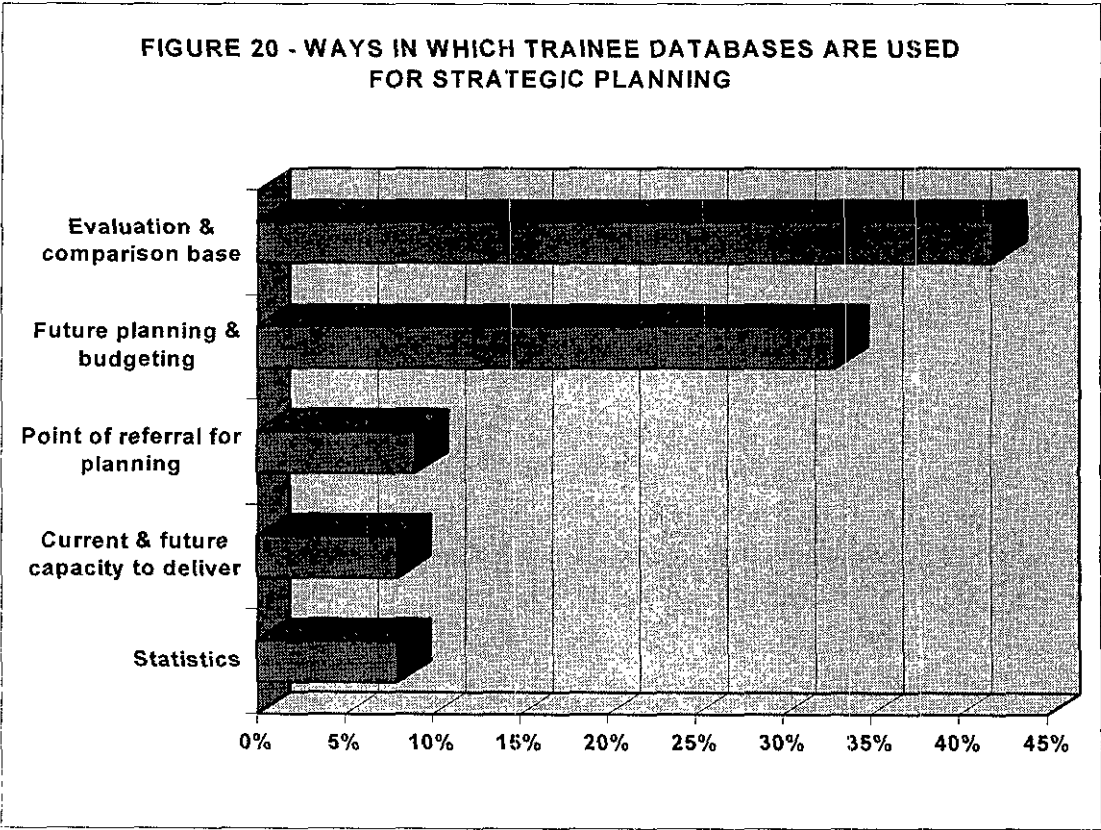
FIGURE 19 - WAYS IN WHICH TRAINEE DATABASES ARE USED IN EVERYDAY OPERATIONS



Some of the projects (22 %) reported that this information improved the management of the project by providing a basis for decisions in the day-to-day running of the programmes and project itself. About a fifth of the projects surveyed (22 %) reported that their trainee databases were used in their assessment of provision to the target population they serviced. This included activities such as monitoring student numbers against the target community, the demographic spread of project trainees, as well as monitoring aspects such as gender. A few projects (11 %) reported that their trainee databases were used for the purpose of establishing norms for the target population they served. These norms were used in activities such as developing appropriate selection procedures and instruments.

7.5.5 Databases and strategic planning

Just under half of the projects surveyed (42 %) reported that their trainee databases were used as a basis for comparing and evaluating strategic areas of their projects. For instance, projects would compare the gender breakdown of trainees and assess if they approximated the demographic profile of gender distribution in the target community they served. Information obtained from these types of comparisons and evaluations sensitised the project to whether they were meeting the needs of the target community, and were important to the project's strategic thrust.

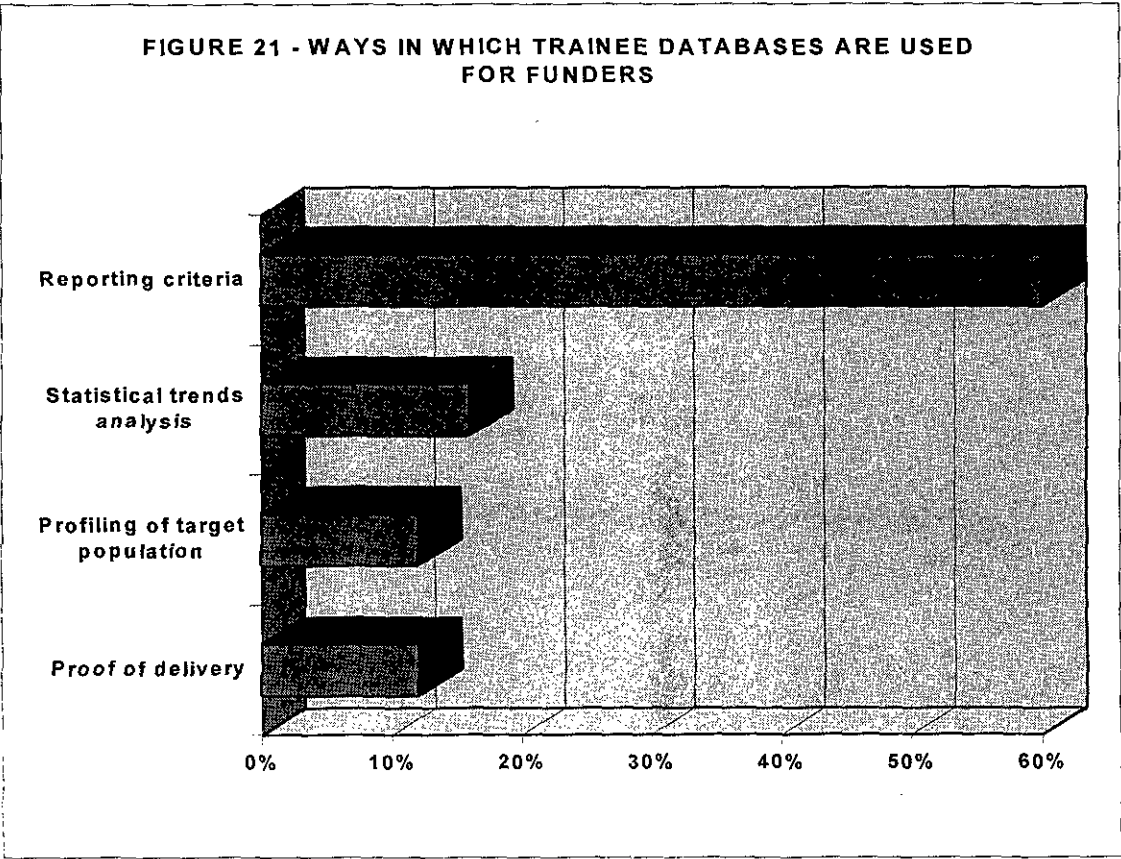


About a third (33 %) of the projects surveyed reported that their trainee databases were used for the purpose of future planning and budget forecasting. This was achieved by establishing trainee numbers for current and past programmes, and projecting costs on the basis of the trainee numbers increasing, decreasing or remaining constant. A few projects (9 %) reported that their trainee databases were the first point of referral for all planning sessions that they engaged in. Other uses of trainee databases in strategic planning reported by projects were the generation of

statistical reports on programmes (8 %), and the assessment of current and future capacity to deliver the services they offered (8 %).

7.5.6 Databases and funders

All the projects reported that their trainee databases were an essential component in establishing and maintaining positive relationships with their funders. This was accomplished in a variety of ways. A large proportion of the projects (60 %) reported that their trainee databases provided vital information needed for reporting to funders according to their funding agreements. Some of the projects (16 %) used the information on their trainee databases for statistical analysis of trends within their projects. These trends were then used for reporting to funders. A few projects (12 %) maintained that their trainee databases were used solely for the purpose of providing a permanent record of the details of the target population they serviced. These projects maintained that this permanent record of trainee details was used as proof to funders or any other interested stakeholders, that they were providing a service to the target population. Finally, a small proportion of the projects (12 %) reported that their trainee databases were used for constructing profiles of the target population they were servicing. These profiles were presented to funders for the purpose of assessing if the projects were reaching the targeted beneficiaries of the funding organisation.



7.6 Implementation of tracking systems

One of the main purposes for which databases are used is for tracking trainee progress. The follow-up survey included several focal questions about the

implementation of tracking systems. Tracking systems are considered important because:

Many NGOs cannot say whether the life prospects of their graduates have in fact improved and what has happened, say, six months or a year down the line¹.

This point of view is further reinforced by McLean², who notes that:

Tracking is not just the plotting of a student's progress after the completion of a course for evaluative purposes, it should be a follow-up and feedback procedure that is specifically geared to supporting students in their search for work and to gather information from these experiences that is useful for tuning and balancing the programme's courses and course content.

It is this information that makes scientific evaluation of programme impact possible³. It is also this type of information which makes professional service delivery in the development sector attainable⁴.

The results of the first survey indicated that 67 % of the projects have implemented tracking systems. A large proportion of the projects which have implemented tracking systems (63 %) indicated in the second survey (n=27) that these tracking systems were linked to their databases. These projects further explained that results of tracking efforts were recorded on the databases to ensure that the growth and development of trainees associated with their programmes could be monitored. This monitoring would begin at the time the trainee entered the programme and last until the trainee attained success in her/his chosen endeavours.

Half of the projects (50 %) reported that their tracking systems were also linked to their post-programme support components. Projects which did not link their tracking and post-programme support systems did so because their post-programme support was provided on a 'demand only' basis and not across the board to all trainees. Other pertinent questions regarding tracking that were explored in the survey were:

- How do these tracking systems work?
- At what intervals do projects conduct tracking?
- What were the difficulties projects experienced with tracking?
- What were the lessons they have learnt from their tracking initiatives?
- What are the results of tracking in terms of post-programme progress of trainees?

The information received from the projects surveyed on these questions are briefly dealt with in the sections below.

7.6.1 How do these tracking systems work?

Tracking trainees takes place in various forms and is conducted through different agencies. The results indicate that 78 % of all tracking of trainee;, is done internally by projects themselves. Only 22 % of all tracking done is conducted by other

¹ See JET Bulletin, Focus on Youth Development, Graeme Bloch, June 1995

² See JET Youth Job Skills Conference Publication, September 1995, Hugh McLean

³ See National Teacher Education Audit, Chapter 12, Dr. N. Taylor, 1995.

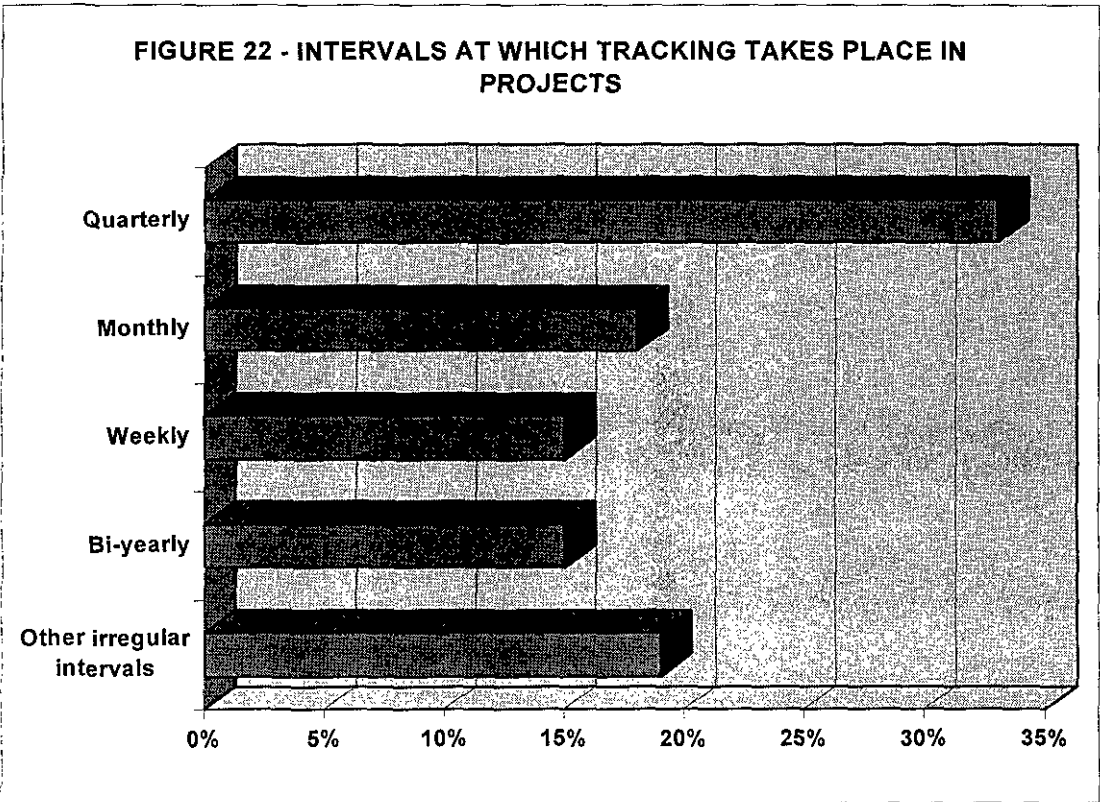
⁴ See JET Youth Job skills Conference Publication, September 1995, Hugh McLean

agencies. These other agencies included outside evaluators and civic organisations which operated in the areas where trainees resided.

internal tracking initiatives took the form of tracking trainees through telephonic contact (29 %) or visits by aftercare specialists (29 %) who worked on the project. Less frequently used internal methods of tracking included alumni meetings held at the project (9 %) and the use of letters to the trainees (11 %). Visits to trainees by evaluators (14 %) and impact assessment workshops held by evaluators for trainees (4 %) appear to characterise the majority of the external tracking initiatives. External tracking initiatives through civic organisations are largely conducted by word of mouth (4 %).

7.6.2 At what intervals are trainees tracked?

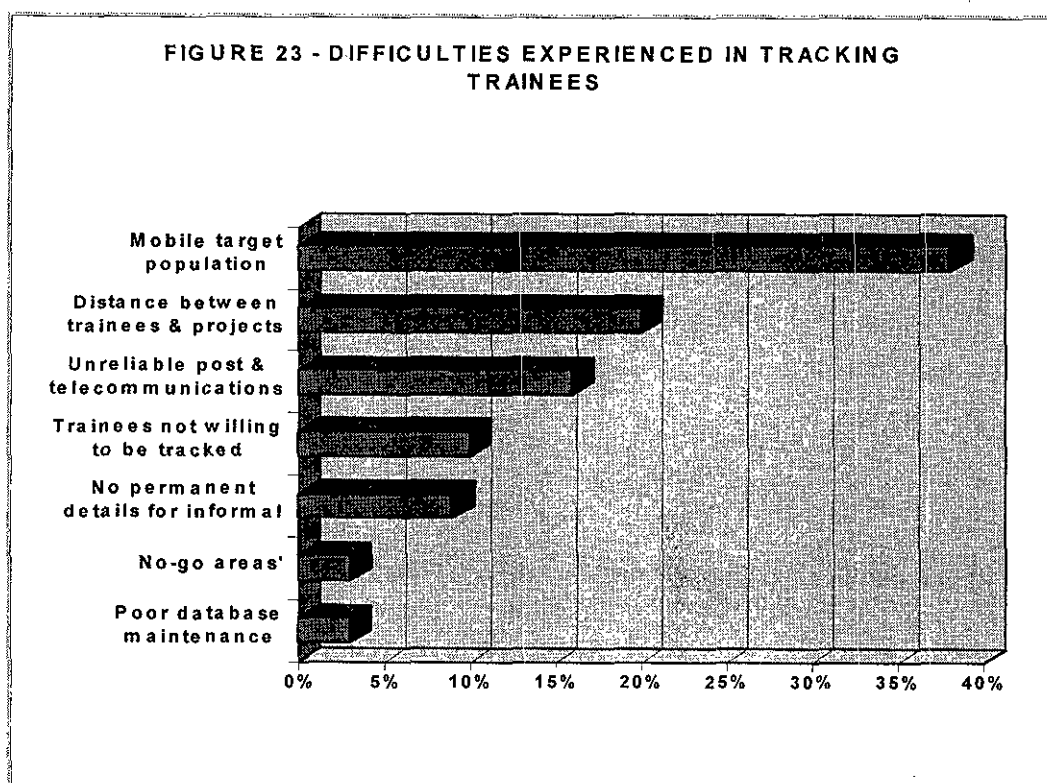
Projects were requested to state the intervals at which tracking took place in their organisations. A third of the projects (33 %) indicated that tracking took place at quarterly intervals. Some of the projects (15 %) indicated that tracking took place on a weekly basis. About a fifth of the projects surveyed (18 %) reported that tracking of their trainees took place on a monthly basis. A few projects (15 %) only conducted tracking initiatives on a bi-yearly basis. The remaining projects (19 %) conducted tracking at various other irregular intervals which suited the requirements of their programmes. For instance, some projects indicated that tracking occurs intermittently in their programmes, while others reported that they did tracking only if required.



7.6.3 Difficulties experienced with tracking

In the follow-up survey, projects were questioned on some of the difficulties they experienced with their tracking initiatives. One of the most common problems reported by the projects surveyed (38 %) was the fact that the target population they

dealt with was highly mobile. This often resulted in unreliable contact information (that is, not up to date) being used for pursuing tracking initiatives. Another common problem reported by projects (20 %) was the fact that trainees often came from distant regions to attend programmes offered by the project. Thus, due the costly financial implications of conducting tracking over long distances by either phone, letter or visits to trainees, many projects' tracking initiatives were hampered. Some of the projects (16 %) reported that the postal and telecommunications systems were either non-existent or totally unreliable in the regions they operated in. This had a negative impact on the tracking initiatives of the projects concerned. Another difficulty experienced by projects (10 %) was the fact that some trainees did not want to be tracked after the programme, and they made this point clear to the projects concerned. The reasons cited by these trainees were that they felt that tracking was not important and that it was a waste of time. They did however feel that the programmes and their content were important. Projects which have experienced this problem have suggested that this attitude from trainees is due to the fact that they had unrealistic expectations of the programmes. These trainees had expected some form of guaranteed employment on completion of the programme. When this did not materialise, they disassociated themselves from the programmes and did not want further contact with project staff.



Almost a tenth of the projects surveyed (9 %) reported that their tracking initiatives were hampered by the fact that a large proportion of their trainees were from informal settlements, and these trainees did not have any formal contact details for tracking purposes. Another difficulty experienced with tracking (3 %) was the existence of 'no go areas', particularly in the Kwazulu-Natal region. It was explained that not many of the trainees had telephones or access to a reliable mailing service. Visits to trainees were therefore the only option available for tracking purposes, but this was made dangerous by the existence of 'no-go areas'. Some projects (3 %)

reported that their databases were inadequately maintained and this hampered their tracking initiatives.

7.6.4 Lessons learnt from tracking initiatives

In view of the many difficulties projects faced with their tracking initiatives, the follow-up survey also probed some of the lessons learnt in this regard. One lesson that many projects (38 %) reported to have learnt is that tracking the progress of ex-trainees is a very good basis for assessing the effectiveness of the programmes offered. Tracking initiatives form the foundation of assessing impact. For instance, projects reported that even though they provided excellent training to their trainees, this training was not enough for the candidates to start businesses because they lacked start-up capital and equipment. This knowledge only became apparent once these projects initiated tracking procedures which followed up the progress of their trainees.

Almost a fifth of the projects (19 %) reported they found out through their tracking initiatives that most trainees begin to lose their confidence and motivation as soon they completed the programme and stopped contact with the project. These projects maintained that tracking, if conducted carefully, could be used as an extremely effective motivational tool to spur on the efforts of trainees. They also reported that their programmes with tracking systems often had higher success rates for trainees than those without tracking systems

Some of the projects (19 %) reported that the most important lesson they learnt from their tracking experiences was a need in their programmes for more structured post-programme support components. The projects explained that if post-programme support efforts such as mentoring, counselling, and consultation were structured into their programmes, and not only supplied to students on a demand basis, tracking of students' post-programme progress would be easier.

A few projects (12 %) reported that their tracking initiatives made them realise the importance of maintaining databases and regularly updating the records held on them. Some of the projects (12 %) acknowledged that further tracking capacity had to be created in their projects. This could be achieved by assigning a full-time post-programme mentor or aftercare specialist to follow-up trainees after they had completed the programmes.

7.6.5 Impact of tracking initiatives

In the follow-up survey, projects were asked to report on the progress of the trainees who have completed their programmes. For purposes of convenience, projects from the same region were grouped together, and the total number of trainees in the regions were used for calculating the average number of trainees per project. The average number of trainees whose progress could be accounted for by tracking was similarly computed for the regions. The impact of the tracking initiatives are thus calculated on a regional basis and it would be incorrect to infer individual project's success at tracking from these figures.

Table 24 - Results of tracking initiatives of regions

No. of projects	Region	Percentage of projects with tracking systems	Average number of trainees per project⁵	Percentage of trainees who can be accounted for after programme completion⁶
3	Eastern Cape	67	1133	11
1	Free State	100	297	100
8	Gauteng	87	309	46
7	Kwazulu-Natal	57	1021	6
2	Northern Cape	0	88	0
1	Northern Province	100	N/A	0
1	North West	0	603	0
7	Western Cape	71	225	25
30	Averages	67	522	18

At the national level, a high proportion (67 %) of the projects have implemented tracking systems to follow up the progress of trainees after completion of their programmes. A disappointing feature of this finding is the fact that the progress of only 18 % of the total number of trainees can be accounted for. In other words, projects can only say what the life prospects are of about a fifth of the total number of trainees they train.

In the Eastern Cape youth projects, 67 % of the projects have implemented tracking systems, but the progress of only 11 % of the total number trainees trained can be accounted for by the tracking systems implemented. In the Kwazulu-Natal youth projects, 57 % of the projects have implemented tracking systems, but the progress of only 6 % of the total number trainees trained can be accounted for.

In the Northern Cape and North West, youth projects have not implemented tracking systems. In the Northern Province, the single project surveyed has implemented a tracking system, but did not report on the progress of trainees who have completed its programme.

The results indicate that with the exception of projects in the Gauteng (46 Western Cape (25%) and Free State (100 %) regions, most of the projects in the other regions have dismal results in accounting for the progress of their ex-trainees.

⁵See Table 13 in Chapter 5, Target population

⁶Percentage obtained by dividing the average number of trainees accounted for by tracking in each region by the average number of trainees per project in that region. The answer is expressed as a percentage, for instance, in the Gauteng region an average of 141 candidates are accounted for by tracking systems of the projects. The average number of trainees per project is '509 candidates. Hence the proportion of trainees accounted for by tracking systems in the region is $141/309 \times 100 = 45.63 \%$.

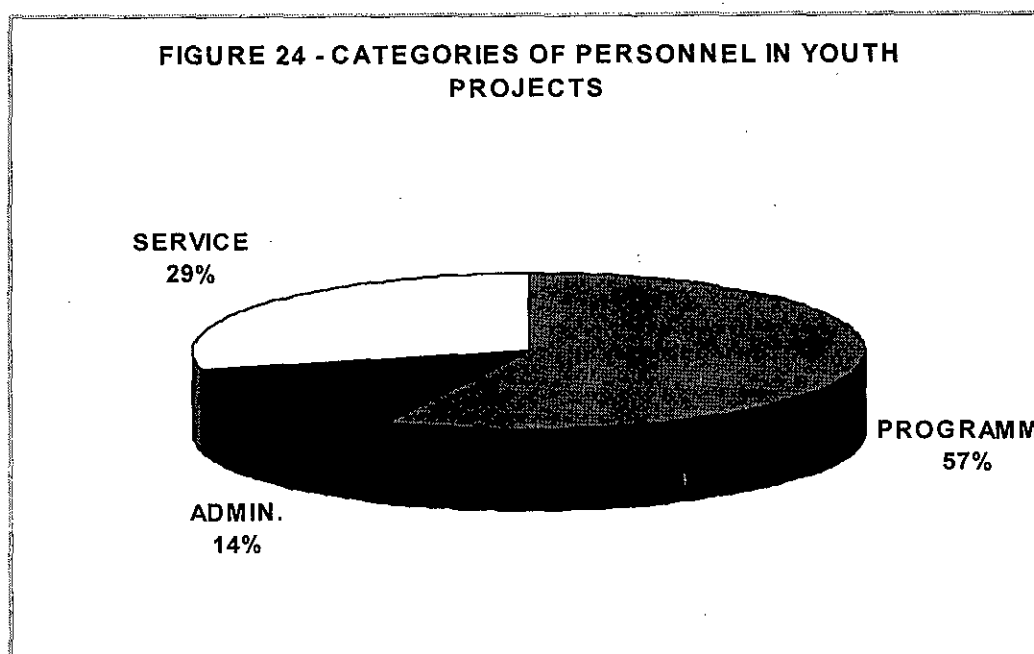
CHAPTER 8 - STAFFING

8.9 Introduction

The youth projects surveyed were requested to provide breakdowns of their total staff complement by programme, administration and service categories. Each of the categories used for the purpose of the survey was clearly defined. Programme personnel was defined as directors, management, trainers, researchers and resource personnel. The administrative category consisted of finance, secretarial and human resource personnel. The service category consisted of cleaners, gardeners, drivers and other forms of maintenance people. The national and regional proportions are given in percentages in Table 25 and Figure 24.

Table 25 - Categories of personnel in youth projects

No. of projects	Regions	Programme personnel	Administrative personnel	Service personnel
3	Eastern Cape	17%	8%	75%
1	Free State	72%	14%	14%
8	Gauteng	76%	17%	7%
7	Kwazulu-Natal	50%	16%	34%
2	Northern Cape	59%	18%	23%
1	Northern Province	67%	22%	11%
1	North West	56%	11%	23%
7	Western Cape	80%	15%	5%
30	Average	57%	14%	29%



8.2 Analysis of trends in the categories of personnel

Programme personnel constitute 57 % of the total staff complement of the projects surveyed. This category consists of all staff involved in the core activities of the project. Their activities relate to management of the projects and the resources,

presentation of programmes, research and development of programme materials, as well the marketing of the project to the target population and relevant stakeholders. Administrative personnel constitute 14 % of the total staff complement of the youth projects surveyed. Administrative personnel are primarily concerned with financial, secretarial and human resource or personnel functions in the projects. The proportion of administrative personnel (14 %) working in the projects surveyed is very much in line with business organisations, where administrative personnel comprise between 10 and 15 % of the total staff complement.

Service personnel constitute 29 % of the staff employed by the projects. The functions of these personnel are subsidiary to the core activities of the projects, and their functions in the projects reflect this. For example. driving, maintenance of project facilities, student catering and a host of other service related functions.

8.3 Comparative ratios for the categories of personnel

An examination of the breakdown of categories of personnel, many result in the misperception that the projects surveyed are over-staffed. Moreover almost 43 % of the people employed at youth projects (that is, the sum of administrative and service personnel categories) are not involved in the core activities (that is, programmatic intervention or delivery to the target population) of the projects. Another level of analysis for examining the staff complements at youth projects would be to examine the ratios of programme to administrative and programme to service personnel in the projects surveyed. The ratios were computed for the projects surveyed and the results are summarised in the table below.

Table 26 - Programme versus administration and service staff ratios

No. of projects	Regions	Programme versus Administration ratio	Programme versus Service ratio
3	Eastern Cape	4:1	0,03:1
1	Free State	5:1	5:1
8	Gauteng	4:1	2:1
7	Kwazulu-Natal	2:1	1:1
2	Northern Cape	4:1	1:1
1	Northern Province	3:1	6:1
1	North West	5:1	2:1
7	Western Cape	5:1	7:1
30	Average	4:1	3:1

Even though no comparative ratios for personnel categories are available for youth projects internationally, the average ratio for programme versus administrative staff is four programme staff for every administrative person. The corresponding ratio for programme versus service staff is three programme staff for every service person. These ratios for programme versus administrative staff and, programme versus service staff, are low. Put simply, the projects seem to be operating with lean staff complements in the personnel categories surveyed.

CHAPTER 9 - FINANCE

9.1 Introduction

Scant information exists on the finances of youth development projects in South Africa. Much has been written about the funding crisis facing non-governmental organisations¹, but with very little direct reference to the extent of the problem in rands and cents terms. No comprehensive audit has been undertaken to assess the amount of public, private and international funds which are currently absorbed by the youth development sector.

9.2 Total income, expenditure, and fixed assets of projects

In the present audit of youth programmes, projects were requested to provide information on their finances in terms of the total income, expenditure and fixed assets. The information received from the youth projects is summarised in Table 27.

Table 27 shows that the total income of JET-funded youth projects nationally is R24 286 905 and the average income per project is R809 563. There are wide disparities between the average income in the different regions (for instance, the typical Western Cape project has an income which is 158 % of the national average.). However, inferences of this nature, may be misleading in that the nature and range of services, and the funding structure (Section 18 A, or Section 21) of the youth projects may be different. Furthermore, more meaningful analysis can be obtained from unit cost analysis of the categories of service provision, rather than a regional analysis alone. A unit cost analysis is provided later in this chapter.

Table 27 - Income, expenditure and fixed assets of youth projects for 1995

Number of Projects	Region	Income in rands	Expenditure in rands	Fixed Assets in rands
3	Eastern Cape total	13 681 30	10 299 07	563 361
	Average per project	456 043	343 302	187 787
1	Free State total	1 805 695	1 301 422	345 245
	Average per project	1 805 695	1 301 422	345 245
8	Gauteng total	4 873 507	4 882 007	737 420
	Average per project	609 188	610 250	92 177
7	Kwazulu-Natal total	5 208 175	4 320 748	7 534 043
	Average per project	744 025	617 249	1 076 291
2	Northern Cape total	1 269 596	961 733	1 243 485
	Average per project	634 798	480 866	621 742
1	Northern Province total	320 441	50 738	515 152
	Average per project	320 441	50 738	515 152
1	North West total	515 450	237 450	1 090 000
	Average per project	515 450	237 450	1 090 000
7	Western Cape total	8 925 911	7 741 268	1 025 548
	Average per project	1 275 130	1 105 895	146 506
30	National total	24 286 905	20 525 273	13 054 254
	Average per project	809 563	684 175	435 141

¹Fence-sitting brings crisis -The Star, 19 January 1995; The cruelest months for NGOs -Weekly Mail & Guardian, February 24 to March 2 1995; The NGO funding drought - The Star, 4 September 1995; Weekly Mail, 13th July 1996.

From Table 27 it is evident that the total expenditure of youth projects which were surveyed nationally is R20 525 273 and the average expenditure per youth project is R684 175. As stated earlier, a cautionary note against drawing inferences from expenditure figures in Table 27 is necessary.

From Table 27 it is evident that the average fixed asset holding per project surveyed is R435 141. The average Gauteng, Western Cape, Eastern Cape and Free State youth project hold less fixed assets than the average youth project in the other regions. An interesting feature of these results is the fact that projects in the above-mentioned regions have higher incomes and expenditures, but fewer fixed assets than projects in the other regions. The reasons for this are at this stage unknown.

9.3 Unit costs of the projects surveyed

Unit costs have been closely monitored by JET and through this monitoring process newly established projects have been provided with regular feedback on improving their efficiency to bring high unit costs down. Projects which have failed to bring down high unit costs over a period of time have not had their grants renewed. Appendix 6 contains a summary of unit costs of the youth projects surveyed in this audit. During the period 1994 to 1995, the average unit cost per youth trainee across all categories of service provision, decreased by 15 % from 8903.54 in 1994 to 8784.78 in 1995. Unit costs according to category of service provision are summarised in Table 28.

Table 28 - Unit costs for categories of service provision

Number of projects	Category of service provision	Average unit cost
21	Job Creation ²	R776,04
4	Education ³	R986,74
2	Life Skills ⁴	R105,03
2	Social Welfare ⁵	R1869,15
1	Career Guidance	R27623,10
30	All categories taken together	R784,78

The unit cost variations noted for the different categories of service provision can be accounted for when the services rendered by the categories are considered. For instance, the unit cost for the career guidance category included a full 12 month course, with accommodation, meals, transport and training materials being provided to candidates. Similarly, the unit cost for social welfare street children recovery programmes included accommodation, meals and care for the candidates in these programmes.

The reduction of unit costs by 15 % from 1994 to 1995 is particularly impressive, when considering that in the same period JET's funding commitment to the sector increased by 2.5 %. Add to these figures the fact that projects increased their trainee numbers by 18 % in the same period, and the overall picture with regard to financial resource management in the youth projects surveyed becomes very positive.

²The unit costs for the job creation category range from R84 to R52176 per trainee.

³The unit costs for the education category range from R162 to R6051 per trainee.

⁴ The unit costs for the life skills category range from R12 to R218 per trainee,

⁵ The unit costs for the social welfare category range from 81526 to 82000 per trainee.

10. GOVERNANCE

10.1 Introduction

A racial and ethnic based system of governance was at the core of political, social, economic and educational institutions prior to the democratisation of South Africa in April 1994. The underlying motivation was to ensure unequal access to national resources and strong political control over activities in all spheres of South African life. One outcome of this has been a high degree of centralisation and authoritarianism in all of the above-mentioned spheres of life, and a lack of mechanisms to respond to the needs of the majority of South Africans. A more positive outcome has been the proliferation of non-governmental institutions to respond to these needs. Now that the process of democratisation and transformation has been initiated at the political level, it is interesting to examine governance structures in non-governmental organisations (NGOs), in particular youth development organisations, and how they are responding to the changing circumstances.

10.2 Governance structures and stakeholder representation

The present survey did not attempt to investigate the constitutions and mechanisms of governance within the projects themselves. Thus no indication of the powers of these structures and their functions are available. This survey was more concerned with establishing baseline data regarding the existence of governance structures at the youth projects. It also attempted to establish what sections of the community were stakeholders on these governance structures.

All of the projects surveyed had governance structures which guided their functioning. Many of the projects had more than one form of governance structure. These structures took the forms of boards of directors, boards of trustees, and steering committees. It is assumed on the basis of previous research in the NGO sector¹ that these boards (that is, directors and trustees) are the strategic decision-making structures within these youth projects. They can thus be expected to deal with issues revolving around budget approval, financial control and policy-making. The second tier of authority in these organisations is made up of steering committees. These steering committees are probably concerned with the daily management of projects. They would thus primarily be involved in the preparation of financial and programmatic reports for boards, as well as implementing other strategic directives of the boards.

The stakeholders on these governance structures fell into three categories, namely, economic, educational and community stakeholders. The category of economic stakeholders is defined as representatives from the private sector, organised labour, and organised business. The category of educational stakeholders is defined as representatives from educational departments (for example, Cape Education Department), educational institutions (for example, Rhodes University), and training departments (for example, the Department of Labour). The category of community

¹Joint Education Trust - Draft Report of the NGO sector for the National Teacher Education Audit, September 1995.

structures is defined as various community structures in the areas where the projects were located (for example, Housewives League).

An examination of the proportion of stakeholder representation on the governance structures of youth projects surveyed reveals that a large proportion of the youth projects have stakeholder representation from the community (87' %), educational (67 %) and economic (63 %) sectors. Many questions regarding the effectiveness of these representatives on the governance structures of youth projects remain unanswered. Some of these questions are: Do the representatives on youth project governance structures have a wide enough understanding of the history and complexity of youth affairs in South Africa to fulfil their responsibilities to these projects adequately? Do they make the necessary time commitment required to give attention to the work of these youth projects? Do these representatives have sufficient personal and sectoral interests in the development of youth services?

11. ISSUES ARISING FROM THE SURVEY

11.1 Introduction

While analysing the information received from the youth projects surveyed, a number of issues arose. Some of the issues were related to trends detected from the data received. A few of the issues were related to the informational needs of the projects surveyed. The issues range from funding of youth projects to human resources topics like affirmative action. Attempts will be made in this section to highlight some of these issues and stimulate discussion on them.

11.2 Funding

It is evident that JET has created a great deal of capacity in the youth sector. Many of the projects surveyed were started with funding grants from the Trust. Over the years, JET has encouraged these projects to diversify their funding bases as it could not fund these projects indefinitely. Now that the term for JET's existence is coming to a close, the question of what will happen to the youth project capacity created in the sector, becomes crucial. With the funding crisis facing non-governmental organisations engaged in service provision, it is questionable whether many of the youth service providers sponsored by JET will be able to sustain their activities with the vacuum that will be created by JET's departure from the funding environment. Questions relating to JET's responsibility to these projects and the projects' responsibility to ensure their own future financial sustainability, need to be addressed. This issue will only be resolved if it is openly discussed and debated amongst the many stakeholders presently.

11.3 Service provision

The present research suggests that the number of trainees reached is nowhere near the scale of service provision that is required amongst South African youth. The magnitude or scale of provision required can clearly not be met with the financial resources available to funding organisations like JET. Provision on this scale will require state intervention. This suggests the need for a national audit or sectoral mapping of existing youth service providers.

11.4 Programme design

The programme design data received from youth projects gave rise to more questions than answers regarding trends of youth programme design. One of the more important questions was whether the range of skills developed by the youth programmes was appropriate to the needs of the target population, and the resources available in the communities they came from. Related to this, are questions concerning the level at which youth input is brought into programme design, and whether youth programmes be expert or youth driven.

Observation of the range of programmes offered suggests that there is a lack of developmentally-oriented programmes with developmentally appropriate activities for young South Africans. Are developmentally appropriate youth programmes being neglected in favour of more work-oriented programmes? What are the possible consequences of this trend?

11.5 Programme accreditation and the National Qualifications Framework From this survey of youth projects, it was established that 73 % of the programmes offered by projects were not accredited. This result seems to suggest many projects are still grappling with the issues surrounding accreditation, and the implications it would have on their programmes. For this reason, the issue of accreditation, the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) are briefly explored.

The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) was established to ensure that education and training service providers (public and private educational institutions, non-governmental organisations, and business) provide nationally recognised qualifications to learners. The demand for nationally recognised qualifications is driven by several factors. First, it is driven by learners, who in trying to find jobs have become acutely aware of the link between qualifications and employment prospects. With nationally recognised qualifications, learners believe that their employment prospects will be enhanced. It is important to note, however, that even if an individual has a nationally recognised qualification, it will only improve her/his employment prospects if jobs are available in the economy. The NQF as a system aims at promoting nationally recognised qualifications; it makes no claims to being a strategy for increasing job creation.

Second, the need for nationally recognised qualifications is driven by people who seek self-improvement when doing education or training programmes. They are not interested in these qualifications for employment purposes, but rather for the satisfaction of knowing that the knowledge and skill they have acquired on these education and training programmes is worthwhile. Third, nationally recognised qualifications encourage service providers to be transparent about the aims and objectives of their programmes, and accountable for their expected outcomes. For instance, it is not uncommon for individuals to attend adult literacy classes for three to four years, and still be reading the same book that they began classes with. With nationally recognised qualifications, the balance of power between the service provider and learner is restored, with the learner being informed of her/his learning path and expected learning outcomes of the programme.

In order to promote nationally recognised qualifications, the NQF system has two strategies, the first dealing with the setting of standards, and the second with the implementation of these standards through the process of accreditation. With regard to the setting of standards, the NQF through the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) has to deal with a wide variety of service providers, ranging from public and private educational institutions, to NGOs and business organisations. Much debate has occurred around the setting of standards. Some groups have argued that the setting of national standards on an outcome-based approach would lead to narrow, prescriptive, and behaviouristic programmes that stifle programme curriculum design, particularly in the NGO sector which is at the cutting edge of programme development.

Other groups have countered this argument by stating that due to the fragmentation, lack of systematisation, and inappropriate standards that exist in education and training programmes, there is a strong need for systematisation, which would be fulfilled with the

setting of national standards. This group of NQF proponents add that the setting of standards according to an outcomes-based approach need not be narrow, prescriptive, and behaviouristic, if the objectives and outcomes set are defined in ways which are open-ended.

A third group have argued that standards need to be set in such a way that all forms of learning are recognised (accredited). This group is trying to elevate the NQF and SAQA to the status of validators of knowledge. This is problematic as it raises the question as to whether the NQF is the only way of validating and acknowledging learning from educational and training programmes.

The arguments for and against setting national standards for accreditation purposes, it seems, can only be settled through engagement between service providers and SAQA. The immediate challenge to SAQA is the setting of standards. The corresponding challenge for NGOs is to frame their curricula in forms which make them more easily comparable. This will facilitate the work of SAQA and result in positive impacts on learners' qualifications, such as the increased currency, relevance and recognition of the programmes they attend.

11.6 Databases and tracking

Most of the projects surveyed (73 %) are focused on job creation through either improving employability of the candidate or equipping her/him for small business activity. Research and experience points to the fact that education and the acquisition of career-related skills and experience takes place in stages, and often in fits and starts. Many young people drop out of and back into the educational process over a period of time. They are often forced by external factors to interrupt their education and training, for instance, to care for children, earn a living, or deal with a family crisis. Preparing youth for employment needs to be viewed as a process rather than a once-off intervention. Projects need to realise that long-term employability development is often made up of a series of short-term interventions. In other words, projects need to create the capacity for young people to move through a series of programmes and learning experiences over an extended period of time. In order to promote and aid the process, we need strategies that involve community-wide interagency databases where shared information on young people can assist in providing individual case-management systems.

To accomplish this, youth projects and institutions need to establish mechanisms for sharing data, common protocols for assessing services, and a shared referral process. Thus long-term and comprehensive services can be provided to youth, as they move from programme to programme and job to programme, in their search for career-related skills which afford them long-term employability. This type of capacity (interagency databases) does not exist in the youth projects surveyed. Thus the capacity of projects to match youth to appropriate services and track their progress over time is severely hampered.

11.7 Evaluation and impact

Evaluating programme performance needs to be an integral part of the initial programme design. In addition the assessment approach adopted by a project needs to match the skills being assessed. Most of the projects evaluated by external agencies in

this survey could not provide substantial information relating to methodological approaches used in their evaluations of programme content or programme impact. The need to assess the evaluation methodology for social and developmental programmes is clearly highlighted by this finding. This could be accomplished by the formation of a forum for the monitoring and evaluation of social and developmental research.

With regard to selection procedures at youth programmes, the culture at project level seems to revolve around filling available slots rather than matching youth to appropriate services. This may be a factor in explaining the poor results of youth programmes aimed at job creation.

Projects report that performance-based assessments is the preferred method of evaluating trainee gains at their projects. This raises many questions: What constitutes competent performance? How do these projects standardise their ratings of competent performance? Is there inter-rater reliability in the assessment of competent performance? How do these projects assess competent performance with large groups? Projects often use trainee assessments of their programmes as evidence of their programmes' efficacy. Are trainee assessments (which involve a lot of 'feel good' post-course vibes) a valid indicator of programme efficacy?

11.8 Affirmative action

Much debate exists about the lack of suitably qualified black candidates to head and manage development organisations, particularly non-governmental organisations. One group has argued that the most suitable black candidates are not attracted to the development sector since it cannot compete with the private sector and government, in terms of the pay packages and benefits they offer. Another group maintain that this is not true, as there are a number of candidates with potential who could assume senior management positions within the development sector. They argue that this sector has a lack of affirmative action and human resource development programmes for black candidates, and this creates the shortage of black personnel for senior management positions. This survey has found that evaluations of a number of youth projects has indicated that staff suffer from poor motivation, due to a number of reasons, amongst them being a lack of affirmative action with regard to senior management positions. Whatever the reasons for the small number of black personnel in senior management positions at development organisations, the effect that it will have on the sector as a whole could be negative in the longer term.

11.9 Governance

The data from the projects suggests that most of the projects have governance structures and are trying to get wide stakeholder representation on these structures. The question of the ability of stakeholders on youth project governance structures to contribute to the youth projects' activities, in terms of time, personal and sectoral interest, and a wide enough understanding of the history and complexity of youth affairs in South Africa, remains a central one.

11.10 Concluding remarks

It is hoped that some of the questions raised and observations made in this report will contribute to the knowledge, discussion and debate regarding youth development in our country. This report is by no means representative of the full range of issues facing the sector, but it is hopefully a step in the direction of addressing some of the issues. It seems appropriate to conclude the report with the opinion of youth projects on what constitutes a successful youth project and successful youth trainee.

Responses to the question of what constitutes a successful trainee can be grouped as follows:

1. Most of the projects (55 %) regarded a successful trainee as one who has acquired competency in the knowledge or vocational skill trained by the programme, and has applied these knowledge and skills to access economic gain.
2. Just over a fifth (22.5 %) regarded a successful trainee as one who has improved her/his confidence, motivation and self-esteem as a result of having completed the programme. These projects placed a great emphasis on reducing the feelings of alienation experienced by many South African youth.
3. Some of the projects (10 %) regarded a successful trainee as one who is willing to take responsibility for her/his own life and career development. These programmes placed a great emphasis on the responsibility for self-development to be taken-up by their trainees.
4. A few projects (7.5 %) indicated that the extent to which trainees become involved and integrated in their community structures was an indication of successful trainees.
5. Finally, a small proportion (5 %) of the projects regarded successful trainees as those who were constructively engaged in further education and training related to job-specific skills.

With regard to the question of what constitutes a successful youth project, the projects reported the following:

1. A quarter of the projects (25 %) reported that the project must be focused on the needs of the target population, that is, youth.
2. Another quarter of the projects (25 %) believed that running a successful youth project needs good management, leadership, organisational and planning skills.
3. Just over a fifth (22 %) of the projects reported that a successful youth project must involve youth in its decision-making, and there must be a degree of youth ownership of the project.
4. Some of projects (16 %) reported that a successful youth project needs to be aware of the funding resources in their environment. These projects appear to be more funding than development driven.
5. A few projects (12 %) reported that a successful youth project needs a balanced curriculum which focuses on the physical, emotional, and intellectual development of youth.