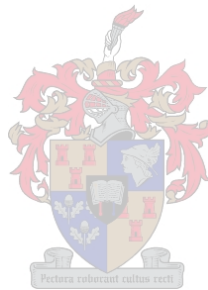


**YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS IN AFRICA:
ASSESSING TWO CASE STUDIES**

**BY
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**Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of
Philosophy (Community and Development) at the University of Stellenbosch**

Promoter: Prof S. Bekker

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Declaration

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

Signature:

Date:

Abstract

The central focus of this thesis is Youth Leadership Development programs in Africa. These programs are viewed within the context of the circumstances the youth currently face in their lives, and also the important role the youth in Africa have to play in the future of the continent. It is argued that leadership development holds the key to addressing the social, economic and political challenges Africa currently experiences.

The Youth capacity building program in Uganda and the Joint Enrichment Project in South Africa were chosen as two case studies of Youth Leadership Development programs in Africa. The two case studies were benchmarked against the assessment tool that the International Youth Foundation (IYF) has created for making youth programs work. The above two programs differ greatly in their cultural, economic, social and political contexts. The aim of this study is to determine whether a single set of criteria for Youth Leadership Development programs in the African context is possible, despite the aforementioned differences inherent in the programs. To this end separate qualitative comparisons have been conducted on both the case studies. Shortcomings with regard to the assessment tool as well as the chosen youth programs were also identified.

This study highlights that community development includes youth development, and therefore also the training of future leaders. Africa cannot rely on previous models of leadership development for today's youth. Further research in this field is needed, but this study confirms that Youth Leadership Development is vital in Africa.

Opsomming

Die sentrale fokus van die tesis is jeug leierskapsontwikkelingsprogramme in Afrika. Hierdie programme word benader binne die konteks van die omstandighede wat die jeug se lewens beïnvloed, asook die belangrike rol wat die jeug in Afrika speel in die toekoms van die kontinent. Die uitgangspunt is dat leierskapsontwikkeling die sleutel is tot die verbetering van sosiale, ekonomiese en politieke uitdagings in Afrika.

Die “Youth capacity building” program van Uganda, en die “Joint Enrichment Project” van Suid-Afrika is twee gevallestudies wat gekies is as voorbeelde van jeug leierskapsontwikkelingsprogramme in Afrika. Hierdie twee gevallestudies is gemeet aan die “International Youth Foundation” (IYF) se riglyne vir die bepaling van suksesvolle jeugprogramme. Die twee gekose programme verskil grootliks ten opsigte van die kulturele, ekonomiese, sosiale en politieke konteks waarbinne hulle plaasvind. Die doel van hierdie studie is om die moontlikheid te bepaal van ‘n enkele stel kriteria vir jeug leierskapsontwikkelingsprogramme binne die Afrika konteks. Vir hierdie doel is afsonderlike kwalitatiewe vergelykings getref tussen die gevallestudies en die bepaalde riglyne van die IYF. Verder is tekortkominge van beide die riglyne asook die jeugprogramme bepaal.

Volgens hierdie studie vorm jeugontwikkeling ‘n integrale deel van gemeenskapsontwikkeling, en daarom behels gemeenskapsontwikkeling ook die opleiding van toekomstige leiers. Daar kan nie op vorige modelle van leierskapsontwikkeling gesteun word vir die huidige jeug in Afrika nie. Daar is verdere navorsing in hierdie rigting nodig, maar hierdie studie bevestig dat jeugleierskapsontwikkeling in Afrika van kardinale belang is.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introductory remarks

The future of Africa belongs to the youth of the continent. This continent has fallen behind in the international global arena. Some would say the situation is dark and without hope.

For many years foreign aid has come to the rescue of Africa, but most foreign aid focuses on treating only the symptoms of Africa's challenges, for example famine, strife, drought and refugees. This aid is provided either indirectly through financial help like donations, or directly by means of food supplements, Peace Corps assistance, or facilitated negotiations with African leaders. Essential and most welcome as these sources are to alleviate human suffering, I believe the time has come for Africans¹ to take ownership of their continent's future. Africans must be at the helm of every developmental drive to ensure its success, for they know their people and their challenges. Africans will have to sustain all actions supporting the goals of development once the outsiders have departed.

The responsibility for Africa's poor political, economic as well as social circumstances in comparison with the rest of the world, has now come to rest with the Africans themselves. The younger generation in particular should be the immediate focus and medium through which the future of Africa could be positively altered. Lacking in this scenario, though, is an empowered youth with firm beliefs in their talents and capabilities. This empowerment will enable them to take responsibility for finding the solutions to Africa's challenges. Therefore the key to development in Africa is youth leadership development; the key to ensure Africa's future is quality leadership.

1.2 Aim of the research

Youth leadership development programs are not new to Africa. There are currently many of these programs, with different approaches to the youth, in operation. These are all apparently successful in achieving their program² specific goals within their relatively small spheres of influence. However, leadership development in general would be more

¹ In this study an "African" refers to a native or inhabitant of Africa (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2003).

² In this study "program" refers to a plan or system under which action may be taken toward a goal (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2003). It can be used interchangeably with the word "programme".

encompassing and effective if these programs were to combine their strengths and experiences to form youth development programs applicable to all African contexts.

Given the aforementioned imperfections, the overall aim of this study is to determine whether a single set of criteria for youth leadership development programs in the African context is possible.

To this end two youth leadership development programs in different African countries were chosen for comparative analysis, having due cognisance of the unique political, economic and social factors that influence them. An objective assessment tool comprising of the criteria for making youth programs work, will be used in this analysis. The assessment tool itself will be probed for effectiveness, and each criterion will be applied to the two programs to determine whether the particular program has sufficiently addressed the criteria. The overall findings of the above process will be used to deduce whether the creation of a set of criteria for youth leadership development programs is possible despite the uniqueness of cultural as well as political, economic and social factors found in the African context.

1.3 Significance of the research

The fusion of leadership development programs as proposed in the previous sections, has apart from obvious advantages, gathered some significance of its own in recent times. Synonymous with its drive towards self determination, Africa's move towards unification at political level has progressed well of late through the African Union (AU). Africa is seen to be taking increasingly greater responsibility for solving its own political problems, its unrest, its lawlessness, its faction wars, etc. Greater trust seems to be vesting in certain political figures to deal with these African problems. This augers well for future development into the spheres of cross border government administration, regional economic progress and social upliftment, and in turn for greater unification and cooperation to take place at grass root level. It is exactly at this level where present and future youth has a significant role to play, because they are the next generation of African leaders.

A single set of criteria for youth leadership development programs in Africa would contribute greatly to an enhanced standard of leadership for the future; a standard that will be able to lift Africa out of its perceived “backward” civilisation, out of its apparent disregard for life and out of its notorious high levels of corruption. These requirements however call for youth development to focus on character building in order to produce the individuals so direly needed.

Western models of leadership development programs prove unsuitable within the African context. For example a program designed in America will not address the needs of the youth in Ethiopia. Cultural realities simply are too far removed. Conversely, there is a greater possibility that a youth program for Ethiopia would also be effective in Zambia, and even in Liberia for that matter.

The diversity in the various development programs has exposed the inherent shortcoming of continuity and accountability towards each other. These and the other imperfections discussed previously underpin the development of a single set of criteria as a guideline for youth leadership development programs. Even though such guidelines may require fine-tuning as experience is gained, it is becoming increasingly important.

1.4 Outline of the thesis

Thus far a sound foundation has been laid for the development of a program to produce leaders of capacity to counter the growing demands posted by Africa and its peculiar problems. It has been established that this demand can only be met by focussing on development of the youth who will be the leaders of tomorrow.

In Chapter 2 the methodology of the study is discussed, with a conceptual analysis of the term “youth” and the factors that influence youth. “Leadership” and different leadership development approaches, together with the concept of “development” in the context of the youth is also probed. Finally these three concepts are combined to form the definition of “youth leadership development” used for this study. At the end of Chapter 2 the meaning of “culture” and the pivotal role it plays in all youth leadership development programs are accorded attention.

In Chapter 3 of the thesis attention is devoted to the two comparative youth leadership development programs used in the study. They are the Youth capacity building program of Uganda, and the Joint Enrichment Project (JEP) of South Africa. Accent is placed on the vastly different economic, social and political conditions prevailing at the time of these programs. The relative programs are then expounded as case studies. Both programs fit the definition of “youth leadership development programs” conceptualised in Chapter 2, but differ with respect to timeframe, available resources and organisational practices.

In Chapter 4 the tool for assessing the youth programs is introduced: the International Youth Foundation’s (IYF) framework for “Making youth programs work”. The International Youth Foundation’s 14 years of experience ensures a comprehensive and well-designed assessment tool. A description of the framework with an emphasis on the suggested ten criteria for effective programming is given in this chapter.

Chapter 5 contains a separate comparison of the ten criteria for each of the two case studies. The shortcomings of the IYF’s framework as a tool of assessment are also mentioned.

All the information gathered up to this point is used in Chapter 6 to investigate the possibility of universal approaches to youth leadership development in Africa. In conclusion, suggested guidelines for such programs which could benefit the youth, their communities, their countries, and the continent as a whole are provided.

Chapter 2: Methodology

The methodology used in this study is one of qualitative analysis. This method requires in-depth descriptions and a thorough understanding of actions and events, where the researcher figures as the ‘main instrument’ in the research process (Babbie & Mouton, 1998). The qualitative research design used in this study is case studies, and for this purpose two youth programs were chosen. This method further requires a thorough conceptual framework that includes developing well chosen definitive outlines of the concepts involved in the study (Babbie & Mouton, 1998). To this end the terms “youth”, “leadership” and “development” are all key to the understanding of the study. These terms, within the African context and “youth leadership development programs”, are expounded in the following section.

To achieve convergence in a multiple-case study like the one selected for this research project, is invariably some challenge. This objective can however best be attained by meticulous testing of the same phenomenon across cases and to this end the universal “measurement tool” namely the IYF’s framework for “Making youth programs work” was extensively used.

The methodology of this study overlaps in some ways with the methodology of program evaluation, the latter, by definition being the “systematic application of social research procedures for assessing the conceptualization, design, implementation, and utility of social intervention programs” (Babbie & Mouton, 1998: 335). As this study is the assessment of two youth development programs through conceptualization and comparisons, it is concomitant with this definition for program evaluation. According to Babbie & Mouton (1998), program evaluation is the field of social science that utilizes the whole range of social science methods in assessment or evaluation of intervention programs. My study, however, does not make use of the range of social science methods mentioned above but uses a focus on program evaluation coupled with the methodology of qualitative research through case studies.

Secondary data, including documents, are used as the study’s primary source of information. This creates certain challenges for the researcher, because the available documentation on the case studies may not provide sufficient information to achieve

convergence. As this study is of youth programs in two different countries, the available demographic information on the youth in the countries may not be based on similar assumptions and this could prevent sufficient comparisons between the two programs.

One possible shortcoming of this study is rooted in the prerequisites of the case study methodology: case studies require multiple sources of data that create multiple perspectives and enables the researcher to have more confidence in the findings (Babbie & Mouton, 1998). In this study, the sources of data are limited and therefore do not fully adhere to all the requirements of case study methodology. The reliability of the findings of the study should therefore be further assessed.

2.1 Youth

2.1.1 Definition

The use and meanings of the terms ‘young people’, ‘youth’ and ‘adolescents’ vary in different societies around the world, depending on political, economic and socio-cultural context. According to the United Nations Population Fund, adolescents are between 10 and 19 years old, youth are between 15 and 24 years old, and young people are between 10 and 24 years old (UNFPA, 2004). The World Health Organisation refers to the ‘youth’ as being between the ages of 10 and 24 (Palmer, 2002). In this study the United Nations’ definition of the ‘youth’ will be used, which is 15 to 24 years.

Notwithstanding definitions, the meaning and experience of age and of the process of ageing, will always be subject to historical and cultural processes. The word ‘youth’ has and will continue to have different meanings depending on young people’s social, cultural and political circumstances. So ‘youth’ *per se* should not be viewed merely as an age group, but an age-related process, where circumstantial factors directly influence this process (Wyn & White, 1997). It is therefore important to incorporate factors influencing youth into any definition for this age group.

2.1.2 Factors influencing youth

In recent times the youth have become a more prominent group of people. It is argued that young people today enter puberty at a younger age but get married later than before. Consequently the youth face longer periods of “detachment”; being not a child in the house anymore, but also not yet fully integrated into society as meaningful role-players. This means that the youth face a longer period between sexual maturity and marriage (UNFPA, 2004), and this is one of the key challenges for them, as well as for those addressing their needs in modern society.

Another phenomenon radically affecting the lives of youth is globalisation and more specifically economic globalisation. Globalisation can be defined as “the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa” (World Youth Report, 2003). Young people are growing up in a world of globalisation and inequality, taking part in a development process that is simultaneously bringing people closer together and widening the divisions between them. Globalisation offers clear economic opportunities and benefits, but comes with substantial social costs that often appear to affect young people disproportionately, given their tenuous transitional status within an uncertain and rapidly evolving global context (World Youth Report, 2003). The requirements for young people wanting to enter the labour market have also changed. The ‘ideal’ worker has now become someone with qualities such as flexibility, adaptability, capacity for teamwork and demonstrated loyalty (Wyn & White, 1997). All this takes place in an environment where there are no more lifelong careers available, and this increases the feeling of “detachment” as mentioned before. Globalisation has also caused acceleration in production which produces an increasing volatile market. Factors like these contribute to the instability of youth lifestyles (Miles, 2000).

Apart from the economic impact of globalisation on youth, the cultural impact of globalisation is even more visible. The youth are the trendsetters for consumerism, which is a cultural phenomenon, and “regardless of the positive or negative implications of consumerism, [it] appears to direct... young people in particular down a route in which consumer goods and services become the primary resource for the construction of their identities” (Miles, 2000:65).

It is evident thus that the youth are the most vulnerable group to global economic change. They are also virtually obliged to construct global and largely consumption-based lifestyles. There is an increasing global move towards individualism and increased independence and self-realization for youth, but the conditions in which these developments are occurring are actually in a world which is less secure than it has ever been (Miles, 2000). Young people's experience with globalisation constitutes a delicately balanced struggle for independence and success that is as much about constraints and limitations as it is about freedom and opportunity (World Youth Report, 2003). This contrast creates vulnerability. While young people are in the process of establishing some sense of identity in what is essentially an insecure world, this underlying instability may serve to magnify the tensions and lack of control they experience on a daily basis.

The youth's considerably higher levels of education compared to former times are linked to an increased sense of independence. Today's competitive environment demands better educational qualifications and increased skills to overcome social exclusion and poverty. Thus, investing in the youth ensures that the earlier investments made in childhood come to fruition (UNFPA, 2004), but more importantly also ensures investment in the future well being of society. Despite these higher levels of education, formal schooling is not yet accessible to everyone, and many have not been able to acquire adequate basic skills even when they have attended a school for a given period of time. Targets of education in the developing world are set with an eye on the developed world, a background against which the developing world will inevitably be assessed as performing more or less poorly. In many ways, the developing world is condemned to participation in a never-ending marathon in which the front-runners are unassailable (World Youth Report, 2003). Most sub-Saharan countries are left to this fate.

2.1.3 Youth as important social role-players

It is only in the modern era that the youth have become a specifically defined category of individuals. In historical times up to the nineteenth century, the youth were rarely mentioned as a group of people any different from children. They were not seen as having a specific role in society, nor were they regarded to have specific needs. The transition from childhood to adulthood was quick, with childhood often cut short when children were given the responsibilities of marriage, work and a family at an early age. Even in

government the youth was ignored in public sector programs and budgets which tended to focus firstly on children (under 10), and then on adults (UNFPA, 2004). In more recent times, around the 1950's and the '60's, the youth became more prominent role-players in society, albeit in dramatic fashion as the so-called "flower children" or "hippies" showcased by Woodstock. The youth gained a voice, but governments and policies were traditionally slow to respond to this phenomenon.

It is challenging to provide a broad perspective on the youth worldwide, as countries, cultures and traditions view their youth differently. Despite this, "...the psychosocial, emotional and biological changes that characterise this stage of life are widely shared" (UNFPA, 2004). As Miles (2000) expounds: "Young people's experiences are eminently diverse and will be differentiated, among other things, according to variations in class, gender and education....however...it is still possible to identify some key characteristics of young people's experiences". In this study the focus is on the potential similarities between the youth in the African context.

2.1.4 Why youth development?

A mere glance at the figures comprising the "size" of the world's youth component gives some indication of its enormity. Currently, half of the world's population is under the age of 25. This includes the largest-ever generation of the youth between the age of 10 and 19 (1.2 billion). Eighty seven percent of these young people live in the developing world, in highly diverse economic and social situations (UNFPA, 2004). An estimated 238 million youth – almost one in four – endure the deprivations of extreme poverty of surviving on less than a dollar a day. Large percentages of the youth survive without their parents, or are marginalised for reasons such as humanitarian emergencies, migration, poor health or family dissolution (UNFPA, 2004). A large number of young people also suffer from depression. This reality is underscored by the fact that four million suicide attempts are made and ninety thousand young people commit suicide annually (UNFPA, 2004).

Global estimates of street children vary from 100 million to 250 million, and their numbers are rapidly increasing. Another shocking statistic reveals that one in every 230 persons in the world is either a youth or a child who had been forced to flee home and become a refugee. War and conflict also affect the youth in another way: in the year 2000, an

estimated three hundred thousand soldiers under the age of 18 were involved in conflict around the world (UNFPA, 2004).

Statistically young people are now the healthiest, most educated and most urbanised of any previous group. However, the apparent benefits of urbanisation bring their own exposure to high-risk behaviours. Examples are the complications associated with pregnancy, childbirth, and unsafe abortions, which are the major causes of death for women aged 15 to 19 (Palmer, 2002).

Although the impact of Aids has been most severe in sub-Saharan Africa, the disease has transformed the lives of children and youth all over the world. More than sixty million people have been infected since the epidemic began over twenty years ago. An estimated 22 million people have died of Aids, and half of these became infected between the ages of 15 and 24. Every day an average of between six thousand and seven thousand young people become infected with HIV; at present 11.8 million are living with HIV/Aids (World Youth Report, 2003). At the onset of the epidemic few would have predicted that young people would constitute the group most seriously affected by the spread of the disease. The region of sub-Saharan Africa contains almost three-quarters of all young people living with HIV/Aids, even though only 10 per cent of the world's youth live there. Some 8.6 million of the 28.5 million Africans living with HIV/Aids are young people. The majority of new infections in the region are among those 15 to 24 years of age (World Youth Report, 2003). This critical situation still ascribed in the main to ignorance is arguably the biggest single challenge facing the youth in this region.

Aids also has an indirect effect on many more youth and children: As Aids decimates parents and breadwinners, the youth and even children increasingly find themselves at the heads of households. The majority of the more than 10 million children who have lost one or both parents to Aids are between the ages of 10 and 14. These youths are being thrust into adult roles with minimum or insufficient support for themselves and the families under their care, and the consequent neglect of own educational and other skill-building opportunities (UNFPA, 2004).

The picture crystallising from the aforementioned statistics is a disastrous one. It is evident that there can be no single solution for any problem of this magnitude, but it can

safely be stated that instituting programs of youth development will at least serve to expunge one of the major causes for the condition namely ignorance.

2.2 Leadership

There are about as many definitions of leadership as there are people trying to define it (Stogdill, 1974:6). Some people describe it as a “mystical indescribable thing” (Blake & Mouton, 1986:10) and others refer to leadership as a “changing dynamic thing” (Lindgren, 1954:88). In an effort to clarify the ambiguous and complex concept of leadership, researchers have followed different approaches to it (April, MacDonald & Vriesendorp, 2000).

One of these approaches is the Personality approach. According to this approach a leader has certain inborn qualities that can be identified and developed. Researchers have tried to distinguish between those inherent qualities that make leaders effective and those qualities that make them ineffective (Banner & Blasingame, 1988). However, Jennings (1972:67) has concluded after years of study that researchers are still unable to identify and isolate these character traits. There have also been contradictory research findings in this regard (Banner & Blasingame, 1988:7).

The Psychological view of leadership is another approach and defines leadership as a “relationship in which one person accepts responsibility for the fate of himself or herself and others in relation to achieving a task” (Davies, Smith & Twigger, 1991). This in essence distinguishes a leader from a follower: the leader takes responsibility for the fate of others in addition to taking responsibility for himself or herself (Davies, Smith & Twigger, 1991). According to the Psychological view of leadership, the followers are as important as the leader: a person with leadership qualities but without followers is not a leader. “Without subordinates there can be no leaders. Leaders are therefore caretakers of the interest and well-being of those and the purposes they serve” (Roberts, 1990).

It is important to note, as Hughes et al (1999) also argue, that the researcher’s own definition or theory of leadership is the most important factor influencing the study. Studies therefore differ extensively depending on the definition of leadership favoured by the researcher. In this study I combine the above-mentioned approaches to formulate my

own broad view of leadership. In my view every person has the potential and the ability to lead in a given situation. This implies that the unique characteristics in each individual can combine to form a unique leader for a unique situation. Some people are more capable of leading than others, and certain situations require specific individuals with particular attributes. However, the world in which we live is so diverse in its functioning that leaders are found from all walks of life, for every situation, and within every person. Leadership abilities must thus be seen as those particular qualities within individuals that give them the ability to take the lead in a given situation. They are also those qualities that are determined by one's self-concept; qualities that must be recognised by followers who empower the potential leader to become a leader. Laubscher (1995) concludes "to the true leader a positive relationship with himself is as important as the interaction with the people he serves" (Laubscher, 1995).

2.3 Development

2.3.1 Definition

"Growth", "expansion", "progress" and "advance" are all synonymous with the term "development". Even though there are a host of faces to development, for the purpose of this study I focus on two only. These are economic development and human development.

According to the Encyclopedia Britannica (2003) "economic development is the process whereby simple, low-income national economies are transformed into modern industrial economies." It is generally employed to describe a change in the country's economy, involving quantitative improvements. The measurement generally used for economic development is GNP (Gross National Product). Income per person in a particular country is a gross national product measurement in US dollars divided by the population. This is also given as a percentage of the USA figure. (Johnstone and Mandryk, 2001).

Certain shortcomings in this form of measurement have, however, recently been brought to the attention of economists. GNP fails to reflect a number of important aspects about human welfare. There are notable disparities in the ranking of countries based on GNP per capita compared with other possible indicators of well being such as life expectancy and education. As Johnstone & Mandryk (2001) also suggest, GNP is a rough indication of

living standards, but it is not an indication of purchasing power within the country. Many critics fear that if policymakers focus on GNP per capita, they would be biased towards economic growth as a policy objective, rather than striving for balanced human development (Easterlin, 2000:8).

This brings me to my second definition, namely “human development”. In human development it is human welfare, and not economic progress, which is the true objective of development (Ul Haq, 1995). Human development entails activities and processes that protect and advance the fulfillment of basic human needs. It is difficult to draw the line between activities that advance and fulfill basic human needs and those that do not. Broadly speaking, all activities involving people are for the fulfillment of their needs, directly or indirectly. This confusion was cleared up with a product of social indicators used by the United Nations, the Human Development Index (HDI). This is a composite of data about life expectancy at birth, infant mortality, education based on literacy and school enrollment, income and health, and is measurable on a scale from 0.20 to 0.98 (Johnstone & Mandryk, 2001). Some work also seeks to include human rights in this broad measure of human development (Easterlin, 2000:8). This measurement is still incomplete and has serious shortcomings particularly in determining something as abstract as human welfare, but it does give a much broader view on development than GDP measurements with a purely economic perspective.

It is necessary to keep in mind that the developing and underdeveloped countries are a very mixed collection of countries. They differ widely in area, population density, and natural resources. They are also at different stages in the development of their financial institutions and administrative framework. These differences are sufficient to warn against wide-sweeping generalisations about the causes of underdevelopment and all-embracing theoretical models of economic development.

2.3.2 My idea of development

I propose a holistic approach to development. When comparing the definition of economic development with human development, I side with human development, arguing that the growth of human capacity of individuals of a country outweighs the increase of the income of those individuals. I therefore prefer the HDI to the GDP measurement for development.

I agree though that an increase in income will eventually increase the people's power to choose, and thereby give them the opportunity to grow also in other non-economic areas of life. From the start a variety of factors are taken into account in my approach to development.

Furthermore, I attach a positive connotation to the word "development". In the process of development within a country, a community, family or even an individual, negative consequence can and often do come into play. For example, a traditional Africa tribe that has a new clean water supply system to all their homes may win comfort and sanitation, but lose the daily interaction, conversation and social learning between the women of the tribe while fetching water at the river. Unfortunately there are numerous examples of negative and harmful results from development that was planned to glean positive results. Development *per se* is unacceptable unless it produces net overall positive results.

It is equally important to scrutinize the role of the developers when analysing development. The developers are often the initiating party that provide or solicit funds and determine the parameters of the development. They specify the approach to the development program, determine the details, implement or oversee implementation of plans, and control the overall results. It is therefore obvious that their values and objectives will be the determining factor in shaping the development towards the desired result.

Notwithstanding the above, it is of cardinal importance that the recipients in the development program play a determining, or at the very least, a participatory role. History has too many examples of European nations "colonising", developing and "westernising" Africa with complete disregard for long term effects of their efforts. The indigenous African people could not fathom the effects of this transformation at the time, neither could they evaluate nor appreciate the enormous loss of African culture in the process of development. All that was "achieved" in Africa during this period cannot be termed as "development" according to my definition.

2.4 Youth Leadership Development

A broad understanding of the concept of "youth leadership development" emerges when the three pillars thereof as dealt with in the previous sections are brought together.

As previously stated, my viewpoint is that every individual has certain inherent qualities, which can transform him or her into a leader in a given situation. The essence of leadership development is therefore the identification and cultivation of those inherent skills or qualities within oneself to the point where one can lead in the more complex situation. Therefore leadership development is in essence the development of one self. Laubscher (1995) calls this the development of self-concept maturity, and argues that this type of leadership development requires a sound scientific approach (Laubscher, 1995). It is through the process of knowing oneself that self-perceptions are challenged or reinforced. These self-perceptions lead to action, which in turn have an influence on the people and the world around us. All leadership therefore begins in the hearts and minds of individuals.

Davies, Smith and Twigger (1991) agree with this view of developing individuals by trying to integrate the positive and negative appraisal of others and ourselves into a self-concept of who we are, what we can do, and what is important to us. Our recent successes have depended on, and our future successes will depend on the beliefs we have developed along this line of successes and failures, and it is important that this be taken into account in leadership development programs.

This coincides with my holistic viewpoint on youth development where I place more emphasis on human development than on economic development. Leadership development is simply one of the pillars of human development; firstly at the individual level, then at community level, thereafter at national level, and even at international level.

The need for youth development on a global scale requires no further emphasis. On the African continent the need is even more pressing due to particular circumstances already discussed. Recent events bear conclusive evidence that the days are gone when the people of Africa could wait with outstretched hands for humanitarian aid. The world requires Africa to bring its house in order. Only then will funds and assistance be readily available to invest in a growing economy sustained by leaders of substance. A cornerstone in this scenario is the development of those leaders.

2.5 Culture

2.5.1 Definition

Raymond Williams's famous description of culture as one of the most complicated words in the English language (1958) creates quite a challenge for anyone trying to analyse the role that "culture" plays in a specific issue. What exactly does one mean with the term "culture"?

Skelton and Allen (1999) state that there are three approaches to "culture". The first approach postulates that culture is used to distinguish between humans and primates, where humans have learned to adapt their behavior. Here the emphasis is on the behavioural part of culture.

The second approach is value-laden: Culture is "what a person ought to acquire in order to become a fully worthwhile moral agent" (Skelton & Allen, 1999:3). This is the normative approach.

The last approach views culture as plural and relative. "Any particular person is a product of the particular culture in which he or she has lived, and differences between human beings are to be explained by differences in their cultures" (Skelton & Allen, 1999:3). In this essay I lean heavily towards the third approach to culture, with emphasis on the dynamic nature of culture as the product of ongoing human interaction. As Skelton and Allen (1999:4) continue: "Any one individual's experience of culture will be affected by the multiple aspects of their identity – race, gender, age, sexuality, class...and it is likely to alter in various circumstances." Keesing's (1976) definition of culture agrees with this approach: "a culture is thus manifest in, sustained by and transmitted between the minds and brains of individual human beings." It is from this viewpoint that I probe culture and its effect on development.

2.5.2 Cultural hurdles to development

Bharati (1977:104) defines cultural hurdles as "traditional attitudes or customs which are part of the cultural base in a particular region and which constitute barriers to innovation." Still it is important to note that these cultural hurdles must be evaluated in terms of specific

geographical areas and situations. In the case of India, most cultural hurdles can be related to a traditional lack of secular institutions (Bharati, 1997: 105) as a result of the predominant importance of the spiritual world in the lives of all Indians. The religious tradition is the guiding reference for behaviour in the country. Where any development initiative is in conflict with the prevailing religious tradition of the community or the area, the proposed developmental suggestions will take second place when it comes to the decisions the people will make in their everyday lives. The people are reluctant to cooperate when innovation conflicts with religious traditions (Bharati, 1977). Still it is interesting to note that the “cases in which innovations are believed incompatible with religious tradition far outnumber cases of actual incompatibility” (Bharati, 1977:107). This is a typical scenario where the perception of a possible threat to the prevalent culture is transmitted in the minds of individuals as Keesing related, but that this threat is unrealistic. Thus tradition as part of the culture of individuals that effect and shape their identity give rise to patterns of thought that can seriously interfere with development (Bharati, 1977:107).

However, this can be overcome: “Successful programming responds to these varied life circumstances, priorities, interests and preferences. This often includes a multi-sectoral approach that reaches young people wherever they may be... Effective programs also find ways to overcome specific barriers that may prevent young people from getting the information and services they need” (UNFPA, 2004).

2.5.3 Culture and Leadership

Leadership can never be separated from culture. The development of a person’s self-concept maturity for leadership as defined earlier, will be influenced by the way that person views himself or herself within the cultural surroundings and mediated by elements of race, ethnicity, gender, etc. Even the view of what leadership is will differ in different cultural settings. For example my definition of leadership in this study is influenced by my own perceptions and cultural background. This confirms that the subjectivity of any researcher must always be taken into account.

Culture *per se* is an important element in any development program, the reason being that one can never separate an individual or a community from the prevailing culture. Culture is often part of the very substance that forms the individual's identity.

If youth development includes “experiences, education and opportunities that meet basic physical and social needs of the youth and prepares them to be competent, caring, and responsible, then it may apply to different cultures since it is the culture that determines the meaning of competent, caring and responsible” (USAID/USDA, 2000). The awareness of cultural traits and the study thereof in any development issue is therefore of utmost importance. Cultural hurdles have to be crossed with sensitivity when developing leadership qualities and potential within anyone by empowering them to become self-mature.

Chapter 2 was devoted to the formulation of the term “youth leadership development” by defining “youth”, “leadership” and “development” separately. Throughout the rest of the study “youth leadership development” will be used with the understanding gained from this chapter, and will be used in accordance with this definition. The importance of culture in this field was probed, and this must also be taken into account in the following chapters.

Chapter 3: Two programs analysed

Before embarking on an analysis of the selected two programs, some dissertation on the economic, social and political conditions prevailing in Uganda and South Africa at the time of the studies, will give better appreciation for the selections made. This is followed by reasoning why these two countries were chosen for this study, and also why the specific youth programs were selected. The chapter concludes with detailed discussion of the programs within their national contexts.

3.1 South Africa and Uganda: Youth Demographics

3.1.1 General

South Africa's total population in the year 2000 was 44,720,000. In the same year the youth totalled 9,110,000, 20,7% of the total population. The median age for South Africans was 22.0 years (World population prospects, 2002). South Africa is a multi-racial country consisting of four main race groups. Amongst these recognised race groups African youth accounted for 79%, coloured youth for 9%, Indian youth for 3% and whites for 10% of the total youth population in the country (Statistics South Africa, 2002). It is important to note that the breakdown of youth for the different race groups was done for an age group 15 to 35 years. The component African youth is of particular interest because of its increasing proportion in relation to the population of the country as a whole. Equally significant is the fact that the component young Africans show a tendency to move from rural to urban areas, probably in search of higher education or better work opportunities. Notwithstanding this population shift, large proportions remain in rural areas (Statistics South Africa, 2002).

A comparison between the former statistics and that of Uganda reveals significant differences: Uganda had a total population of 23,487,000 in 2000. The population of the youth was 4,736,000, totalling 20,2% of the population. The median age was 15.4 years (World population prospects, 2002). The main race group in Uganda is Africans. It is interesting that the Ugandan population is a much younger population than the South African one. Also significant is the World Population Prospects' (2002) forecast of a projected percentage youth in South Africa of 19% of the total population, compared to

Uganda's forecast of 21,1% of the total population in the year 2030. A further noteworthy statistic is the distribution of the populations in urban and rural settings: 3,444,888 South Africans live in urban areas compared with 2,680,857 in rural areas. In Uganda the distribution is 472,719 v.a.v. 2,844,381 (World population prospects, 2002). This paints a picture of an urbanised South African that consists of a fairly big percentage of young people. Conversely Uganda can be described as a rural country, with a growing population of young people, a typical characteristic of a developing nation.

3.1.2 Economic factors

3.1.2.1 South Africa

In 1999 the unemployment rate in South Africa was 35,9%. The racial distribution of unemployment at that time was 43,7% for Africans and 23,4% for coloured people, compared to the 6,7% for whites (ILO, 2001). The overall unemployment rate for youth in South Africa (15 to 35 years) according to the census of 1996 was 40,8% (Statistics South Africa, 2001). Along gender lines there also exist stark inequalities: 29,7% male unemployment versus 42,8% female unemployment for 1999 (ILO, 2001). The statistics for youth are even more staggering: 33,6% male unemployment versus 49,6% female unemployment in 1996 (Statistics South Africa, 2001). These facts sketch a bleak picture for the South African labour market.

While 48,5% of all youth aged 15 to 34 years were not economically active, this percentage rises to 52,1% for African youths. While on average, a higher percentage among African females (56,5%) were not economically active compared to their male counterparts (47,3%), both percentages were higher in comparison with the national percentages of those of working age (43,2% among all males and 53,4% among all females). Job opportunities are fewer in the rural areas where the unemployment rate was 51,3% compared to 35,7% in urban areas (Statistics South Africa, 2001). These statistics point to the urgent need to address the unemployment problems of the African youth, and more specifically, the female African youth.

3.1.2.2 Uganda

Only 3% of Uganda's currently economically active persons are unemployed, and youth unemployment totals 5,3% of the latter (UBOS, 2002). No more official information on the unemployment position of the Ugandan youth is available, but even these sparse figures are sufficient to indicate the vast difference in the labour market of Uganda and South Africa. It is also indicative of the challenges facing in particular the South African leaders.

Further comparisons between the South African youth and the Ugandan youth reveal that South Africans generally enter the labour market later than their peers in Uganda. At the age of 15 to 19 years, already 76% males and 72% females have entered into economic activity in Uganda in 2000. In South Africa the corresponding figure is 40% for males and 35% for females (World population prospect, 2002). This scenario is significant when addressing the development of youth in the two countries, as the two groups of young people will have totally different expectations of employment prospects.

3.1.3 Social factors

3.1.3.1 Education

The multi-faceted field of education from primary through secondary to tertiary levels together with its emotional issues of standards, availability of facilities and materials, discipline and often expulsions, have always succeeded in winning more than its fair share of sympathetic media coverage. In the South African context education *per se* has proved a highly emotive issue that easily sparks public opinion and results in treatment with kid gloves by the authorities. Perhaps it is by these very means receiving the attention it deserves. Education is and will always be a vital social issue for the youth. The quality of their future lives will hinge round the quality, in the broadest sense possible, of their education.

Again one finds that education in South Africa and Uganda differs greatly. In South Africa the gross enrolment in 1994 to secondary education institutions was 83% for males and 91% for females. The contrast in Uganda for the same measurement in 1994 was 18% for

males and 12% for females. Illiteracy in 1995 was 14,8% in South Africa and 33% in Uganda (World population prospect, 2002).

A focus on African youth in South Africa show them as the most disadvantaged group with regard to access to educational opportunities. Some 8% of young African males and 9% of young African females reported having had no formal education, while 41% of African males and 45% of African females had completed 'some secondary' education (between grades 8 and 11) as their highest qualification. Although the percentages of youth without any formal education was relatively smaller among both male and female coloured youth (3% and 4% respectively), they share similar characteristics with African youth. 45% Of coloured male youth, and 47% of coloured female youth had some secondary education. Among Indian youth and white youth in particular, those with lower qualifications form only a small proportion. A large proportion of Indian youth, i.e. 57% of Indian males and 55% of young Indian females had matric or higher qualifications while among white youth 67% of males and 69% of female youth had matric. The percentage of youth with post-matric qualifications was proportionally higher among whites, both males and females, compared with other population groups (Statistics South Africa, 2001).

3.1.3.2 HIV/Aids in Uganda

HIV/Aids in both Uganda and South Africa has an enormous impact on the youth of the countries. Its ultimate economic, political and social impact is undeterminable at this stage, but for the purpose of my study I will group some available data in an effort to illustrate the magnitude of the problem.

Sub-Saharan Africa houses 71.3 % of all living global sufferers of HIV/Aids. This totals 28.5 million children and adults (Ugandan Aids Commission, 2004). Both Uganda and South Africa fall in the Sub-Saharan region.

Uganda is one of the worst hit countries concerning HIV/Aids. About two million Ugandans had been infected with HIV by the year 2002, and more than 900,000 had died of HIV-related illnesses. At the end of December 2001 about 530,000 women, 400,000 men and 100,000 children under 15 years were living with HIV/Aids (Republic of Uganda, 2004).

An epidemic of such proportions has a devastating effect on the economy of the country. HIV/Aids related expenses in Uganda cost the public services billions of dollars. The country's GDP has dropped, as has the life expectancy of its population: in 2001 it was only 44.7 years at birth (Berry, 2004). Aids is known to hamper efforts to reduce poverty, and indeed, often increases the numbers of people living in extreme poverty. As Aids usually kills sexually active adults, it tends to strike hardest against a country's labour force. The impact this has on economic revenues negatively affects proper rendering of the educational and health services and leaves behind orphaned children and elderly people who in turn add an additional burden on the community or the state.

However Uganda also has a success story, one of the few on the African continent. Since 1995 the country received much international attention as one of the only countries in the world to have had a decline in the number of HIV/Aids cases reported. According to estimates by the U.S. Census Bureau and UNAIDS, national prevalence peaked at around 15% in the early 90's and fell to 5% by 2001. The international interest is on Uganda's approaches and interventions for possible replications in other parts of the world. The adopted HIV prevention approach, the ABC (A=Abstinence, B=Being faithful to one partner, C=Condom use) receives much attention (Ugandan Aids Commission, 2004). However, during the 2000 national strategic planning exercise, it was acknowledged that the declining trends could not be attributed any one single intervention nor one stakeholder but was rather a result of concerted efforts by a multiplicity of partners from various sectors. Uganda's entire population was mobilised in the fight against HIV and were made aware of the dire consequences of risky behaviour for their country. It is largely due to the Ugandan people that the epidemic appears to have been so well addressed.

3.1.3.3 HIV/Aids in South Africa

The above section on Uganda contrasts sharply with South Africa, which has lacked this political leadership in the fight against the HIV/Aids epidemic. Twenty-eight percent of all

people living in South Africa have HIV/Aids, and thirteen percent of all the people in the world infected with HIV are found in South Africa (Berry, 2004).

A survey published in March 2004 shows that South Africans spend more time at funerals than they do having their hair cut, doing shopping or having Bar-B-Qs. It found that over twice as many people had been to a funeral in the past month as had been to a wedding. It is estimated that about 600 people in South Africa die of HIV-related illnesses each day (Berry, 2004).

Figures show that there was an explosion in HIV prevalence between 1993 and 2000. This was a time when the country was distracted by the major political changes through which it was going, and during which it is possible that the severity of the epidemic might have been lessened by prompt action. Whilst the attention of the South African people and the world's media was focused on the political and social changes, HIV was silently gaining a foothold. Although the results of these political changes were positive, the spread of the virus was not given the attention that it deserved. People seemed oblivious of the impact of the epidemic in South Africa until prevalence numbers began to accelerate rapidly.

South Africa's answer to this crisis is the Lovelife campaign that has become the largest campaign aimed at HIV prevention in the world. The Lovelife campaign has been criticised in some circles for sexualising the epidemic, and, although it may have been very effective, the actual difference it has made to reductions in new HIV infections is very difficult to measure.

3.1.4 Political factors

3.1.4.1 Uganda

Political atrocities unknown to the youth in the rest of the world have for more than a decade kept Ugandan youth gripped in a state of fear and turmoil. The horrific details of

their situation are also important to take into account along with economic and social factors when setting the scene of a youth leadership development program in the country.

Although not all of Uganda's youth are directly effected by this political situation, it does create a particular atmosphere within which the youth must grow up. The mere fact that misdeeds of such magnitude are conducted, albeit against only some of the youth of any country, places strain on the confidence and freedom of all its youth.

Some 18 years of rebellion against President Yoweri Museveni's National Resistance Movement (NRM) government has claimed hundreds of thousands of lives and destroyed significant sections of the infrastructure of the country (World Press Review, 2003). This rebellion has been especially costly for the children in the targeted areas of the country, and the traumatic effects of the rebellious activities will leave scars that may never heal.

Joseph Kony's Lord Resistance Army (LRA) is responsible for much of this devastation. It has been wreaking havoc on the local population, abducting, maiming and killing citizens for more than a decade. Notorious for its cruelty, the LRA instructs its recruits to cut off victim's lips, ears, noses, arms and legs (World Press Review, 2003). Of particular concern is the LRA's focus on child abductions, estimated at 2000 over the last decade. Child recruits are instructed to kill and maim, and they are hacked to death if they refuse to comply (World Press Review, 2003).

When U.S. President George W. Bush visited Uganda, he hailed the government of President Yoweri Museveni for its remarkable success in battling Aids, the only country in Africa where the number of infections was decreasing (Chu, 2003), as accounted in the previous section. Museveni has not had the same success in his fight against the LRA. Despite the LRA's devastating violence, however, many Ugandans and international observers remain puzzled by the government's inability to end the conflict. Rather than crushing the rebels when he came to power in 1986, Museveni has seemingly let the conflict simmer on (World Press Review, 2003).

Joseph Kony's teachings may have Christian roots — he advocates replacing Uganda's Constitution with the Ten Commandments — but many LRA practices, such as polygamy and the kidnapping of girls to be sex slaves, conflict with the orthodox faith. One of his oddest prohibitions is against bicycles; apparently he fears they could be used to warn the

authorities of LRA presence, so anyone on a bicycle risks having his feet hacked off or being killed (Chu, 2003). There have also been reports of the LRA troops deliberately infecting people with HIV (Berry, 2004).

It is not surprising that the youth who have managed to escape the LRA's clutches are left traumatised by their experiences. Non-governmental organisations (NGO's) have established a trauma-handling centre for both adults and children, but their challenges are great. How does one rehabilitate a child that was forced to hack his schoolmates to death, or a son who, under the instruction of LRA commanders, has brutally murdered his parents? Former LRA recruits are often exposed to a subsequent trauma when, upon coming home, they are rejected by communities that mistrust them or fear that they will never be fully rehabilitated (Chu, 2003).

Despite all this the Ugandan youth have shown great determination to make their lives work. After Bush left the war-stricken area more than 20,000 children marched through the town of Kitgum, demanding an end to the misery, demonstrating signs to return to school and be freed from slavery (Chu, 2003).

3.1.4.2 South Africa

The totally different South African political situation has also had a profound impact on the youth of the country. As the focus of this study is on the African youth, I will confine my analysis to the effect of political factors on this race group.

The launch of the ANC Youth League in 1943 marked the official start of the involvement of African youth in the struggle for freedom against the apartheid regime of the national government of South Africa. It was the ANC Youth League that was to foster the leadership of icons such as Nelson Mandela, Oliver Tambo and Walter Sisulu (South Africa online, 2004), all of them key role-players in South Africa's history.

Education has already been identified as an emotive issue in most of the world's countries. In South Africa the education authorities of that time realised the enormous shortfall in education for Africans and tried to eliminate this by rapidly expanding the system and

increasing school going numbers from 800 000 in the 1950's to more than 5 million in the 1980s. This in itself created problems because of insufficient numbers of teaching staff, insufficient qualifications of staff and insufficient facilities. Most African teachers were unqualified, and the rate of expansion of the system was such that there was no hope of upgrading their skills over the short run. Bigras (1986) asserts that the main function of Afrikaner lecturers and professors, who constituted better than 95 percent of the academic staff at the "ethnic" universities, was to teach blacks that they can never hope to be the equals of whites. African students did not receive an education that prepared them for the highly competitive socioeconomic environment in South Africa.

The introduction of apartheid policies coincided with the adoption by the ANC in 1949 of its Program of Action. The program embodied a rejection of white domination and a call for action in the form of protests, strikes and demonstrations (South Africa online, 2004). It was mostly the youth who took up this challenge. Township youth were recruited in their thousands to serve as largely unheralded foot soldiers in a war of liberation that spanned decades and cost them their childhoods, their innocence, their health, their education, sometimes their lives – and ironically, their freedom. The year 1976 marked the beginning of a sustained anti-apartheid revolt. In June, school pupils in Soweto rose against apartheid education, followed by youth uprisings all around the country (South Africa online, 2004).

A 1986 article captured the essence of the situation at the time that followed the uprisings: “At present the South African regime is trying desperately to avoid the worst. But although it has placed on the agenda a set of reforms, these are too little and too late for those who will soon constitute the majority within the majority of the population of the country: African youth. They indeed have very little to lose except their lives, and what they have been told and taught in the schools and townships of apartheid is not worth much to them in comparison to the promises of liberation” (Bigras, 1986).

The liberation struggle for the African youth officially came to an end with South Africa's first democratic elections in 1994. Now, ten years after South Africa turned its back on

apartheid, the fire and resolve of the youth have turned to disappointment and disdain. Millions of young South Africans are rejecting the dedication to political struggle that marked their parents' generation and have not voted in the past 2004 elections. The reason for this turning away from politics is that the youth feel that nothing has changed since the ANC came to power (Meldrum, 2004).

Many of the current youth in South Africa (between 15 and 24 years of age) were not directly involved in the freedom struggle because it ended 10 years ago when most of them were still young children. The African youth in South Africa today are mostly the ones that have a feeling of apathy towards the current government as mentioned above. However, they still bear the consequences of unequal education of the apartheid regime as demonstrated by the education statistics of 2001 mentioned in the previous section.

3.1.5 Reason for choosing the two programs

Sufficient evidence was produced in this section to emphasize the enormity of the challenge for both Uganda and South Africa. The diversity of socio-economic constraints was equally well-documented and reasoning need now be advanced only for the selection of the relative countries despite their great differences, and the two youth leadership development programs.

Before advancing in this vein, it is necessary to cast a reflective focus on the aim of this whole exercise. Right at the onset of this document it was categorically stated that given the imperfections of the various development programs operative on the African continent, it would be the aim of this study to research the possibility of a single set of criteria for youth leadership development that will produce the leadership material capable of solving Africa's problems in a sustainable manner.

I will now summarise my comparisons for similarities or dissimilarities in the two development programs on the lines of broad groupings in order not to lose the way in too much detail:

In global context both studies took place on the African continent, though many miles apart during at least partly overlapping timeframes namely 1998 -2000 for the Ugandan study and 1986-2000 for the South African study.

The demographic composition of the two populations varies greatly. Numbers are not comparable; composition *per se* is rural for Uganda and edging towards urban for South Africa; youth components are dissimilar.

The political situations differ extensively. Uganda has an apparent weak government and its population experience strife, civil war, political atrocities; mistreatment of youth, fear, mistrust and permanent spiritual damage. The ruling government is apparently unable to arrest the situation. In South Africa the early phase of the selected youth development program was conducted under “struggle” circumstances, followed by wild euphoria of a newly won freedom, a new government of the people, with high expectations and wild promises. Today the political atmosphere is peaceful and may remain so for a long period if present policies can be maintained. South Africa is overwhelmingly accepted by free world countries and only mild criticism is sometimes muttered by former western allies on its relationship with its neighbour Zimbabwe. On the local front there is a sharp increase in crime affecting all walks of life.

Socio-economic circumstances differ extensively. Uganda has low unemployment and early entry to its labour market. South Africa has alarmingly high unemployment with even higher percentage females unemployed; less job opportunities in rural areas resulting in population shift to urban areas with concomitant costly urban development.

Comparisons on the education field are sketchy. Uganda has 33% of its total population illiterate compared to South Africa’s 14.8% of total population; gross enrolment at higher education establishments in South Africa was 83% for males and 91% for females, compared to Uganda’s 18% for males and 12% for females.

Public Health is dominated by the severity of HIV/Aids in both countries. Uganda has the honours of being the only African country with seemingly declining

prevalence, whereas South Africa, with much better facilities and infrastructure, seems blessed with a health authority oblivious of the gravity of the situation. More than 600 people are dying daily of HIV/Aids related diseases and yet the authorities squabble over the root causes of the disease and whether it should or should not issue anti-retroviral medication.

The balance of the scale weighing Uganda and South Africa tips heavily towards dissimilarities rather than similarities. The only real point of correlation is both countries' global position namely the African continent. Why then select the relative programs and their implementation under such vastly differing circumstances and unrelated playing fields as the basis for the search towards a "continental" youth development program? My answer is that should sufficient evidence be found albeit under these adverse circumstances that a "continental" program has a slight chance of success, so much more will be its chances under more normal or even better circumstances.

In line with this thinking I will expound on my choice of the Youth capacity building program and the Joint Enrichment Project as case studies. This choice is firstly resulting from these programs fulfilling the requirements of what youth leadership development entails as expounded in Chapter 2. Secondly, and most importantly in fulfilling the aim of this study, the choice of the programs was strengthened because of the differences with regard to timeframe, context and method of operation embodied by the two programs. Hence I argue that any success experienced by the agents or youth workers applying program principles in practical situations, can only be as a result of the same or at least similar principles used, principles that displace the afore-mentioned differences inherent in all development programs of this nature. If this be the case, other youth leadership development programs will be able to use these same "continental" principles for their unique programs.

An exposition on these two youth leadership development programs follow in the next section.

3.2 Youth capacity building: An international development program case study in Uganda

The Youth capacity building program is a pilot program that was introduced to Uganda³ during 1998 to 2000. The U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) in partnership with the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) funded the program. The pilot program is described here as it was introduced in 1998. Since that date the program has expanded throughout Uganda.

3.2.1 Formation of the Youth capacity building program

The formation of the Youth capacity building program started with the joining of two nationwide Ugandan youth organisations: the National Youth Council (NYC), a newly formed quasi-governmental youth organisation for citizens 18-30 years old with representation at each level of government, including five youth members elected to the national Parliament; and the Ugandan National Student's Association (UNSA), a quasi-governmental organisation that advocates for the rights of students from the elementary through tertiary levels. These two organisations joined with funders from the USAID and USDA to form the initiative. Initially the project's training design team, consisting of representatives of the USAID and USDA, met with about 150 youth from these partner organisations to determine specific training needs.

The following needs were identified:

- 1) Government decentralisation designates seats at all five levels of government for youth, yet they have little experience in public leadership.
- 2) There are few jobs for youth, especially with a government emphasis both on privatisation and on those who leave school early. Only 8% of girls and 14% of boys are in secondary school (Population Reference Bureau, 1998).
- 3) Funds are available for local development projects and youth activities, but the youth lack the knowledge and skills to access and manage this funding.

³ Uganda has a HDI of 0.404; 158th/174; Income/person (GNP) \$330 (1% of USA) (Johnstone & Mandryk, 2001).

- 4) The youth have the desire but lack the skills to make changes and/or provide leadership to communities. As a result they often lack credibility with their elders who may fail to see them as resources (USAID/USDA, 2000).

Based on this needs assessment, a three-person design team from the USDA/USAID, along with three leaders from NYC and UNSA conducted several “Training of Trainers” (TOT) activities over an eight-month period. A five-day TOT curriculum was designed, focussing on leadership and community development, project management, entrepreneurship, and training skills. This curriculum was taught to 32 NYC and UNSA leaders invited throughout the country, who in turn, with the design team’s guidance, implemented four regional, residential training programs for an additional 113 youth. Concurrently, the USDA/USAID consultants provided organisational and leadership training to UNSA and NYC team members on program/project management, evaluation, community collaboration, and proposal writing. Ultimately the whole system of youth TOT training in Uganda will include 18000 youth who will have participated in capacity building training sessions.

This was the first time the youth took part in training designed specifically for their age levels and needs. The training modelled experiential-learning practices and involved the participants in intense implementation at both the national and regional levels. All of these methods were new to the youth.

3.2.2 Youth capacity building program summary

Several trends of youth development worldwide are present in the Youth capacity building project in Uganda. One of these is the underlying philosophy of the entire project of viewing youth as assets and resources to be developed for economic growth rather than viewing them as problems to be fixed (Lofquist, 1989; McLaughlin, Irby, and Langman, 1994; Zeldin et al., 1994). Youth development is community development, and developing the youth as resources addresses many of the larger development challenges of communities.

As a result of the myriad of challenges facing the youth in Uganda, the training content of the program focused on building knowledge and a range of leadership, project and self-

management competencies, while also helping them to contribute to their communities. During the training the youth repeatedly expressed interest in providing not just for their own needs, but also in contributing to the future of their country (Roth et al., 1998; Dryfoos, 1990; Benson, 1997; Zeldin et al, 1994).

Another successful practice of youth development is involving young people in making rules and taking decisions on their programs. The young people who participated in the Ugandan program did this by being involved in the training needs assessment, planning, designing, implementing and evaluation of the program. They also mobilised community leaders and elected officials in supporting the training. These opportunities are essential to the success and sustainability of the program, as well as the individual development of the participants (Zeldin, Kimball and Price, 1995).

3.2.3 Results of the pilot program

The “Training of Trainers” (TOT) format was well accepted by the youth. At the conclusion of the training, all 145 of the national and regional participants evaluated the training on a Likert-type scale of 1-5: 1=poor, 3=average, 5=excellent. ‘Confidence to train others’ was rated the highest. Overall the feedback was above average, indicating that the participants found the training format and content relevant and applicable.

An increase in skill attainment or knowledge was measured by a pre- then post-training self-assessment (Rockwel and Kohn, 1989). Learners rated 24 skills in five categories on the basis of training content and units. A Likert-scale found that the participants, on average, changed more than 16 of their skills by one to two points. Overall, 54% of the participants assessed themselves as having increased at least one half (12) of their skills by at least two points.

The participants deemed all the skills as useful, rating themselves high in each category at the conclusion of the training. They rated their increase in leadership skills lower than the other categories, yet still rated their overall leadership skills significantly higher and the content significantly more useful than the other categories. Even though participants thought that they learned the least and believed that they already knew a lot of the content, they still regarded leadership skills to be the most important topic.

3.2.4 Mindset changes

The training was also evaluated qualitatively, and trainers observed many changes in mindset and organisational capacity during the training implementation. A notable example is that historically, foreign aid organisations pay learners a “sitting fee” to attend training. Although public transportation, lodging and meals were paid by the USAID grant, a “sitting fee” was not paid to the youth, who said training opportunities are rare and personal development was incentive enough to take part.

Experiential learning was new to the youth, who at first found the methods challenging. Later they agreed that they learned many practical skills and applications that went beyond theory. Even participants who were experienced teachers felt the learning activities were more effective than commonly used lecture formats and they intended to apply many of the methods in their classrooms.

A history of political dictatorship and corruption has developed a generation of distrustful Ugandan youth, many who are unaccustomed to teamwork and sharing leadership responsibilities. Because the pilot activities modelled full partnership and decision-making with the youth organisations, the youth started to think more about working with others rather than for others, to articulate the value of working together to accomplish goals, and to value the concept of shared leadership. Participants learned to be accountable and transparent in community activities and to assess and express their roles as assets to their communities.

3.2.5 Impact of Youth leadership in Uganda

It is still too early to measure the long-term impact of this training program, but even immediate outcomes are promising. NYC and UNSA leaders have secured funding from the Ugandan government to take training to the next step in eight districts – an unprecedented responsibility for the youth in the country.

An impact assessment one year after the national training found several of the trainers had started their own businesses, which they attributed to their gain in entrepreneurial skills and self-confidence. Several others listed leadership skills, especially conflict resolution, patience and creativity, project proposal writing and management skills as the most personally beneficial. Almost all of the national trainees had conducted training for others, and many remained in frequent contact with other trainees. All of the participants felt that their job and career prospects were better after the training.

Perhaps the most impressive impact reported was that eight of the national trainees surveyed had written a total of ten project proposals. These young people are putting into practice the skills they attained through the TOT and are actively engaged in training other youth.

3.2.6 Applicability of lessons learned to other settings

Many lessons were learned during the course of the project, perhaps the most important of which was that development without youth is not sustainable (USAID/USDA, 2000).

The other lessons learned were:

- Give youth a seat at the table; engage them as full, contributing partners at all stages of the program (activity, planning, implementing, monitoring, evaluating)
- Model and teach experiential learning. Hands-on learning coupled with reflection is one of the most effective learning and skills development strategies
- Provide opportunities for youth to develop a set of core skills that can be transferred to income-generating activities
- Proactively select partners when engaging youth. Be open and transparent about the selection process
- Build on strengths. Use culturally appropriate, localised and tested training materials and resources. Encourage and facilitate collaboration at the local level

The underlying principle of these practices is for the youth to gain transferable skills to earn a livelihood while making a contribution to the development of their community and ultimately to their nation. In the economic setting of Uganda this is extremely beneficial as preliminary investigations showed that there are not enough jobs available for the youth in the formal sector. The entrepreneurial spirit that the program kindled in the youth will have

a positive ripple effect in the communities and eventually across the nation. Small businesses started as a result of the program. In turn these businesses employ other Ugandans who did not attend the Youth capacity building program.

The Youth capacity building program has a strong focus on leadership and skills development, and this causes an increase in self-confidence in the participants. This fosters a sense of purpose and a belief that the youth can determine their own well-being and that they are in control of their lives. In the Ugandan political environment where the lives of the youth are impacted negatively as a result of political misdeeds, this is extremely valuable.

The above mentioned factors add to the social contribution that the Youth capacity program makes to Uganda. An increase in economic activity as well as personal growth through skills and leadership development despite political circumstances, directly benefits the community that the youth return to after the program. They impart these skills and knowledge to the community, and thereby play a positive role in breaking down boundaries between the youth and the elders of the community, who had previously disregarded them as resources.

3.3 The Joint Enrichment Project: Youth development in South Africa from 1986 to 2000

The Joint Enrichment Project (JEP) follows similar approaches to youth development as the Youth capacity building program of Uganda. One of these approaches is that youth development programs must be holistic, or integrated, from the start. There is a counter view, however, that this approach makes programs too expensive. Whilst in the short term more inputs may be required with the first mentioned approach, money is saved in the long run due to the real impact on young people's behaviour. JEP (2003) believes that an integrated approach to youth development is not negotiable if the program is to have any good effect.

The integrated approach recognises, firstly, that young people have a range of needs, and if programs or interventions are to benefit them in a sustainable way, they have to engage with these needs. The second aspect of an integrated approach to youth development is acknowledging that young people live in communities - and communities have the ultimate responsibility for their children. Youth workers are not saviours offering miracle cures. They have to work with parents, teachers, organisations and neighbours if their programs are to be helpful.

3.3.1 JEP programs

The type of program implemented by JEP has been strongly influenced by more general trends in South African policy development. For the purpose of this study I will be exploring four programs, namely the Skills Training Project (STP), the Young Women's Network, the 'Back to School Campaign', and the Youth Work Scheme. There are various other programs that were also initiated by the JEP, but the above-mentioned programs were chosen to illustrate the variety of issues addressed by the JEP, and simultaneously elucidate on the political, social and economic atmosphere prevalent in South Africa⁴, and how this has changed since democracy in 1994.

⁴ South Africa has a HDI of 0.695; 101st/174; Income/person (GNP) \$3,210 (10% of USA) (Johnstone & Mandryk, 2001).

3.3.2 Skills Training Project

In the early nineties there was a strong belief that the answer to rising unemployment among the youth in South Africa was the provision of education and skills training. However, a review of technical training programs for unemployed young people revealed that very few participants actually ended up in the formal sector after their training. There were several reasons for this: the formal economy was in decline and there were fewer jobs available, but it was also clear that even if there were a massive increase in job opportunities, young people would not be likely to benefit (Foley, 2001).

The legacy of a poor education system in South Africa as mentioned before due to previous legislation of the apartheid government meant that many participants in training programs were ill-equipped to learn effectively. This was one of the reasons that young people were not able to benefit from the technical training programs they attended, as mentioned above (Foley, 2001). Empowering their learning capabilities required more than literacy and numeracy - it required a concerted effort to address issues of self-esteem and self-worth, to provide long-term planning skills, to re-establish relationships with families and communities, and to develop decision-making and conflict management skills. Merely providing services can be useful, but often these services do not equip people to change their situation. Therefore greater investment is needed. When dealing with youth programs in South Africa the issue is not about budgets for more services, but about investing in the value of human lives. JEP's (2003) first pilot model using this approach was established in 1993: the Skills Training Project (STP).

The recruitment of women for this program proved to be one of the major challenges. Recruitment was done by spending time in Soweto and asking young people if they were interested in participating. JEP found that women would not enlist as easily as men. It was clear that most youth projects were more easily accessible to young men. Young men roam around; they can come into town, or wander the areas much more easily than young women. JEP realised that if youth programs want young women to take part, they will have to look for them and make it possible for them to attend (Foley, 2001). A program JEP implemented to address this need was the Young Women's Network.

3.3.3 Young Women's Network

Initially the Young Women's Network focused on two simple activities. JEP staff met with groups of young women and discussed with them what their particular needs were and how to meet them. At the same time a Job Bank was started, which assisted young women to compile their CVs and lobbied employers and employment agencies to interview candidates they would not usually have considered. Feedback from these interviews was used to better prepare young women. One of the biggest lessons JEP learnt from the Young Women's Network was that young women need time and attention. In their families, organisations, schools and other structures, they are starved of interest and support (JEP, 2003).

JEP staff running the Job Bank realised that linking up young women with interview chances was not enough. Many never turned up for the interviews. When they explored the reason for this, they received answers including: 'no transport money', 'I got lost', or 'I got the date wrong'. The underlying reason however was that the women were scared. The fear came from two main sources: the belief that it is better not to try and therefore not fail, and a very real fear of sexual harassment (Foley, 2001).

3.3.4 Youth development programs in the late nineties

The early JEP programs were looking ahead to a new government that would place youth development high on the national agenda. In 1995 the African National Congress' Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) (African National Congress, 1994) gave the first hint that this might not happen. The youth barely featured in the RDP.

A round of meetings with officials confirmed that while there was interest in youth programs, there was little that could be done in the near future. In 1996 the National Youth Commission was established (JEP, 2003). Between 1994 and 1998 policy was developed, but simultaneously there was a terrifying shortage of programs to assist young people. Instead, many good youth organisations disappeared in the funding crunch.

It is difficult to comprehend why such limited attention was given to young people, given that they constitute such a large part of the population, approximately 21% (World population prospects, 2002). According to JEP (Foley, 2001) it is complex to work with young people, the same complexity that prompted the organisation to move to the integrated approach to youth development. To work with young people cannot be neatly boxed off into administrative or professional activities like health, education, or trade and industry, and this might be the reason that government was slow to address the situation of the youth in the country.

The first Skills Training Project group typified the South African youth of the early nineties. Many of the participants had been involved in formal youth structures during the struggle against apartheid and were strong proponents of their rights. STP life skills workshops dealt with a range of issues, such as in the event of the first gun amnesty, negotiating how many guns Self Defence Unit (SDU) members should turn in. Participants were anxious to support the amnesty initiative, but also felt that they needed to keep some arms in case things didn't turn out well in the new democracy. It was not unusual for discussions to be preceded by debates on the comrades' mandate to represent the group. However this language is no longer used by the youth, and JEP had to adjust accordingly.

3.3.5 'Back To School Campaign'

The third JEP program was the 'Back to School Campaign'. Two secondary schools in Soweto were targeted, using drama as a way of reengaging students who were attending school but not doing anything else. With the rather reluctant approval of principals, JEP staff would turn up in classrooms where there appeared to be no teachers. It soon became clear that certain classes were declared no-go zones by the teachers. This classification was done on grounds of students' perceived stupidity in having to repeat school years, or their obstreperous behaviour.

JEP staff gradually coaxed learners with games, discussions and drama into considering their future, their responsibilities, their hopes and their difficulties. JEP was successful in this, as illustrated by the following example: at one school a boycott of classes was in progress for several days because of the killing of a suspect rapist by his fellow learners. As several of the young men in the drama group were involved in the incident, a play was

developed to explore options other than killing to bring the perpetrator to book. Teachers returned to these classes after JEP's intervention and the occurrence of violence also decreased at this school (JEP, 2003).

3.3.6 Youth Work Scheme

JEP developed a program for homeless young people who were considered too old for programs focussing on street children. These young people worked at training centres, shelters, church groups and community organisations. The program gave JEP staff amazing insight into the difficulties young people face. They listened to parents describe how they became scared of their children. They heard "bewitched" young women explain that they were permanently unemployed because of stealing another young woman's boyfriend. They held grief counselling sessions for groups of young people who saw their friends die from gunfire, Aids and car accidents. Through it all, they were constantly amazed by participants' determination to make their lives work.

3.3.7 Challenges of JEP

By 1999 it became clear that more opportunities were emerging to work closely with government. After six years of testing models, JEP were faced with the ultimate challenge of engaging many more young people. This also meant adapting to the aims of government programs, the key objectives of which were not necessarily the holistic development of young people.

Another challenge for JEP was the constantly changing youth culture and how the organisation must adapt to this. For example in the late eighties, the youth group "The Young Lions" came to the fore. In the early nineties, Seekings (1993) posed the question whether "young people were heroes or villains", while the media preferred to refer to the youth as the 'lost generation' (Foley, 2001).

Most challenges for both participants and staff on a practical level occur during weekends. In South Africa youth culture takes over on Friday evenings when the drinking starts in earnest. Parties with friends and in taverns often lead to fights between young men over women and belongings, and invariable ends in serious crimes like rape, violence and often

murder. Sexual violence against women is rife. When asked why so many young people get hurt over weekends, a JEP co-ordinator was told: "... we know you don't like us drinking or fighting, so we try not to do it in the program, but on the weekend.... that's how it is. That's what you do" (Foley, 2001).

Also the youth no longer believe that the HIV/Aids epidemic will affect them. One group JEP was involved with expounded that sex with an innocent child will be an adequate cure for the disease (JEP, 2003). The above are some of the real challenges for organisations concerned with the health and the needs of young people.

3.3.8 The opacity of youth cultures

According to JEP experiences, there is no universal youth culture (Foley, 2001). For example, in 1999 JEP began working in the rural North West province, in a community where more than 90 per cent of young people were unemployed, yet there was virtually no crime. This was also a very traditional area, with relationships between participants and their elders being totally different from those in urban areas. In this town of Atamelang in the North West province, the people know each other. The needs, expectations and desires of participants in this community are very different from those in the Gauteng programs. Then again, the youth culture in Soweto is also different from that in Alex, a few kilometres away.

Young people who regularly attend church groups use a different rhetoric to those who do not. They are affected by the same issues, and obviously have a lot in common, but there are profound differences, and youth workers have to ensure that they are on the same wavelength as the program participants. Class, race, age, locale and other variables all play a role in this regard. JEP works with very few white young people, but from limited involvement in some suburban schools it is clear that, although there are many issues which affect all young people, the way they respond is very different.

As youth culture changes, organisations like JEP have to work exceedingly hard to find the varying points of entry into groups. For example in communities where there is a lot of gang activity, JEP staff will have to understand what the gangs offer their members before offering alternatives.

All the above-mentioned factors contribute to the challenges facing JEP, and all youth development programs that work in changing circumstances.

3.3.9 Parents

JEP not only has to work with young people, they also have to ensure that there is fruitful communication in both directions between parents and their offspring. This often becomes a primary activity in some of the projects. In the final analysis, it is the communities, the families and networks thus created that will have the greatest impact on producing and nurturing healthy young people. JEP found that when parents give up on their children, the program's efforts come to a standstill. One of the reasons for this is that the key to young people's evaluation of themselves lies in their sense of belonging, of being valued and of being respected, by their parents, their friends, their peers and their community (Foley, 2001).

3.3.10 Demands of diversity

JEP is faced with the demands of a diverse and ever-changing youth society in South Africa. Youth cultures across the world are challenging and changing, but in South Africa with its multi-faceted cultures and people, political, social and economic differences abound. JEP cannot possibly have all the answers to the needs of the youth that they are involved with, but they can facilitate processes of reconciliation and provide valuable objective insight into complex situations.

It is this constantly changing youth culture that makes the use of an integrated approach to youth development important. It is not possible to design a youth program in Johannesburg, publish a manual, distribute it nationally and then run programs from it for the next five years. Youth workers must understand the needs of the young people they are working with, know on what they base their existing values, concerns, priorities and abilities, and adjust the programs appropriately. This takes hard work and commitment in terms of time and energy, but JEP has the approach that easy youth development is not good youth development, and if it's not good, it is not worth doing (JEP, 2003).

The youth of South Africa must have the ability to function in synergy with each other across cultural, economic, social and political boundaries. In this way the management of diversity in an environment fosters leadership development, and it is an essential quality for any young person aspiring to a leadership position. In South Africa leadership development does not end with the development of the individual to reach his or her potential. The true leader is furthermore required to bridge diversity and generate growth and change in his or her environment.

Chapter 4: A framework for effective programming

In this chapter I will describe the “tool” I have selected for assessing the chosen youth leadership development programs dealt with in the preceding chapter.

4.1 “*Making Youth Programs work*”

The International Youth Foundation (IYF) consists of partnerships between youth organisations and leaders in the field of youth development. The Foundation was established in 1990 to bring worldwide support to youth programs and is dedicated to increasing the effectiveness, scale, and sustainability of these programs. In this pursuit the IYF has identified successful youth programs and built on that which works to formulate a framework for effective programming (IYF, 1999).

According to the IYF, programs can be said to be effective when they have demonstrated a positive impact in the life of a young person (IYF, 1999). This can be in the area of knowledge, attitudes, behaviour, skills and status. Depending on the focus of the programs, any number of these areas can be positively impacted. It is important though that at least one of these areas will be positively impacted in the life of the young person taking part in the program.

It is significant to note that the definition of “positive impact” may vary between different cultures and circumstances, as they reflect the values and priorities set by the surrounding environment. These in turn are influenced by the prevailing social, political and economic conditions. Therefore the framework does not present a universally accepted definition to be used by all programs, but encourages the positive impact of each program to be viewed in context.

The IYF found that the fundamental elements contained in various definitions that contribute to the effectiveness and positive impact of youth programs can be clustered into the following four areas:

1. **Confidence:** developing a sense of self-worth in the person
2. **Character:** developing a sense of responsibility and accountability in the person

3. **Connection:** providing opportunity for the person to “belong” in a positive way with connectedness to an immediate community
4. **Competence:** enabling the person to play a meaningful role in the future through educational and vocational skills (IYF, 1999)

IYF also identified 10 criteria that make youth programs work. The rest of the chapter is dedicated to the clarification of these ten criteria. This will also be the focus of further chapters. The criteria are divided into three categories: [1] **Approaches to working with young people**, [2] **The context of family and community** in which this takes place, and [3] **Organisational practices**, as seen in the table that follows. According to the IYF, these characteristics are applicable to all youth programs regardless of their size, area of focus, or geographic location.

[1] Approaches to working with the youth	
1.	Focus on positive development
2.	Offering developmentally appropriate activities
3.	Striving for maximum youth participation
[2] Context of family and community	
4.	Involving parents, family and other caring adults
5.	Involving the community
6.	Being culturally relevant
[3] Organisational practices	
7.	Competent and committed staff
8.	Strong managerial and administrative capacity
9.	Sustainability
10.	Monitoring and evaluation

4.2 Approaches to working with young people

4.2.1 Focus on positive youth development

An effective program is founded on the principle that all young people can develop to their fullest potential. Such a program sees its role as providing opportunities for and an environment in which young people's natural inclination and capacity to develop are encouraged to their maximum (Pitman, O'Brien & Cahill, 1992). When a program establishes its work on a positive model of youth development, it can concentrate on building competencies and on tapping potential. There is an understanding that to be free of problems does not automatically amount to being prepared to play a constructive role in society. It follows that this type of positive model enables a program to avoid being preoccupied with fixing a problem.

Of equal importance to this positive approach is the requirement that young peoples' development be viewed in a holistic way. Programs must see the inter-related nature of the factors influencing the youth. Young people's emotional, physical, spiritual, social and economic needs are therefore considered in unity and of equal importance. The holistic approach does not, however, imply that all programs must be able to address all the needs of their beneficiaries. It only suggests that program staff should know how these needs affect each other and also ensure that these needs are being addressed elsewhere, if not in the program itself (Nelson & Hong, 1988). Of key importance is that youth programs are addressing the root causes and not only the symptoms of the challenges the youth are experiencing.

4.2.2 Offering developmentally appropriate activities

To achieve the goals of a positive youth development model, programs must provide a range of activities that are geared towards building positive competencies. Young people go through different physiological and psychological changes. These vary from one community to another, and therefore program staff requires an understanding of the different stages of development as defined in the communities in which they work. The

program activities must be suited to the development stage of the young person as understood in the context of the community in which he or she lives.

Other factors that need consideration are age, gender, young people with disabilities, and those facing extraordinary difficult circumstances, for example war, serious illness, poverty, etc. All of these factors would necessitate a reassessment of program activities for the youth that are involved.

4.2.3 Striving for maximum youth participation

Youth participation is inextricably tied to positive youth development, as it fosters the development of self-confidence, pride, initiative, creativity, responsibility, and cooperation. Through participation, young people learn to take charge of their own lives and solve their own problems. The capacity to be engaged in developing positive outcomes for one's life is the very essence of development (Burkey, 1993). In accordance with this, youth participation is crucial, and refers to the program's conscious efforts to engage young people as active partners in their own development (Hart, 1992). Through participation young people cease to be passive recipients of services and become partners in their own development and also agents of change.

The youth can be involved at various stages of the program, for example during the design and planning stage when they can help shape the content of the program, and also during implementation when they can play appropriate roles as staff volunteers. During the assessment and evaluation stage of the program, the youth can also be important sources of feedback, and can suggest improvements. It is also important that avenues exist that allow for the youth to play a part in the decision-making process of the program. The youth's participation in any of the phases of the program will develop their leadership skills, give them a sense of responsibility, and stimulate problem-solving as well as communication skills. Youth participation is therefore rewarding both for its own sake and for meeting broader developmental goals (Dubas, 1993). Participation fosters competence, which in turn fosters motivation of further involvement (Hart, 1992). It also makes the program more relevant, and it enhances the appeal of the program for other young people. Despite all this, youth participation can also be threatening to established patterns of relating within a given society if not handled carefully. Nevertheless youth participation in a program is

essential, and works best when organisations are clear about their motives, and view youth participation as a product of positive relationships and genuine partnership between adults and young people.

4.3 Context of family and community

4.3.1 Involving parents, family and other caring adults

Families have the most profound impact on a young person, and any program that wishes to adopt a holistic approach must take this influence into account (Morley & Rossman, 1997).

Youth programs must make parents and family involvement as easy as possible by allowing them to choose the avenue of participation they feel comfortable with. A few examples of these avenues are the following:

- Setting up meetings to exchange information and enhance communication (this clarifies expectations on both sides)
- Setting up home visits (this puts many families more at ease in their natural environment)
- Giving families the opportunity to participate in the planning and implementation of program activities
- Giving families the opportunity to participate in events to know the program operators better, and to make them feel welcome.
- Offering activities aimed at helping families improve the care that they provide for young people.

Involving the family in youth programs is challenging for program staff who must involve parents in a non-judgmental way, even though they may be aware of the difficult circumstances at home. The staff must also be flexible enough to create the opportunities for all parents to participate.

Program staff must also be aware of families or adults that constitute a negative force in the lives of the young people. Such families or individuals are often the source of trauma and abuse and their involvement need to be curtailed or completely restricted.

4.3.2 Involving the community

According to the IYF (1999) 'community' refers to the web of relationships, institutions, values and expectations that affect the lives of young people and thereby the work of the program. Since relationships affect young people's lives consistently, program operators have a better chance of achieving their goals if they work with the community. Involving the community helps a program to be attuned and relevant to the needs and circumstances of the environments within which it operates. Initiatives for young people gain legitimacy when they have the support of existing, respected, and trusted community institutions. Local ownership of the program and the broad involvement of community members increase the program's ability to sustain the changes that it has brought about for young people (Pitman, O'Brien & Cahill, 1992). According to the IYF (1999) it is important to note that the development of the young people is dependent on the development of the communities, and therefore wider community well being is essential for a youth program's success.

Regular community feedback, consultation with various stakeholders and regular community inputs are vital sources of information for program practitioners. It is also imperative that the program should try to establish itself physically within the community, thereby gaining local visibility and building trust. This public trust contributes to sustainability.

Coordinating with other youth-serving institutions is also vital for the integration of services to fill gaps left behind by limited resources of one program. This also avoids the replication of efforts, and enhances through improved coordination, the young person's access to important services (Morley & Rossman, 1997).

Involving the community in a youth program also has a downside in so far that it is affected by the relationships and conflicts that exist within the community. That is why any program's success is critically dependent on the ability to understand the nature and implications of these divisions and conflict. Program staff should make a special effort to involve all those in the community who could play a positive role in the youth program, and there should be no exclusion of community leaders.

Worth remembering in dealing with youth development programs is the fact that programs can never effectively change the odds for all young people if they do not simultaneously expand their goals to include community development and revitalization, thereby allowing the communities themselves to help the youth more effectively (Blyth & Roehlkepartain, 1993). Overall it has been found that young people who benefit from community resources like support of adults, have a better chance at developing important life skills (IYF, 1999). Vice versa young people and their skills are also important resources for communities, and those who have an investment in the welfare of their communities are likely to be better motivated and productive than their peers.

4.3.3 Being culturally relevant

Cultural relevancy is the most important aspect of youth development programs, especially in Africa. This was briefly mentioned in Chapter 2. The IYF considers it to be critical to the success of any program. The reason for this is that successful programs must address a community's needs as shaped by its particular customs and ways of life. Furthermore the programs must be based on an understanding of the traditions, value base and historical heritage of the community (IYF, 1999). Program operators often come from backgrounds different to those of the community population, and the population may also be culturally diverse within its own membership. Incorrect assumptions about what people want for themselves and their children will make it very difficult for a program to gain the backing and cooperation of the community.

Program staff must be sensitive to issues of cultural similarities and differences, and they may need to be trained for this purpose. Sometimes it is effective to hire staff that reflects the cultural composition of the communities being served, but still this does not automatically ensure cultural relevance. Therefore program staff ought to be particularly sensitive to the special needs of the community they serve.

It has been found that key to the success of a youth program is the staff's firm understanding and appreciation for the distinctive material and social values of young people, their ways of thinking and their means of communication, all pertaining to their culture (IYF, 1999). Culture is not static, and this is especially true with youth culture,

because it tends to change faster than the overall community. The youth's access to information technology is partly responsible for their rapid culture change.

Not all aspects of culture have a positive or even a neutral effect on the youth of that community. Program staff should recognise aspects of a culture that compromise their work and work around that or directly address the issue. Despite the negative aspects inherent in culture, it needs to be recognised as an important resource that requires serious consideration within all youth programs.

4.4 Organisational practices

4.4.1 Competent and committed staff

Any youth development program relies on the individuals who are responsible for that program. These individuals should have the capacity to establish relationships of trust and respect with young people, their families as well as their communities. Competent and committed individuals are vital to the program's ability to carry out its mission (Hahn, 1992) and they must have the unique ability to engage in a wide spectrum of these relationships (IYF, 1999).

In-service training of program staff is most effective simply because of the varying nature and circumstances of their work and the ongoing need for creativity. Despite this there are certain factors that must be present in any staff training strategy (IYF, 1999). The following list of competencies point to core skills that help youth program staff to be successful in their jobs.

Program development:

- Knowledge of positive youth development principles
- An ability to develop appropriate policies for youth development
- Knowledge of young people's challenges and development

Communication:

- Ability to develop and maintain sustained relationships of trust with young people
- Ability to communicate effectively with young people, their families and stakeholders

Implementation:

- Ability to facilitate groups
- Ability to motivate and engage young people
- Ability to plan developmentally appropriate activities
- Ability to reflect on one's practice and performance
- Ability to organise and manage workload
- Ability to recognise and respond to youth needs and interest

Advocacy and Networking:

- Knowledge of youth rights
- Ability to network with a variety of external systems
- Knowledge of the broader social context of youth

Community and family engagement:

- Ability to understand and respect the culture of young people, families and communities
- Ability to engage family and stakeholders when necessary
- Ability to recognise the need for intervention
- Ability to resolve conflicts amicably

(IYF, 1999)

Program staff continually need to refine their skills and approaches to the youth. Managers of youth programs must also frequently assess the development needs of their staff and provide training to ensure that youth workers are on par with the youth. Unfortunately it has been found that the inability to recruit and keep good people in the youth development sector is a major cause of instability and flux. Therefore effective youth programs should have strategies to prevent staff burnout and encourage stability and long-term commitment. The programs must also give their staff realistic goals and manageable workloads in a nurturing environment (IYF, 1999).

4.4.2 Managerial and Administrative Capacity

The absence of a strong organisational and administrative infrastructure to underpin a well-designed youth program run by well-meaning staff has often been the cause of failure of

that program. Despite differences between programs, the capacity to run an efficient and effective organisation relies on several basic elements:

1. The ability to manage and utilise to the fullest the talents of the staff
2. The ability to account for financial resources
3. The ability to access required technical expertise when necessary
4. The ability to make prudent use of the resources at the organisation's disposal

The quality of leadership is a key factor in management, and in the case of youth programs the challenge for organisations is to find practical ways of tapping into the resources of individuals on the governing body or management structure of the youth program (Nelson, 1995).

Policies should also be in place to cover matters like terms of employment, vacation and travel expenses. Infrastructure for the development of workable plans and systems, as well as sound financial administration structures for budgets, financial records and expenditure reports is pivotal. Cost effectiveness and efficiency need to be high on the priority list of management. The implementation of youth programs is more often than not subject to limited funds but this in itself creates opportunities for creative ideas to do more with less.

4.4.3 Sustainability

According to the IYF (1999) sustainability “refers to the ability of a program to provide services in a consistent and predictable way for as long as the need exists.” A program's contribution to the positive development of young people in a visible and measurable way stands in direct relation to its sustainability. Thus the community support of a program will soon falter if that program is not visibly effective.

An articulated long-term vision is another basic condition for sustainability (Greenfield, 1997). Planning is required for this and allows an organisation to anticipate its future human and financial needs. Long-term planning makes it possible for an organisation to recognise the different steps involved in achieving its goals and vision, and for the managers to know how much effort they should be putting into fundraising and staff training (Blazek, 1996). It also helps the organisation to determine its current and future relevance and to know if the program is still needed (IYF, 1999).

Another factor concerning sustainability is funding. A single source of funding could spell danger for any program. Therefore diversifying one's funding base or revenue stream requires a search for donors beyond traditional sources. Assurances with regard to funding increases sustainability. This often entails that funding must be sought beyond communities, governmental institutions and traditional sources.

As mentioned earlier, it is not unusual for youth development programs to lose their staff at an unacceptably higher rate than other sectors (IYF, 1999). Attracting and keeping skilled and committed people remain a challenge to program managers who need to apply all their managerial skills towards this important element of the program. Competent and devoted staff is the backbone of every successful venture, and managers will be well advised to remain in contact with former experienced veterans to help out when crises situations may arise.

A program's sustainability also depends on the degree of perceived legitimacy and affiliated public support. As success breeds success, so does support create more support, also from wider areas than those directly affected by the program. The ability to network and integrate with like-minded institutions also increases sustainability, avoids duplication and minimises operating costs (IYF, 1999).

4.4.4 Monitoring and Evaluation

“Monitoring and evaluation are important practices because they provide the basis for the organisation and the youth development sector, to learn both what works and what does not” (IYF, 1999). By providing the data required for making decisions, monitoring and evaluation improve effectiveness and efficiency. These processes also support program design and strategic planning by helping programs maintain their relevance and appropriateness (Connell, et al., 1995).

The greatest contribution that monitoring and evaluation make is towards the improvement of the youth sector as a whole by giving practitioners, policymakers and funders proven practices on which they can build. These people learn by avoiding mistakes or ineffective program designs and practices of previous programs (Connell, et al., 1995).

The difference between monitoring and evaluation is that monitoring gives practitioners the ability to know what is happening as it is happening, while evaluation takes place after an event or program and is a systematic collection of information that is useful for making decisions about improvements of the program. Monitoring gives managers the opportunity to continually refine the program as it is taking place. It provides data on current realities and is therefore a precondition to planning. Evaluation shows managers if and how young people's lives have improved through the program. For instance, they will ask if there was an increase in knowledge and skills, or have attitudes and behaviours changed. Collectively the answers to these questions are defined as outcomes (IYF, 1999).

It is often useful if stakeholders take part in the evaluation process. When evaluations are participatory in this way, they help to build bridges between the different stakeholders and tap into their rich and diverse insights. Evaluation then becomes a learning process (Sharp, 1996).

The above-mentioned criteria expounded in this chapter form the basis for evaluation of the youth development programs in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Analysis of Ugandan and South African case studies

In this chapter both the Youth capacity building program of Uganda and the Joint Enrichment Project of South Africa will be analysed using the ten criteria of the International Youth Foundation's (IYF) framework as an assessment tool. The two programs will be judged on each of the criterion.

One must take into account that the IYF's framework for assessing youth programs is a wide-spectrum tool, a "blunt" instrument. It will not be completely accurate and focused in its analysis because it was designed for use in a variety of worldwide youth programs.

Notwithstanding this apparent shortcoming, the framework will be used as a yardstick for the proposed comparison and whilst doing so, will provide the evidence for assessing its own usefulness or reveal more shortcomings.

5.1 Uganda: Youth Capacity Building

5.1.1 Focus on positive youth development

As stated in Chapter 3, the philosophy behind the Youth capacity building program is to view the youth as assets and resources to be developed for economic growth rather than problems to be fixed (Lofquist, 1989; McLaughlin, Irby, and Langman, 1994; Zeldin et al., 1994). This focus on positive youth development to empower the youth to reach their full potential meets the first criterion of the IYF framework. In the case of Uganda and its dire political and social circumstances, the opposite approach of focusing on the symptoms of problem behaviour could easily have been chosen, with the associated negative results.

Experience gained in the Youth capacity building program taught program managers one outstanding lesson, namely to build on the strengths and positive aspects of the program. Little purpose is served by focusing on the problems encountered with a view to avoid them in future programs. The focal point of every program should be on the very aspects that can contribute to the well being and improvement of the quality of lives of the

participants; build on these aspects and partner with other organisations that can further the aims of the program.

5.1.2 Developmentally appropriate activities

Proper needs assessment was done before the start of the Youth capacity building program. Specific needs with regard to leadership development, access to opportunities and available funds for the youth were recognised. These findings were built into the “Training of Trainers” (TOT) program. Consequently, developmentally appropriate activities were chosen to meet the needs that were identified. It was the first time that this type of training was done in Uganda, and although it called for a period of adapting, the eventual results of the TOT were positive.

During needs assessment the youth expressed preference for on-the-job-training after school. The program effectively addressed this need and many of the participants had started their own businesses as a result of the training they received in increased self-confidence and entrepreneurial skills.

5.1.3 Maximum youth participation

One of the findings of the Youth capacity building program’s pilot initiative was that youth should be given a seat at the proverbial table. In other words they must be seen as full partners in the process of designing, implementing and evaluating the program. They must also be involved in needs assessment and in establishing training rules. This coincides precisely with the IYF’s framework criterion of maximum youth participation, whereby young people should be the active partners in their own development. “The capacity to be engaged in developing positive outcomes for one’s life is the very essence of development” (IYF, 1999). The spin-off to this approach in the case of the Youth capacity program was that after one year almost all the participants of the program had conducted training of their own of other youth. They were also involved in implementation of the program at both the national and regional level. This proves that the youth took ownership of the initiative.

5.1.4 Parents, family, adults

Criteria four, five and six of the IYF framework focus on the context of the youth program. This is particularly important in Uganda, because family and community cultures still play essential roles in the lives of the youth.

Concerning the role of the family it was found that there existed a general atmosphere of suspicion from the elders towards the youth, and that the youth did not have the credibility with the elders that they had hoped for. By tradition the youth are not required to provide leadership in the community, because this is something the elders frown upon. It is important for the Initiative to address this tension between elders and the youth, as this will affect the relationship with all family members. There is incomplete information whether or not the Initiative attended to this problem.

5.1.5 Community

The Youth capacity building program sees youth development as community development, and it regards the development of the youth as a resource that will address the complex development challenges of the country.

However, the program makes no direct attempt to reconcile the youth's new skills and leadership abilities gained through the program with the perceptions held by the community on their former abilities. The youth expressly stated their need to be recognised by their community and particularly the older generation in their community. This is a vital shortcoming in the eyes of the IYF that must be rectified.

Despite this shortcoming, the youth took it upon themselves to mobilise officials and leaders of the community in support of the training (US Agency for International Development, 2000).

5.1.6 Cultural relevance

There is no reference as to how the culture of either the youth or that of the Ugandan society in general was incorporated into the Youth capacity building program. There is also no mention of the staff's understanding of the uniqueness and the diversity of cultures

found in Uganda. Although it is understood that a program originating in Uganda for the Ugandan youth would obviously take cultural factors into account, this must be mentioned in the program. This is another shortcoming according to the IYF's framework.

5.1.7 Committed staff

The program's partnerships with two established quasi-governmental youth organisations, the NYC and UNSA, increased the credibility of the program as a whole and also substantially enhanced the variety of skills available to the program. The three-person training design team of the USDA/USAID that met with the three leaders of the NYC and UNSA, who designed the TOT curriculum, are the only mention of so-called "staff". This team taught the TOT to other leaders, who in turn taught the youth. This process continued, with the original design team playing a coordinating and overseeing role. Apart from this there is no other mention of staff, and therefore no further proof of commitment and trust created within the Youth capacity building program. However, the concept of each participant becoming a trainer for others worked well. It involved large numbers of the youth in a short space of time, and they took ownership of their own development and that of their community. As underscored by the IYF's framework, it is important to keep in mind that sustainability is dependent upon retaining committed staff. In the case of this program, the uniqueness of training other trainers has its advantages. The program must however be careful of growing to such enormity and thereby becoming unmanageable.

5.1.8 Management capacity

The involvement of the USDA/USAID established a much needed managerial capacity for the operation of the program. The USDA/USAID consultants provided organisational and leadership training to UNSA and NYC team members on program/project management, evaluation, community collaboration, and proposal writing. Both these organisations have ties with the government and they possess experience in conducting leadership programs.

Furthermore it is known though that the Ugandan government in the future will provide financial resources. It is also known that the TOT curriculum used in the program will be the basis of all future training.

5.1.9 Sustainability

The five-day TOT curriculum that was designed and used in the program increased the sustainability thereof, as it is a set format that can be used many times.

Another factor concerning sustainability is funding, and although this program does not have a diverse resource base as the IYF framework suggests, NYC and UNSA leaders have secured funding from the Ugandan government to expand the training to the rest of the country.

The IYF's framework also suggests that a program should have a positive future role to play if it wants to be sustainable. In the case of this program all of the participants felt that their job and career prospects had improved with the program and were considerably better after the training. This positive statement will definitely influence stakeholders, funders and future participants to support the program in the future.

However the sustainability of the program is not guaranteed. Impact studies after one year are promising, but IYF would suggest building on these results and having a long-term vision for at least five years as pre-requisites for equipping the youth of Uganda to realize their maximum leadership potential. Permanent staff must eventually be employed to keep the program running year after year, and to provide valuable networking opportunities for the youth that have taken part in the project. This will increase the capacity for sustainability.

5.1.10 Monitoring and Evaluation

The participants' response to the program was evaluated through a Likert-type scale evaluation questionnaire, which showed positive results. Evaluation in the form of pre- and post-training self-assessments also took place. Qualitative evaluation where mindset changes was observed, particularly in participants who learned accountability and transparency in community activities was also used.

Although the internal evaluation of the program was thorough, a lack of external evaluation is problematic. This is a requirement of the IYF because the best measure of

effectiveness is through objective and unbiased external evaluation. External evaluation is also important to assure donors and government that funds are well spent.

5.2 South Africa: The Joint Enrichment Project

Similarly as with the Youth capacity building program, the Joint Enrichment Project will be assessed using the ten criteria presented by the IYF.

5.2.1 Focus on positive youth development

The Joint Enrichment Project (JEP) has an integrated, holistic approach to youth development. In line with the IYF's first criterion, JEP programs are focused on positive youth development.

Despite JEP's involvement in many different programs, there is insufficient information available on these programs to relate examples of exactly how they follow this approach. Still it is certain that JEP strives to facilitate opportunities for the youth to reach their full potential in each given situation, be it for better health facilities, education, skills attainment, etc. The youth are not viewed within the restrictions of their current often problematic circumstances, but are empowered through the programs to rise above these circumstances and reach their full potential.

5.2.2 Developmentally appropriate activities

JEP staff is specific in their approach to all their programs. Firstly they have an assessment phase of gathering information from different sources about the situation they want to address. During this stage, they assess the needs of the youth in an informal manner, and often come up with innovative ways of addressing these needs. One such an example involved theater presentations at a school where a brutal murder by the youth had taken place. Through this medium they gave the youth the opportunity to express their feelings and thoughts on the matter. JEP has a deductive approach to develop activities for the youth. First they probe the actual situation in which the youth find themselves, and from this information an intervention program and developmentally appropriate activities are deduced.

5.2.3 Maximum youth participation

JEP staff found it difficult to recruit young women for their first programs, as mentioned earlier. Their relentless efforts and determination not to waive their standard of maximum youth participation paid off in the long run. Through this they also learned valuable lessons in involving and recruiting young women for the project. This same approach of maximum youth participation was followed in all their programs. They are equally sensitive to the role that different cultures play in the youth's willingness to participate.

5.2.4 Parents, family, adults

At JEP, youth workers are seen as partners with parents, teachers, neighbours and other community role-players in the lives of the youth. They do not take the responsibility of the youth away from these parties, but rather facilitate the use of available resources for the maximum benefit of the youth.

JEP not only works directly with young people, but their primary concern is often to equip the parents and relatives to cultivate a nurturing and healthy environment for the youth. Despite difficult circumstances JEP staff motivate the parents to stay positive and show their children that they are valued. In cases where the parents or family members have a negative influence on the youth, they will intervene and prevent this at all cost.

5.2.5 Community

JEP acknowledges the different needs of the community and how these affect the youth. They never approach a community with preconceived ideas on prevailing conditions or circumstances, but are fully receptive of the uniqueness of each community. For instance a closely-knit traditional community in the North West province will demand a greater input from a youth program than participants in the Gauteng area where youth don't live with their families and travel between homes and jobs all the time. JEP is sensitive to the different needs of the community, and will wherever possible also try to involve communities in the feedback and decision-making processes.

As a JEP document stated: “Young people live in communities – and communities bear the ultimate responsibility for their children. Youth workers are not saviours offering miracle cures. They have to work with parents, teachers, and organisations and neighbours if their programs are to be helpful” (Foley, 2001).

5.2.6 Cultural relevance

The Joint Enrichment Project places strong emphasis on cultural relevancy and sensitivity in their programs. They have experienced youth cultures in different settings. For example they would know that even within the same community the youth culture would differ between those young people who regularly attend a church, and those who do not. In their own words: “There is no universal youth culture.” That is why they follow the approach of being hands-on at the point of entry within every youth culture, and to work hard at finding out how to increase trust and understand the youth’s choices.

JEP are aware of the fast changing youth culture, especially in South Africa. They are equally aware of the political and social transformation and how this influences the youth. During the early stages of JEP programs they dealt with youth that were involved in the armed struggle against apartheid. This culture changed, and now youth of the same age are dealing with issues like Aids and joblessness.

The above facts underscore JEP’s high level of cultural relevancy as a youth leadership development program.

5.2.7 Committed staff

JEP has been in operation for over 16 years. The key to their success is the commitment and adaptability of their staff. As stated in the IYF’s framework, many youth programs suffer from staff burnout and fluctuations, but in the case of JEP the quality of their staff has been their rescue. Their staff has the ability to discern the needs of the youth in various areas of their lives, and then to systematically and patiently partner with the youth to address these. These needs have changed over the years. The youth’s issues have shifted, and now there is a bigger focus on job creation than in previous years. Giving an understanding ear to the many young people who are unemployed and frustrated is part of

their ongoing heart. The versatility of JEP's staff and their willingness to learn from others and to listen to the youth has been an inspiration to many youth organisations that followed in their footsteps.

5.2.8 Management capacity

The management of resources as well as the technical capacity of the Joint Enrichment Project are insufficiently expounded in the available resources. One can deduct from the available information that JEP would have a different approach to and different requirements for resources for each of the programs. It is certain that the utilisation of their staff abilities in all programs is excellent, and this is also reflected in their relative low staff turnover over a long period of time. Other managerial capacities are unknown.

5.2.9 Sustainability

The Youth capacity building program of Uganda is a focused program with one area of impact, namely leadership skills development. On the other hand JEP views youth development in South Africa as a complete picture, and they are involved with different facets of this picture.

When using the IYF framework as the tool for assessment, there appears to be a lack of long-term planning and vision definition in JEP. The programs that JEP embark upon are very different from each other, which could cause instability for the staff. Their track record could prove this wrong though, as they have had much success in various areas and their staff has remained committed and focused. Their strength seems to be in their ability to adapt to the circumstances in which they find themselves. In a country like South Africa where the youth culture is diverse and changes rapidly, their functioning as a youth development organisation over the past 16 years has served the best interest of the youth in this country. This is proof enough of JEP's sustainability.

5.2.10 Monitoring and Evaluation

JEP has had much success with the youth in South Africa, but there is little evidence of external evaluation of their programs. Information on formal monitoring processes that

took place is also lacking, but one can deduce that monitoring of programs took place in an informal way as the staff of JEP adapt to the circumstances and the needs of the youth they serve.

Available qualitative informal assessments are positive, and JEP recorded a noticeable change in attitude for the better where they were involved in schools. More could be done though to use these criteria, to supply evidence regarding effectiveness of the programs, and simultaneously produce valuable information for other youth development organisations in South Africa.

The following table summarises the analysis of the two programs:

	Uganda	South Africa
Criteria 1	+	+
Criteria 2	+	+
Criteria 3	+	+
Criteria 4	?	+
Criteria 5	-	+
Criteria 6	-	+
Criteria 7	+	+
Criteria 8	?	?
Criteria 9	-	+
Criteria 10	-	-

Key: + = satisfactory, - = not satisfactory, ? = not enough information

A superficial deduction one could make from this table is that the JEP fares better than the Youth capacity building program when measured against the IYF's framework. One must however keep in mind that the JEP has a variety of programs and the analysis of this study was done on all of them. As the JEP initiative as a whole was probed, a greater variety of activities over a longer period of time was assessed that could meet the IYF criteria. In contrast, the Youth capacity building program is a more isolated and specified program.

The apparent shortcomings of the Youth capacity building program in terms of the criteria 'community' and 'cultural relevance' must be seen in context. Firstly, Uganda has a more traditional community life than South Africa. The same program, applied in less traditional communities than Uganda, would fulfill the 'community' criteria of the IYF. The shortcoming of 'cultural relevance' must be seen in the same light as the previous point: in a society where the traditional African culture was not as important as it is in Uganda, the criteria for 'cultural relevance' would have been met. It is precisely because Uganda has such a culturally volatile society, that special attention must be paid to this factor in the program.

Both programs fall short when measured against criterion 10: monitoring and evaluation. It is through monitoring and evaluation that one can determine the usefulness of specific programs, and the information can then be used to better other youth development programs. When thorough and objective monitoring and evaluation is not done on these programs, progress in new ideas and more effective approaches is slower. This results in a lack of synergy between youth programs across the continent. As the aim of the study is to determine the possibility of a single set of criteria for the African context, and synergy amongst youth programs would greatly enhance this possibility, the shortfall of both programs measured against criterion 10, is significant and should be noted.

5.3 Assessment of the International Youth Foundation's (IYF) framework for making Youth Programs Work

The JEP's comment on working with youth after 16 years of experience in the field sums up my main criticism of the IYF's framework: "It is not possible to design a youth program in Johannesburg, publish a manual, distribute it nationally and then run programs from it for the next five years. Youth workers must understand the needs of the young people they are working with, what their existing values are based on, their concerns, priorities and abilities, and adjust the programs appropriately. Easy youth development is not good youth development" (JEP, 2003).

One should therefore firstly ask the question if it is at all possible to have such a framework as the IYF has created and label it a framework for "Making youth programs

work”? Is the scenario of creating a guideline for youth development programs that can be applied in differing contexts even a viable option to consider, or is it far too idyllic?

In answering these questions I believe that there are guiding principles one can use to draw up programs that will have a better chance of success than those who do not use such principles. These principles will take shape and change through many years of trial and error. In this sense the International Youth Foundation has a rich resource of experience to draw from, and therefore the criteria that they present in their framework are arguably the best there is to guide youth programs.

However, the important point I want to make is that these criteria and the framework as a whole must be seen as guidelines only. All youth development programs have unique situations, as the example of the Youth capacity building program and Joint Enrichment Project illustrated. Every program must firstly do thorough needs assessment of the youth they will be dealing with, as well as the role of the community concerned. This must then be used to formulate clear short-term and long-term goals, and thereafter formulate the program design. The IYF framework can be used as a checklist to ensure that all the necessary aspects of youth development are covered by the new program, and also to point out possible pitfalls, but these guidelines must not be followed blindly. There will be many cases where the youth development program will function to its full potential without giving heed to all the IYF criteria. The danger of creating frameworks like the IYF is that youth development organisations will feel inadequate and unprepared when compared to a framework’s criteria, when they should actually be measuring their success by assessing the results of the positive impact in the lives of the youth. This is my only caution against the IYF’s framework.

This measuring of program effectiveness by calculating positive impact in the lives of the youth is a concept that the IYF promotes in its framework. The IYF principles in this framework are sound and tested through years of experience. Still it is important to remember that there are no guarantees for making any youth program work. The youth are the most unpredictable and challenging sector of the population. Programs that address their needs will reflect these characteristics: unpredictable and challenging.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Overview of study

It is evident that the youth is a group of people that needs special attention. Particularly in Africa there is an urgency to understand, to facilitate and to enhance their growth. One of the recurring themes in this regard is the role that culture plays in the lives of the youth, sometimes even as a hindrance to growth and development. The importance of taking culture into consideration during the design and implementation of youth development programs was highlighted throughout this study.

Another important theme is the central role the community plays in the lives of the youth. This influence can be either positive or negative, and must be accorded serious consideration in any development program. Culture and community are intertwined and cannot be separated in the African context. Therefore community involvement and their acceptance of responsibility in any youth leadership development program is a prerequisite for success.

Africa finds itself in a state of turmoil at present. Transformation, whether it takes place at a slow or rapid pace, influences the economic, social and political circumstances in a country, which in turn has a profound effect on the youth by contributing to their various needs. When addressing youth development one must take these external factors into account. This is the third theme of the study. The Ugandan and South African case studies confirmed this affect of external factors on the youth.

Youth leadership development calls for a holistic approach and broadminded thinking on these themes in the current circumstances and to the best possible advantage of the Africa of tomorrow.

6.2 Limitations of study

The limitations of the study result, in part, from the broad scope of the subject that is addressed. Youth leadership development programs in Africa involve thousands of young people, trainers or teachers, funders or fundraisers, designers and also monitors or evaluators. These people operate in different circumstances, using different paradigms of thinking. Consequently, no two programs are exactly the same, and comparisons can become superficial. The Youth capacity building program and the Joint Enrichment Project used in this study are both youth leadership development programs, but with many differences. Any results from comparative analysis as done in the thesis must therefore be viewed in light of this diversity in the field of youth development. Thus a limitation of the study is that the findings cannot be applied universally and in all areas of youth leadership development without due consideration to the context of the youth program. This limits the value of the findings.

Another limitation is the lack of information found which is suitable for analysis. Some of the sources, being secondary data sources, were not adequately inclusive and therefore accurate analysis of data was not possible throughout the study. At times the relevant information of the Youth capacity building program and the Joint Enrichment Project that was essential for a comparison with the IYF criteria was lacking. This further inhibits the universal application potential of the study.

As explained in Chapter 2, this study is less comprehensive than a conventional case study analysis because only two case studies were examined, whereas multiple case studies would have created greater credibility. This is a third limitation of the study.

6.3 Summary of findings

The two case studies of youth leadership development programs in Uganda and South Africa underlined the fact that in general these programs vary greatly in their implementation, timeframe, work ethic and surrounding circumstances.

Both these programs proved successful when measured against their own objectives: the Youth capacity building program is currently expanding and has found favour with the government and the community in general; the Joint Enrichment Project has been in operation for 16 years and the results have proved satisfactory with regard to the changes in the lives of the youth they worked with.

The aim of this study was to find out whether a single set of criteria can be used in youth leadership development programs in the African context. To this end the International Youth Foundation's framework was employed as an assessment tool, a framework that has nothing inherent that will exclude adaptation within a particular social, political, economic and cultural setting. Comparing the framework's criteria with the principles of the two case studies, I found that both the Youth capacity building program and the Joint Enrichment Project have principles that correlated with the assessment tool's criteria. Being very dissimilar types of programs operating within the differing contexts of Uganda and South Africa, it follows that these programs can ascribe their successes mainly to principles for youth leadership development that were similar and could be tested by the same assessment tool. From this I deduce that principles in youth leadership development programs in Africa are similar, and therefore a single set of criteria for these programs in the African context would be possible. Further research must be done in this field to define those criteria.

A measure of flexibility and adaptability is required of the people who are responsible for a particular youth development program, and therefore the emphasis should be placed on the principles which serve as guidelines for such programs, and not on rules which should be followed strictly. The uniqueness of the youth and their circumstances always take precedence, and one should view each program afresh and with an open mind when considering what should and could be done. Frameworks like that of the IYF are useful guidelines for many youth development programs. These frameworks will play an ever-increasing role in development, as the youth of Africa become not only the leaders of tomorrow, but also of today.

6.4 Avenues for future research

This study serves as preliminary research in the field of youth leadership development in Africa, and directs attention to the important role of youth development in the future of the

continent. Further research in this field is required to gain an understanding of the differences between African and Western models of leadership development. Also further comparisons of youth leadership development programs with other assessment tools will strengthen the findings of this particular study, and thus enable clearer and more specific recommendations for effective youth leadership development principles for Africa. As this study underlined, such principles are useful for all cultural settings in Africa, and will therefore be used extensively and effectively to prepare the youth of today to become the leaders that their circumstances demand of them. Even so, the formulation of such principles must be tested in various cultural circumstances in Africa over an extended period of time.

6.5 Final thoughts

Youth leadership development is a broad concept and there are many programs in the world that associate themselves with it. People's views on 'youth', 'leadership' and 'development' also differ in all spheres of life. It was my aim to give a balanced view on these concepts and how they are used.

The principles discussed in this study are applicable to the whole of Africa, provided that proper consideration is given to the role of cultural, political, social and economic factors in each setting. Africans now have the opportunity to be the forerunners in the field of leadership development by illustrating a willingness to partner with other countries to create cross-cultural development programs, generated on grass root level where the need exists. With the increasing focus of the rest of the world on Africa, we are all called to action. Africa's time has come.

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