THE PERCEIVED IMPACT OF YOUTH ENTREPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES ON ENTREPRENEURIAL ASPIRATIONS OF THE YOUTH IN SWAZILAND

Colisile Hloniphile Tfwala

Student Number: 691364

Supervisor: Dr. Robert Venter

A dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Commerce specialising in Entrepreneurship.

Johannesburg

October 2018

Protocol number: H16/06/35

ABSTRACT

Swaziland is a small, landlocked country in Sub-Saharan Africa, with 79% of its population below the age of 35 years. The country has one of the highest youth unemployment in Africa and very slow economic growth. The Government of Swaziland believes that the above can be corrected by raising the Swazi youth's entrepreneurial spirit through the use of Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (YEDPs). Research shows that these programmes can only raise the entrepreneurial spirit by raising the youth's entrepreneurial aspirations, which are: innovation, growth and internationalisation aspirations.

Swaziland has had three YEDPs in place for a long time. These YEDPs have never been evaluated to see if they raise the entrepreneurial aspirations or not. This study set out to evaluate these three YEDPs, by conducting a cross-sectional telephonic survey, using a structured adapted questionnaire. The data was collected from 492 of 1980 young people (25%), who have been trained by the three YEDPs since their inception. The data was then analysed. First, descriptive statistics were used to test the data for further statistical analysis. Thereafter non-parametric tests were used.

A relationship was explored between the youth entrepreneurship development programmes and the youth entrepreneurial aspirations. The relationship was found to exist between one of the three programmes and entrepreneurial aspirations, as perceived by the youth entrepreneurs.

The study then recommended that the YEDPs should improve their training on entrepreneurial aspirations and implementation of the best practices in the YEDP field. In addition, the Swazi Government, working with all stakeholders, which include the private sector, NGOs and the youth itself, needs to ensure that there is collaboration in putting in place an enabling environment.

This is the only Swazi study which has evaluated largely unevaluated YEDPs to ascertain their contribution to raising the youth's entrepreneurial aspirations or their entrepreneurial spirit, so it is important in contributing to the academic body of knowledge, as well as providing a basis for policy formulation in the country and in Sub-Saharan Africa.

DECLARATION

I, Colisile Hloniphile Tfwala, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Commerce, specialising in Entrepreneurship, at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

Colisile Hloniphile Tfwala

Signed at …Johannesburg……

On the ……11th……. day of ……October…… 2018

DEDICATION

I dedicate this Degree to my Supervisor, the CEO of the Municipal Council of Mbabane – Mr. Gideon Mhlongo, in Swaziland. Your heart for education and personal development is a rare gem. This Degree wouldn't have been possible without your support. Thank you for allowing God to use you, not only for my personal development, but for the development of all the people you are leading. You surely are a true Servant Leader, the kind that we need for Africa's development and prosperity!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This would have been utterly impossible without the guidance of the Lord God Almighty – Thank you Heavenly Father. To my Supervisor: your patience, support, assistance and great guidance is deeply appreciated. To my family and friends, especially my mother: I wouldn't have asked for a better family or friends, your constant love and understanding has seen me through this stressful period. I would like to also acknowledge my Data Collectors, Statistician and Proofreaders who helped me a lot, words cannot adequately express my gratitude.

I truly appreciate the organisations managing the Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes studied in this research. I also truly appreciate the youth who so generously and patiently responded to my questionnaires. This research would have been impossible without your contribution.

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ACRONYMS

AFDB	African Development Bank
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AU	African Union
BBB	Believe, Begin Become (BBB)
GEDI	Global Entrepreneurship and Development Institute
GEI	Global Entrepreneurship Index
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IRMA	Information Resources Management Administration
MCIT	Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Trade
MOSCYA	Ministry of Sports, Culture and Youth Affairs
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
SACU	Southern Africa Customs Union
SBA	Small Business Administration
SME	Small and Medium-sized Enterprise
SMME	Small, Medium and Micro Enterprise
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
US	United States

USA	United States of America
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
YBI	Youth Business International
YEDP	Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programme
YEF	Youth Enterprise Fund

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Youth entrepreneurship in developing countries is a subject that has of late, gained popularity with both Governments and scholars (International Labour Organisation [hereafter referred to as ILO], 2005). As Governments try to find a solution to the escalating youth unemployment problem, they are desperately looking at youth entrepreneurship to create jobs and generate income. This is particularly true for Sub-Saharan African Governments, especially the Government of Swaziland. The Swazi Government, however, is not only looking at youth entrepreneurship for job creation alone, it also hopes the youth will use entrepreneurship to grow the economy (Dlamini and Bimha, 2017; The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011). Hessels, Van Gelderen and Thurik (2008) however, underscored the fact that entrepreneurs who grow the economy are those who aspire to produce new products, to grow their ventures and to internationalise; they are not lifestyle entrepreneurs.

Fuelled by the belief that the Swazi youth have a low entrepreneurial spirit or aspirations, the Swazi Government accepts as true that Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes will assist the youth to increase their entrepreneurial aspirations. This will result in them desiring and operating innovative, fast growing and internationalised businesses (Dlamini & Bimha, 2017; The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011).

This study explores the perceived impact of the Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (YEDPs) on Entrepreneurial Aspirations (EA) of the youth in Swaziland.

The first Chapter introduces the aim of the study. It then states the objectives and research questions. Following which, an exploration of the context of the study is undertaken. Subsequently, the problem statement is stated, followed by a discussion of the significance of the study. The delimitation of the research is then highlighted, after

which essential terms are defined. The main assumptions advanced by the researcher are then mentioned, accompanied by a discussion of the problem statement. Thereupon the hypotheses is stated, succeeded by a breakdown of the remaining chapters of the study. This culminates in the conclusion of this first Chapter.

1.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to assess three Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (YEDPs), by evaluating the perceptions of the youth they have trained to ascertain whether their training:

- increased the level of entrepreneurial aspirations of the trained youth;
- produced youth who are currently operating innovative, fast growing and internationalised enterprises;

and determine how these YEDPs can be improved and further, how the Government can ensure a conducive environment for youth entrepreneurship development in Swaziland.

1.3 Research Objectives and Research Questions

As a result of the research purpose, the research objectives and research questions to be explored are;

Research Objective 1: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations.

Research Question 1: What relationship exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations?

Research Objective 2: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP participants and the level of current operation of an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

Research Question 2: What relationship exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP participants and the level of current operation of an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business?

Research Objective 3: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of their participants' entrepreneurial aspirations.

Research Question 3: What relationship exists between the type of YEDP and the level of their participants' entrepreneurial aspirations?

Research Objective 4: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of operation of an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

Research Question 4: What relationship exists between the type of YEDP and the level of operation of an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business?

Research Objective 5: To propose improvements in the YEDPs and Government support in order to create a more enabling environment for youth entrepreneurship.

Research Question 5: How can the YEDPs and Government support be improved in order to create a more enabling environment for youth entrepreneurship?

1.4 Context of the study

Swaziland is a small, landlocked country in Sub-Saharan Africa, with a population of approximately 1.2 million people. Close to four out of five Swazis are younger than 35 years old, and over one in three are between the ages of 15 and 35 years (Ministry of Sports, Culture & Youth Affairs [hereafter referred to MOSCYA], 2015). An estimated 63 percent of the population lives below the poverty line. The unemployment rate is approximately 28.5 percent overall and 52.4 percent among the youth (The World Bank, 2014; United Nations Development Programme [hereafter referred to UNDP], 2013).

This shows that Swaziland faces one of the highest youth unemployment rates in Africa which is combined with persistently low economic growth and widespread poverty, all amplified by the negative impacts of the HIV epidemic. Reaching high and inclusive growth to improve the lives of the Swazi people is thus a key human development challenge facing the country (UNDP, 2013).

The World Bank says, in order to address poverty, Swaziland has to overcome her low economic growth trap, which can be done through capitalising on the demographic dividend, by propelling more young people into the labour force. According to the World Bank, this is possible through investing adequately in education and skills development, which can be done through implementing existing policies and transformative programmes (The World Bank, 2014).

Since youth unemployment is an Africa-wide problem, the African Union's 2017 theme of the year "*harnessing the demographic dividend through investments in youth",* shows the commitment and attention African leaders are giving youth employment and entrepreneurship. The African Union's theme has two out of four of its pillars being: employment and entrepreneurship and; education and skills development (African Union [hereafter referred to AU], 2017).

As African Governments, including the Swazi Government, try to find the solution to the escalating youth unemployment problem, youth entrepreneurship is one of the main ways they are desperately looking to for job creation and income generation (African Development Bank [hereafter referred to AFDB], 2014; Global Entrepreneurship Monitor [hereafter referred to GEM], 2012; The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011).

Although strict youth unemployment in Swaziland is 52.4 percent, when taking into account underemployment, the figure becomes an astronomical 73 percent. This coupled with a low entrepreneurial spirit makes Swaziland's situation dire. This is why the Swazi Government is collaborating with the private sector and NGOs to find solutions (ILO, 2010; MOSCYA, 2011).

One of the main solutions is believed to be Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (YEDPs). These programmes are widely accepted due to their ability to lead to the creation of new enterprises, promotion of entrepreneurial aspirations, and contribution to economic development (Kiadese, 2008).

For many years, Swaziland had only two Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (YEDPs) for out-of-school youth. Recently new programmes have been introduced. These two YEDPs are: the Youth Enterprise Fund (provided by the Government) and the Kickstart Competition (provided by Swaziland Breweries, a Private Sector Company). In addition, there was a Believe, Begin, Become Competition (provided by Technoserve, an NGO), which was targeting the general populace. In 2009 it however targeted only the youth. This research is geared towards studying these three programmes, to ascertain whether they increased the entrepreneurial aspirations of the youth they trained or not.

This is the first study to be completed in entrepreneurial aspirations in Swaziland. It is also the first study to undertake, at the same time, an in-depth investigation of three out-of-school Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (YEDPs), which includes the 2009 Believe Begin Become Competition. In addition to the above, this study involved the largest sample of youth entrepreneurs (492 respondents) from the whole country. There have been a few studies to make reference to the Believe Begin Become Competition; one of those studies was undertaken by Odamaro Arubayi in 2010. All these studies however did not investigate the impact of the programme on the entrepreneurial aspirations of the youth.

The only study that had a sizeable sample looking at youth entrepreneurship was by the UNDP, with 255 youth entrepreneur respondents, published in January 2013 (UNDP, 2013). This concentrated on youth in urban areas. Another study funded by the Sahee Foundation had 146 youth entrepreneur respondents, largely from rural Swaziland (Sahee Foundation, 2011). However, these studies were neither looking at YEDPs nor at entrepreneurial aspirations. Thus, this study fills an essential knowledge gap.

1.5 Problem statement

Swaziland's economy has been sluggish in growth. It averaged 2.9 percent in 2004-2008, then significantly dropped in 2009 and failed to make a substantial recovery in the subsequent periods (Africa Economic Outlook, 2011). In 2015, the economy averaged 1.7 percent growth then dipped to – 0.6 percent in 2016. Short-term prospects in 2017 and 2018 predict a slow recovery, with growth predicted to be 1.4 percent and 2.3 percent respectively (Africa Economic Outlook, 2017).

Swaziland is also characterised by small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) that lack innovation and growth (Joubert, 2001; The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011). The Government of Swaziland attributes this to the low entrepreneurial spirit that exists in the country, especially amongst the youth (MOSCYA, 2011; The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011).

With an estimated 73 percent of the youth unemployed or underemployed, coupled with an increase in the number of youth that drop out of the education system, the situation is ominous (ILO, 2010; The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011). According to Swaziland's Prime Minister, the youth is the country's most valuable asset, and they are expected to create employment for themselves and for others, and contribute to the economic development of the country, which is why developing their entrepreneurial capacity is essential. This capacity is being developed using Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011). These programmes are still largely unevaluated, especially in relation to the increasing entrepreneurial aspirations or the entrepreneurial spirit of the youth, which is their main objective, according to the Swazi Government (The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011). Therefore, it has not been ascertained whether they are having the forecast impact or not. Unfortunately, in most of these programmes, a baseline research was not carried out to ascertain empirically what the situation was before the programmes were introduced. This makes it hard to determine clearly if the programmes are having a positive impact or not (MOSCYA, 2011).

As assessed by Dlamini and Bimha (2017), there is also a lack of adequate research on entrepreneurship in general in Swaziland, and especially youth entrepreneurship, which then makes it a challenge for the Government to institute research led policies.

This paper evaluates the Swaziland out-of-school Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes based on the available global literature, with the aim of learning from the YEDPs, through accomplishing the objectives listed above and consequently answering the research questions while testing relationships as per the hypotheses in Chapter two.

1.6 Significance of the study

The Government of Swaziland perceives the slower economic growth and high youth unemployment to be a result of the youth's low entrepreneurial spirit and believes this can be corrected through the institution of youth entrepreneurship development programmes. The correction of the low entrepreneurial spirit will however, only be possible if these programmes start by increasing the youth's entrepreneurial aspirations (The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011).

Swaziland has over the years produced research on largely Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs). One of the earliest pieces of research was produced by Dr. Patricia Joubert in 2001, looking at the constraints and challenges of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in Swaziland. The subject of entrepreneurship has only recently started getting more attention. This attention has been largely directed towards in-school youth entrepreneurship development programmes, being studied mostly by the University of Swaziland (B. Dlamini, M. Dlamini & Mdluli, 2007; Mavuso & Mndebele, 2017). For out-of-school youth, the research has been largely undertaken by organisations such as UNDP, the Sahee Foundation and The Brenthurst Foundation. UNDP Swaziland and Zuzana Brixiová, who worked for UNDP Swaziland for several years, have produced the most studies in this field, these include: *Skills and Youth Entrepreneurship in Africa: Analysis with Evidence from Swaziland (2014); Opportunities and Constraints to Youth Entrepreneurship: Perspectives of Young Entrepreneurs in Swaziland (2013); Youth Employment in Africa: New Evidence and Policies from Swaziland (2013); Youth*

Employment Challenge and Entrepreneurship in Swaziland (2013). All these produced research is normally geared towards youth entrepreneurship challenges and youth unemployment.

The most recent and most relevant study to this research was done by Dlamini and Bimha (2017) where they studied the *Effectiveness of Youth Entrepreneurship Programmes in Enhancing an Entrepreneurial Culture in Swaziland*. This study though, evaluated an in-school entrepreneurship development programme and sought the perception of 123 tertiary students from six institutions. Another recent study which is similar to this one, was an evaluation of TechnoServe's small business training programme in Swaziland by Arubayi (2010). This evaluated the Believe, Begin Become (BBB) programme, and concluded that TechnoServe's approach to small business training is appropriate to meeting the identified needs of small business owners and entrepreneurs in Swaziland. He was however, neither evaluating the increase in entrepreneurial aspirations, nor specifically looking at this competition at a time when it focused on only the youth.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) conducts research in Entrepreneurial Aspirations; it however does not include Swaziland. While the Global Entrepreneurship Index (GEI) does include Swaziland, its data cannot be substantiated since it is not collected in the country. The GEI uses data collected by the GEM (which does not cover Swaziland), in order to include Swaziland in the GEI, data is estimated using Government sources and data from similar nearby countries (The Global Entrepreneurship and Development Institute [hereafter referred to as GEDI], 2014). Since this study is on the impact of YEDPs on entrepreneurial aspirations, as perceived by the trained youth, it is contributing essential research to the body of knowledge.

This study un-earths information on how the YEDPs are managed and how they can be improved in order to utilise Government and donor funds in an impactful manner that will result to entrepreneurial youth businesses being established and sustained. This is important as Swaziland is still putting in place new YEDPs, as evidenced by the recently launched Graduates Enterprise Program being funded by the Government (Small Enterprises Development Company [hereafter referred to as SEDCO], 2017).

Again, this study is to assist Government in the reviewing of its policies such as the 2009 Swaziland National Youth Policy and the 2009 SMME Policy, and in further crafting and implementing other policies meant to improve the Youth Entrepreneurship Development Environment. Lastly, it is to be used as a springboard for further investigation into youth entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship development and entrepreneurial aspirations, not only in Swaziland but in other Sub-Saharan African countries as well.

1.7 Delimitations of the study

According to Dlamini and Bimha (2017) and Mavuso and Mndebele (2017), the Swazi Government has been supporting, financially and otherwise, several in-school and out-of-school youth entrepreneurship development programmes, which are meant to develop the youth, resulting to job creation and a reduction in youth unemployment.

In-school Entrepreneurship Development Programmes, supported by the Swazi Government, include the Junior Achievement and ENACTUS Programmes. Out-of-school programmes include the Youth Fund, which is currently undergoing restructuring and thus has been suspended, and Kickstart, which was founded by the private sector but has the Government as its main partner (Dlamini & Bimha, 2017).

On the 31st of May 2017, the Swazi Government launched another out-of-school YEDP known as the Graduates Enterprise Program (Nkonyane, 2017) to target the 41% unemployed tertiary graduates (Dlamini & Bimha, 2017; UNDP, 2013). This Programme is still new and therefore does not form part of this study. Junior Achievement Swaziland, which has all along concentrated on providing in-school Youth Entrepreneurship Programmes (YEDPs) has also branched out to provide a programme for out-of-school youth. Their programme is still relatively new as well and thus is not part of this study.

This study only concentrates on the trained youth who participated in the Kickstart Competition in 2015 and 2016. Initially, the target was to interview all the youth who have participated in the programme since its inception. This however had to be adjusted to only

concentrate on the two years, due to limited data provided by the Company managing this YEDP.

The study also concentrates on the Youth Enterprise Fund from its inception and the Youth who participated in the Believe, Begin, Become Competition in 2009, since that was the only year this Enterprise Development Programme concentrated on only youth.

1.8 Definition of terms

The concepts below are briefly defined. These are further explored in Chapter two, under the literature review.

Entrepreneur –David McClelland simply defined an entrepreneur as someone who controls the means of production, and produces above his need for consumption, so he can sell the excess for income (Darzi, 2016; Hamilton & Harper, 1994; Imafidon, 2014; Mohanty, 2017; Stam, 2018; Van Praag, 1999). Virtanen (1997) then defined an entrepreneur as a person with an entrepreneurial mind and a strong Need for Achievement. In this study, the term entrepreneur will be used loosely to refer to a business person.

Entrepreneurship - Shri et al. (2016) suggested that entrepreneurship is a creative process of actions undertaken by an entrepreneur to create his enterprise. This definition resonates with Timmons who defined entrepreneurship as a creative activity or process where one takes calculated risks to build a team that complements his entrepreneurial skill and talent, in order to initiate, build and achieve an enterprise or organisation (Mohanty, 2017). The study employs the above definition in referring to entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneurial Aspirations – The U.S. Small Business Administration (2010) defines entrepreneurial aspirations as the efforts of the early stage entrepreneur to launch a new product or service, initiate a new production process, infiltrate foreign markets, greatly increase the number of employees and fund the business with formal or informal venture capital. Entrepreneurial aspiration can also be defined as entrepreneurial ambition. For the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), entrepreneurial aspirations are made up of

innovation, growth expectation, and internationalisation factors, also known as impact factors (GEM, 2011). These are the factors which are studied in this research within the Swazi context.

Perceptions – Perceptions can either be defined as the way one notices things using the senses; or the ability to understand the true nature of something; or an image, an idea or belief one forms as a result of how they understand or see something (Wehmeier, McIntosh & Turnbull, 2005). The Cognitive and Behavioural and Social Psychology fields have strong ties to Motivation Theory. According to Motivation Theory, the perception one has of one's self and one's perceived abilities, acquired or not, have an effect on task performance (behaviour), in short, perception leads to action (Charbonneau, 2005). This study is based on the perceptions of the youth on how the YEDPs impacted their entrepreneurial aspirations with the understanding that perception leads to action and action would result in the youth working hard to achieve their ambitions or aspirations.

Youth – Even though youth can be defined in several ways, this study defines it in terms of age, because the Swazi youth entrepreneurship development programmes also use age to define their target clients. The youth in Swaziland is every person between the ages of 15-35 years (MOSCYA, 2009).

Youth Entrepreneurship – Youth entrepreneurship, as proposed by Chigunta (2002), is the practical application of entrepreneurial qualities like: creativity, innovation, initiative, and risk taking, in a work environment, using the right skills that will ensure success in that environment and culture, by the youth. The W.K. Kellogg Foundation (2006) defines it as simply the development of entrepreneurial mind-sets, skills and opportunities from the youth in middle school to young adults.

Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (YEDPs) – According to Shri et al. (2016), Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes refer to a wide-ranging concept relating to techniques of increasing aptitudes along with providing ideas to help potential entrepreneurs set up enterprises. This means a programme designed to assist the youth strengthen and fulfill their entrepreneurial motive and acquire skills and

capabilities needed in order to carry out their entrepreneurial function effectively and efficiently.

1.9 Assumptions

One of the main assumptions employed in this study was that the respondents would agree to participate and would be reachable through their cell phones. If the participants' phone had been unavailable or they refused to participate, this study would have been unsuccessful.

The second assumption was that the youth would remember their training and how it influenced them and their subsequent decisions. Since some of this training was done several years ago, there was a possibility that some respondents had forgotten about the training and/or have no perception of how it influenced their subsequent decisions. This research would be flawed if the respondents had forgotten their training experience and decided to give responses they believed the researcher would like to hear. As articulated by Henley (2005), results from a study which relies on cross-sectional analysis of existing entrepreneurs may be spoiled by "recall" bias (retrospection) and may provide only limited insight. Since this study is about the perceptions of the trained youth, according to Dijksterhuis and Bargh (2001), and several other studies (Skinner, 1938; Watson, 1913), empirical evidence exists to prove that perception has a direct effect on behaviour, which means perception directly leads to action. Pecher and Zwaan (2005) argue that there is a relationship between perception, action and memory. This means if the youth's ambition was developed by the training, they would have started working towards achieving their aspirations, and would have either achieved, or are still working towards operating innovative, growing and internationalised enterprises, and would thus remember if the training increased their aspirations.

Another key assumption is that the Programme Managers would have a comprehensive database of all the youth who have been trained through these Programmes over the years. If the comprehensive database was not available, the study would have struggled to get the envisaged sample size.

Lastly, the researcher assumed that the youth were well versed with the entrepreneurship subject and that they would be able to respond to the questions adequately, especially because the questionnaires were simplified and produced in both English and SiSwati, which are the two official languages in Swaziland.

1.10 Breakdown of Chapters

The following Chapter, Chapter two, provides the theoretical framework for this study and guides the development of the hypotheses. The literature to be reviewed focuses on youth entrepreneurship and youth entrepreneurship development as broad subjects. It then highlights literature relating to the independent variables of this study, which are: the demographic information collected from the youth respondents and the youth entrepreneurship development programmes. Literature on the dependent variables: the entrepreneurial aspirations and operating entrepreneurial businesses (innovative, fast growing and internationalised) is also reviewed and discussed. This culminates in the development of this study's conceptual model.

Chapter three begins by describing the research methodology chosen for this study. This is guided by the paradigm and what the study set out to investigate. Following which, the research design is set out and discussed. The Chapter subsequently discusses the population sample, research instrument and how the pilot study was carried out. It then explains how this study addressed ethical considerations. The procedure of data collection is discussed, followed by the discussion on data analysis and interpretation. The study's limitations are also discussed and how the research tried mitigating for them. In conclusion, this Chapter discusses how validity and reliability were ensured in the study.

Chapter four then presents the research results, starting with the display of the pilot test output, then the demographic profile of the respondents, concluding with testing the hypotheses as presented in the conceptual model developed after the in-depth review of the available literature.

Chapter five discusses the results as per the literature reviewed whilst Chapter six makes conclusions and recommendations.

1.11 Conclusion

The sections in this Chapter laid a foundation and gave a context under which this research was conducted. Amongst other things, it highlighted the main aim of conducting this research, its significance and the problem it was trying to solve. The backdrop against which the study was undertaken and the research questions it purports to answer were also deliberated on. The following Chapter provides an in-depth analysis of the available literature, as guided by the independent and dependent variables of this study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The first Chapter discussed the purpose of the study, its objectives and research questions, its context and problem statement, its significance and delimitations, definition of terms and assumptions. This Chapter starts building on that, by exploring the theoretical framework which guided the undertaking of the research. It explores and discusses literature based on the definition of youth, entrepreneurship in general, and youth entrepreneurship in particular, and its development. It delves into the widespread literature on its independent variables, which are: the youth entrepreneur's demographics and youth entrepreneurship development programmes. Furthermore, the literature associated with the research's dependent variables: Entrepreneurial aspirations and entrepreneurial businesses, is also explored, before a conceptual model is developed to guide the proposed relationship of the independent and the dependent variables.

2.2 Theoretical Overview

According to Simpeh (2011) and Virtanen (1997), a consistent universal theory of entrepreneurship does not exist, but rather it consists of numerous different approaches including psychology, sociology, anthropology, regional science and economics. Virtanen submits that the reason for this is because the very nature of an entrepreneur is diverse, and what normally makes some studies fail to predict entrepreneurial behaviour is that they treat all entrepreneurs the same, whether they are small businesses owners or owners of high-growth innovative ventures. This study first shows the evolution of the entrepreneurship theory before locating this study in a psychological theory.

The word 'entrepreneur' is derived from the French word *entreprendre* which means to undertake (Mohanty, 2017). According to Darzi (2016), Hamilton and Harper (1994), Imafidon (2014), Mohanty (2017), Stam (2018) and Van Praag (1999), Richard Cantillon (1680–1734) was the first to give economic meaning to the concept of 'entrepreneur.' He described an entrepreneur as an arbitrager. He then explained that an entrepreneur

engages in arbitrage and bears risk. He further explained that entrepreneurs bring about an equilibrium of supply and demand in the economy.

Then there was Jean-Baptiste Say (1767-1832) who was the first Economist to underscore the managerial role of an entrepreneur in the firm. He expounded that the entrepreneur was a co-ordinator in production and distribution where he played a key role. He described an entrepreneur as an agent who gathers all the factors of production, to produce a valuable product, in order to make a profit for himself. He submitted that, to do this, the agent must possess business knowledge, judgement and perseverance (Darzi, 2016; Hamilton & Harper, 1994; Imafidon, 2014; Mohanty, 2017; Simpeh, 2011; Stam, 2018; Van Praag, 1999).

After Say, much contribution to the entrepreneurship theory was done by early neo-classical economists: Alfred Marshall (1842–1924), Francis Edgeworth (1845–1926) and Arthur Pigou (1877–1959); most of their work however, assumed that all agents have perfect information and economic objectives were clearly stated. Their model ended up not integrating the entrepreneur. Marshall had earlier shown that the entrepreneur was important in the neo-classical school of thought. He believed that the entrepreneur's task was to supply commodities and provide innovations and progress (Darzi, 2016; Hamilton & Harper, 1994; Imafidon, 2014; Mohanty, 2017; Simpeh, 2011; Stam, 2018; Van Praag, 1999). The next economist to make important contributions to the entrepreneurship theory was Joseph Schumpeter.

Joseph Schumpeter (1883–1950) belonged to the Austrian Market Process Movement. Schumpeter defined an entrepreneur as an innovator who creates new combinations to initiate the process of economic development through the development of new products, new markets, finding new sources of raw materials and inaugurating a new organisation or industry. He emphasised profit, which was a result of the innovation, which in turn, leads to economic development (Darzi, 2016; Hamilton & Harper, 1994; Imafidon, 2014; Mohanty, 2017; Simpeh, 2011; Stam, 2018; Van Praag, 1999).

The next person to contribute to the theory of entrepreneurship was Frank Knight (1885–1972) who proposed that an entrepreneur is a person who bears a risk and deals with

uncertainty to bring about profit (Darzi, 2016; Hamilton & Harper, 1994; Imafidon, 2014; Mohanty, 2017; Simpeh, 2011; Stam, 2018; Van Praag, 1999).

Currently there is Israel Kirzner (1930-) who belongs to a Neo-Austrian School of Thought on Entrepreneurship. He believes that an entrepreneur is someone who is alert to discover and exploit profit opportunities in the economy. They are, according to Kirzner, the equilibrating forces in the market process (Van Praag, 1999).

This study explores the relationship between Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (YEDPs) and Entrepreneurial Aspirations (EA) as perceived by the youth of Swaziland. It is based on perceptions, which is a psychological phenomenon, also based on one of the psychological entrepreneurship theories. According to Simpeh (2011), the psychological entrepreneurship theories highlight personal characteristics of an individual in their definition of entrepreneurship. He further cites the locus of control and Need for Achievement theories under psychological entrepreneurship theories. Venter (2014) states that the psychological school of thought seem to coincide with David McClelland's research. This study considers the Need for Achievement Theory developed by David McClelland, in detail below, as the main theory on which this work is premised.

2.2.1 Need for Achievement Motivation Theory

Rabideau (2005) submits that motivation is what primarily drives all of our actions. He further explains that motivation denotes the dynamics of our behaviour: our needs, desires, and ambitions in life. Godpower (2015) substantiates this definition by adding that motivation is a human psychological characteristic that underwrites a person's degree of commitment.

As a result of its importance in human achievement, the concept of motivation has resulted to numerous theories. These include the: Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation; Equity Theory; Maslow's Need Theory; Expectancy Theories developed by Vroom; Expectancy Theory further expounded by Porter and Lawler; McGregor's Theory X and Y; Theory x ('authoritarian management' style); Theory y ('participative management' style) and the Achievement Motivation Theory (Godpower, 2015; Miner,

2005). Simply put, Achievement Motivation is premised on reaching success and accomplishing all of our aspirations in life. Achievement goals normally affect how one performs a task and epitomises a desire to show competency (Rabideau, 2005). De Pillis (1998), citing Johnson (1990), submits that the Achievement Motivation has been singled out as the most dominant theory of entrepreneurship. The Need for Achievement (nAch) concept was instigated by Henry Murray in 1938. This Theory was then extensively measured by David McClelland and his colleagues, who explained that entrepreneurs are driven by a need to succeed, achieve and excel (De Pillis, 1998; Simpeh, 2011). McClelland and his colleagues supposed that needs are not biological, but are cultural, as they are learned. Therefore, culture plays an essential role in the creation of enterprises. They concluded that people with a high level of Need for Achievement demonstrate a strong desire to assume personal accountability, to set and achieve somewhat moderately difficult goals, and to receive performance feedback (De Pillis, 1998).

McClelland was convinced of the critical role the Need for Achievement played in economic development and thus promoted the use of achievement training in developing countries in place of financial assistance (De Pillis, 1998).

McClelland's Need for Achievement theory has however, been criticised by several scholars, such as Frey in 1984. While some research indicates that entrepreneurs have significantly higher Need for Achievement than non-entrepreneurs; other research has found no connection between achievement, motivation and business venturing, while yet others have found false correlations between the Need for Achievement and economic growth, due to a use of problematic proxy measures (De Pillis, 1998). Still, others prefer Rotter's concept of internal locus of control as a better predictor of entrepreneurial intentions to McClelland's notion of Need for Achievement (Hamilton & Harper, 1994).

Even though some studies have failed to show a relationship between Achievement, Motivation and Entrepreneurship, many different studies have shown the existence of a positive relationship between the Need for Achievement and entrepreneurship. When a study was conducted with entrepreneurs in New England and Florida, the Need for Achievement was found to be the main trait that differentiated business founders and

non-founders (E. Babb & S. Babb, 1992). A study done in Indonesia concluded that achievement motivation is one of seven important factors that determine one's choice of becoming an entrepreneur (Rissal, 1992). Shaver and Scott (1991) reviewed literature on Need for Achievement studies and concluded that achievement motivation is a valid predictor of entrepreneurial behaviour. Johnson (1990) agreed with Shaver and Scott after examining studies linking achievement, motivation and entrepreneurship. Of the twenty-three studies examined, Johnson found twenty of them indicating a positive relationship between achievement motivation and entrepreneurship (De Pillis, 1998).

To continue proving that Need for Achievement does not just predict behaviour but actually translates to entrepreneurial results on the ground, a seven-year study of high and low achievement motivation agricultural entrepreneurs was conducted. The findings indicated that the agriculture entrepreneurs with high Need for Achievement, continued to increase their productivity more than those with the low Need for Achievement. Over and above that, the data indicated that Need for Achievement is stable over time (Singh, 1978).

Some studies, such as Alschuler et al. (1971) and Frymier (1970) have successfully shown a positive relationship between the Need for Achievement and academic excellence. So, this theory is not only limited to entrepreneurial development. However, central to this research is the study that was undertaken in India, popularly known as the Kakinada experiment, where the concept of Entrepreneurship Development Programmes and how they are essential in increasing entrepreneurial aspirations, was born (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2010; Mishra, S.P., Gujar, Das, Chaudhari & Mishra, S., 2012).

2.2.1.1 Kakinada Experiment

According to David McClelland, a Behavioural Scientist, the Need for Achievement is a critical factor for entrepreneurship development, which in turn, results in employment generation and economic development (Nkechi, Ikechukwu & Okechukwu, 2012). McClelland proposed that in order for an accelerated economic development, the "inner spirit" of the entrepreneurs should be higher so they could be more energetic. To him, achievement motivation is nurtured by ambition (Jinall, 2015). He however, said the ambition was not fueled by wanting to make money, it was fueled by the need to achieve (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2010)**.** McClelland sought to investigate if this trait could be developed or not, so he conducted a five-year experiment in Andhra Pradesh, India. This experiment is popularly known as the Kakinada experiment (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2010**)**.

As part of the Kakinada experiment, youth was selected and put through this training. They were motivated to come up with new goals. One of the main conclusions of this experiment was that the traditional beliefs seemed not to inhibit an entrepreneur. Another conclusion drawn was that suitable training can deliver the required motivation to the entrepreneurs. This was the birth of Entrepreneurship Development Programmes and those targeted to youth, known as Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (YEDPs). The experiment showed that achievement motivation has a positive impact on the performance of entrepreneurs (Chowdhary & Prakash, 2010). The following sections discuss the concept of youth, youth entrepreneurship and youth entrepreneurship development through the Youth entrepreneurship development programmes and other means.

2.3 Entrepreneurship Development and Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes: A view from the Global South

The previous section explored this study's theoretical overview, including a discussion of the main theory in which the research is located. This section now explores literature initially on youth, especially youth in Africa, then youth entrepreneurship, before

discussing youth entrepreneurship development, of which youth entrepreneurship development programmes are a subset. To start off the section, the concept of youth is discussed in-depth.

2.3.1 Youth

Chigunta (2006), Jakubczak (2015) and Mkandawire (1998) highlight the lack of a unique definition of youth, especially in Africa. According to them, the perception of youth varies historically and culturally. Further to that, it varies in different contexts, even within contexts. The definition of youth seems to depend on the dimension of youth taking precedence in that particular context. So, it can be demographic - refer to age, cultural – refer to concepts of adulthood, biological – refer to the realisation of puberty, social – refer to reaching 'maturity' or marriageability or economic, which refers to the ability to sustain oneself. In Sociology, youth represent an interface between childhood and adulthood, although childhood and adulthood are socially constructed. The youth is however normally defined in terms of age. Even the age definition is contextual and so it varies from country to country. Generally, the youth is said to be between 15 and 24 years. This is the age that has also been adopted by the United Nations. The Commonwealth Youth Programme (CYP) defines youth as those between 15 and 29 years. The African Youth Charter refers to every person between the ages of 15-35 years as youth in Africa (AU, 2006). Venter (2014, p.6) argues that even the use of age as a limen has its own challenges. He makes an example of South Africa, on how the "notion of 'coming of age' in South Africa similarly involves associated complexities of financial success, and intricate interplays between 'masculinity' and adulthood". In Africa, this is further complicated by the fact that the age cohort should be additionally disaggregated as out-of-school/ illiterate youth, those who have never been to school, rural or urban youth, youth with disabilities, migrant youth, homeless youth, youth affected by war, refugee youth, orphaned youth, youth under forced labour, single young mothers, criminal youth, youth living with HIV/AIDS, and other minorities. This then makes it hard to treat youth as a homogenous group. The many social ills in Africa described above seem to be one of the reasons the African Union has a 15-35-year limit on youth whilst the European Union

defines its youth to be between 15 and 29 years (AU, 2006; European Commission, 2009). Even though youth can be defined in several ways, as shown above, and defining it by age has its own challenges, this study defines it in terms of age, because the Swazi Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes also use age to define their target clients. The youth in Swaziland is every person between the ages of 15-35 years (MOSCYA, 2009).

The complexity of youth makes it hard for effective policies related to their well-being to be put in place. This necessitates that they be studied so the Swazi Government can make informed decisions, particularly to youth economic empowerment, especially since Swaziland is largely a young country, with 79% of its population under 35 years of age. The country is however faced with several challenges which include high youth unemployment, coupled with underemployment that reaches 73%. It has a very weak labour market with 41% of its tertiary graduates unemployed. The economy has been sluggish and even had negative economic growth in 2016. This shows that if the country and its youth are to survive, a solution of how employment can be created should be found soon. The Swazi Governments believes that entrepreneurship seems to be the only immediate solution (Africa Economic Outlook, 2017; ILO, 2010; MOSCYA, 2015; The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011, UNDP, 2013).

2.3.2 Entrepreneurship

Shri et al. (2016) and Virtanen (1997), whilst lamenting the lack of a consistent universal theory of entrepreneurship, suggested that entrepreneurship be defined as a creative process of actions undertaken by an entrepreneur to create his enterprise. This definition resonates with Timmons who defined entrepreneurship as a creative activity or process where one takes calculated risks to build a team that complements his entrepreneurial skill and talent, in order to initiate, build and achieve an enterprise or organisation (Mohanty, 2017). Imafidon (2014) and Nkechi et al. (2012) add that entrepreneurship is more than simply starting a business, it is a process used by individuals to identify opportunities, marry those with resources, and create value. Patankar and Mehta (2014) further say entrepreneurship plays a pivotal role in economic growth and development

and results in substantial changes in the economies of markets. This statement is supported Nițu-Antonie, Feder and Munteanu (2017). Virtanen (1997) further points out that one of the best entrepreneurship definitions, from the viewpoint of growth-oriented innovative companies, was written by Ronstadt (1984, p.28), and it is:

> Entrepreneurship is the dynamic process of creating incremental wealth. The wealth is created by individuals who assume the major risks in terms of equity, time and/or career commitment or provide value for some product or service. The product or service may or may not be new or unique, but value must somehow be infused by the entrepreneur by receiving and allocating the necessary skills and resources.

The South African National Youth Policy 2015-2020 submits that young people are seen as a major human resource that should be developed. They often act as key agents for social change, economic expansion and innovation so they are essential for the continuous societal development (The Presidency Republic of South Africa, 2015).

Gough (2015) highlights that despite the rapid economic growth for many Sub-Saharan African countries in recent years, this growth failed to translate into adequate employment generation for the region's growing young population. This has then led to high youth unemployment, which has become one of the continent's biggest challenges, and led to the region to increasingly encourage its youth to create their own jobs through entrepreneurship.

The UNCTAD and Commonwealth (2015) then added that, since the 2008 financial and economic crisis, youth unemployment has worsened. This has greatly affected countries with high youth populations, such as Sub-Saharan African countries, since the number of formal jobs is inadequate to service the high and growing youth population. As a result,

for inclusive growth, harnessing the entrepreneurial talents of the youth and ensuring the entrepreneurial ecosystem is enabling, has become essential for employment generation.

2.3.3 Youth Entrepreneurship

Since youth is a subjective and complex term, as explained in the first chapter of this research, defining youth entrepreneurship is as problematic as trying to define youth (Jakubczak, 2015). There are several definitions that have been given to youth entrepreneurship; one of those definitions is by the International Labour Organisation (2006), which defines Youth Entrepreneurship as the process of recognition and taking advantage of an opportunity, whether an entity is created or not.

The ILO (2005) and Sharma and Madan (2014) assert that across the world, Governments and local communities have acknowledged that the key to job creation, building prosperity and stimulating regional growth is promoting entrepreneurship among their people, especially the youth. Therefore, entrepreneurship, especially youth entrepreneurship, has become a topic of great interest for research scholars and a subject of major concern for the Governments.

According to the ILO (2016), the number of unemployed youth globally was forecast to increase by half a million in 2016 to reach 71 million and remain at 71 million in 2017. In emerging countries, the youth unemployment rate was predicted to increase to 13.7 per cent in 2017, which is 53.5 million compared to 52.9 million in 2015. In developing countries, the youth unemployment rate was expected to remain relatively steady, at around 9.5 per cent in 2016, which would translate to an increase of around 0.2 million to reach 7.9 million, largely due to an expanding labour force. The highest global unemployment rate in 2016 (14.5 per cent or 9.8 million) was to come from the developed countries, also known as the Global North, the rate would then decline slightly to 14.3 % in 2017. The report did highlight though, that developing countries or the Global South seem to have a better rate at face value, because the unemployment rate does not account for underemployment.

Jakubczak (2015), drawing from various research, concluded that due to various factors, which include the lack of experience or lack of skills, young people are always at a much higher risk of being unemployed and underemployed. He then said since youth unemployment is such a grave socio-economic problem, at a global scale, which affects current development and will affect future development, a viable and sustainable solution has to be put in place. He asserts that one of the main solutions proposed is youth entrepreneurship, as research has shown that entrepreneurship has a positive effect in increasing market competitiveness and affecting economic growth. Entrepreneurs are known to create jobs for themselves and others, while increasing innovation.

According to Youth Business International (YBI), in collaboration with the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), youth entrepreneurs in all the world's regions, on average, see themselves to be more innovative than their adult counterparts in reference to offering a new product or service with a few or no other businesses offering the same product. The Middle East/North Africa (MENA) has been found to have the lowest youth innovation-orientation. When it comes to growth orientation, the youth globally, except in Sub-Saharan Africa, in the next five years is expected to create more jobs than adults create. The USA has the highest percentage of youth with high growth expectations, currently operating new or businesses in the nascent phase. New entrepreneurs are those who have been running a business for between three and forty-two months, nascent entrepreneurs are those who are in the process of starting a business but have not yet paid wages in three months (GEM, 2015). These expect to employ more than twenty people per business within the next five years (Youth Business International [hereafter referred to as YBI] & GEM, 2013).

The YBI and GEM (2013) indicates that Sub-Saharan Africa has the highest percentage of youth potential entrepreneurs at 60%, however, about one third of youth entrepreneurs in Africa are necessity and not opportunity driven entrepreneurs (YBI & GEM, 2013). While other regions such as Asia Pacific and South Asia have a lower number of potential entrepreneurs, about 80% of them are opportunity driven. According to the GEM Sub-Saharan Africa 2012 Report, necessity-driven entrepreneurs are pushed into starting an enterprise due to having no other choice or source of income, while opportunity-driven

entrepreneurs are pulled into entrepreneurship by the perception of an opportunity which they choose to pursue.

While many studies have established that entrepreneurship is positively correlated to economic growth mostly in the Global North than the Global South (Acs, 2006; Doran, McCarthy & O'Connor, 2018; Ferreira, Fayolle, Fernandes, & Raposo, 2017; Van Stel, Carree & Thurik, 2005). Other studies, carried out in the Global South, such as in Nigeria by Imafidon (2014), have proven that even in the Global South, entrepreneurship contributes significantly to employment generation and stimulates economic growth.

To try and defend the position that the largely necessity driven entrepreneurship practiced in the Global South does not result in economic development, Schaumburg-Müller, Jeppesen and Langevang (2010) cited a study on the link of entrepreneurship and economic development conducted by Naude in 2013. The study found that low income countries have a higher level of entrepreneurial activity, but less economic growth and development when compared to middle income countries. And since innovation has been proven to correlate with economic growth, this implied a lack of innovation in the entrepreneurial activities undertaken by the developing countries, due to their entrepreneurial activity being necessity-driven.

Studies conducted by the GEM of the Sub-Saharan African youth in 2012, proved that Sub-Saharan African youth are largely survivalists, many operating in the informal sector with generally a high level of competition, whilst they do not innovate much. The ILO (2005), citing Charmes (1998), approximates an informal sector in Sub-Saharan Africa that accounts for 77.4% of non-agricultural employment.

After studying 10 Sub-Saharan African countries, the GEM concluded that in all these countries, most businesses are found in the: retail, hotel and restaurant sectors, particularly in Malawi and Uganda, where more than 75% of entrepreneurs are in these types of businesses. These are normally 'me too' with low growth potential. There are a few youth businesses located in the agriculture, manufacturing, mining, government,

health, education and social services sectors. Botswana has the most diverse distribution in industries and shows relatively higher levels of entrepreneurs in mining and construction, manufacturing, wholesale and finance, with Malawi being the least diversified. According to Acs (2006), this denotes that the economies have substantial bureaucratic barriers, which led to his suggestion that policies in the Global South should focus on strengthening the general National Framework Conditions, and in the Global North, in strengthening the Entrepreneurial Framework Conditions. In confirmation, the ILO (2005) denotes that studies suggest that aspiring youth entrepreneurs in Africa face constraints in trying to set up their enterprises.

Several studies, according to Hessels et al. (2008), have shown that entrepreneurial aspirations are linked to motives (whether the entrepreneurship is necessity driven, normally from lower income countries, or opportunity driven, normally from higher income level countries). While Friedman, Aziz, Keles and Sayfullin (2012)'s study shows that necessity driven entrepreneurs have high entrepreneurial aspirations when compared to opportunity driven entrepreneurs, it is actually opportunity driven entrepreneurs who achieve businesses that are innovative, growing and internationalised.

In summarising, the GEM's Sub-Saharan Africa Report in 2012, stated that the African youth have positive attitudes which are reflective of positive entrepreneurial ambitions, which reflects a high attitude of entrepreneurship. Fear of failure does not seem to be a stumbling block on the youth's entrepreneurial aspirations and actions, as the region has one of the highest levels of entrepreneurial activity. These are unfortunately fueled by necessity rather than by opportunity, so most of the enterprises remain at the survivalist stage as they do not grow. This underscores the need for Africa to improve its environment, so these businesses can start growing fast and become more innovative.

The assertion of the past studies and the GEM report's observations led to Chinyoka (2015) declaring that the optimal strategy in developing countries, is for Governments not to train and finance entrepreneurs in small enterprises, but instead, to promote larger enterprises as these, through corporate entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship, are better

able to innovate, create more lasting jobs; and if their employees decide to set up their own enterprises, they will tend to create more jobs and their survival rates will be higher that what is currently being obtained. He further postulated that improving the ease of doing business in the country, by creating an enabling environment, thus attracting technologically savvy enterprises that will innovate and lead to economic growth, would be a better strategy. The ILO (2005) however, believed that this strategy of employment growth in the formal sector will only be partially addressing the problem as some youth do not possess adequate skills and are therefore found in the informal sector. This then led them to recommend a general revival of the African economies by establishing linkages to the formal and informal activities which should boost demand and economic activity in the informal sector.

2.3.3.1 Contextualising the African Youth Entrepreneur

According to the ILO (2012), Africa has a youthful population constituting of enthusiastic and energetic young people who could drive the economic prosperity of the continent when supported with effective policies and programmes. The AU (2011) then adds that currently though, due to the low economic growth, there is a lack of jobs which results in most young people being self-employed, largely in the informal sector where they work long hours with low productivity and meagre earnings. The following section explores the general demographic characteristics of the Sub-Saharan African youth.

2.3.3.1.1 Age distribution of the African Youth Entrepreneur

The ILO (2005) denotes that evidence points to that participation in entrepreneurship in Sub-Saharan Africa, as in other parts of the world, increases with age and is concentrated within the middle age group, which is about 26-35 years old. The 2012 GEM Report for Sub-Saharan Africa youth pegged this average at 25 to 34 years of age. The ILO (2005) and GEM (2012) submit that the high average of age is most probably related to access to savings or other financial resources needed as capital of the enterprise, or access to other resources such as networks. This group might have been waiting to gain experience through being employed. They might have identified opportunities related to their

experience or might have taken the time needed to learn about enterprise and gain urban experience for youth from the rural areas. This then, according to the ILO (2005), negates the view that youth are natural entrepreneurs.

2.3.3.1.2 Gender of the African Youth Entrepreneur

The ILO (2005) highlighted that women normally practice subsistence instead of commercial activities and struggle to access resources in relation to males. It further asserts that socialisation processes and sociocultural limitations normally restrict the participation of females in entrepreneurship. Generally, there are more men than women in entrepreneurship in most African countries. Evidence of a study Chigunta conducted in 2003 indicated that in Zambia, 71.4% men were self-employed in relation to 66.1% females. There were 32.8% young males compared to 18.3% females. This indicates that when developing youth entrepreneurship policies, more attention is to be paid to assisting females. The GEM (2012) report states that in the Sub-Saharan Region as well as the Latin America and Caribbean regions, there is greater gender equality. It does however, seem like females are more necessity driven when compared to the males. Ghana and Nigeria are two of the few countries where the females are more involved in entrepreneurship activities than males. South Africa also showed outlier results with women being two thirds the level of men. South Africa and Namibia, in the Sub-Saharan countries studied in 2012, were the only efficiency-driven economies, meaning they have developed finance systems, higher productivity and their industrial sector is further developed than the factor-driven economies, which are in their early stages of economic development. Factor-driven economies normally have a large agricultural sector and depend on natural resources extraction. None of the surveyed countries are yet part of the innovation-driven economies, which typically have increasing research and development, and knowledge-based businesses, with a large affluent population.

2.3.3.1.3 Education and experience of the African Youth Entrepreneur

The GEM model highlights the importance of education in business activity and entrepreneurship. According to the GEM, primary education is a basic requirement and higher education is an efficiency enhancer (GEM, 2012). GEM results over the years have found a correlation between sustainability and the success rate of early-stage entrepreneurs and their level of education, as educated entrepreneurs are most likely to succeed. South Africa is a case in point. Research has shown that education in Africa, especially entrepreneurial education, is inadequate. In profiling the African youth entrepreneurs, the GEM found youth entrepreneurs in Malawi and Uganda to have not received secondary education, and these countries are characterised by a high rate of necessity-driven entrepreneurship. In Ghana, most of the youth entrepreneurs had some secondary schooling, but Ghana only has 28% of the entrepreneurs being necessity-driven, which is contrary to most research. In most of the Sub-Saharan countries, the majority of the youth, at 54%–72% had completed at least a secondary level of education. Furthermore, nearly one-third of entrepreneurs in Zambia and Botswana had completed their secondary education and received some post-secondary education (GEM, 2012). In 2015, the GEM recorded that in spite of the positive shifts globally towards higher levels of education for the youth, almost a quarter of the Sub-Saharan Africa youth still have less than a primary school education while 55% have not completed their secondary education (GEM, 2015).

2.3.3.2 Challenges of youth entrepreneurs in the Global South

Chigunta (2002) claimed that while both youth and adult entrepreneurs face challenges, youth enterprises are exposed to greater risks as more youth, in both developing and developed countries, rely on local markets whilst evidence show that for poor and small countries, like Swaziland, substantial reliance on the local market, is a main constraint on increasing earnings and growth of business ventures. Over and above that, youth enterprises when compared to adult enterprises face more challenges in accessing production resources, such as capital, which then leads to more youth starting their enterprises with minimal capital and inventory.

Chingunta (2002) also highlights that youth enterprises are engaged in a narrow range of activities when compared to their adult counterparts, and these young people lack access to space and thus operate from homes or streets. They also normally rely on using simple tools or no equipment. Lastly, he added that youth normally do not have experience or networks when they start their business. The UNDP (2013) in agreement with Chigunta, added that the lack of experience includes experience in dealing with institutions. UNDP also asserted that youth, especially in Swaziland, are disadvantaged compared to adult entrepreneurs when it comes to education. The African Development Bank (2014), African Union (2011), African Union and UNFPA (2011) and the ILO (2012) put this as the lack of skills and relevant education.

2.3.3.3 Youth Entrepreneurship in Swaziland

Dlamini and Bimha (2017) and UNDP (2013) paint a somber picture of Swaziland. They describe it as a country with a population of around 1.2 million, 79% of whom are below the age of 35 years, and 70% of whom live in the rural areas and in general poverty; a country having low economic growth whilst most Sub-Saharan countries are seen to be growing, with low entrepreneurial startups, high HIV prevalence, especially among the youth, a decreasing share in the Southern Africa Customs Union (SACU) revenues, very weak labour markets (resulting to 41% of those with tertiary education being unemployed), cuts in Government expenditure and an accumulation of Government arrears to SMEs. According to the country's Prime Minister, the country's main hope for mitigating these social ills is to harness its demographic dividend (The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011).

The UNDP (2013), reiterating what was underscored by The Brenthurst Foundation (2011), elaborated that the country is faced with a major youth employment challenge, as it has one of the highest youth unemployment rates in Africa and prevalent youth idleness. Whilst policymakers have recognised youth entrepreneurship as a key driver of economic development through fostering growth, technology adoption and innovation for poverty alleviation, there seem to be lack of empirical evidence on how this can be done in a

holistic and effective manner. This has then limited the designing of appropriate policies to address the youth unemployment challenge.

Dlamini and Bimha (2017), Sahee Foundation (2011) and UNDP (2013) agreed in that while young Swazis are drawn to entrepreneurship out of both necessity (to build livelihoods and escape unemployment) and opportunity (to realise their wealth accumulation vision and contribute to economy of the country), they face a myriad challenges which result in them running mostly informal businesses, which then means few of them are registered and can access loans from financial institutions or access markets such as Government or company tendering. Some even operate their enterprises as associations or co-operatives. The Swazi youth businesses are also mostly “me too” type of businesses, which are struggling to register growth. The youth businesses, especially those operated by females (85%) and 77% for males, are normally run by one person - according to the UNDP (2013) study. The Swazi youth entrepreneurs are found in the SMME sector. A recent SMME study concluded that the SMME sector in Swaziland has 92,643 people of different ages, of those 44,250 are the owners of the SMMEs and they own a total of 68, 536 SMMEs making E2.8 billion based on the report from the SMMEs owners (Finmark Trust, 2017).

The Sahee Foundation (2011) and UNDP (2013), after carrying out studies to profile and understand the Swazi youth in business, came to the conclusion that most of the youth entrepreneurs operate businesses in the service sector, offering mostly retail and hairdressing services. Textiles was found to be the most common manufacturing sector. The least favoured sectors were: tourism, construction, entertainment and contracting. It was discovered that females mostly preferred the low value adding sectors, such as retail and textile, and shunned sectors that require specialised skills, the use of technology or creativity. Many of the Swazi youth also showed lack of commitment to entrepreneurship as the UNDP study found that youth are more willing to change their business model and business location and even accept employment, with 35% of the male entrepreneurs compared to 36.5% females asserting that they would accept a job if offered one, 28% of male entrepreneurs were actually already looking for employment whilst only 23% of

female entrepreneurs were doing the same. This is what normally makes banks view youth entrepreneurs as high risk (UNDP, 2013). In the following section, a further profiling of the Swazi youth entrepreneur is undertaken.

2.3.3.4 Contextualising the Swazi Youth Entrepreneur

In further analysing the profile of the Swazi youth entrepreneurs, the 2013 UNDP study, and the Sahee Foundation research of 2011, highlighted that most of the youth entrepreneurs in Swaziland (100% of those interviewed by the Sahee Foundation and about 90% of those interviewed by UNDP Swaziland) are of Swazi descent. They further drew the following conclusions:

2.3.3.4.1 Age distribution of the Swazi Entrepreneur

The average age of the UNDP survey youth respondents was 30 years old. This is also in line with the average age of youth entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa (GEM, 2012). The Sahee Foundation study placed the average age at 23.5 years, this could be because they solicited age from only 83 of their 146 respondents and they interviewed entrepreneurs aged 15-36 (Sahee Foundation, 2011) while the Swaziland Youth Policy state that youth in the Kingdom is between the ages of 18-35 years (MOSCYA, 2009).

2.3.3.4.2 Gender of the Swazi Entrepreneur

Females made up 45.1% of the respondents in the UNDP study, with males being 54.9%. In the Sahee Foundation study, males formed 48% of the respondents while females made up 52% of the respondents. This is again in tandem with the general Sub-Saharan results as observed by Chigunta (2002) and GEM (2012). To further highlight the difference between male and female youth entrepreneurship, GEM (2015) states that young men in general, have significantly higher growth aspirations than young women do. The UNDP (2013) survey results seem to suggest that female entrepreneurs were also less innovative when compared to their male counterparts. The study pointed out that the services sector accounts for about 68% of female entrepreneurs and only 58% of males. Furthermore, generally fewer female entrepreneurs, compared to males, were found to be involved in the construction, contracting, entertainment and tourism sectors.

2.3.3.4.3 Education and experience of the Swazi Entrepreneur

Of the youth in business interviewed by the Sahee Foundation, about 14% had completed tertiary education, 31% had completed high school, 30% had completed some high school and 26% had completed some primary school education (The Sahee Foundation, 2011). These were largely rural youth, while UNDP interviewed largely urban youth and found that youth entrepreneurs with tertiary education were 35.3%, only 49.8% of them had received business training and only 44.3% of the trained respondents felt the training was useful (UNDP, 2013).

According to UNDP (2013), based on the study they carried out, slightly fewer than 40% of young entrepreneurs in urban Swaziland were found to have prior work experience before starting their own company, they however did not have much business experience in running multiple companies and further to that, they did not see the need of acquiring more knowledge in running a business and accessing help from business development service providers. Of those interviewed, 87.6% owned only one business and 92.3% were still operating their first business.

To further investigate the entrepreneurial aspirations of the youth in the country, some of the UNDP survey results were further analysed. UNDP Swaziland discovered that 85% of the interviewed youth in business associated success with profit, which is an indication of business growth. They however viewed growing the number of their product range and offering it to new customers (innovation) as more important than profit. They also felt job creation (growth) and staying in business for more than 10 years was also important (UNDP, 2013).

The following section highlights the challenges faced by Swazi youth in entrepreneurship and then puts forward probable solutions. This is done as guided by the ILO framework proposed in the SEED Working Paper No. 76, writing on stimulating youth entrepreneurship: barriers and incentives to enterprise start-ups by young people, by Ulrich Schoof in 2006. Swazi youth entrepreneurs' challenges have been well researched and documented in the Swaziland's State of the Youth Report, the Revised MSME Policy, UNDP Swaziland's research on opportunities and constraints to youth entrepreneurship

and the study by Signhild Brosvik, funded by the Sahee Foundation. So, while this section documents the youth challenges, its main focus is on pointing out the probable solutions that will result in an enabling environment for youth entrepreneurship development.

2.3.4 Youth Entrepreneurship Development

As per Imafidon (2014), Entrepreneurship Development is regarded as a programme of activities meant to enhance the body of knowledge, skill, behaviours and attitudes of individuals or groups, so that they can assume the role of entrepreneurs. The process of entrepreneurship development involves the co-operation of all stakeholders to remove barriers inhibiting entrepreneurial undertaking. Entrepreneurship development is therefore the foundation for human capacity building.

There are several Entrepreneurship Development Models or Entrepreneurial ecosystems: one of those is the one proposed by Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2009) which consists of the Entrepreneurial Orientation, Supportive Environment and Co-operative Environment. Another ecosystem was proposed by the World Economic Forum (2013). This Ecosystem comprises of Accessible Markets; Human Capital Workforce; Funding and Finance; Mentors and Advisors Support Systems; Regulatory Framework and Infrastructure; Education and Training; Major Universities as Catalysts and; Cultural Support. Another entrepreneurship ecosystem is proposed by Fuerlinger, Fandl and Funke (2015) is known as the Isenberg's six domains of an entrepreneurship ecosystem (sometimes called the Babson Entrepreneurship ecosystem). This one also has markets, Human Capital, supports, culture, finance and policy. The UNCTAD and Commonwealth (2015) advances the UNCTAD framework which includes: optimizing the regulatory environment, enhancing entrepreneurship education and skills development, facilitating technology exchange and innovation, improving access to finance and promoting awareness and networking.

These are all similar, the diagram below depicts one of the ecosystems. This study could have chosen any of these models because of their similarities, the one chosen, was chosen for simplicity and that, when the ILO (2006) explains it in the ILO’s Series on Youth and Entrepreneurship, it looks at entrepreneurship with regards to youth

entrepreneurship. This however, does not exclude using information from the other entrepreneurship ecosystems in this study. The ILO model is displayed in figure 2.1 below and is further explained in the subsequent section.

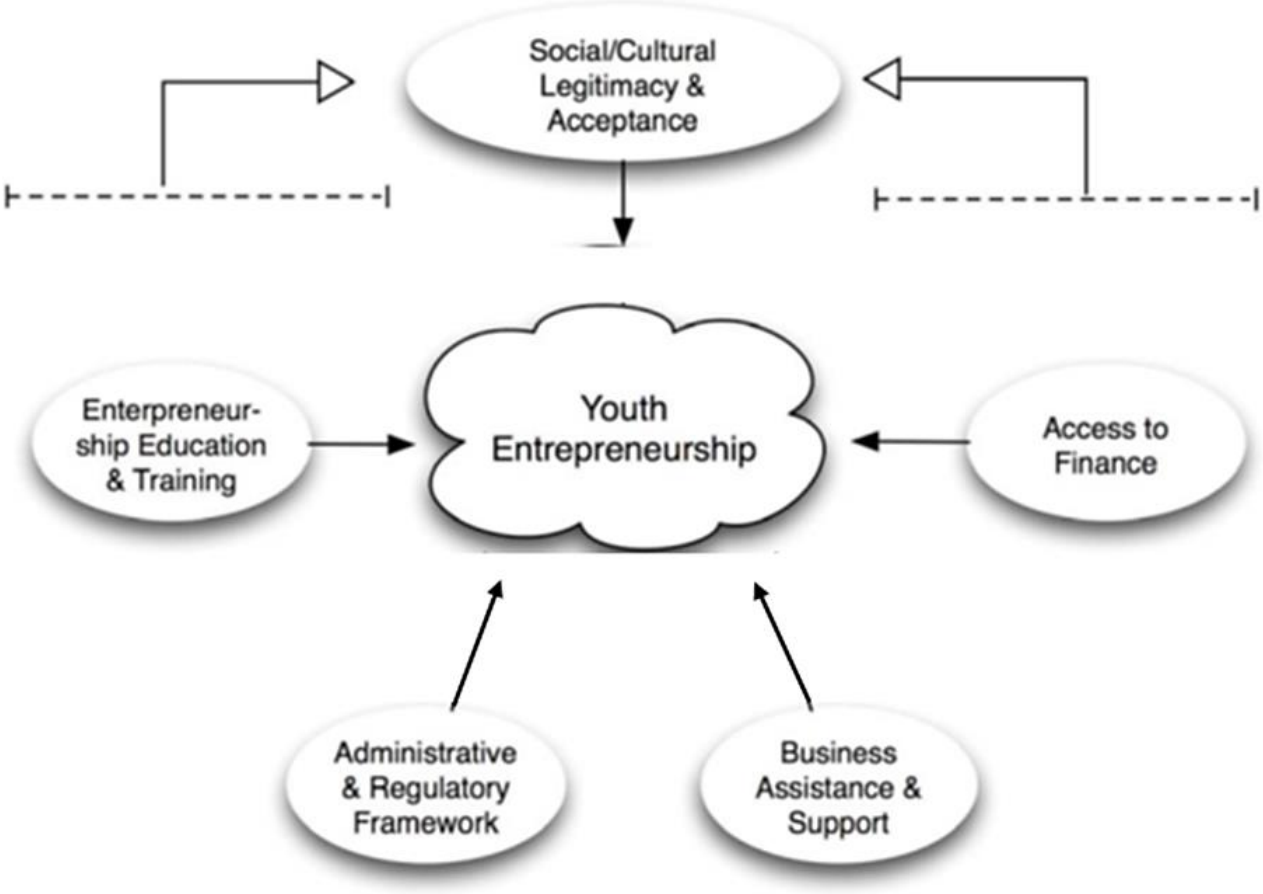

Figure 2.1: Youth Entrepreneurship Development Framework (ILO, 2006, p.23)

The above model demonstrations that Entrepreneurship Development, or Youth Entrepreneurship Development, is not about instituting a training programme, but is rather about bringing about holistic change through the alleviation of all barriers to entrepreneurship.

In a Polish study conducted by Jakubczak (2015), when youth were asked to cite the biggest barriers to entrepreneurship in Poland, they cited: challenges with Government administration processes, lack of access to finance, lack of business support, bad entrepreneurial education and social and cultural conditions. Other challenges cited were

high taxation and social insurance costs for entrepreneurs, negative perception on entrepreneurship from media, expensive marketing and fear of other risks linked to being entrepreneur. This is not only a Sub-Saharan Africa challenge, as Pratap and Quintin (2006) found that in some Latin American economies, such as Brazil, there were challenges of a high tax burden, weak rule of law or legal system, bureaucracy related to business registration, Government corruption and weak security of property rights.

Bridge, O'Neill and Cromie (2003) assert that to alleviate the above-mentioned challenges, Government, with the help of support agencies, should ensure SMMEs receive business development services like business advice, counselling, mentoring, finance, training, incubators and clusters. Finance and training are the most essential services in developing countries, so even though banks can provide finance, the Government has to ensure that lack of substantial collateral does not prevent a potential entrepreneur from receiving finance (Bridge et al., 2003). It has been found that when these services are provided by the private sector, SMME owners are normally reluctant to access them, some due to lack of information or perception of the services being costly.

According to the ILO (2006), these different challenges and how they can be solved are aggregated into five main groups, which are discussed below.

2.3.4.1 Social/Cultural Legitimacy & Acceptance

In the ILO's (2006) view, international research has shown that cultural and social backgrounds influence entrepreneurial activity, and enterprise culture, as they influence everyone's approach to life. Citing Gibb (1988), ILO (2006) defines an enterprise culture as a set of attitudes, values and beliefs that operate within a particular community which leads to entrepreneurial aspirations and entrepreneurial behaviour. This then necessitates that every country understands its society and culture and ensures that entrepreneurship is seen as a viable and attractive occupation to enable the youth to be entrepreneurial. The ILO (2006) further cites Wilken (1979), who asserts that, the degree of approval or disapproval of business activity in a society or culture will result to it being undertaken or not. According to the ILO (2006), there is a huge role that religion, cultural

values, beliefs and behaviours play in the enabling environment of youth entrepreneurship.

Some of the challenges in Swaziland, under this pillar, as unveiled by research, include the pervasive corruption culture and the negative societal and cultural attitudes towards entrepreneurship which leads to entrepreneurship not becoming the career of choice (Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Trade (hereafter referred to as MCIT), 2009; MOSCYA, 2015; Sahee Foundation, 2011; UNDP, 2013). According to the ILO (2006), in order to correct the above, an entrepreneurial culture should be promoted among young people, by first: undertaking further research to understand all the cultural influences, attitudes, and youth aspirations towards entrepreneurship; promote role models; have public relations campaigns; host youth competitions and awards; while ensuring youth business events are covered by media. He adds that each country should make use of education to promote the culture of entrepreneurship.

2.3.4.2 Entrepreneurship Education and Training

Ajagbe, Kelechi, Kimuli and Cho (2016), Bae, Qian, Miao and Fiet (2014), FIELD (2008) and Raposo and do Paço (2011) define entrepreneurship education as entrepreneurship concepts (attitudes and skills) which are included in the school curricula, preferably using experiential learning techniques, and also encouraging the creation of the enterprise as an extra-curricular activity in high school. He further said entrepreneurship education is also entrepreneurship assimilated into a wide range of courses in tertiary institutions.

Several studies have been undertaken to correlate the influence of entrepreneurship education to students' aspirations and behaviour, these include: *A Study on Entrepreneurial Aspirations, Inhibitions and Traits among College Students in Thoothukudi District* (Ponceelia & Franco, 2017); *Exploring entrepreneurial readiness of youth and startup success components: entrepreneurship training as a moderator* (Olugbola, 2017); *The when and why: Student Entrepreneurial Aspirations* (Kwong and Thompson, 2016); *Influence of demographic factors on the entrepreneurial intentions of university students in Oman* (Uddin, Mohammad & Hammami, 2016); *The Effectiveness*

of the Entrepreneurship Education Program in Upgrading Entrepreneurial Skills among Public University Students (Din, Anuar & Usman, 2016); *Management of Entrepreneurship Education: a Challenge for a Performant Educational System in Romania* (Vilcov & Dimitrescu, 2015); *An Investigation of the Level of Entrepreneurial Aspiration among Students in a Nigerian University* (Oyebola, 2014).

Most of these studies have shown a positive effect on the entrepreneurial aspirations and behaviour of the trainees, which is why it is essential for every nation to have well designed and implemented entrepreneurial education programmes to improve its entrepreneurial environment for entrepreneurship development (ILO, 2006).

Oyebola (2014) further stressed the view that entrepreneurship education is a vehicle for developing academic skills and creative thinking, which are useful skills, even if one decides to be employed. Kiadese (2008), citing Nelson (1996), noted that entrepreneurship education is more relevant in the tertiary education curriculum, as it provides students with the right foundation of skills and knowledge, to successfully launch and operate their own business venture.

The ILO (2006) underscored general challenges under this pillar, which include: lack of entrepreneurial education, the wrong curricula or learning methods, lack of adequately skilled teachers or lecturers or lack of linkages with business.

According to the MCIT (2009), MOSCYA (2015), Sahee Foundation (2011) and UNDP (2013), Swaziland has only recently started including entrepreneurship education in schools and tertiary institutions, and this is still not widely spread or co-ordinated in a manner that addresses the need for appropriate skills which has come about as a result of the education system.

The ILO (2006) then suggested that Government continues providing the entrepreneurial education, whilst observing that they do not repeat the above highlighted mistakes committed by other Governments.

2.3.4.3 Administrative and regulatory framework

Minniti (2008) underscored the importance of entrepreneurship as it leads to economic growth. She further underscored the importance of Government policy as it shapes the institutional environment where entrepreneurship takes place. She explained that whilst Government policies have to be custom made to alleviate specific inhibiting factors, as obtained through research, these policies are however normally targeted to taxation, regulations on trade, and encouragement of innovation activities.

With regards to the administrative and regulatory framework, the ILO (2006, p.52) writes:

> Today, entrepreneurs face numerous administrative burdens including businesses registration, tax administration, obtaining investment approvals and business licenses, coping with copyright and patent regulations, competition law, access to work space and long-term leases, construction and building permits, customs clearances, utility hook-ups, etc.

It further expounds that the most significant barriers are: unsupportive tax regimes, unconducive bankruptcy and property rights laws, cumbersome business registration procedures and costs, as well as lack of transparency. Over and above that, competition laws that are ineffective and often, regulatory frameworks changing frequently (ILO, 2006).

Research into the Swazi environment illustrates that the country has an inhibiting business environment, as the country has less purchasing power, due to it being small and having a poverty rate of above 60%, while the time and cost of starting a business is quite high. The inhibiting environment is further attested to by the World Bank's *Ease of Doing Business* Report, where Swaziland has consistently performed poorly (The World Bank, 2017).

Specific challenges under this pillar include: the Swazi land tenure system (access to land) which has numerous issues including idle government and individual farms,

discrimination against women and youth, landlessness and lack of access to water for agricultural purposes; challenges with property rights; the youth not being involved in Government Youth Policy formulation; since most youth are typically less educated than adults, that makes it harder for them to understand and comply with the regulatory environment, such as doing their taxes; high tax rates for SMMEs; an overregulated information and technology sector which makes it hard to innovate; as youth businesses are normally smaller, in relation to the number of employees and turnover, complying with the regulatory environment was discovered to be an added burden, since regulatory costs resemble fixed costs. There is also a perception from the youth that legal requirements for business registration and licence acquisition are challenging, as there are cumbersome administrative processes they have to deal with; the underdeveloped infrastructure and the high cost of production, which includes the unavailability of skilled labour at affordable costs and other costs, such as internet access and the limited reliable statistical information to assist youth to make decisions in the sectors in which they would like to operate (MCIT, 2009; MOSCYA, 2015; Sahee Foundation, 2011; UNDP 2013).

In order to reduce the administrative and regulatory burden, the ILO (2006) suggested that Governments must introduce supportive taxation regulations and rates, streamline business registration procedures whilst lowering their costs, re-draft bankruptcy laws, involve the youth entrepreneurs when changing policies and laws and also provide information, counselling and assistance to the youth, when they are dealing with regulatory issues.

2.3.4.4 Business and support services

Under this pillar, challenges for youth entrepreneurship globally normally include: the lack of business networks or contacts, inadequate network of supplier connections, lack of business development services or knowledge of how to access them, lack of business counselling and training, lack of mentors, lack of networking platforms and even lack of incubation centres or workspace (ILO, 2006).

Similarly, in Swaziland, challenges under this pillar include: inadequate networks to help the youth advance their businesses; inadequate business support services to assist the

youth whilst the available ones, from service providers, are perceived as poor quality. For example, some of the service providers are said to use templates from the internet to formulate business plans and do not customise those templates. Another challenge is the lack of access to information, such as how to draw up a business plan, etc. (MCIT, 2009; MOSCYA, 2015; Sahee Foundation, 2011; UNDP, 2013).

Again the ILO (2006) suggests that to ensure an improved business support and assistance for youth, a needs assessment research would need to be carried out by the country, before providing business skills training, guidance and counselling services as per the assessment results. There should also be mentorship support and business coaching for youth to succeed in business. The Government and partners should also provide working infrastructure, such as business incubators, and promote enterprise integration and business linkages, through working with a youth chamber of commerce and industry, trade association, etc.

2.3.4.5 Access to finance or startup capital

The European Commission and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [hereafter referred to as OECD] (2012), Akhtar, Farooq, Yamin, Amin and Waseem (2016), Shibru (2017), the YBI (2010) and many others cite access to finance as one of the key inhibitor in the youth's entrepreneurial journey. Breaking it down, the ILO (2006) mentions that these challenges are specifically normally in the area of lack of personal savings and resources, or collateral or securities and debt credibility, multifarious credit/financing documentation procedures with long waiting periods for decisions, lack of (successful) micro-lending/-finance and seed funding, and lack of knowledge of financing possibilities, including grants.

Challenges in Swaziland under this pillar, pertain to accessing capital from financial institutions, while the youth have inadequate resources, such as savings and collateral. Banks are said to have a perception that youth are unstable and unreliable and thus present a higher risk; there are also challenges in accessing community grants, such as the Rural Development Fund (RDF) or access to information on how to access them, especially for youth who live away from their home areas, as they do not meet the

residency requirement, normally required by these grants (MCIT, 2009; MOSCYA, 2015; Sahee Foundation, 2011; UNDP, 2013).

To improve access to finance, the ILO (2006) writes that there should be in-depth research carried out on start-up and business finance for young people, following which, the youth should be offered grant finance, debt financing and equity financing by Government working with other stakeholders, such as financial institutions and development partners. Another area to improve is the administrative and regulatory environment for start-up finance. There should also be information and counselling available to youth in business on how one accesses finance.

In the above reviewed literature, only youth education was discussed which warrants a further discussion of the pillar of entrepreneurship education and training, with a special focus now on entrepreneurship training for out-of-school youth. The World Bank, giving guidance, highlighted that youth skills deficient challenges can better be addressed through instituting Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (Valerio, Parton & Robb 2014).

2.3.5 Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (YEDPs)

Raposo and do Paço (2011) and Rasheed (2000) observed that early researchers argued on whether an entrepreneur was born or made. Eser and Özdemirci (2016) and Simpeh (2011) highlighted that the Personality Traits theory states that entrepreneurs are born with certain traits which naturally make them entrepreneurs. However, there are different schools of thoughts in this. Raposo and do Paço (2011) argue that entrepreneurs are not born, but through experience, they become entrepreneurial. They also state that effective entrepreneurial training can impact skills and knowledge. This was supported by Peter Drucker (1985), who asserted that entrepreneurship is not magic, but can be learnt like all other disciplines.

Research however, now largely agrees that the psychological attributes associated with entrepreneurship can be learnt. These attributes include a Need for Achievement, innovation, creativity, risk taking, locus of control, self-esteem, independence and

autonomy, objective setting, self-confidence, energy, and commitment. The W.K. Kellogg Foundation (2006), in addition, highlight that YEDPs can also increase: teamwork, leadership, marshalling of resources, money management skills, ability to identify and assess an opportunity and problem solving skills. This is in agreement with McClelland (1965), who advocated for motivational training to be built into entrepreneurship training programmes.

Nkechi et al. (2012) and Rasheed (2000) suggest that there are other spin-offs associated with entrepreneurship training programmes. Giving an example, they asserted that if the youth's self-esteem, self-control, achievement orientation and creativity or innovation is increased; then it is expected that teenage pregnancies, violence and drug problems will decrease.

According to Shri et al. (2016), Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes have two main roles: to teach business management skills and to increase entrepreneurial aspirations. Entrepreneurship Development Programmes are delivered in two main ways: as in–school programmes, known as entrepreneurship development education, which when defined by FIELD (2008) are entrepreneurship concepts, included in school curricula, and delivered preferably using experiential learning techniques; student created business ventures (encouraged as after-school activities) and entrepreneurship integrated into various courses and disciplines at tertiary institutions. The other way is as out-of-school entrepreneurship development programmes. In accordance with Chigunta (2002), the enterprise development programmes for out-of-school youth, as verified by the available literature, are generally practical training programmes which concentrate on providing entrepreneurship and skills training, capacity building, advocacy and the provision of financial knowledge, together with business development services. Put another way, Entrepreneurship Development Programmes are programmes designed to assist individuals strengthen their entrepreneurial motive and acquire capabilities and skills to facilitate them playing their entrepreneurial role effectively. They are however, not merely just training programmes, as they are comprehensive in nature, designed to enhance skill, knowledge and motivation, instill entrepreneurial behaviour in day-to-day activities. This is a process that sees the entrepreneur actually developing and setting up

their enterprises with emphasis put on entrepreneurial motivation and behaviour. So, a programme that deals with developing business management skills alone, while ignoring entrepreneurial motivation or behaviour, should not be labelled an Entrepreneurship Development Programme (Darzi, 2016; Shri et al., 2016).

In addition, Jakubczak (2015) and the W.K. Kellogg Foundation (2006) emphasise that youth entrepreneurship development programmes can teach the youth to be entrepreneurial, as long as they are properly designed to correct the existing challenges obtained through a proper assessment of the environment. The World Economic Forum (2010) believes that the main role of entrepreneurial education or training is to change mind-sets and culture.

The following section discusses the phases of YEDPs and what each phase entails:

2.3.5.1 Phases of YEDPs

Bhat (2015) and Deshpande (2015) state that YEDPs normally go through the following three phases: 1) Initial or Pre-training Phase; 2) Training or Development Phase and; 3) Post-training or Follow-up Phase. They highlight that these three phases need to be executed well for the YEDP to be effective.

2.3.5.1.1 Initial or Pre-training Phase

Shri et al. (2016) narrate that in this phase, preparations for the launch and implementation of the programme are undertaken. This includes programme development. They say this will be more effective if it includes a needs assessment, to ensure that the programme is designed in a way to make the most impact in developing the required skills, which include entrepreneurial aspirations. An analysis of the country's high-growth economic sectors can enable the programme to focus on a specific sector, and target youth interested in that sector, so that the programme will have the highest impact on the economy. Criteria for selecting the most entrepreneurial candidates should be set out in this phase. As one of the YEDP's main functions is to assist the participants analyse the environment, to come up with unique and innovative businesses, with the

potential of high growth, carrying out a business opportunity survey, analysed in the context of the specific target market, at this stage, can assist in the achievement of the above mentioned objective.

Schaumburg-Müller et al. (2010) pointed out that targeting is generally a highly debated issue in industrial policy, but there is broad agreement that direct state intervention can provide high benefits when governance structures are right. There should be a policy which directs where there will be promotion of certain sectors, such as high-growth sectors. Literature points out that the YEDPs should ensure to offer an integrated package, since more often than not, markets will not function properly, and direct support will be needed to stimulate private initiatives, including entrepreneurship through access to skills, markets and finance, and to knowledge and technology information. Additional observations related to interventions underlined the need for studying the specific context and institutional environment for entrepreneurship development when designing interventions and programmes. Different forms and levels of support are also needed, depending on the type of entrepreneurs, i.e. start-up entrepreneurs establishing a firm; existing firms that cannot expand due to horizontal and vertical obstacles or necessity entrepreneurs who are entrepreneurs because of lack of options for work. If this planning phase is done properly, the next phases should be easier and lead to the success of the YEDP.

After the programme design in the initial phase, it will then need to be implemented in the second phase of training and development.

2.3.5.1.2 Training or Development Phase

Under this phase, Bhat (2015), Deshpande (2015) and Shri et al. (2016) state that the main objective of this phase is to bring about the desirable entrepreneurial behaviour by developing the Need for Achievement, or entrepreneurial aspirations, in the programme participants. This phase will execute the plans put in place in the initial phase. At the end of this phase, the trainer has to do the initial evaluation on whether there has been a change of behaviour or not. After the training has been implemented, the post-training or follow up phase is initiated.

2.3.5.1.3 Post-training or Follow-up Phase

According to Bhat (2015), Deshpande (2015) and Shri et al. (2016), the follow up phase is about the support given to the participant to actually start or expand their businesses. This involves facilitating the provision of finance, production assets, infrastructure, access to markets, etc. It also involves counselling and handholding the participants as they implement their business ventures.

This phase also involves the collection of data and monitoring the progress of the trainees. It usually stretches up to six to eight months and in some cases, even up to one year. Usually, follow-up action meetings are organised three times a year after the completion of training and various methods are used for follow-up, such as postal questionnaire, telephonic follow-up, personal contact by trainer, group meetings, etc. This phase involves assessment of the objectives of the programme. It also reviews the pre-training work, the process of the training programme and post training approach. It is necessary to see the extent to which objectives of the programme have been achieved. There is a need to assess how many participants have actually started their own enterprises after completing the training (Bhat, 2015; Deshpande, 2015; Shri et al., 2016).

There are essential elements of YEDP which ensure their success. These are listed in the section that follows.

2.3.5.2 Objectives of YEDPs

According to Deshpande (2015), the aim of YEDPs are to 1) develop entrepreneurial traits, attitude and behaviour; 2) impart the knowledge required to succeed as an entrepreneur, this includes developing the technical, financial, marketing and managerial skills; 3) to provide information to the entrepreneurs on available assistance from all key stakeholder for SMME development and; 4) to result in the development of a product or service to be used in starting or expanding an enterprise. This is the main reason YEDPs are normally implemented through continuous training and motivation. Bhat (2015) highlights though, that the socio-economic environment where the entrepreneurs operate, should also be improved as the entrepreneur is empowered.

Shri et al. (2016) add that YEDPs are used primarily to develop first generation entrepreneurs who will struggle to succeed without assistance. This is why there are so many Entrepreneurship Development Programmes targeted at the youth. They further assert that it is important for the entrepreneur to succeed because they are the catalytic agents in industrialisation, who pool all resources to create and sustain an enterprise, thus ensuring job creation, economic growth and economic development.

2.3.5.3 Course Content/Curriculum of a YEDP

Shri et al. (2016) estimate that the average period for a YEDP is around six weeks, with some courses running between three weeks to six months, with a course content that is in line with the YEDP's objectives. They then suggested what the course content could include.

2.3.5.3.1 General Introduction to Entrepreneurship

According to Deshpande (2015), here the participants should be given a general knowledge of entrepreneurship. The role of the entrepreneur, his attributes, behaviour and its importance to the country's economic growth and development should be broken down. Then, factors affecting SMMEs and services available for the establishment of SMMEs should be highlighted**.**

a) Achievement Motivation Training

Deshpande (2015) wrote that whether the youth are starting or expanding existing businesses, this is a crucial part of any YEDP. The objective of this part of the training is to develop the need and strong desire to achieve, so the training should develop this attribute. It is also meant to develop the participants' self-awareness and confidence.

b) Management Skill

As per Deshpande (2015), youth normally run SMMEs and might not have the needed management skills such as planning, organisation, supervision, leadership and co-ordination. They might also not have the basic managerial skills such as production,

operations, marketing, finance, etc. The training needs to help impact that to ensure the success of the youth enterprise.

c) Support Systems and Procedures

YEDPs then give training on the support systems and institutions, and the procedures the youth require for business establishment or growth. This involves inviting the institutions such as Banks, National Revenue Services, industrial service corporations, etc. to make presentations (Deshpande, 2015). Darzi (2016) asserts that Entrepreneurship Development training is normally impactful when linked to access to finance and other essential services such as marketing, quality assurance and productivity improvement. The programmes can partner with banks and utilise the banks' expertise for business plan appraisal.

d) Market Survey

Deshpande (2015) submit that many programmes go beyond teaching the theory of how to conduct a market survey, but to actually support participants to conduct market surveys, so they can select a relevant product or service for their business and use it in the business plan.

YEDPs internationally provide the participants with guidelines on the effective analysis of feasibility or viability of a project, appraising it looking at marketing, organisation, technical, financial and social aspects and how to produce the report. Normally, the objective is to produce a business plan at the end of the programme, prepared by the participants with the guidance of the trainer, mentors and local entrepreneurs (Deshpande, 2015).

e) Technical Knowledge and Skills

Once the participant chooses a certain enterprise or is already in a certain sector, then they should be given an in-depth technical knowledge of that sector and type of enterprise; this is one of the reasons why a YEDP should not have their curriculum cast in stone (Shri et al., 2016).

f) Field Visits

This is another important aspect of the training as it familiarises the participants with real life as a small business owner. This exposes them to an entrepreneur's behaviour, personality and aspirations (Shri et al., 2016).

g) Meet an Entrepreneur

As per Shri et al. (2016), entrepreneur speakers attending the training to motivate the young entrepreneurs help to raise their aspirations to succeed as entrepreneurs, making this aspect of the training essential as well. The entrepreneur speakers should be informed that the objective of the YEDP training is to assist the young people to start and grow dynamic fast growing businesses so they can also emphasise the importance of innovation and growth in business.

h) Efficient Organisations for the support of the YEDP

Whether it is the State, an NGO or a private company providing the YEDP, it is important for the YEDP to be provided under a conducive organisational policy. The organisation has to be developmental in nature, great at working with numerous stakeholders, flexible and have business connections, in order to facilitate the mentorship aspect of the programme, and have adequate resources, including human resources to implement the programme (Shri et al., 2016).

i) Evaluation of the YEDPs

According to Chowdhary and Prakash (2010), YEDPs should be evaluated by looking at the achievement of programme objectives (which should include the objective of creating innovative and growing enterprises), selection strategy and procedures, training programme, organisational strategy and organisational procedures, as these programmes are normally implemented within the ambits of a certain organisation.

In India, when YEDPs were evaluated, studies found that there was poor performance in terms of producing graduates who go on to actually start enterprises. A comprehensive study carried out by the Entrepreneurship Development Institute of India in 1996 showed that only about 26% go on to start enterprises after the training (these though, were not categorised on whether they were innovative, growing or internationalised). The 26% was

an average as the different states had widely variating start-up rates, ranging from 9% to 56%. This shows that internationally Entrepreneurship Development Programmes are still struggling to reach the forecast impact (Awasthi & Sebastian, 1996).

McClelland and Winter (1971) proposed that Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (EDPs) be evaluated against the following; a) The level of activity of the EDP Participants; b) established new businesses; c) the amount of total investment they made on their enterprise; d) the total investment made in fixed assets; e) the number of employees hired; f) the number of jobs created; g) the total profit increment; h) the total increase in sales; i) the improvement in the quality of product/service and the improved time in repayment of loans.

For YEDPs to be successful, Chowdhary and Prakash (2010, p. 59) propose that:

> Entrepreneurship development must be treated as a process leading to creation of an entrepreneurial mind set and a general climate rather than a product targeted at individuals. It should not be a once-off product, rather it should be a continuous process delivered though an institutionalised mechanism involving all stakeholders.

The following section focuses on the Swaziland Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes under study in this research.

2.3.5.4 Youth Enterprise Development Programmes in Swaziland

Schaumburg-Müller et al. (2010, pp.4-5) write:

> Appropriate training is key for entrepreneurs. Many entrepreneurs have limited education and cannot take academic executive courses and full-time education. Again training needs depend on the type of entrepreneurs in question. For smaller enterprises there may be a need for a holistic approach to entrepreneurship

development with “wrap around” and mentorship services – an approach which however is difficult and costly to scale up. Other possibilities include short term modules on relevant issues tailored to the needs of small entrepreneurs. More generally the whole education system could be much more entrepreneurship oriented implemented throughout the educational system as life-skill education.

The above statement resonates with Swaziland as a country since most of the youth entrepreneurs have small enterprises and need a holistic approach in assisting them, which includes mentorship (UNDP, 2013). Therefore, Swaziland has put in place several in and out-of-school youth entrepreneurship development programmes. The following section unpacks the three main programmes under study in this research, namely: The Believe Begin Become (BBB) Business Plan Competition, the Youth Enterprise Fund and the Kickstart.

2.3.5.4.1 Believe Begin Become (BBB)

TechnoServe (2009), states that Swaziland first launched the BBB Competition in 2006. The BBB was run by TechnoServe, an International Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO), and funded by USAID. This competition identified promising entrepreneurs and assisted them in creating sustainable business ventures. The programme advertised for interested Swazis to submit concept notes. Qualifying individuals were then taken through rigorous business training, received mentorship, were assisted in writing business plans and could create business networks, as well as compete for seed or expansion capital for their business enterprises (TechnoServe, 2009). This was a national competition open to both youth and adults.

In 2009, however, the BBB partnered with: USAID, Standard Bank, the Times of Swaziland, the Swaziland Television Authority, the Africa Cooperative Action Trust, the Swaziland National Youth Council and the Swaziland Broadcasting and Information Service to bring a programme targeting only the youth of the country (TechnoServe, 2009). This programme is discussed in the following section by reviewing its phases and key aspects.

- **Initial or Pre-training Phase**

As per TechnoServe (2009), in this phase, the programme was designed and the target group was set as youth aged between 18–30 years. The objective was also set, which was to develop a calibre of high impact young entrepreneurs who would assist the nation's SMME sector realise its potential. The prize money, based on funding, was also decided on. Here the grand prize winner was to receive a start-up or expansion grant of E100, 000.00, the next five winners were to receive business grants of E75, 000.00 each, and the last 10 winners were to receive E30, 000.00 each (TechnoServe, 2009; UNDP, 2013). So, not all the trained youth received funding, only the winners were funded, as this was a competition.

The programme then went on to set an eligibility criteria for participating, which was: being a Swazi citizen or permanent resident of Swaziland; to be within the above mentioned age; to submit the application by the application deadline, which was the 20th of March 2009; to have a new innovative business idea or an existing innovative idea based in Swaziland; lastly, the applicants were to have a clean credit history. It was then underscored that prerequisites were that the business be in Swaziland and that it had to create at least five new jobs within two years of winning the funding (TechnoServe, 2009).

According to TechnoServe (2009), still under the initial phase, the application and selection process was also developed and disseminated as follows: the youth had to submit completed application forms to TechnoServe. TechnoServe then evaluated the applications, conducted interviews and selected 60 youth to undergo the BBB training.

TechnoServe also developed the BBB application guide which was made up of eight pages that explained the nature of the competition, its benefits, the eligibility criteria, the application process, it also mentioned the sponsors, had a section which captured the demographic information of the participants, and a section where the applicant was expected to present a business proposal and a business summary (TechnoServe, 2009).

In this initial phase, TechnoServe further developed the training curriculum which was used to conduct the YEDP Training.

- **Training or Development Phase**:

The YEDP, using the curriculum, carried out practical training during this phase. This curriculum had a wide range of topics, such as: entrepreneurship and business plan basics, building a foundation, strategic planning, marketing, finance, keys to financial success, management, planning and realisation, presentation skills, business plan writing and doing business in Swaziland (TechnoServe, 2009). This booklet also served as a participant workbook for practical work during the training. Finally, it gave the evaluation criteria for the competition, for both the written business plan and the oral presentation. The curriculum booklet went on to highlight the selection criteria for the winners of the business plan competition, which stated that only those with innovative business ideas looking to create jobs, who have a positive community impact and who continue to grow could win the competition and get seed funding (TechnoServe, 2009).

The training was done on a part time basis, and lasted a few weeks. It was coupled with mentorship, which assisted with the business plan development. This training was flexible and invited several stakeholders, such as banks, to make presentations to the youth. The training and mentorship culminated in the youth writing and submitting business plans for the BBB Business Plan Competition. The youth then went through oral presentations of their business plans. TechnoServe assessed the written business plans and oral presentations to select the winners of the competition (TechnoServe, 2009).

- **Post-training or Follow-up Phase:**

According to TechnoServe (2009), the winners received seed capital awards which were dispersed in installments to them, according to the investment expenditure outlined in their business plans. The winners did not receive cash for their awards, but all payments were made directly by TechnoServe to the suppliers, upon verification of the invoice received from the winners. The winners were then enrolled in an aftercare programme where they received technical support to start and grow their businesses, to receive mentoring and their progress was monitored and the business performance evaluated. All the trained youth, including winners, were then encouraged to participate in a BBB Alumni Club for association and networking (TechnoServe, 2009).

The BBB seem to be the only programme whose adequacy in training has been evaluated. When Arubayi (2010) evaluated it, he concluded that its approach to small business training was appropriate to meeting the identified needs of small business owners and entrepreneurs in Swaziland.

2.3.5.4.2 Youth Enterprise Fund (YEF)

Understanding that high levels of unemployment give rise to societal ills, such as: poverty, HIV/AIDS and drug abuse, the Swazi Government prioritised job creation and skills development amongst out-of-school youth. As a means to develop entrepreneurial skills, expose the youth to success stories, create linkages with the corporations and youth enterprises and create entrepreneurship awards, His Majesty King Mswati III set up a youth empowerment fund, known as the Youth Enterprise Fund, in 2008 (MOSCYA, 2011; The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011). The mission of the Youth Enterprise Fund was "to facilitate the creation of sustainable employment and empowerment opportunities to the youth between the ages 18-35 through the provision of seed capital and business development services" (MOSCYA, 2011, p.5).

The Youth Enterprise Fund programme is discussed in the following section by reviewing its phases and key aspects.

- **Initial or Pre-training Phase**

In the initial or pre-training phase, the Youth Enterprise Fund (YEF) Strategic Plan was developed, giving a guide on how the programme was to be implemented. As stated in the YEF's strategic plan, first, the objectives of this fund were set. It had several objectives, which include: a) to empower the youth in Swaziland to engage in entrepreneurship; b) to empower the youth to be self-employed; c) to facilitate the provision of skills development; d) to provide seed and business growth capital to youth without requiring collateral; and e) to provide mentorship to enterprises owned by the youth (MOSCYA, 2011).

The target groups or selection criteria were then set. According to the Ministry of Sports, Culture and Youth Affairs (2011), this fund targeted all youth in Swaziland, entrepreneurial or not.

A decision was also made, during this phase, to use existing structures to facilitate the implementation of this programme. So the YEF used existing traditional Government structures, known as Constituencies (*Tinkhundla*). Following which, a loan application procedure to be followed when implementing this programme, was put in place. As documented in the Youth Enterprise Fund Corporate Strategy (2011), this procedure is as follows: a) application forms are collected by the youth from Constituencies; b) forms are completed and returned to Constituencies; c) the Youth Enterprise Fund collects applications from Constituencies; d) the Youth Enterprise Fund records applications and passes them on to the Partner; e) the Partner assesses, shortlists applicants and recommends them to the Fund's Board of Directors for approval; f) applications are then returned to the Partner with the Board's approval; g) the Partner issues letters of approval to successful youth; h) the Youth Enterprise Fund (YEF) Office distributes approval letters to Constituencies; i) training of Youth is undertaken by the Partner; j) disbursement of funds by the Partner is undertaken; the Partner monitors and reports to the YEF Board of Directors on performance on a monthly basis (MOSCYA, 2011).

An application form, as per the MOSCYA (2010), was also developed and taken to the constituencies, as mentioned above. This form was in both English and SiSwati: the two official languages of Swaziland. The form was seven pages long and made up of seven sections. The first section solicited demographic information. The second section solicited details of the Company being operated by the youth. The third section was to be filled if the youth did not own a company but had an association, which they were using as a vehicle for income generation. The fourth section sought to know more about the business that was being run/proposed and its needs. This section functioned as a "mini business plan". The youth were expected to describe their project, which included the number of people for whom it would provide jobs and its community impact. It culminated with the youth being asked how much they were borrowing. They were then told to attach quotations which substantiated their financial request. The fifth section solicited borrowing

history and if there were still outstanding loans. Section six requested references, which were expected to include the youth's parent/guardian and the constituency (*inkhundla*). The last section was a comments section for official use.

Still in the initial phase, the evaluation criteria were then set and a training curriculum put in place.

- ***Training or Development Phase****:*

The curriculum was then used to train the youth who had applied and had been accepted into the programme. Topics covered by the curriculum included: Planning your production; Understanding yourself as an entrepreneur; Managing employees: how and why; Turning ideas into businesses; Growing your business; Understanding the money part of business; Common money management mistakes; Doing business in Swaziland; Accessing finance (if you really need it) and; Improving sales through smart marketing (Imbita, 2011) .

- ***Post-training or Follow-up Phase:***

After the training, funding (in the form of loans), was then disbursed to all those who underwent the training. The loans were disbursed as follows, regardless of how much capital the business actually needed: Individuals - up to E20, 000.00; Companies with at least three Directors - up to E50, 000.00, and Associations with up to 10 members - up to E100, 000.00.

The fund was discharged in phases. In 2010 the first phase was completed with 499 youth accessing loans to the tune of E5.8 million. To date, this fund has facilitated the training of about 1,500 youth (MOSCYA, 2011).

The YEF has however faced challenges of adequate capitalisation, as the demand for this loan was way above its capitalisation, which was solely from the Government (MOSCYA, 2011). The UNDP (2013) further elaborated that this fund also faced low repayment rates from the youth, as some youth started and failed in their enterprises. This situation was mostly as a result of the youth receiving fewer funds than they had requested in their business plans, poor monitoring and poor selection criteria. The YEF

will have to find ways of sourcing more funds instead of depending on Government funds since these are unstable.

The operations of this fund are however currently suspended, as Government is still restructuring how it will operate hence forth.

2.3.5.4.3 Kickstart Competition

Swaziland Beverages is a privately owned company in Swaziland, in charge of implementing the Kickstart Competition. The Kickstart is a youth entrepreneurship development programme which was launched by South African Breweries in May 1995. In March 2010, Swaziland Beverages also launched the Kickstart, as a corporate social investment initiative (Swaziland Beverages, 2017).

Swaziland Beverages (2017) states that the Kickstart competition is a practical, business plan writing programme, targeted at encouraging the Swazi youth to engage in entrepreneurship. The Kickstart competition, targets Swazi youth aged 18 – 35 years. This YEDP is the only prominent youth entrepreneurship development programme undertaken by the private sector in the country. Over and above training and funding youth entrepreneurs, the programme also focuses on recruiting young entrepreneurs whose businesses have potential to become suppliers to Swaziland Beverages. The intention is always to empower the youth with the specific know-how to commercialise their innovations.

The following section comprises a review of the Kickstart Programme's phases and key aspects.

- **Initial or Pre-training Phase**

In its initial phase, which is the design phase, the Kickstart instituted its goals, which according to the Swaziland Beverages (2017), are to; a) leverage the company's influence and resources to contribute towards Government's goal of developing communities; b) use entrepreneurial development to alleviate the high youth unemployment and poverty; c) create opportunities for the youth that show resolve,

creativity, commitment and hard work; d) provide youth entrepreneurs with the skills and means to own their companies for SMME and entrepreneurship development; e) encourage the formation and growth of new enterprises that are sustainable and have the capacity to compete in a competitive market place.

In administering this programme, systems were first put in place on how it was to be implemented. It was decided that the programme would advertise for youth to hand in concept notes. This stage currently normally attracts more than 500 youth. It was then decided that a certain number of youth would then be selected and taken through a 10-day training programme. The trained youth were then going to be subsequently required to hand in business plans to participate in the competition. The company also decided during the programme design phase, on how the business plans would be judged to select the winners of the competition, who would then receive start-up or expansion grants (Nkambule, 2011). An application form was then developed and a decision made to have it online, but to also allow other youth to collect it from the Swaziland Beverages Offices (Swaziland Beverages, 2017).

The online application form describes what this YEDP is and how it assists the youth. The form solicits the business proposal from the youth, which is an extensive summarised business plan. The applicants are also asked to upload certified identity documents, their curriculum vitae, financial statements and management accounts for existing businesses. The last section of the form is made up of the rules of the competition. It was also decided to outsource the training to an academic institution, which developed a curriculum, they believed was to increase the entrepreneurial spirit of the youth.

- **Training or Development Phase**:

As per Swaziland Beverages (2017), a practical and flexible training was undertaken. To prove that the training was flexible, and was according to the needs of the young people, the extensive curriculum was substantiated by notes highlighting additional topics. The curriculum covered topics such as: introduction to entrepreneurship, strategic planning, business plans, legal issues, financial management, human resource management, marketing, operations management, product certification, introduction to taxation, ICT and E-Commerce and presentation skills. This training invited relevant organisations to

make presentations on how youth can comply with the country's legalities. These organisations included the Swaziland National Provident Fund, the Swaziland Revenue Authority, etc.

Under the introduction to entrepreneurship topic the youth participants were taught topics such as the attributes of an entrepreneur and the different types of entrepreneurs; they specified a lifestyle and high growth entrepreneur.

To date, this programme has trained about 420 youth.

- **Post-training or Follow-up Phase:**

The support provided by Swaziland Beverages to the winning enterprises is in the form of grants. These grants are however not in monetary form but are fixed assets requested by the youth to help their businesses thrive. Twelve months mentorship and monitoring is part of the package to the winning businesses with the intention of creating sustainable youth businesses (Swaziland Beverages, 2017).

The following sections of this study highlight international best practices on YEDPs, which ensure YEDPs are successful in increasing the youth's entrepreneurial aspirations. These best practices are taken largely from Chigunta (2002), Deshpande (2015), and The W.K. Kellogg Foundation (2006)'s perspectives. Chigunta (2002) took lessons from the most successful programmes – the *Imprenditorialita Giovanile* (IG) S.p.A in Italy and the Prince's Trust Business (PTB) in the United Kingdom, while the W. K. Kellogg Foundation carried out field research and compiled a Youth Entrepreneurship Background Paper in 2006.

2.3.5.5 Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes Best Practices

From the above mentioned Programmes, Chingunta (2002) learnt that a YEDP has to set **Clear Objectives.** He explains that a YEDP should not attempt to combine social and economic goals, because this multiplicity normally leads to failure. He further said most programmes that succeed have commercial instead of social goals, this means the youth should understand that the programmes are not social welfare, they are there to ensure they develop entrepreneurial competencies and aspirations. In agreement with Chigunta,

the W.K. Kellogg Foundation (2006) added that clear objectives should be accompanied by clear expected outcomes, such as specifying whether the programme expects academic success or wealth creation so that the programme design and implementation will be towards delivering those objectives and outcomes. The W.K. Kellogg Foundation (2006) also added that it is essential for the programme to be realistic and modest about expectations of the targeted impact or outcome, since research shows that the percentage of the youth population which is ready to undertake entrepreneurship is minimal. The Foundation emphasised though, that people running YEDPs should have confidence in a young person's ability to succeed.

Proper targeting and selection – since this study explained in the first Chapter just how diverse youth is, this best practice specifies that it is important to identify that youth possess different skills, experiences, status, needs, aspirations and capacity, etc. Van Praag, (1999). Deshpande (2015), in addition, explain that these differences should be identified and acknowledged, whilst Schaumburg-Müller et al. (2010) further postulate that entrepreneurship is not for everyone, so in order to improve the success rate, proper targeting and selection of those with potential should be prioritised.

According to Chigunta (2002), another best practice is to ensure the programme has **adequate funding** for its implementation and is **sustainable**. In order to be sustainable, the YEDP should be able to access a lot of funding whilst not relying on a single source. YEDPs can have internal investments, access Government funding and do fund raising.

Chigunta (2002) learnt that it is important to have **well-trained and properly supported staff** for the YEDP Operations. He says highly trained, professional and well supported staff are always better placed to execute their duties effectively. He then mentioned that research shows that lack of entrepreneurial and technically competent staff in the YEDPs is the major factor which results in their failure.

Flexible and adaptable operation style leads to success while rigid administrative procedures result in failure of the YEDPs in many countries (Chigunta, 2002). Deshpande (2015) in agreement, add that there should be a needs assessment to show the requirement of every participant, which must be considered in the syllabus development.

They further highlight that strengths and weaknesses of the participants should be recognised, together with their family background. This information will assist during the individual business counselling. In addition, the W.K Kellogg Foundation emphasises the need to make the training more experiential in order to develop the appropriate entrepreneurial knowledge, skills, and attitudes, which is why it is recommended to limit the classroom setting training and conduct more authentic adult relationships and role models, hands-on experience, and exposure to real economic risks.

The W.K. Kellogg Foundation (2006) agreed that there must be a **Reliance on appropriate 'micro' delivery mechanisms** in the locality or region to deliver the services of the YEDP. Some make use of the local and regional schemes and private and public institutions such as universities and local authorities. There must also be **Reliance on local business specialists** to provide specialised business knowledge or experience. These should be called upon to mentor, provide informal advice or train the young entrepreneurs.

Chigunta (2002) mentioned that participation in the YEDP must be **initiative-based,** which means the initiative to participate should come from the young people and not imposed by the programme, if this is not the case, research has proven that the youth enterprises will not survive.

Deshpande (2015) and Schaumburg-Müller et al. (2010) warn that the YEDPs have to provide an **'integrated' package for youth** or they will not succeed. This means there should be a wide range of services provided instead of taking a minimalist approach. These services can include skills training, advice, mentorship, business support, financial services, access to markets and assisting with facilitating an enabling environment, such as infrastructure improvement, improvement of tax laws and facilitating buy-local campaigns.

Customer-centred loans – Chigunta (2002) asserts that while group borrowing, such as in the Grameen model is common, individualised loans can work as well, as long as these are aligned with the individual's needs.

Another best practice is that of providing **mentorship.** These should be highly effective programmes designed to provide the youth with the relevant custom-made advice on how to succeed in business. This assists the youth to overcome the environmental constraints, the limited business experience and lack of networks. Research has shown that many developing countries feel they have a shortage of ethical mentors, according to Chigunta (2002). Chigunta (2002) further observed that an OECD report highlighted that the common downfall of most YEDPs was them phasing out their aftercare services after about a year of operations of a start-up project. This is a period when businesses start to grow, so these programmes miss the opportunity to assist the businesses grow and make a large contribution to the country's economy. A similar observation was made by Schaumburg-Müller et al. (2010) and the World Economic forum (2010).

Lastly, Chigunta (2002) cites a **supportive policy environment,** from both the Government and the organisation implementing the programme, as a best practice. He explained that favourable changes in the regulatory environment are an enabling factor, especially in developing countries. For a successful implementation of the YEDP, institutional support is imperative. The accessibility of adequate financing released timeously assist in implementing the YEDP effectively and efficiently (Deshpande, 2015). As for the **State,** whether they are involved directly or not, they play a major role of either providing funds and other support, or just creating a conducive environment for entrepreneurship development. Other best practices include intergenerational transfers, risk management and equity, where previously disadvantaged groups, such as women, are targeted (Chigunta, 2002).

The purpose of this study is to investigate the perceived impact of youth entrepreneurship development programmes on entrepreneurial aspirations of the youth in Swaziland. This involves examining the relationship between the youth's entrepreneurial aspirations, and youth entrepreneurship development programmes. Before discussing the relationship between these two variables, this study first discusses what they are, starting with a consideration of the dependent variable, namely Entrepreneurial Aspirations.

2.4 Entrepreneurial Businesses and Entrepreneurial Aspirations

Shane, Locke and Collins (2003), in making a case for aspirations, argued that one cannot expect to win a game if they are not playing. In essence therefore, if one does not aspire to be entrepreneurial (run an innovative, fast-growing or internationalised business) s/he cannot become that, since being entrepreneurial comprises taking conscious decisions, which involves positively evaluating an opportunity, organising resources and pursuing that opportunity.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) measures entrepreneurial aspirations across the globe annually. The Global Entrepreneurship and Development Index (GEDI) also measures entrepreneurial aspirations as one of its three sub-indexes. In 2016, the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) celebrated 18 years of tracking entrepreneurial activity in both developing and developed countries across 62 economies (GEM, 2017).

For the GEM, entrepreneurial aspirations are made up of innovation, growth expectation, and internationalisation factors, also known as impact factors (GEM, 2012). The GEDI, under entrepreneurial aspiration, measures risk capital, internationalisation, high growth, new tech, and new product orientation (process and product innovation) (SBA, 2010).

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (2008), cited a study by Godin et al. (2008), which identified six common elements of entrepreneurship which could be abridged to three: entrepreneurial attitudes, entrepreneurial activity and entrepreneurial aspiration. The GEM then explained that these three are interlinked, such that a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship may increase entrepreneurial activity and aspiration, which will in turn, affect attitudes positively, as more positive role models appear. The GEM further said it is known that positive aspirations may change the nature of activity, and in turn, change attitudes.

In defining Entrepreneurial aspiration, the GEM (2012) states that it is the desire to run an enterprise characterised by innovation, high growth expectation and

internationalisation. Hessels et al. (2008) simply define entrepreneurial aspirations as motivation for being a founder of a business. In 2008, the GEM report said entrepreneurs differ in their aspirations to introduce new products; introduce new production processes; develop a significant organisation; to engage with foreign markets and to fund growth with external capital. It is hypothesised that if aspirations are realised, entrepreneurial activity can have a considerable economic impact. Product and process innovation, internationalisation, and ambition for high growth, are regarded as pillars of ambitious or high-aspiration entrepreneurship (GEM, 2008).

Hessels et al. (2008) submit that when trying to understand entrepreneurial outcomes, it is essential to understand the role entrepreneurial aspirations play. In addition, the GEM report (2012) argued that aspiration or ambition in individuals is essential for a country's development. In most cases, it is only a few new fast-growing small firms, which contribute to job creation. In addition to that, ambitious entrepreneurs have different reactions to regulatory and legal changes to those who are not ambitious, which leads to success, regardless of the external business environment.

Alam and Hossan (2003) wrote that aspirations, as in this study, are rooted in the McClelland's theory of the Need for Achievement. They wrote that the Need for Achievement can be equated to entrepreneurial ambition, which is the same as entrepreneurial aspiration. McClelland proposed that if the Need for Achievement were high in a society, then the level of entrepreneurship would also be high, since a Need for Achievement would encourage one to set tough goals then work hard to attain them using all kinds of skills and abilities. He further alleged that the inner drive of a person impels them to achieve more. Lastly, he suggested that the level of Need for Achievement could be increased in a person, through training.

According to McClelland (1961), developing countries normally have a low achievement motivation due to a low level of ambition. That is why ambition or aspiration should be increased in developing countries. Only then, it is suggested, can the entrepreneurial spirit be generated and economic growth accelerated (Mohanty, 2005). This he proved in

the Kakinada experiment which resulted in a high degree of motivation and in turn the Need for Achievement, as discussed in Chapter one.

This study may seem to have a conceptual challenge when it conflates entrepreneurial aspirations with the actual ownership of entrepreneurial businesses. This however, need not be the case as other similar concepts, such as work motivation, job performance and job satisfaction, are commonly conflated.

Luthans (1998, as cited in Ahmed, 2011) defined motivation as a process which stimulates, invigorates, guides and sustains behavior and performance. “Motivation is considered as a predictor of job performance” (Said, Zaidee, Zahari, Ali & Salleh, 2015, p.632), as much as entrepreneurial aspirations are a predictor of operating an entrepreneurial business. Afful-Broni (2012), Moorhead and Griffin (1998) and Van Niekerk (1987) argued that employee performance is brought about by the combination of capacity, work environment and motivation. Motivation is however the key ingredient because studies have shown that even if employees have work objectives, the necessary skills and supportive work environment, they will however not achieve their objectives without adequate work motivation (Mullins, 2006).

Allen and Wright (2007, as cited in Adu, Ashie, Okyireh & Boakye, 2016) and Choo and Bowley (2007) with Ifinedo (2003) further underscored the significance of motivation of employees, highlighting that motivated employees are willing to go an extra mile to achieve organisational goals.

As is the case with entrepreneurial aspirations, work motivation, according to Afful-Broni (2012) is the principle that empowers employees to focus on achieving success, irrespective of the challenges they come across.

Pinder (1998) highlighted that work motivation is an unseen construct which can only be measured in observable manifestations. Aspirations are also invisible and tracking the establishment of entrepreneurial businesses is one of the ways their manifestation can be measured.

Buchanan (2006, as cited in Afful-Broni (2012) state that organizational psychologists have been researching the relationship between work motivation and job performing for more than 50 years and most studies have demonstrated a positive relationship. These studies include a study conducted with 160 school teachers in Pakistan by Shahzadi, Javed, Pirzada, Nasreen and Khanam (2014), a study of 214 civil servants in Nigeria (David & Eguzoikpe, 2014) and a study of 210 employees by Sipahutar, Wibowo, Umar, and Riady (2016) in Indonesia. Studies by Jalagat (2016) and A. Ali, Bin, Piang and Z. Ali (2016) took it a step further to prove a positive relationship between motivation, job performance and job satisfaction.

2.4.1 Innovative businesses and Innovation Aspirations

Schumpeter (1911) seminally considered innovation as the process of doing more using fewer resources. Schumpeter (1934) argued that an entrepreneur was not a manager of a firm but instead, its leader, the innovator and key in economic development. He integrated technology and business, in that technology would result in innovation. He also integrated the psychological theory of entrepreneurship to the economic one. He mentioned that being an entrepreneur requires a rare attitude and a particular conduct as entrepreneurs innovate because they possess scarce motivating forces (ambition) and a willingness to show deviating behaviour (IRMA USA, 2017; Ricketts, 2006; Shri et al., 2016; Stam, 2018; Van Praag, 1999).

According to Schumpeter, an entrepreneur seeks opportunities to make profit by introducing new combinations/ innovations in the market. The introductions of these then disrupt the economy equilibrium and create a new equilibrium. On-going innovations would thus create on-going changes in the equilibrium, created by the change in supply and demand, resulting to the economy being in a perpetual disequilibrium (Chell, 2001; Kanungo, 1998; Shri et al., 2016; Van Praag, 1999).

Schumpeter (1934), stated that innovation involved: a) introduction of a new good or service; b) introduction of a new method of production; c) inaugurating a new market, acquiring a new source of supply of raw materials or d) implementing a new organisation. The OECD, in agreement with Van Praag's definition, labelled the above breakdown as

methods of innovation. Breaking down these methods, the OECD (2011) submitted that there are four types of innovations. These are: **Product innovation**: referring to the introduction of a novel product or service, or one with significant improvements in terms of its intended use or characteristics; **Process innovation:** the execution of a new or considerably improved method of delivery or production; **Marketing innovation:** this involves the implementation of a new marketing method. It also involves significant changes in the design or packaging of a product, where the product is placed, and how the product is priced and promoted; **Organisational innovation:** this involves the implementation of a new organisational method in the firm's business practices, organisation of the workplace or organisation of external relations. The OECD (2011) mentioned that there are also complementary innovation strategies which refer to instituting both technological and non-technological innovations. Drucker (1985) agreed with the methods of innovations as per the OECD view, he highlighted that innovation methods are not always technical or scientific. He then added that one should always be on the lookout even for social innovation opportunities.

Drucker (1985) further proposed that in order to take advantage of an innovation opportunity, the following is necessary: an unexpected event, failure or success, the incongruences between reality, as it is assumed to be, and as it is, innovation as a result of process need, unexpected surprising changes in the industry or market structure; demographic changes; perception changes and new scientific and non-scientific knowledge.

Estrin, Korosteleva and Mickiewicz (2014), following up on Schumpeter's innovation theory, argued that innovation is a complex phenomenon since it can take many forms. it can either be an invention with a new product or service introduced to the market or the replacing of obsolete technology, thus the process of creative destruction advocated by Schumpeter (1911), which is the primary cause for growth. They further explained that these types of innovations cannot happen without expenditure in Research and Development (R&D) and then commercialisation of technological discoveries by entrepreneurs. Further to that, they proposed innovation can also take a simpler arrangement which is often consisting merely in exploiting a market niche that has not

been exploited yet, via replication of technologies developed elsewhere. Estrin et al. (2014) then explained that this type of innovation causes creative imitation which then contributes to technological upgrading and growth without having to incur costs in R&D. He concluded by highlighting that both these types of innovations have been shown to benefit economic growth. The GEM (2012) speculated that Sub-Saharan African youth is characterised by the latter type of innovation. Alvarez and Busenitz (2001) however, contradicting Estrin et al.'s point on innovation taking the form of invention, argued that Schumpeter (1934) separated invention with innovation, and defined invention as a discovery of an opportunity whilst innovation was defined as the exploitation of a profitable opportunity. They further highlighted that differentiation of the two terms helps one not to focus on the market but on the role of entrepreneurship.

Hagedoorn (1996), when revisiting Schumpeter's theory of innovation, argued that many people, when citing Schumpeter's work, choose to either concentrate on his earlier contributions, with reference to the role of an entrepreneur as the personification of innovation, or his later work accentuating the role of large companies as main drivers of innovation whilst, in actual fact, there is no simple dichotomy between these two.

According to Bayarçelik, Taşel and Apak (2014), SMEs, due to the globalisation of markets, are focusing on producing innovations for competitive advantage. They further submit that SMEs are increasing in their importance of playing a pivotal role in national economies worldwide. They narrated that although the US used to be famous for its large enterprises, now SMEs account for 98% of all enterprises in the US. SMEs also account for 99% of enterprises in Italy, France and Japan.

Estrin et al. (2014), on the basis of the entrepreneurship and knowledge spillover theory, conducted a survey to explore the relationship between the entrepreneur's innovation orientation, research and development (R&D) and growth aspirations. They analysed data collected by the GEM from 76 countries, between 2001 and 2011. Their conclusion was that the entrepreneur's innovation orientation significantly defines his aspirations for employment generation. Over and above that, not all growth-oriented entrepreneurs

benefit equally from R&D, but it is only those with higher overall inclination to strategic entrepreneurship (innovation and internationalisation orientation) who benefit.

According to Ateljević and Poljašević (2011), the main enabling factors for innovations with economic growth and development are: enforced standards, intellectual property protection, vibrant competition and contestable markets, a well-established R&D infrastructure, IT communication developments and emphasising education at every level. According to the Swaziland Ministry of Information, Communications and Technology (2017), Swaziland is taking strides in correcting the innovation environment, to ensure it is enabling. The country has recently set up a Royal Science and Technology Park (RSTP). This Park houses a Biotechnology and an Innovation Park. The RSTP's vision is to have Swaziland, by 2022, distinguished internationally for her speed in exploring science, technology and innovation, and to use that in advancing the country's economic growth, while creating an infrastructure and increasing capacity, by developing a knowledge based economy, consequently alleviating poverty. The country has availed this facility to the youth, especially youth in business for innovation purposes.

2.4.2 Growing Businesses and Growth Aspirations

O'Farrell and Hitchens (2017) argued that several growth models of firms developed in industrial economics, have in the past mostly concentrated on explaining large firms' behaviour. They went on to cite: Hay and Morris (1979); Taylor and Thrift (1982) and Penrose (1959). In critiquing these theories, they highlighted that they treated small and big firms in the same manner whilst small firms had a different behaviour. They concluded by saying there is a need for growth theories specifically targeted to small businesses.

It might seem that a small firm's theory would be more relevant to small youth business that are struggling with growth. The GEM (2012) however writes that growth expectations do not only represent the expansion prospects of the business, but the entrepreneur's growth aspirations. So while these may not all manifest as predicted, it should be

highlighted that some will manifest because if one aspires to grow their business, they will take the necessary steps towards growing it.

Drucker (1985), Hornaday (1992) and Kirchhoff (1992) also argued that not every small business is entrepreneurial or represents entrepreneurship, which is why small businesses with lower aspiration levels should not be ignored, since only about 15% of small businesses actually have growth aspirations (Virtanen, 1997). And only a few businesses actually attain growth, as expressed in terms of an increase in employee numbers and an increase in turnover and profitability (Bridge et al., 2003; Estrin et al., 2014).

In tandem with the above, the YBI and GEM (2013) asserted that young people in all parts of the world, except in Sub-Saharan Africa, expect to create more jobs than adults over the next five years. This could be a true reflection of the average outlook of youth entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa, as a study undertaken by the GEM (2012), analysing growth and growth aspirations, through job creation, gave mixed results. It was ascertained that: three out of the 10 Sub-Saharan African countries surveyed showed that their youth business ventures were largely run by one person. Contrary to this, most of the youth entrepreneurs (82% to 96%) were employers in Angola, Namibia, South Africa and Zambia. Over and above that, 29% of entrepreneurs in Angola and about 13% of entrepreneurs in Namibia, South Africa and Zambia had more than five employees.

Malawi had low growth aspirations with 57% of the entrepreneurs expecting no growth. Ghana, Uganda and Ethiopia had 30% of their youth entrepreneurs expecting no growth. Angola had very high growth aspirations where nearly all of them expected to create new jobs in the future, with nearly half of them projecting to add more than five jobs within five years. Angola is the same country which had 29% of their entrepreneurs, with five employees. This showed that their aspirations translated to actual growth. Namibia and South Africa showed about 92-94% of their youth entrepreneurs with high entrepreneurial aspirations. The Zambian youth on the other hand, had moderate growth aspirations, where 81% of them expected between one to five new jobs in the next five years, only

about 13% expected to create more than five jobs. While Nigeria and Botswana had about 5-7% youth entrepreneurs who were currently employing more than five employees, about 33 percent of them had growth aspirations of adding about five employees in the subsequent five years, which shows high entrepreneurial aspirations. There were no significant differences in growth aspirations with regards to age-related differences of the youth.

2.4.3 Internationalised Businesses and Internationalisation Aspirations

McDougall and Oviatt (2000, p. 903) defined International Entrepreneurship (IE) as "innovative, proactive and risk-seeking behaviors across borders". This was reiterated by Schulz, Borghoff and Kraus (2009). Rask and Servais (2015) explained that international entrepreneurship entails new managerial mindsets and ways of looking at the challenges of managing business. These are ventures labelled "born-global" or international new ventures. Born globals are firms that are launched with a global mindset right from the beginning. According to Oviatt and McDougall (1994), international new ventures are firms that from inception, intend to acquire competitive advantage from the use of resources and to sell their products in several countries.

According to Rask and Servais, (2015), international entrepreneurship is a new field, which is viewed to have started with Oviatt and McDougall's (1994) pivotal article on international new ventures, which defined the required and adequate condition for the rise of "born globals" or "international new ventures". There was a submitted viewpoint that fast-tracked internationalisation was as a result of new markets, technology and people's capabilities. Al-Aali and Teece (2014) suggested that the paper presented in 1994 on the Oviatt–McDougall Framework is a good springboard for more research on International Entrepreneurship. Knight and Liesch (2016) however have a contradictory view to the above, they submitted that internationalisation has been documented since the early 1970s. Knight and Liesch (2016) proceed to explain that global firms start conducting business as soon as they are founded even though they normally have limited resources. They normally internationalise faster than the long dominating large multinationals.

Making an example, Rask and Servais (2015), cited a study by Choquette et al., (2014) of born globals in Denmark, which deduced that the born globals export at least 25 percent of their revenue within three years of inception, they were found to have 79% more income, 60% more employees, and to export to seven times more markets than other start-ups.

Pereira, De Moraes and Salazar (2017) also conducted a study of testing the theoretical perspective of the resource based view. They surveyed international companies in Brazil to ascertain the resources developed by international exporting companies. It was found that the companies had to develop the resources knowledge, competent teams, liquidity, strong brand, production of quality and good relationships. These were also acknowledged by Al-Aali and Teece (2014).

The GEM (2011) and Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2009), submit that in the past, entering markets for a small firm was difficult, but this has since become easier and sometimes necessary, due to small market sizes, lucrative global markets and rapid technological changes. Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2009) define internationalisation in terms of exports and imports, cross border investment flows, international alliances, and partnership with foreign firms.

They expanded to say many firms internationalise for sales expansion, minimisation of competition risk, diversification, saturated markets, etc. They further advance that there are different methods of entering international markets, depending on the firm's goal and its strength and weaknesses. These include: licencing, turnkey projects, management contacts, joint ventures, overseas investment and manufacturing and exporting as well.

To give brief descriptions of the above, Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2009) state that licencing entails a manufacturer offering a foreign manufacturer the right to use a patent, technology, trademark, product or production process for a fee (royalty); Turnkey projects occur when one develops and operationalises projects in a foreign country; management contracts are a way of contracting one's management, it usually follows turnkey projects, where the foreign company requests the management of the turnkey supplier to work with

them for a specified period of time; joint ventures, this can take many forms, the basic one is when two foreign companies get together and form one company where they both own equity; Overseas investments and manufacturing is when a company physically establishes in another country and; exporting is when a company sells goods or services made in its own country to another country.

Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2009) assert that as a general rule, exporting is normally the first step in doing international business. Even though there are different measures of internationalisation, according to the GEM (2011), their report assesses the measure in which a firm sells to clients outside its own country. They highlight that small countries with great needs, such as Singapore, Belgium, and UAE, normally internationalise intensely.

Swazi youth business though, normally internationalise through cross border trading, where they largely export handcrafts to neighbouring South Africa or trade with Mozambique (Zindela, 2007).

Since Swaziland has a population of about 1.2 million; high unemployment; and a middle class of only 9.4% of the total population, Swazi youth entrepreneurs will need to learn to innovate and internationalise to survive. This is why it is imperative for YEDPs to raise internationalisation aspirations (ILO, 2010; The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011). This was supported by a former CEO of the Federation of Swaziland Employers and Chamber of Commerce (FSE&CC) who emphasised that for SMMEs to contribute to the Swazi economy, they have to be competitive and not only concentrate on the local market, since it is small, but export as well (Dlamini, 2011). The Swaziland Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Trade (2007) reiterated that the Swazi market is too small for the SMMEs to create much wealth so they need to internationalise. Europe advocates for the same growth strategy (World Economic Forum, 2010).

2.5 Hypotheses development and Conceptual Framework

Several studies linking entrepreneurial aspirations and in-school youth, largely at the tertiary level have been undertaken. These include: *Entrepreneurship Interest of Tertiary*

Students In Swaziland (Mavuso & Mndebele, 2017); *From Entrepreneurial Aspirations to Founding a Business: The Case of Russian Students* (Bogatyreva & Shirokova, 2017); *Effect of individual factors on youth entrepreneurship – a study of Uttarakhand state, India* (Sharma & Madan, 2014); *Entrepreneurship education: Relationship between education and entrepreneurial activity* (Raposo & do Paço, 2011); *Entrepreneurial Aspirations - A Five Country Study* (Julian & Terjesen, 2006); *Adequacy of Entrepreneurial Training Provided to Students by the College of Agriculture at the University of Swaziland* (Dlamini et al. 2007). This study, however, was investigating out-of-school youth entrepreneurship development programmes, which have not been that prominent in research (Botha, 2006). Most of the above mentioned studies established that the programmes influence the students positively, but there is lack of adequate evidence on whether this actually results in the starting and growing of enterprises that contribute to the economic growth and development of these countries, which includes Swaziland.

The following section reviews the available literature concerning the relationships between the independent and dependent variables of this research. Hypotheses are then formulated and a conceptual framework put forward.

2.5.1 Demographics and level of entrepreneurial aspirations

Van Praag (1999) and Hamilton and Harper (1994) assert that Alfred Marshall's (1842–1924) work - *Principles of Economics* which was first published in 1890, assigns an important role to the entrepreneur, more than any other early neo-classical theory.

Marshall wrote that the entrepreneur's task is to supply commodities, and as a by-product provide innovations and progress. He emphasised the point of the entrepreneur being important to the firm as he exercises control and bears all responsibility. He further noted that successful entrepreneurship will require some skills and abilities, which include general ability and intelligence.

Marshall (1930, p. 298) then narrated that:

> This general ability depends on family background, education, and innate ability. Second, successful entrepreneurship requires specialised abilities such as knowledge of the trade, power of forecasting, of seeing where there is an opportunity, and of undertaking risks. Third, to perform his role as an employer the entrepreneur should be a 'natural leader of men'. Not only are these abilities required to make a successful entrepreneur, good fortune as well as business opportunities are necessary requirements, too.

A study undertaken by Pete et al. (2011), revealed the importance of factors which influence entrepreneurial aspirations. Pete et al. explained that research preceding theirs, in explaining entrepreneurial aspirations and ambitions, had obtained various determinants on different levels of analysis. Their research however, focused on factors influencing high-growth expectation and innovation orientation of the early-stage entrepreneurs. The research findings were that factors influencing people to decide on becoming an innovation-oriented or high-growth early-stage entrepreneur can be classified into individual and macroeconomic factors. Individual factors include demographic characteristics, such as: gender, age, wealth, household income, current working status, individual human capital (education, work experience), the perceptions of an individual towards entrepreneurship (opportunities recognition, fear of failure, entrepreneurial skills and abilities) and motivations (improvement-driven opportunity or necessity). The macroeconomic factors consisted of venture capital availability, economic freedom index, the rate of inflation and country risk.

The results also suggested that innovative entrepreneurs are likely to be male, educated, unemployed, confident in their entrepreneurial skills, to be opportunity-motivated and likely to live in a developed country. He pointed out that they found no statistically significant effect of risk aversion, social networks or the share of population with tertiary education. Pete et al. (2011), citing several studies, further indicated that female entrepreneurs rarely become growth entrepreneurs.

According to GEM (2015), age and gender are significantly associated with high growth aspirations, where younger men indicate higher growth aspirations in comparison to their counterparts. In general terms, the older youth normally display higher entrepreneurial aspirations. When referring to gender, the GEM report found that even though there were no significant differences in exposure to entrepreneurship training at school between female and male youth, male youth were however 1.2 times more likely to attend entrepreneurial training after school whilst for females, training after school was more strongly linked to entrepreneurial behaviour, when compared to their male counterparts. Many studies maintain that women face greater difficulties in becoming entrepreneurial when compared to males (GEM 2015). Whilst female youth are more than four times more likely to show entrepreneurial aspirations, they however do not graduate to start or prepare to start businesses. This then leads to youth male entrepreneurs being 1.3 times more likely to start early stage entrepreneurial activity and 1.6 times likely to graduate to become an established entrepreneur, compared to their female counterparts.

GEM (2015) further indicates that Sub-Saharan Africa's challenge is to come up with ways to foster innovative and effective entrepreneurial activity amongst the youth so as to harness their potential, for their entrepreneurship to contribute to sustainable economic development of the Sub-Saharan region (GEM 2015). "An important constraint affecting the quality of youth entrepreneurship in the Sub-Saharan African region is the poor quality of education and training" (GEM, 2015, p.55).

A study carried out in Nigeria by Dr. Oyebola in 2014 however, obtained divergent results. This could be because she carried it out amongst students, who normally are already fixated on getting white collar jobs, while the GEM and other studied are carried out with practicing entrepreneurs or those with the intention to practice. In her study, Dr. Oyebola interviewed 300 students to investigate their level of entrepreneurial aspirations in a tertiary institution in Ogun State. Her findings were that the majority of the students

possessed a low level of entrepreneurship aspiration while there was no significant difference in the responses by gender (Oyebola, 2014).

Another research conducted in Omani University by Uddin et al. (2016) examining the relationship of a father's occupation, gender, experience and level of education on the entrepreneurial intention of students at the Omani university, found that there was a high level of intention among students to start entrepreneurial ventures, influenced by the demographic factors. Experience was found to be the factor having the maximum influence on the entrepreneurial intentions.

A study by Capelleras, Contín-pilart, Larraza-kintana and Martin-sanchez (2015), of the relationship between entrepreneurial growth aspirations and population density, showed that population density is correlated to entrepreneurial growth aspirations. Over and above that, it was discovered that entrepreneurs with more levels of education and ownership-management experience positively moderated the effect of population density on growth aspirations.

As a result of the above explored literature, the following hypotheses were developed.

$H1_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations.

$H1_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations.

$H2_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP participants and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

$H2_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP participants and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

2.5.2 YEDPs and Entrepreneurial aspirations

Davidsson (1989) suggested that achievement motivation is the most significant factor that explains the variation of growth rates and entrepreneurship. In agreement, Shaver and Scott (1991) reiterated that achievement motivation was perhaps the only credible personality factor related to new venture creation, and this was originally proven to be true in the training carried out in Kakinada.

According to Mohanty (2005) and Murthy (1989) in January 1964, David McClelland organised a training programme in Kakinada, Andhra Pradesh, with 52 people. The objectives of the training were to instill in the participants: the importance of imagination and to encourage introspection and translate it into personal motivation and community goals. The trainees had to achieve: goal setting and goal achievement; emulating the models of achievement by constant watching and alertness; attainment of concrete and frequent feedback; planning realistic goals through their own performance appraisal; converting ideas into opportunities using positive self-concept and controlled daydreaming. The Kakinada training resulted in a high degree of motivation and in turn, the Need for Achievement. This has been the most successful experiment in raising the Need for Achievement. McClelland concluded that the trainees displayed more entrepreneurial behaviour and worked for more hours than those in the control group. This training is regarded as a necessity in raising entrepreneurial aspirations and inducing a high Need for Achievement from a young age. The training also boosts risk-taking and decision-making and several programmes have successfully raised people's entrepreneurial aspirations by using this experiment (Mohanty, 2005; Murthy, 1989).

Qureshi, Saeed and Wasti (2016) also carried out a study in Pakistan to ascertain the impact of certain interventions, during an INVENT Business Plan Competition, on the relationship between the participants' personality, intellectual capital, entrepreneurial skills and their entrepreneurial aspirations. This study was administered to about 3000 participants over a period of five months. During this entrepreneurship development programme, there were numerous trainings, mentorship sessions, lectures, workshops and case studies. The study first conducted a baseline before conducting the evaluation

at the end of the training. Findings of the study were that the entrepreneurial interventions administered by the programme resulted in positive relationships between the variables and had a positive impact on the entrepreneurial aspiration of the participants.

Botha (2006) highlights the lack of available research on entrepreneurship development programmes. Most of the available research is on in-school youth entrepreneurship development programmes (YEDPs) compared to out-of-school YEDPs. The research done on the in-school education meant for entrepreneurship development have shown a positive relationship between the YEDPs and entrepreneurship aspirations (Din et al., 2016, Olugbola, 2017).

2.5.2.1 YEDPs and Innovation Aspirations

The YBI and GEM (2013) pointed out that youth entrepreneurs in all regions of the world, including Sub-Saharan Africa, generally perceive themselves to be more innovative than adults, with reference to the extent to which their product or service is new to some or all their customers, and referring to a few or a lack of other businesses offering the same product. The region with the lowest youth innovation-orientation was found to be MENA. According to Estrin et al. (2014), the fact that the youth have a high entrepreneurial orientation is good as research conducted using GEM data collected in 76 countries for 2001-2011, concluded that innovation orientation of entrepreneurs significantly define their aspirations to generate employment.

2.5.2.2 YEDPs and Growth Aspirations

GEM (2012) declared that growth aspiration is the main measurement of the impact factors. This is because it is the one which advances one of the main economic goals of Governments – job creation. In line with the GEM, Estrin et al. (2014) mentioned that the growth aspiration entrepreneurs are the group who have the highest potential to contribute to economic growth and development, through the creation of new jobs. They

further asserted that even though entrepreneurs can be too optimistic in the growth ambitions, those who are risk takers, and work hard towards achieving their ambitions normally generate more jobs. Estrin et al. (2014) then cited various research which demonstrated that growth aspirations are critical for the growth of the enterprise.

The reason why the growth mind-set should be engraved in business owners is because economies are made up largely of SMMEs, and most of these SMMEs have no intention of growing. They neither put it as an objective nor seek it, such that their businesses end up as small businesses and not as entrepreneurial ventures. And if they do not grow, there will be no employment generation and no economic growth or development. This is supported by research conducted in the UK by Storey in 1994 (Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2009).

Denmark, recognising the importance of high growth firms, decided to put in place a strategy to ensure that it becomes the country with the most gazelles by 2015. This they intended to do by integrating entrepreneurship education from kindergarten to tertiary, and subjecting all teachers to entrepreneurship training (World Economic Forum, 2010).

Gundry and Welsch (2001) carried out a survey with eight hundred and thirty-two entrepreneurs. These were asked to describe their growth intentions to test for their growth aspirations. This study showed that entrepreneurs with a high-growth-orientation and aspiration were different from their counterparts in that they would probably select strategies that would focus on growing the firm, the high-growth–oriented entrepreneurs were inclined to having a more structured approach to managing their business.

Another study carried out was that of high growth aspirations, done at Staffordshire University using more than a million observation data, collected by the GEM from 2005-2013 in 62 countries. This came to the following conclusions; high-growth aspirations are primarily driven by individuals, and shaped by institutional settings. This means the education level of the entrepreneur, their household income, their social networks, perceived opportunities and skills will determine their growth aspirations. High growth ambitious ventures were found to be driven by educated entrepreneurs: i) formal and

informal institutions had a substantial impact on growth aspirations; ii) the country's stage of economic development determined the effect of individual and institutional factors on high-job growth ventures; growth aspirations were found to be gender, age and industry sensitive; support from Government programmes for high growth firms, influenced high-growth aspirations positively and; Government corruption had a negative influence on growth aspirations (Lubishtani, Hashi, Jackson & Krasniqi, 2017).

2.5.2.3 YEDPs and Internationalised Aspirations

Internationalisation is a growth strategy that is pursued not only by multinationals, but by SMMEs as well. Technology, the internet and access to global information, has made it easier for all SMMEs to exploit global opportunities. Due to the global dependency of all economies, a country's global trade has increased in importance (GEM, 2012; OECD, 2009; Scarborough, 2012). This is largely because the competitor in a foreign country has become as threatening as the one in the domestic country (Scarborough, 2012).

Studies have shown that internationalising improves an SMME's overall performance, exporters generate more money and grow faster, create jobs that pay higher salaries and have a better chance of surviving, compared to strictly domestic companies (Scarborough, 2012).

The above reviewed literature leads to the formulation of the following null and alternate hypothesis:

$H3_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of youth entrepreneurial aspirations.

$H3_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of youth entrepreneurial aspirations.

2.5.3 YEDPs and Entrepreneurial businesses

Henley (2005), referring to Bagozzi et al. (1989)'s work, highlighted that psychological research claim that intentions are a central predictor of subsequent planned behaviour.

In support of the above statement, Pete et al. (2011) noted that earlier studies proved that actual entrepreneurial activity is related to the entrepreneurial aspirations.

Similarly, McClelland (1985), in his early work on achievement motivation, established a clear relationship between high levels of achievement motivation, setting of achievement goals, and the economic success of individuals (Engeser, Rheinberg and Möller, 2009; Johnson, 1990).

McClelland further tested his theory on whole nations or societies over a period of time, the results in 21 nations showed that there was a positive relationship between the aspirations and economic achievement 25 years later. These experiments established that a relationship was between economic development and achievement imagination/motivation (Engeser et al., 2009).

Gielnik, Uy, Funken, Bischoff (2017) asserted that it is known that entrepreneurship training is effective, more research however, needs to be carried out on the dynamic process that takes place after training, leading to business creation. They then undertook a study for 32 months resulting in 784 observations from 227 participants. Their findings indicate that post-training processes are dynamic and that entrepreneurial self-efficacy is essential to maintain high passion after training. The maintenance of that high passion will eventually lead to business creation.

Further conclusion were drawn by Henley (2005), after conducting a longitudinal study using British data and tracking individuals from entrepreneurial aspiration into self-employment. The resultant results were that, if entrepreneurial aspirations are as a result of low satisfaction at work and not a desire to create wealth, the aspirations do not get realised, as aspiring entrepreneurs do not seem to engage in preparatory behavior first, such as saving, etc.

Shane et al. (2003) asserted that there are several human motivations influencing the entrepreneurial process. They declared that while they admit that human actions are as a result of motivational and cognitive factors, which include ability, skills and intelligence, there are however, external factors that play a key role. These factors, they listed as: the

state of the economy, access to venture capital, competition and government regulations. In conclusion, they argued that putting aside the environmental factors, entrepreneurial aspirations play a critical role in entrepreneurship.

2.5.3.1 YEDPs and Innovative businesses

According to Širec and Tominc (2017, p.10), citing the OECD (1997) wrote:

> Innovation in a given economy depends not only on individuals (entrepreneurs), networks of innovative enterprises and research organisations, suppliers, and customers, but also on various institutional factors, such as the public financing system of research, the nation's system of schooling, training, and financial establishments. Such innovation can be seen as the outcome of mutual activities of various members of the whole system.

To substantiate the above, Welsh, Tullar and Nemati (2016) and Bogatyreva and Shirokova (2017) narrated that, while different research has shown that it is not every entrepreneurial aspiration which translates into business, since other factors come to play, such the entrepreneur's type of economy (factor driven, efficiency-driven economies or innovation driven) and entrepreneurial aspirations (necessity or opportunity driven), there are however, many demonstrated cases where aspirations developed, actually resulted in entrepreneurial businesses.

Research carried out, such as Nițu-Antonie et al. (2017), do indicate a positive relationship between increased aspirations and innovative businesses. They do however emphasise the importance of the national efficiency enhancing framework which acts as stimulant for the entrepreneurial behaviour.

A study conducted in Turkey and the US is one of the studies which explains the above relations. Business people from the US and Turkey are different in that they differ in demographic, economic, governance and cultural variables, which is known to impact entrepreneurship motivation, perceptions, aspirations and activity, as the Turkish

business people practice necessity-based entrepreneurship, while those from the US exercise opportunity-based entrepreneurship . The research found that there was more entrepreneurial activity in the US while the business people in Turkey had higher entrepreneurial aspirations and expectations and viewed entrepreneurship as an attractive career choice when compared to those in the US (Friedman et al., 2012).

Zoltan Acs (2006) in his paper: *How Is Entrepreneurship Good for Economic Growth* explains that entrepreneurs are expected to create new businesses which increase competition and create jobs, and can increase productivity through technological changes. High levels of these will result in high levels of economic growth, meaning these businesses will largely be innovative and growing. He then highlighted that, if the term entrepreneur is used inclusive of any type of informal self-employment, then high levels of entrepreneurship may mean that there are substantial bureaucratic barriers to formally creating a new business or the economy is only creating a few conventional wage-earning job opportunities. In such a case, it can be said that the high levels of entrepreneurship would result in a slow economic growth and lagging development or even a negative effect.

Another study was carried out in South Africa assessing the effectiveness of women entrepreneurship development training programmes. It concluded that the entrepreneurship development programmes helped create and grow businesses which generated employment (Botha, 2006).

This literature indicates that there is a relationship that exists between entrepreneurship development programmes and creating innovative business. However, the strength of that relationship depends on both the individual and external environmental forces.

2.5.3.2 YEDPs and growing businesses

Hessels et al. (2008), citing Mason (1985), and Friar and Meyer (2003) pointed out the importance of growth aspiration to transform into growing businesses, as according to

research, high-growth firms are the ones that contribute more to economic growth than small new or stagnant firms.

While the GEM Global Report of 2016/2017 does point out that Africa's innovation intensity, at 20%, is the lowest globally (GEM, 2017), some researchers have said that the fact that there is wide entrepreneurial activity cannot be discounted, it might just not contribute to economic growth as much as high growth businesses would (Olugbola, 2017).

Pete et al. (2011) showed that research has found entrepreneurial activities and attitudes to be strongly correlated with high expectation and growth aspirations. They highlighted though, that this relationship is obtained when the entrepreneur is motivated to increase wealth and not by necessity, since the easiest way to increase wealth would be to grow the business and internationalise.

Storey (1994) discovered, however, that the SMMEs that state growth as an aspiration are much higher than those who actually achieve growth; this is due to the external environment and other factors.

Estrin et al. (2014) cited several research studies which underscored that there are several environmental factors that enhance or inhibit entrepreneurial aspirations and businesses. These included: intellectual property rights protection; regulatory burden and the rule of law; property rights protection; corruption and government activism.

2.5.3.3 YEDPs and Internationalised businesses

As internationalisation is a growth strategy and is measured by looking at exporting businesses in the GEM, Hessels et al. (2008) underlined that having growth and internationalisation aspirations cannot be over-emphasised, since without the aspirations, it would be hard to achieve growth and internationalise and most businesses will remain lifestyle businesses. Hessels et al. (2008) conducted a study which showed that job growth and internationalisation relate positively with the motive to increase wealth.

A study was conducted by Saeedikiya, Aeeni, Motavaseli and Farsi (2017) with the aim to investigate innovation, growth and export in African firms when compared to protestant European firms. 10981 firms participated in this study, as the GEM data from 2001 to 2013 was used. The yielded results showed that African firms do not differ in terms of their innovation, growth and internationalisation level from Protestant European firms. Of note however, was that when African companies came up with an innovation, they expected less growth and internationalisation from their innovation, whilst there is an empirically proven relationship between innovation, growth and internationalisation.

The same connection was made by a study conducted by Kosała (2015) which was meant to research the link between innovation and internationalisation. The conclusion was that innovation is the main element of innovation-based internationalisation models as well as international entrepreneurship models. It was also discovered that innovation processes and internationalisation processes are increasingly co-dependent.

The reviewed literature seems to point to the fact that there is a relationship between increased internationalisation aspirations and running an internationalised business. The literature does underscore though, that the level of internationalisation will depend on some internal and external economic environmental factors.

$H4_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

$H4_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

2.5.4 Conceptual Model

Robson (2002) defines a conceptual model as a theory explaining the research, in term on what the research is doing and how it will do it, using a diagram. This is also defined as a system of concepts, assumptions, expectations and theories that inform and back one's research. A conceptual model is sometimes referred to as a conceptual framework.

The conceptual model used in this study is the entity–relationship model (ERM). This is a conceptual model that embodies the information structure of a problem domain in terms of entities and relationships. The result of modelling using the ERM is graphically represented as an entity relationship diagram (ERD) (Chen, 2002).

Since this study is evaluating the impact of youth entrepreneurship development programmes on entrepreneurial aspirations of the youth in Swaziland, the reviewed literature led to the hypotheses of four main relationships. The first relationship is between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of the YEDPs (independent variable) and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations (dependent variable), the second hypothesised relationship is between the types of demographic characteristics of the participants (independent variable) of YEDPs and the type of entrepreneurial businesses they currently own (dependent variable). The third hypothesis, as per the literature, foretold a relationship between the type of YEDP (independent variable) and the level of youth entrepreneurial aspirations (dependent variable). The last relationship to be theorised was between the type of YEDP (independent variable) and the level of currently operating an entrepreneurial business (dependent variable). This study's conceptual model is shown in figure 2.2 below.

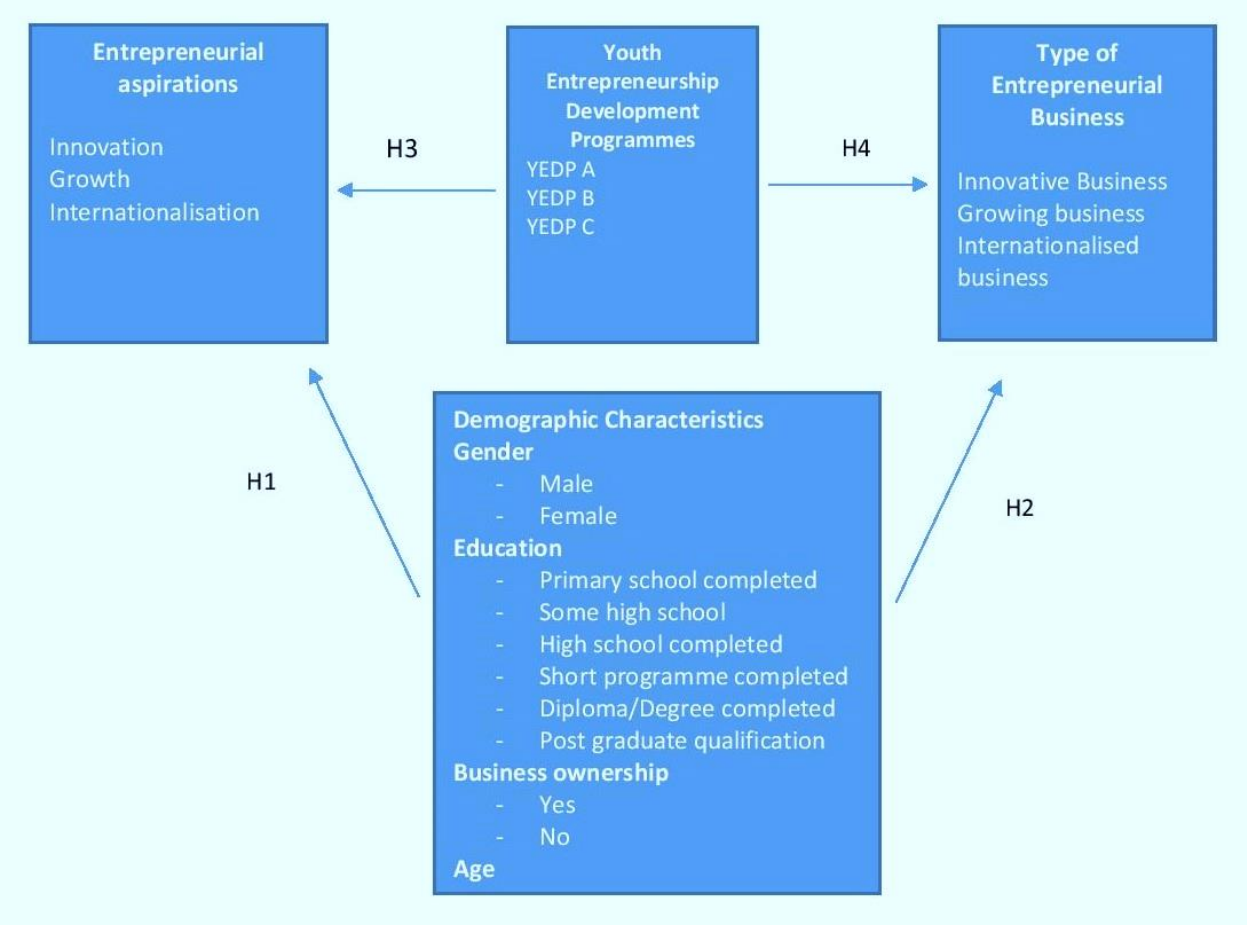

Figure 2.2: The conceptual model

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the body of literature found in the field of entrepreneurship; this included allocating the study to the Need for Achievement motivation theory by McClelland. A further review was done of the youth entrepreneurship literature, especially as it pertains to the Global South, which includes Swaziland. Further, literature on entrepreneurship development was discussed, paying special attention to a model advanced by the ILO for Youth Entrepreneurship Development. Furthermore literature based on the independent variables of this study (demographic information of the respondents and the YEDPs) and the dependent variables (entrepreneurial aspirations and operating entrepreneurial businesses) was reviewed, before moving on to formulate the hypotheses and propose a conceptual framework.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH PARADIGM, METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

Chapter two conducted an in-depth review of the literature as it pertains to the independent and dependent variables of this study, before formulating hypotheses and a conceptual model.

This Chapter now describes the research paradigm and research methodology employed in this study. The research design is then highlighted, before discussing the target population and sample, including the sampling method. The data collection instrument is broken down, followed by a discussion of its testing during a pilot study. Subsequently, ethical considerations are discussed before considering the procedure for data collection. Next, data analysis and its interpretation is deliberated on before discussing how validity and reliability was ensured.

This research was largely guided by and followed the process depicted in figure 3.1 below.

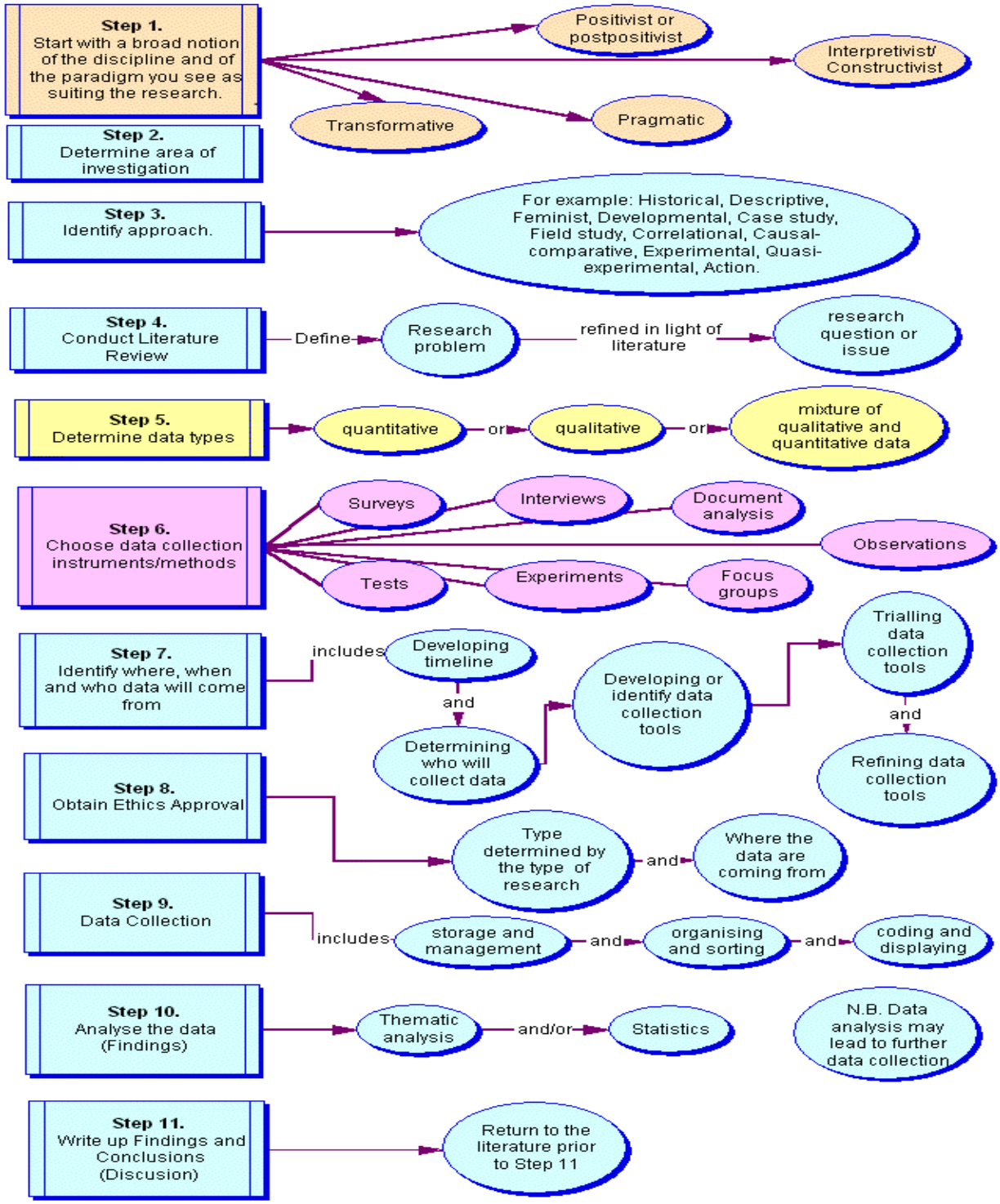

Figure 3.1: Research Guide (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006, p. 204)

3.2 Research Paradigm

A paradigm in accordance with Bryman and Bell (2007), is a cluster of beliefs and dictates, which influence what should be studied and how it should be studied by scientists, including how to interpret the results. Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), in addition, note that the paradigm is sometimes referred to as the theoretical framework. Bryman and Bell (2007) and Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) further explained that “paradigm” is a widely used term with different meanings, such that it can be confusing. Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) further stated that there are a number of paradigms, but the most popular ones are positivist (and post-positivist), constructivist, interpretivist, transformative, emancipatory, critical, pragmatism and deconstructivist.

This study adopted the post-positivist paradigm. According to Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), post-positivism replaced positivism after the Second World War. Post-positivists work on the assumption that any study is influenced by a number of well-developed theories, in addition to the one being tested. Post-positivist research is most commonly aligned with quantitative methods of data collection and analysis. Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) highlight that O'Leary (2004) provided a seemingly contrasting definition, to the widely used Merten (2005)’s definition for post-positivism, which seems aligned with the constructivist paradigm claiming that post-positivists see the world as vague, flexible and multiple in its realities. O'Leary (2004) suggests that post-positivism is intuitive and holistic, inductive and exploratory with findings that can be qualitative in nature. This study adopted the post-positivism approach in line with O’Leary’s definition, in that whilst the research was guided by well-established theories, it was however not based on observation, but relied on the perceptions of the participants. It also had two qualitative questions, whose data was coded in order to be analysed quantitatively.

3.3 Research Methodology

According to Bryman and Bell (2007), research methodology is the technique a researcher uses to collect data. Miller and Brewer (2003) define research methodology as rules and procedures that guide one’s research, and against which the research can

be evaluated. Since this study adopted the post-positivist paradigm, it then obtains that it followed the quantitative research methodology (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006).

As per Williams (2007), the three most common approaches to conducting research are quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. These are guided by the research questions and the kind of data to be obtained: if it is numerical (quantitative), if it is textual (qualitative) or if it is both numerical and textual (mixed methods).

3.4 Research Design

Types of designs associated with the post-positivist paradigm include: Experimental, Quasi-experimental, Correlational and Causal Comparative (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). This research employed the Correlational research design, which is described by Robson (2002) and Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005) as a non-experimental design, also known as a relational design, as it measures the relationship between two or more variables. Williams (2007) adds that in these types of designs, the aim is to establish, confirm, or validate relationships existing between variables.

3.5 Population and sample

3.5.1 Target Population

The population under study is youth who have been trained by three Entrepreneurship Development Programmes: Believe, Begin, Become (BBB), Youth Enterprise Fund (YEF) and Kickstart. Since the BBB Programme only focused on youth in 2009, and trained 60 youth, that was the population size for BBB in this study (Technoserve, 2009). The Youth Enterprise Fund has trained 1500 youth, this was the population size used for this YEDP. Kickstart has trained about 60 youth per annum since April 2010 (SABMiller, 2010). When data collection of this study was being done, a total of 420 youth was to have been trained through this programme. Unfortunately the data of youth - with their cell phones numbers available- from the Company implementing this YEDP were only for 2015 and 2016, which was a total of 120 youth.

3.5.2 Sampling method

The sampling method selected in a study is essential as it is closely linked to the external validity and generalisability of the study's findings (Robson, 2002). A study can either employ probability or non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, the probability of a member of the target population being included in the sample can be determined whilst the probability cannot be determined in a non-probability sampling method (Robson, 2002; Welman et al., 2005).

Examples of probability sampling are; simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, systematic sampling and cluster sampling. Examples of non-probability sampling are; accidental or incidental sampling, quota sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling, self-selection sampling and convenience sampling (Welman et al., 2005).

For two of the YEDPs (BBB and Kickstart), due to their small sample sizes, this study employed the purposive sampling method, total population sampling technique. According to Robson (2002), Sharma (2017) and Welman et al. (2005), purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method which is based on the objectives of the study and relies on the judgment of the researcher in selecting the units under investigation. This is also known as subjective, judgmental or selective sampling. Whilst this type of sampling method is normally used with qualitative methods (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2015), this research, which is largely quantitative, employed it because of the relatively small population sizes of both the BBB and Kickstart YEDPs.

The total population sampling technique involves the sampling of the total population which has similar characteristics, such as knowledge, skills or exposure to an event (Etikan et al., 2015). This type of purposive sampling is normally selected due to a relatively small sample size and when the population shares a rare characteristic. Laerd dissertation (2012) states that whilst results from a study that has employed purposive, total population sampling method cannot be statistically generalised, it can however be analytically generalised.

For the Youth Enterprise Fund, a stratified random sampling method, using the proportionate sampling technique, was selected. This is a probability sampling method which requires that the researcher divides the population into groups known as strata. The members of the strata must share a similar characteristic or characteristics. The researcher then carries our random sampling within the strata (Robson, 2002; Sharma, 2017). The proportionate sampling technique implies that the samples drawn from each strata "will reflect the relative numbers in the population as a whole (Robson, 2002, p.262)". Probability sampling is favoured for validity and generalisability of the results. Probability sampling is also favoured for it enables a researcher to estimate sampling error which means unrepresentativeness of a sample (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Welman et al., 2005).

3.5.2.1 Sample size estimation

In 2009, the BBB competition trained 60 youth, which is the total population for this study (N=60). The 60 then became this programme's sample (n=60), since the study employed the total population sampling method for this YEDP. The sampling frame for these youth was availed by the programme manager. The sampling frame is a list of people/units or cases where the sample is drawn (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). For the Kickstart competition, a total of 420 youth had been trained at the time of data collection. The sampling frame availed by the programme manager was however only for 120 youth trained in 2015 and 2016. This then became the sample size of this YEDP (n=120).

The Youth Enterprise Fund has trained 1,500 since its inception. Here, due to resource constraints, the population size of 1,500 could not be made the sample, instead a stratified random sampling method was used to select a sample. The different years that this competition has been conducted were used as strata. The following calculation is used to determine a final sample of 316 youth for this YEDP. Each strata contributed to the n=316 based on the number of youth trained in that particular year.

To calculate the sample size for the participants, Israel (1992, p. 3) suggests the use of a simplified formula for proportions, originally provided by Yamane (1967, p. 886). The formula is:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

This formula assumes a 95% confidence or risk level, and the level of precision or sampling error assumed is ± 5%.

n = Sample size

N = Population size

E = level of precision

$$n = \frac{1500}{1 + 1500\ (0.05)^2}$$

=315.8 = 316 youth

The total sample for the three YEDPs is 496 youth (n= 496), the total population of all the youth trained through this programmes is 1980 youth (N=1980). This means this research sampled 25% of the trained youth.

3.6 The research instrument

The research instrument used in this study was a questionnaire, which was administered to the Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes' participants. The basis for the questionnaire was the questionnaires used by the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) Consortium to collect data in their Adult Population Survey (APS), for entrepreneurial aspirations, which form part of their GEM Global Reports. These questions are well documented in the GEM Manual (2012). The instrument used in this research was however, simplified for the purposes of increased understanding. This questionnaire was developed in English and translated to SiSwati (the two official languages used in Swaziland), to ensure that all the youth understood the questions (see Appendices D & E for the questionnaires). After translating the English questionnaire to

SiSwati, the researcher submitted it to a local language expert, who confirmed that this was accurately translated.

This questionnaire was divided into four sections:

Section A was used to collect demographic data, such as: age at the time of attending the YEDP; gender; highest level of education at the time of the training; current ownership of a business; the YEDP attended and the year of attending. The questions used here were all closed ended and their responses were used to test hypotheses one and two.

Section B had eight 5-point Likert scale statements which ranged from strongly disagree to strongly agree. These were testing an increase in entrepreneurial aspirations as a result of the training. The first four statements dealt with different aspects of innovation aspiration. The reason different types of innovation were presented is because whilst some might be practicing process innovation, others could be practicing product innovation or other types of innovation. These statements were followed by three statements dealing with growth aspiration. Again different types of growth measurements were highlighted in these, and were not limited to the job creation aspect as per the GEM Report (GEM, 2012). The types of growth measured in this survey included: growth in terms of revenue, profit and staff. The last statement in this section addressed internationalisation aspirations. Whilst GEM normally measures only exports, this questionnaire asked a single question on internationalisation, but broke it down by listing different methods of internationalisation, which included: exporting, using e-commerce, joint ventures with foreign companies, etc. Responses to these statements were used to test the third hypothesis.

Section C was made up of eight 5-point Likert scale statements as well. These reviewed the current businesses being owned and operated by the youth respondents. The first four statements tested whether the youth are currently operating innovative businesses, looking at the different types of innovation. The following three statements investigated whether the youth are operating growing businesses, looking at different types of measurements of growth. The last statement probed whether the youth businesses are internationalised or not. The responses to these were used to test the fourth hypothesis.

Section D on the questionnaire had two open-ended questions soliciting suggestions on how the YEDPs could be improved and how the Government of Swaziland could increase its support for youth entrepreneurship. These were meant to provide an understanding of how the youth feel the Entrepreneurship Development Environment of the Country could be improved. Even though this section collected qualitative data from the 492 youth, this data was however analysed quantitatively.

3.7 Pilot Study

Bryman and Bell (2007) stated the importance of conducting a pilot study in research. This helps a researcher ensure that the survey questions and the measurement tool is operating well. According to Bryman and Bell (2007), if the study intends to use closed ended questions, the pilot study can ask open ended questions to generate answers to guide the design of the closed ended questions. The Pilot study also helps test the amount of time it takes to complete the survey; how uncomfortable some of the questions are and can assist the researcher reword questions that are confusing to the respondents. In this research, a pilot study was carried out using 10% of the sample projected for the larger parent study.

3.8 Ethical considerations

The principle of “doing no harm”, which should be observed in all research, was observed when carrying out this study (Welman at al., 2005). Information sheets were developed and read to the youth participants who were then requested to give their consent telephonically (see Appendix B for the information sheet). The respondents were informed that their responses would be treated as anonymous and confidential at all times, and their consent forms would be stored separately from the completed questionnaire (see Appendix C for the consent forms).

This research proceeded after Ethics Clearance was received from the University’s Ethics Committee (see Appendix A for the ethics clearance certificate). The collected data will be stored at the University of the Witwatersrand for only five years and then destroyed.

3.9 Procedure for data collection

The telephone survey method was used to collect the largely quantitative primary data from the participants of the Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes. Gray (2009) calls this a cell phone survey, which he suggests, is the most effective when trying to reach young people.

In Swaziland, most young people have access to cell phones. In 2015, Swazi MTN was said to have 915 000 subscribers out of a population of about 1.2 million people, that is more than 75 percent of the population (Swazi MTN, 2015).

As Miller and Brewer (2003) observed, the advantages of using the telephone survey is that it made it easier for data to be collected from the youth, who are geographically spread, inexpensively and speedily. Also interviewing by making calls from a central place made it easier to supervise and control research assistants. Telephone surveys also avoid cluster sampling, which is normally used to cut down costs in field surveys.

Miller and Brewer (2003) highlighted disadvantages of using this survey method. Some of the disadvantages are that it can be hard to obtain an adequately representative sample of the population and sufficient response rates as people change their cell phone numbers. This study faced the disadvantage of response rates. YEDP A provided a sampling frame of 60 youth and only 48 were reached after repetitive calls. This was 80% of the targeted response. YEDP C availed a sampling frame of 120 youth and only 79 were reached, which is about 66%. The only YEDP where the target was met and surpassed was in YEDP B, which is due to the sampling frame being 1500 youth, while the sample size chosen for this study was 316 youth. After repetitive calls, a total of 365 youth were reached.

This research used Data Collection Assistants to assist in the collection of data. All the Research Assistants who collected the data are university graduates with an undergraduate degree. They also have vast experience in data collection and great command of the SiSwati and English languages. The Research Assistants were interviewed first and underwent training to ensure they could easily translate SiSwati

responses to English. They then collected data in one room, using their cellphones, under the supervision of the Researcher. Even though to clarify a question they would use the SiSwati questionnaire, they however captured all the responses in English, such that no translation of the responses was necessary after data collection.

When collecting the data, the list of youth who have gone through the YEDPs (sampling frame) obtained from the Programme Managers, was used to call and request the youth to participate in the research if they had time, if not, they were asked when they could be called back. When they agreed to participate, the participation sheet and consent form was read to them and their consent was solicited. They were then asked the questions as per the questionnaire in either English or SiSwati, depending on the language with which they were comfortable. Their data was collected by the Data Collection Assistants then given to the Researcher to check and store.

There have also been doubts about the quality of responses obtained from telephone surveys in relation to face-to-face interviewing (Miller & Brewer, 2003). To mitigate this, the respondents were informed that the survey was only for academic purposes so there was no risk or harm that would come to them if they chose not to participate; the responses were both confidential and anonymous and they could stop responding at any time.

As the size of the sample in this research was large, using the telephone survey method resulted in lower costs in terms of money, time, and effort. To ensure a higher response rate, an initial call was made to arrange for the most appropriate time to call and administer the questionnaire since, according to Gray (2009), in telephone surveys, response rates can be between 60-90% when repeated call-backs are made.

After the data was collected, Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) stated that before data can be analysed, it needs to go through stages, which are: data storage and management, data organising and sorting, then data coding.

3.9.1 Data Storage and Management

According to Bryman and Bell (2007), data should be stored securely and managed carefully, not only to protect the confidentiality of the respondents, but because it is the law. They also underscored that proper data storage and management should not start after data analysis, but should start as soon as it is collected. They state that appropriate technical and organisational processes must be taken to protect against unauthorised access. During this study, the data on hard copies was stored under lock and key. The data on soft copies was stored in a personal computer with a password.

3.9.2 Data Organising and sorting

The quantitative data from the respondents was input into SPSS, since a 5-point Likert scale was used to collect the data, it was coded as per 3.9.3 below. Welman et al. (2005) mention that large qualitative data can be dealt with more quantitatively through pawing, cutting and sorting. Pawing is said to be a less formal method that involves reading through the text while marking different aspects with different coloured pencils to represent themes. Cutting and sorting are known to be more formal than pawing and are used to identity and produce codes. For the last two questions, which produced qualitative data from the 492 respondents, sorting and organising the data for the study was done electronically using Excel, where different themes were identified and tallied. These themes were then grouped into categories as per different models identified and explained in the literature review section of this study.

3.9.3 Data Coding

Before analysing the data, the researcher had to code the quantitative data using numbers 1-5 representing the 5-point Likert scale used on the questionnaire, these numbers were then input into SPSS in preparation of data analysis. Section D of the questionnaire needed separate coding as it collected qualitative data which was to be interpreted quantitatively. Welman et al. (2005) describe coding as a method used to reduce large amounts of data to manageable and comprehensible text. Coding can either

use descriptive, interpretive and pattern codes. This research used descriptive codes. Welman et al. (2005) further state that codes can be created prior or after collecting the data, they can also be created for conditions in the field notes. The codes for this research were created after the data collection and grouped into categories, then numerically coded and input into SPSS for data analysis.

3.10 Data analysis and interpretation

According to Ghasemi and Zahediasl (2012) and Robson (2002) most of the commonly used statistics tests, known as parametric tests, are based on the assumption that the data is normally distributed. So, data has to be tested for normality since the validity of parametric tests depend on it. The main tests for normality are: Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test; Lilliefors corrected K-S test; Shapiro-Wilk test; Anderson-Darling test; Cramer-von Mises test; D'Agostino skewness test; Anscombe-Glynn kurtosis test; D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus test and; the Jarque-Bera test. But the most common ones are: Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test and the Shapiro-Wilk Test. If the data is not normally distributed, "distribution free" tests, which are commonly known as non-parametric tests, can be used. These tests do not make assumptions based on the distribution. This study employed the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test to test for normality in the data. The results showed that the data was not normally distributed, which then necessitated the use of a non-parametric test for hypothesis testing.

The IBM Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS), version 20.0 was used to analyse all the data obtained from the youth respondents (both the quantitative sections and the qualitative question). For the qualitative data (**Section D**), descriptive analysis was carried out to check for the distribution of the responses. For the quantitative data, first the Cronbach's alpha test was carried out to measure internal consistency (reliability) of the questionnaire during the pilot study phase. The Cronbach's alpha test was then carried out again on the parent study results, before analysing the demographic section of the youth responses – **Section A**. In analysing the demographics, descriptive analysis was carried out for frequencies. Further, the Cronbach's alpha test was done to test for

relationships amongst some of the demographic variables. To analyse **Section B** and **Section C**, first factoring was carried out to simplify the data using Multiple Factor Analysis. As a precursor, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's tests were carried out to ensure that the data was suitable for factor analysis. From the data simplified by factoring, summative scores were then created before carrying out Regression using the Generalised Linear Model to test for a relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The independent variables included the demographic information collected from the respondents and the YEDPs. The dependent variables included the Entrepreneurial Aspirations and Entrepreneurial Businesses (innovative, fast growing and internationalised businesses).

Factor analysis is the most widely used multivariate technique. According to Kline (1994), factor analysis comprises numerous statistical methods aiming to simplify complex data sets in social sciences. Or put differently, factor analysis is an approach used to make sense of many correlations between variables (Robson, 2002).

Prior to factor analysis Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was calculated as a measure of sampling adequacy and was also helpful in ensuring that the data obtained is suitable for factor analysis. Rasli (2006) indicates that as per the rule of thumb, a value of 0.5 or higher for the KMO measure of sampling adequacy reflect that the variance proportion in the variables is caused by the underlying factors. As a result, it qualifies the use of factor analysis. Higher values of the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (i.e. close to 1) generally reflect that factor analysis will be useful to the obtained data. However, values less than 0.5 indicate that factor analysis will not help in relation to the data.

Other researchers postulate that Bartlett's test of sphericity must be undertaken as an additional test before the application of factor analysis. If this test is significant (i.e. p-value less than 0.05), it indicates that there are relationships among the items; as a result, it is worth using the factor analysis since there are relationships that need to be investigated (Taherdoost, Sahibuddin & Jalaliyoon, 2014).

In this study, both KMO and Bartlett's tests were performed on section B and C of the questionnaire. One-dimensional scales were not subjected to the two tests.

In carrying out factor analysis, distinguishable components were identified using principal component (PAC) analysis through varimax rotation. Eigenvalues, variance percentage, factor loading significance and assessment of the factor structure were used too, as criteria for determining the number of factors to be extracted.

Lorenzo-Seva (2013) indicates that only factors with eigenvalues greater than or equal to 1 are considered significant. A rotated solution accounting for at least sixty percent of the total variance is considered as a solution that is satisfactory, using the procedure of factor analysis. According to Taherdoost et al. (2014), a variable is considered significant and included in a factor if its factor loading is greater or equal to 0.5. If items load heavily on more than one factor, they are removed as a form of cross loading examination in the structure of the factors.

New variables were created in SPSS using summated scores by averaging the responses whose scores were greater than factor-loading 0.5 for that factor in the factor analysis. Neutral responses i.e. 3 – Neutral, were omitted from the analysis because they did not contribute anything. The first factor, which is Innovation Aspirations, was computed by averaging four responses, from Question 7-10 in Section B of the questionnaire, which were looking at the different types of innovation aspirations. The second factor, which is Growth Aspirations, is the average of three responses obtained from Question 11-13 in Section B of the questionnaire, which were inquiring on the increase of growth aspirations using three different types of measures of business growth.

The other two factors, which are: Innovative Business and Fast Growing Business, were also computed the same way as the first two factors from their respective responses in the questionnaire, Section C. For Innovative Business, the responses used are those from Question 15-18. For Fast Growing Business the responses used were those from Question 18-21 in Section C. All the created variables were taken as dependent/response variables together with the internationalisation and current internationalisation. For this study, the use of a single independent/predictor variable may be too imprecise to be useful, hence each of the dependent variables were then regressed with all the independent variables combined to construct a Generalised Linear Model (Distribution-

Normal; Link Function: Identity Link). This is a multiple regression model with several predictor variables.

According to Hill and Lewicki (2007), the Generalised Linear Model (GLZ) is a generalisation of the general linear model (such as Multiple Regression). In its basic form, a linear model specifies the (linear) relationship between a dependent (or response) variable *Y*, and a set of predictor variables, the *X*'s, so that:

$$Y = b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + ... + b_kX_k$$

in the above equation b_0 is the regression coefficient for the intercept and the b_i values are the regression coefficients (for variables 1 through *k*) calculated from the data. This model is used to analyse linear and non-linear effects of continuous and categorical predictor variables on a discrete or continuous dependent variable.

The reason why this model was chosen for this study in favour of a linear model, is well articulated by Hill and Lewicki (2007), when they explained that the generalised linear model is different from the general linear model (of which, for example, multiple regression is a special case) in two major aspects: the distribution of the dependent or response variable can be (explicitly) non-normal, and does not necessarily have to be continuous (it can contain information on ranks only), secondly, the dependent variable values are predicted from a linear combination of predictor variables, which are "connected" to the dependent variable via a link function.

The independent variables in this study include: YEDP, business ownership, education, gender and age. Computing the regression analysis resulted in six models which are presented in the following Chapter.

After the whole data was analysed, it was then presented as statistical summaries, in tables and as graphs; such as bar diagrams and pie charts in Chapter four.

3.11 Validity and reliability of research

The validity of a tool is the question of whether the measurement tool is measuring what the study set out to measure (O' Dwyer & Bernauer, 2014; Wrenn, Stevens & Loudon, 2007). There are two types of validity, namely internal and external. This study, however, did not measure internal validity as this type of validity can be found in experimental research (Page & Meyer, 2000; Welman et al., 2005; Yin, 2009).

3.11.1 External validity

External validity is transferability or the degree to which the results can be generalised; this is determined by inspecting the characteristics of the sample to assess the degree to which the findings are content bound (Gray, 2009). This was ensured by sampling the total population of the participants of the BBB in 2009, using, as a sample, all the data which was obtainable for the Kickstart YEDP and using a stratified random sampling method for the YEF programme. This allowed the researcher to generalise the findings. One should note, however, that there are two YEDPs that have recently been launched for out-of-school youth in Swaziland, these however, have not been on the ground long enough to be evaluated.

The GEM questionnaire was used as a basis for developing the data collection tool. This was reviewed by the Researcher's Supervisor and changes were made where necessary. Questions were however expanded and rephrased for simplification and to test different aspects of the innovation, growth and internationalisation aspirations.

3.11.2 Internal validity

Internal validity is the extent to which changes are solely due to the independent variable instead of something else (Welman et al., 2005). This was a challenge in this research since it is not an experimental research and it was hard to prove that the opinions of the youth on aspirations would be solely due to the training in the YEDPs. The large sample size was taken to mitigate for this.

3.11.3 Reliability

Reliability is defined as the consistency of the measurement (O' Dwyer & Bernauer, 2014). To ensure reliability of the questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted and the results subjected to SPSS to check for internal reliability using the Cronbach's Alpha test. A randomly selected sample size (n=50), made up of youth from the three YEDPs, was used to conduct the pilot study. This is 10% of the sample projected for the larger parent study.

The Cronbach's Alpha test was then conducted on the collected data. This test was also carried out to measure how closely related the items in Section B and Section C of the questionnaire are as a group (internal consistency). Lastly, the Cronbach's alpha was carried out on the data collected for the main study. According to Bryman and Bell (2007), as a rule of thumb, an alpha coefficient of 0.7 is considered efficient. This proved internal reliability of the measurement tool being used in this study.

3.12 Conclusion

This Chapter explained that this research is a cross sectional telephonic survey using a structured adapted questionnaire. First descriptive statistics were used to test the data for further statistical analysis. Thereafter non-parametric tests were used for data analysis. In further explaining this, it was discussed that the post-positivist paradigm, quantitative research methodology, correlational research design and a probability sampling method were employed in conducting this research. The research instrument chosen was a questionnaire which was used to collect data by means of the telephone survey, which is deemed the most effective and efficient data collection method for this type of study with such a large sample. A pilot study was done and a Chi square test carried out before undertaking the parent study. This study only proceeded after the granting of an ethics clearance from the University's Ethics Committee. The collected data was safely stored and managed; organised and sorted then coded before being analysed. SPSS was then used to carry out the data analysis which included descriptive and inferential statistics tests, namely, factor analysis and regression. In this Chapter, the

limitations of this study were also discussed and matters of validity and reliability deliberated on.

Chapter four presents the results, as obtained in this study, by displaying them using bar and pie charts as well as tables, then describing them.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The previous Chapter explained how the research was designed, undertaken and how data was analysed. It also dealt with issues of ethical considerations and issues of validity and reliability of the study.

The current Chapter presents and describes the results obtained from the analysis of the collected data from the 492 youth respondents. The data obtained from Section A of the questionnaire was subjected to descriptive statistics analysis; the data from Section B and C was first simplified using factor analysis then the conceptual model was tested using regression analysis and a conclusion was made, either accepting or rejecting the Hypotheses. The data from Section D was qualitative. It was however, coded and analysed quantitatively using descriptive statistics. All data was analysed using the IBM SPSS version 20.0.

For anonymity, in presenting the results, the YEDPs were renamed YEDP A, B and C.

4.2 Pilot Test Results

To test the reliability of the measurement instrument (the questionnaire), the data obtained from a 10% (n=50) pilot sample of respondents was subjected to a Cronbach's Alpha test, to ensure that the questionnaire is refined in terms of the wording, clarity, layout, and the relevance of the questions, as well as to ensure items' content did not have ambiguity and biases related to translation. The internal consistency of Section B and C was examined through reliability values calculations for the two Sections. Table 4.1 below shows the results.

Table 4.1: Pilot test results

Sections	N of Items	N of Items deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
Section B (Innovation Aspiration, Growth Aspiration and Internalisation Aspiration items)	50	0	0.746
Section C (Operating an innovative business, Operating a fast growing business and Operating an Internalised business items)	50	0	0.980

As presented in Table 4.1 above, The Cronbach's alpha values for the individual scales are 0.746 and 0.980, of which both are above the acceptable benchmark levels of 0.7. These coefficient alphas indicate that the scale items performed adequately in capturing the elements of the trained youth's perceptions on the impact of the YEDPs in terms of entrepreneurial aspirations. As a result, the reliability of the scale is deemed acceptable due to consistency.

Table 4.2: Internal consistency statistics

Sections	Number of items	Deleted items	Cronbach's alpha
Section B (Innovation Aspiration, Growth Aspiration and Internalisation Aspiration items)	8	0	0.732
Section C (Operating an innovative business, Operating a fast growing business and Operating an Internalised business items)	8	0	0.788

Table 4.2 above shows that the two sections and all the items from the two constructs are statistically reliable as reflected by their Cronbach's alpha values ($\alpha = 0.732$) and ($\alpha = 0.788$).

4.3 Normality Test Results

Table 4.3: Tests for normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
7. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new type of product or service was increased.	.276	492	.000	.728	492	.000
8. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new way of producing a service or product was increased.	.308	492	.000	.771	492	.000
9. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new way of delivering or promoting a product or service was increased.	.306	492	.000	.810	492	.000
10. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise serving an unattended market niche for a certain product or service was increased.	.259	492	.000	.868	492	.000
11. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its income by at least 20% per year was increased.	.280	492	.000	.742	492	.000
12. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its profit by at least 20% per year was increased.	.267	492	.000	.728	492	.000
13. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its staff by at least 20% per year was increased.	.314	492	.000	.793	492	.000
14. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that sells its products internationally was increased (e.g. exports, uses ecommerce, joint ventures with foreign companies, foreign licensing, franchised internationally, company branches internationally).	.257	492	.000	.851	492	.000
15. You are currently running an enterprise that offers a new type of product or service.	.295	492	.000	.800	492	.000
16. You are currently running an enterprise that offers a new way of producing a product or service.	.300	492	.000	.794	492	.000
17. You are currently running an enterprise that offers a new way of delivering or promoting a product or service.	.299	492	.000	.805	492	.000
18. You are currently running an enterprise that is servicing an unattended market niche for a certain product or service.	.298	492	.000	.803	492	.000
19. Your business's income increases by at least 20% annually.	.305	492	.000	.788	492	.000
20. Your business's profit increases by at least 20% annually.	.306	492	.000	.784	492	.000
21. The number of your staff increases by at least 20% annually.	.293	492	.000	.812	492	.000
22. You currently sell some of your products internationally (e.g. export, use ecommerce, joint ventures with foreign companies, foreign licensing, franchised internationally, company branches internationally).	.282	492	.000	.809	492	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

Both the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests for normality indicate significant values of less than 0.05 with all the dependent variables, this means the data is not normally distributed and thus non-parametric tests were employed for analysis.

4.4 Demographic profile of respondents

This section of the Chapter presents the demographic information obtained from the 492 youth respondents. Some variables were cross tabulated using the Chi square test.

4.4.1 Age

Table 4.4: Central tendency statistics for the respondents' age

Statistics

Age

N	Valid	492
	Missing	0
Mean		27.7114
Median		28.0000
Mode		25.00

Table 4.5: Age of the respondents

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18.00	4	.8	.8	.8
	19.00	4	.8	.8	1.6
	20.00	15	3.0	3.0	4.7
	21.00	11	2.2	2.2	6.9
	22.00	22	4.5	4.5	11.4
	23.00	31	6.3	6.3	17.7
	24.00	24	4.9	4.9	22.6
	25.00	51	10.4	10.4	32.9
	26.00	35	7.1	7.1	40.0
	27.00	42	8.5	8.5	48.6
	28.00	48	9.8	9.8	58.3
	29.00	38	7.7	7.7	66.1
	30.00	43	8.7	8.7	74.8
	31.00	13	2.6	2.6	77.4
	32.00	24	4.9	4.9	82.3
	33.00	28	5.7	5.7	88.0
	34.00	33	6.7	6.7	94.7
	35.00	26	5.3	5.3	100.0
	Total	492	100.0	100.0	

As presented in both table 4.4 and table 4.5 above, the total sample (n=492) of the sampled youth responded to this question. The minimum age of the respondents who have been trained through the YEDPs is 18 years and the maximum age is 35 years. The mean or average age of the youth who participated in the YEDPs is 27.7 years. The median age is 28 years. The modal value is 25 years (10.4% of the sample).

4.4.2 Gender

Table 4.6: Gender of the respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	283	57.5	57.5	57.5
	2.00	209	42.5	42.5	100.0
	Total	492	100.0	100.0	

As presented in table 4.6 above, 57.5% (n=283) of the youth respondents were male and 42.5% (n=209) were female.

4.4.3 Education

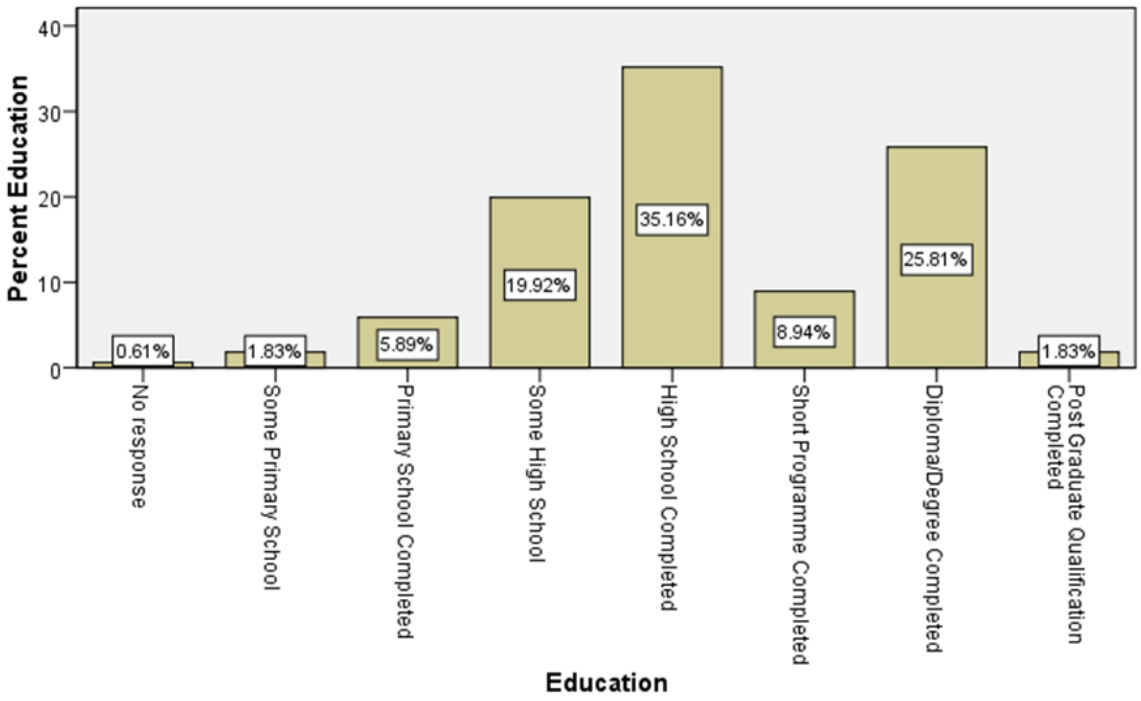

Figure 4.1: Education of the respondents

As shown in figure 4.1, 0.61% (n=3) of the respondents gave no response concerning their level of education at the time of attending the YEDP training. The largest percentage of the interviewed youth (35.16%) had completed High School. The second largest group of youth who attended the YEDPs had either completed a Diploma or a Degree. Only

1.83% (n=9) of the youth already possessed postgraduate qualifications when they participated in the YEDPs.

A cross tabulation of education with age, education with gender and education with current business ownership was carried out which is presented below.

Table 4.7: Cross tabulation of education and age

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	134.625[a]	119	.155
N of Valid Cases	492		
a. 107 cells (74.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .02.			

Based on table 4.7 above, and using Turner's (2014) guiding principle, at a 0.05 significance level, there is no significant statistical relationship between the age of the respondents and their education level ($X^2 = 134.625$, $p = 0.155$).

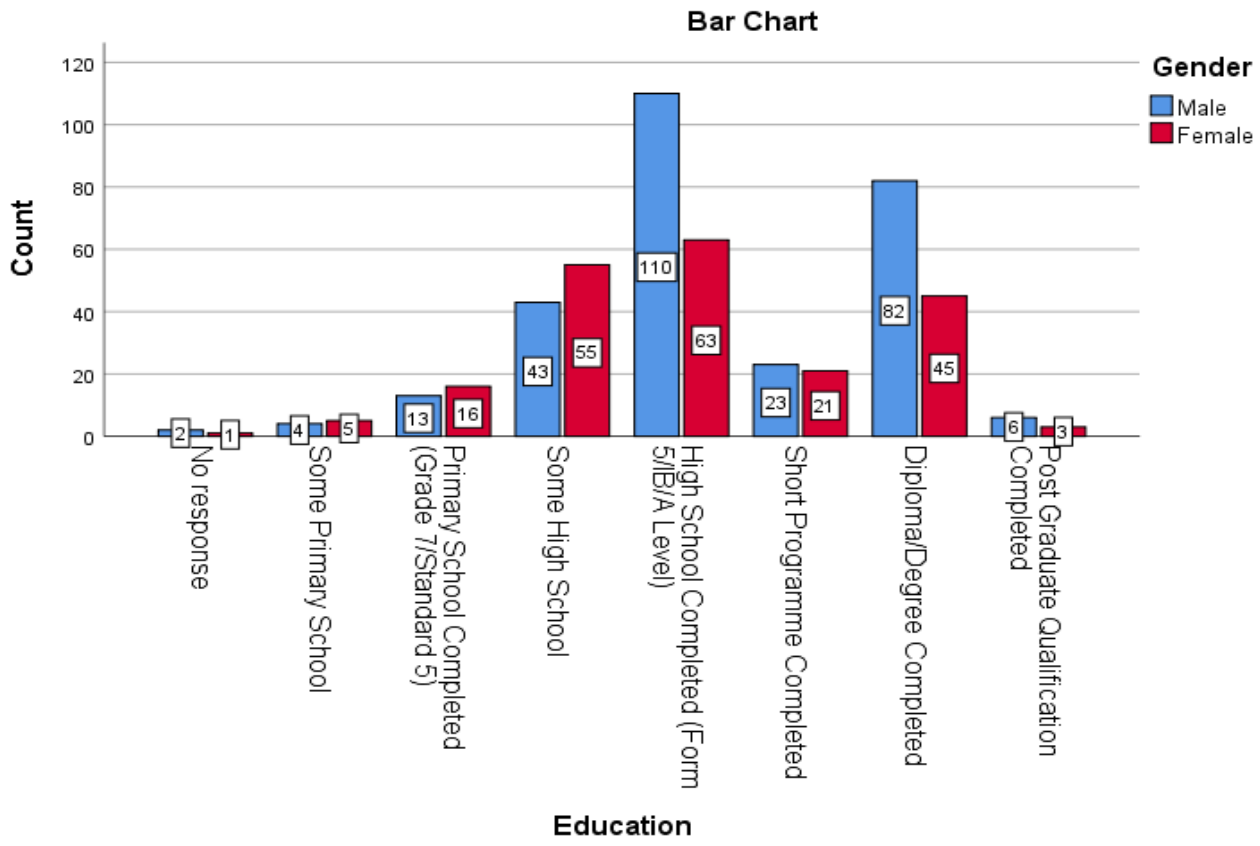

Figure 4.2: Cross tabulation of education and gender of the respondents

As presented in Figure 4.2 above, 2.6% (n=13) males compared to 3.3 % (n=16) females completed primary school. The majority of respondents (35%) completed high school (22% males, 13% females). 1.2% (n=6) of the male respondents obtained a postgraduate qualification whilst 0.6% of female respondents obtained same.

Table 4.8: Chi Square test for the education and gender of the respondents

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.097[a]	7	.024
Likelihood Ratio	16.041	7	.025
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.371	1	.007
N of Valid Cases	492		

a. 4 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.27.

The Chi square analysis results (X^2 = 16.097, p = 0.024), presented in Table 4.8, shows a significant statistical relationship between gender and the level of education, at a 0.05 significance level.

4.4.4 Business Ownership

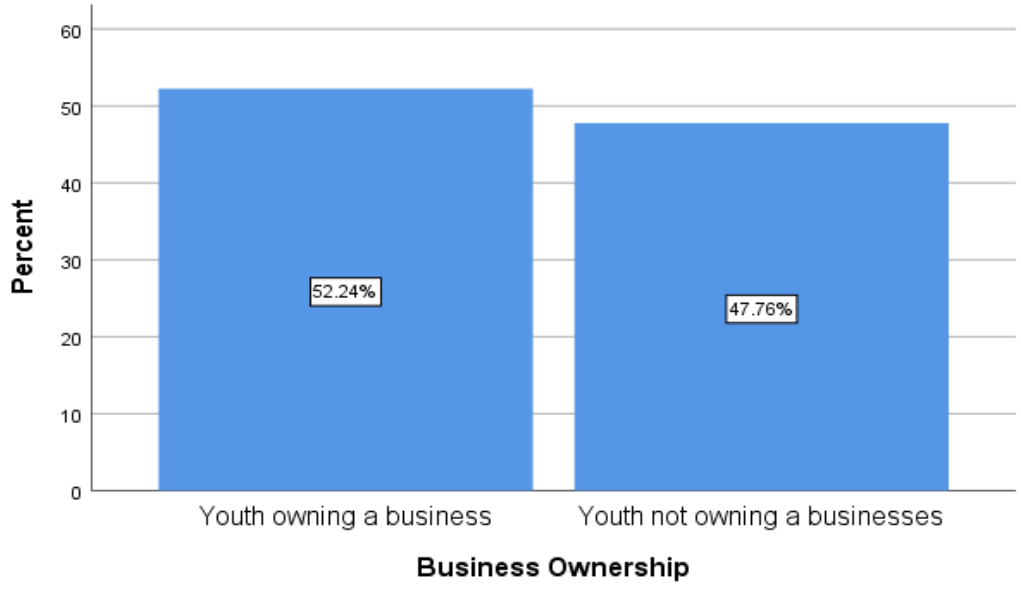

Figure 4.3: Business ownership by the respondents

As shown in Figure 4.3 above, 52.24% (n=257) of the respondents currently own businesses. The other 47.76% (n=235) of the respondents currently do not own businesses.

A cross tabulation of gender and current business ownership was then carried out on the data. Figure 4.4 presents the results.

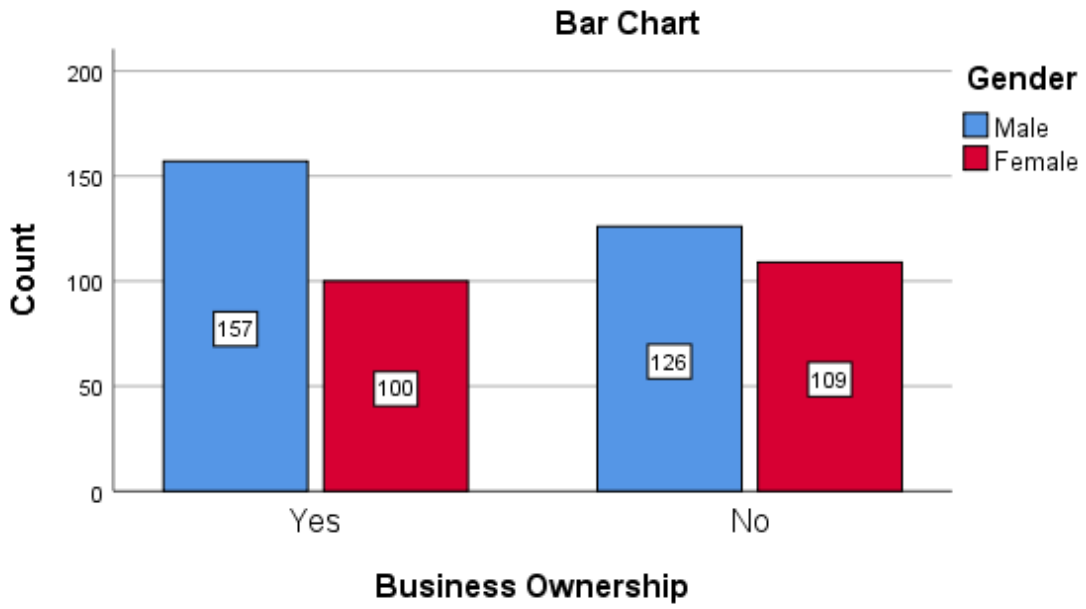

Figure 4.4: Cross tabulation of gender and current business ownership

Based on figure 4.4, of the 257 respondents who currently own businesses, 61.09% (n=157) are male and 38.91% (n=100) are female.

Table 4.9: Chi square test for gender and current business ownership

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.805[a]	1	.094		
Continuity Correction[b]	2.508	1	.113		
Likelihood Ratio	2.806	1	.094		
Fisher's Exact Test				.101	.057
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.799	1	.094		
N of Valid Cases	492				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 99.83.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

As presented in Table 4.9 above, at the confidence level of 0.05, there is no significant statistical association between gender and current business ownership ($X^2 = 2.805$, $p = 0.094$).

4.4.5 Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programme (YEDP)

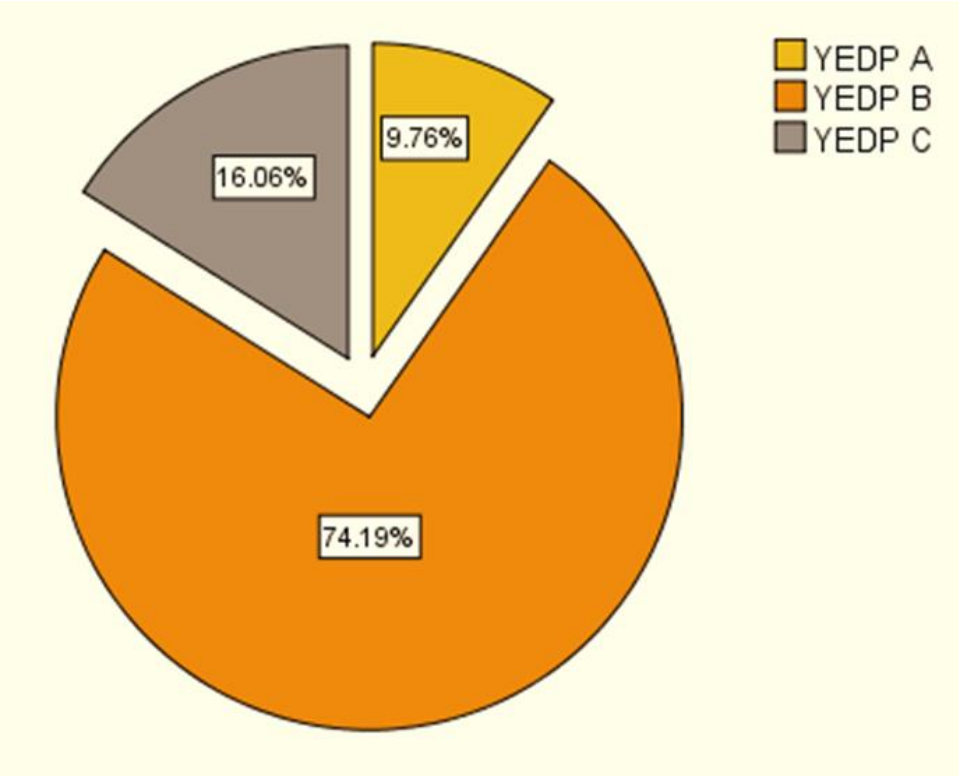

Figure 4.5: YEDPs attended by the respondents

YEDPs A, B and C were attended by 9.76% (n=48), 16.06% (n=79) and 74.19% (n=365) of the respondents respectively.

4.4.6 Year of participation in the YEDP

Table 4.10: Year of participation of the respondents segregated by YEDP

		Participation Year							
		2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2015	2016	Total
YEDP	1.00	48	0	0	0	0	0	0	48
	2.00	0	188	69	70	38	0	0	365
	3.00	0	0	0	0	0	33	46	79
Total		48	188	69	70	38	33	46	492

Table 4.10 shows that YEDP A had 9.76% (n= 48) of the respondents participating in 2009. YEDP B had 38.21% (n=188) respondents participated in 2010, 14.02% (n=69) in 2011, 14.23% (n=70) in 2012 and 7.72% (n= 38) in 2013. YEDP C had 6.71% (n=33) of the respondents attended in 2015, with the remaining 9.35% (n=46) attending in 2016.

4.5 Factor analysis for Entrepreneurial Aspirations

A factor analysis was carried out on the data collected in section B of the questionnaire which tested for the increase in entrepreneurial aspirations as a result of the Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes Training. Before subjecting the data to factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests were carried out and the results are presented below.

Table 4.11 below presents results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests which determines whether or not the data is suitable for factor analysis. These tests were applied on the data collected from section B of the questionnaire which measured the increase of entrepreneurial aspirations as a result of the YEDP training.

Table 4.11: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test for increased entrepreneurial aspirations

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.704
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	902.158
	Df	21
	Sig.	.000

Based on Table 4.11 above, Taherdoost et al. (2014)'s guiding principles and taking a 95% level of significance (α = 0.05), the KMO of 0.704 and the significant Bartlett's test of sphericity (p-value [Sig.] of 0.000 < 0.05) indicate that the variance proportion in the variables is caused by the underlying factors. As such, it permits the application of factor analysis.

Table 4.12 below shows the eigenvalues, the percentage of variance explained by each factor and cumulative percentage of variance of the two factors extracted.

Table 4.12: Entrepreneurial aspirations eigenvalues

Dimension description	No of items	Eigenvalues	% of variance	Cumulative %
Innovation	4	2.790	39.856	39.856
Growth	3	1.258	17.977	57.832

Some of the items were removed, either due to cross loading or low factor loading (i.e. factors loading less than 0.5). As such, the technique resulted in the extraction of the following factors for innovation aspiration and growth aspiration. A summary for factor structure evaluation of the entrepreneurial aspirations in Section B of the youth questionnaire is presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Factor Loading Matrix for entrepreneurial aspirations

Scale description	Factor one: Innovation Aspiration variable	Factor 2: Growth Aspiration variable
1. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new type of product or service was increased.	.780	.084
2 As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new way of producing a service or product was increased.	.800	.055
3. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new way of delivering or promoting a product or service was increased.	.645	.155
4. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise serving an unattended market niche for a certain product or service was increased.	.525	.267
5. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its income by at least 20% per year was increased	.263	.830
6. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its profit by at least 20% per year was increased.	.231	.840
7. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its staff by at least 20% per year was increased.	.005	.697

Factor one is the innovation aspiration factor comprising four variables accounting for 39.856% of the variance explained by innovation items, this is presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.13 shows that the innovation aspiration variable for the first statement which referred to an increase in the desire to own an enterprise offering a new type of product or service was 0.780. The Innovation aspiration variable for the second statement which referred to the increase of the desire to own an enterprise offering a new way of producing a service or product was 0.800. The innovation aspiration for the third statement referring to the desire to own an enterprise offering a new way of delivering or promoting a product or service was 0.645 and the Innovation aspiration variable for the fourth statement which refers to the desire to own an enterprise serving an unattended market niche for a certain product or service was 0.525.

Factor two, named growth aspiration factor, was composed of three variables. This factor accounted for 17.977% of the variance as shown in Table 4.12 above.

The growth aspiration variable related to an increase in the desire of the youth to own an enterprise that grows its income by at least 20% per year was 0.830. The growth aspiration variable accounting for an increase in the desire of the youth to own an enterprise that grows its profit by at least 20% annually was 0.840. The last growth aspiration variable relating to the desire to own an enterprise that grows its staff by at least 20% per year was 0.697.

In summary, these two factors (innovation and growth factors) accounted for almost 60% of the total variance explained by the overall factors as reflected in Table 4.12.

In terms of the importance of the innovation and growth factors, the mean ratings are shown in Table 4.14 below.

Table 4.14: Mean ratings of entrepreneurial aspirations factors

Dimension description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
1. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new type of product or service was increased.	492	1	5	4.28
2 As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new way of producing a service or product was increased.	492	1	5	4.11
3. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new way of delivering or promoting a product or service was increased.	492	1	5	3.98
4. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise serving an unattended market niche for a certain product or service was increased.	492	1	5	3.73
5. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its income by at least 20% per year was increased	492	1	5	4.25
6. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its profit by at least 20% per year was increased.	492	1	5	4.29
7. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its staff by at least 20% per	492	1	5	3.70

year was increased.				
8. As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that sells its products internationally was increased (e.g. exports, uses ecommerce, joint ventures with foreign companies, foreign licensing, franchised internationally, company branches internationally)	492	1	5	3.49
Scale item rating: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neural; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly agree				

Table 4.14 above shows that all respondents (n = 492) answered the questions. Most of the respondents agreed with statements 1, 2, 3 and 4 (means = 4.28; 4.11; 3.98 and 3.73 respectively). These statements referred to an increase in innovation aspirations. Most participants also agreed with statements 5, 6 and 7 (means = 4.25; 4.29 and 3.70 respectively). These statements referred to an increase in growth aspirations. Finally, Table 4.14 shows that when referring to internationalisation aspirations (statement 8), the participants gave a more neutral response (mean=3.49).

4.6 Factor analysis for operating an entrepreneurial business

Before the data obtained from Section C of the youth respondents' questionnaire was subjected to the factor analysis test, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests were carried out and the results are presented below.

Table 4.15 presents results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests determining whether or not the data is suitable for factor analysis.

Table 4.15: Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test for current businesses

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.720
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	826.162
	Df	28
	Sig.	.000

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy of Section C, in the questionnaire, is 0.720, above the recommended value of 0.5 (Rasli, 2006). Taking a 95% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), the Bartlett's test of sphericity shows significance (p-value [Sig.] of $0.000 < 0.05$). Both tests indicate that factor analysis can be used on this section.

Table 4.16: Eigenvalues for current businesses

Dimension description	No of items	Eigenvalues	% of variance	Cumulative %
Innovative Business	4	3.103	44.33	44.33
Growing Business	3	1.6727	23.38	67.33

Table 4.16 shows the eigenvalues, the percentage of variance and cumulative percentage of the variance in relation to the extracted factors of innovative businesses and fast growing businesses. Internationalised businesses were removed due to cross loading or low factor loading. A summary for factor structure evaluation of the entrepreneurial businesses in Section C of the youth questionnaire is presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Factor Loading Matrix for current businesses

Scale Description	Factor 1 Innovative Business	Factor 2 Fast Growing Business
1. You are currently running an enterprise that offers a new type of product or service.	.722	.089
2. You are currently running an enterprise that offers a new way of producing a product or service.	.875	.048
3. You are currently running an enterprise that offers a new way of delivering or promoting a product or service.	.753	.167
4. You are currently running an enterprise that is servicing an unattended market niche for a certain product or service.	.736	.202
5. Your business's income increases by at least 20% annually.	.134	.927
6. Your business's profit increases by at least 20% annually.	.149	.922
7. The number of your staff increases by at least 20% annually.	.123	.708

Factor one is the innovative business factor comprising four variables accounting for 44.33% of the variance explained by business innovation items, as shown in Table 4.16.

As presented in Table 4.17 above, the innovative business variable for the first statement was 0.722, the variable for the second statement was 0.875, that of the third statement was 0.753 and that of the fourth statement was 0.736.

Factor two is the growing business factor, comprising three variables accounting for 23.38% of the variance explained by the business growth items, as shown in Table 4.16.

As presented in Table 4.17 above, the growing business variable related to the fifth statement was 0.927, the variable related to the sixth statement was 0.922 and the variable of the last statement was 0.708.

Factor one and factor two account for 67.33% of the total variance explained by the overall factors.

The mean ratings of the youth responses in terms of the nature of their current businesses is displayed in Table 4.18 below.

Table 4.18: Mean rating of dimensions for current businesses

Dimension description	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Current innovation	257	1	5	3.26
Current growth	257	1	5	3.30
Current Internationalisation	257	1	5	3.72
Scale item rating: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neither disagree nor agree; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly agree				

Table 4.18 above shows that only the respondents who currently own businesses (n = 257) answered this section. The respondents gave largely neutral responses (mean = 3.26) in relation to currently operating an innovative business. They also gave largely neutral responses (mean= 3.30) in relation to operating a currently fast growing business, measured by income, profit and staff. Lastly, the respondents gave neutral responses but leaning towards agreeing (mean = 3.72) that they are currently operating internationalised businesses.

4.7 Hypothesis Testing

The following section looks at the relationship that exists between the independent and dependent variables in order to test the conceptual model of the study presented in Chapter two. To underscore here is that for this study, the use of a single independent/predictor variable may have been too imprecise to be useful, hence each of the dependent variables were then regressed with all the independent variables combined to construct a multiple regression model with several predictor variables. It is therefore easier to interpret the six produced models at the same time for all the variables and make the hypothesis conclusions. The alternative would be to display the first three models and conclude on the first hypothesis, and display the second

The Hypotheses, research questions and objectives are restated below:

$H1_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations.

$H1_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations.

$H2_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP participants and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

$H2_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP participants and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

$H3_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of youth entrepreneurial aspirations.

$H3_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of youth entrepreneurial aspirations.

$H4_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

$H4_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

Research Objective 1: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations.

Research Question 1: What relationship exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations?

Research Objective 2: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP participants and the level of current operation of an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

Research Question 2: What relationship exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP participants and the level of current operation of an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business?

Research Objective 3: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of their participants' entrepreneurial aspirations.

Research Question 3: What relationship exists between the type of YEDP and the level of their participants' entrepreneurial aspirations?

Research Objective 4: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of operation of an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

Research Question 4: What relationship exists between the type of YEDP and the level of operation of an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business?

Research Objective 5: To propose improvements in the YEDPs and Government support in order to create a more enabling environment for youth entrepreneurship.

Research Question 5: How can the YEDPs and Government support be improved in order to create a more enabling environment for youth entrepreneurship?

To test the above mentioned hypotheses, six Generalised Linear Regression Models were used, with the same predictor variables for all the response variables. These predictor variables include; gender, education, business ownership, youth entrepreneurship development programmes (YEDP) and age. When describing or analysing the results, the researcher focused on the predictor variables whose significance (p-value) was less than 0.05 when each response variable was regressed against its predictor variables. The variables with less than 0.05 are those believed to have more effect on the outcome of the response variable.

Tables of parameter estimates were used to display the results of each response variable regressed against its predictor variables, and below each table, only the predictor variables that have the most effect on the response variables are highlighted. A positive value in the coefficient (B) for that particular variable reflects a score that is significantly greater than the reference variable, whilst a negative value indicates a score that is significantly less than the reference variable on average. The response variables that are discussed in this section are the Innovation Aspirations, Growth Aspirations, Internationalisation Aspirations, Innovative Business, Fast Growing Business and Internationalised Business in relation to the predictor variables.

Table 4.19: Innovation aspirations

Parameter	B	Std. Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	d.f	Sig.
(Intercept)	3.192	0.3406	2.524	3.860	87.800	1	0.00005
Gender							
Male	0.116	0.0725	-0.027	0.258	2.535	1	0.111
Female	0[a]						
Education							
Some primary school	0.748	0.3429	0.076	1.420	4.760	1	0.029
Primary school completed	0.144	0.2929	-0.430	0.718	0.243	1	0.622
Some high school	0.315	0.2665	-0.207	0.838	1.401	1	0.237
High school completed	0.187	0.2601	-0.322	0.697	0.519	1	0.471
Short programme completed	0.327	0.2839	-0.230	0.883	1.323	1	0.250
Diploma/Degree completed	0.186	0.2559	-0.316	0.688	0.528	1	0.467
Post graduate qualification	0[a]						
Business ownership							
Yes	0.237	0.0708	0.098	0.376	11.216	1	0.001
No	0[a]						
YEDP							
A	0.146	0.1513	-0.151	0.443	0.931	1	0.335
B	-0.055	0.1050	-0.261	0.150	0.279	1	0.598
C	0[a]						
Age							
Age	0.020	0.0082	0.004	.036	5.949	1	0.015
(Scale)	0.408[b]	0.0313	0.351	0.474			

Dependent Variable: Innovative Business Aspirations
Model: (Intercept), Gender, Education, Business ownership, YEDP, Age
a. Set to zero because this parameter is redundant.
b. Maximum likelihood estimate.

In relation to increased innovation aspirations, since the p-value for youth with some primary school education is 0.029 ($p<0.05$), this indicates that on average, those with

some primary school education, have a score that is 0.748 significantly more than those with post-graduate education, when all other factors are held constant. The same is true for the youth who currently own businesses as their p-value is 0.001. The results depict that, on average, the youth who own businesses, have a score that is 0.237 significantly greater than that of the youth who do not own businesses. Another variable that has a significance of less than 0.05 is age. Age in this case is a covariate, hence the analysis of its parameters is a bit different. For this case, the above regression model indicates that innovative entrepreneurial aspirations increase by 0.02 with a unit increase in age when all other factors (gender, education, business ownership, and YEDP) are held constant.

Table 4.20: Growth aspirations

Parameter	B	Std. Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	d.f	Sig.
(Intercept)	3.934	0.2913	3.363	4.505	182.366	1	0.00005
Gender							
Male	0.044	0.0604	-0.074	0.163	0.538	1	0.463
Female	0[a]						
Education							
Some primary school	-0.098	0.3149	-0.715	0.520	0.096	1	0.757
Primary school completed	-0.119	0.2497	-0.609	0.370	0.229	1	0.633
Some high school	0.094	0.2292	-0.355	0.543	0.168	1	0.682
High school completed	-0.041	0.2226	-0.477	0.395	0.034	1	0.854
Short programme completed	-0.169	0.2382	-0.636	0.298	0.501	1	0.479
Diploma/Degree completed	-0.058	0.2202	-0.490	0.373	0.070	1	0.791
Post graduate qualification	0[a]						
Business ownership							
Yes	0.073	0.0580	-0.041	0.187	1.577	1	0.209
No	0[a]						
YEDP							
A	0.166	0.1175	-0.064	0.396	1.993	1	0.158
B	0.219	0.0918	0.039	0.399	5.690	1	0.017
C	0[a]						
Age							
Age	0.005	0.0070	-0.008	0.019	0.579	1	0.447
(Scale)	0.351[b]	0.0240	0.307	0.401			

Dependent Variable: Growing Business Aspirations
Model: (Intercept), Gender, Education, Business ownership, YEDP, Age

a. Set to zero because this parameter is redundant.

b. Maximum likelihood estimate.

When the growth entrepreneurial aspirations score was regressed against its predictor variables, only one predictor variable had a significance level of less than 0.05, indicating that it has more effect on the outcome of the growth aspirations when compared to other predictor variables. That variable was YEDP B's training and the significance level was 0.017. The table above shows that the youth who had entrepreneurship development training at YEDP B, on average, had a score that is 0.219 significantly greater than that of the youth who had their training at YEDP C, when all other factors were constant.

Table 4.21: Internationalisation aspirations

Parameter	B	Std. Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	d.f	Sig.
(Intercept)	3.987	0.6848	2.645	5.329	33.896	1	0.00005
Gender							
Male	0.112	0.1371	-0.157	0.380	0.665	1	0.415
Female	0[a]						
Education							
Some primary school	-0.317	0.8185	-1.921	1.288	0.150	1	0.699
Primary school completed	-0.617	0.6019	-1.796	0.563	1.050	1	0.305
Some high school	-0.243	0.5549	-1.331	0.844	0.192	1	0.661
High school completed	-0.126	0.5455	-1.195	0.943	0.053	1	0.818
Short programme completed	-0.177	0.5791	-1.312	0.958	0.093	1	0.760
Diploma/Degree completed	-0.383	0.5400	-1.442	0.675	0.504	1	0.478
Post graduate qualification	0[a]						
Business ownership							
Yes	0.464	0.1319	0.205	0.722	12.375	1	0.00005
No	0[a]						
YEDP							
A	0.174	0.2671	-0.349	0.698	0.425	1	0.514
B	-0.183	0.1981	-0.571	0.205	0.853	1	0.356
C	0[a]						
Age							
Age	-0.014	0.0157	-0.045	0.017	0.786	1	0.375
(Scale)	1.889[b]	0.1262	1.657	2.153			

Dependent Variable: Internationalization
Model: (Intercept), Gender, Education, Business ownership, YEDP, Age

a. Set to zero because this parameter is redundant.

b. Maximum likelihood estimate.

According to the above table, business ownership seems to have the most effect on internationalisation aspirations as compared to currently not owning a business

enterprise. Business ownership with a p-value of 0.00005 and a score of 0.464, depicts that on average, youth who own businesses have a score that is 0.464 greater than that of those who do not own businesses, provided all other factors involved are held constant.

Table 4.22: Innovative business

Parameter	B	Std. Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	d.f	Sig.
(Intercept)	0.371	0.3961	-0.406	1.147	0.875	1	0.349
Gender							
Male	0.081	0.0775	-0.071	0.233	1.085	1	0.298
Female	0[a]						
Education							
Some primary school	0.248	0.4522	-0.638	1.134	0.301	1	0.583
Primary school completed	-0.037	0.3499	-0.723	0.649	0.011	1	0.916
Some high school	0.325	0.3198	-0.302	0.951	1.029	1	0.310
High school completed	0.044	0.3141	-0.571	0.660	0.020	1	0.887
Short programme completed	0.256	0.3348	-0.400	0.912	0.584	1	0.445
Diploma/Degree completed	0.279	0.3109	-0.330	0.889	0.807	1	0.369
Post graduate qualification	0[a]						
Business ownership							
Yes	3.131	0.0770	2.980	3.282	1654.769	1	0.00005
No	0[a]						
YEDP							
A	0.040	0.1549	-0.264	0.343	0.066	1	0.797
B	-0.186	0.1179	-0.417	0.045	2.488	1	0.115
C	0[a]						
Age							
Age	-0.013	0.0092	-0.031	0.005	2.138	1	0.144
(Scale)	0.537[b]	0.0386	0.466	0.618			

Dependent Variable: Current Operating Innovations
Model: (Intercept), Gender, Education, Business ownership, YEDP, Age

a. Set to zero because this parameter is redundant.

b. Maximum likelihood estimate.

Currently operating an innovative business had only one predictor variable that had a significance less than 0.05. In this case, currently owning a business had a p-value of 0.00005 and a score of 3.131. This means that on average, the youth who own businesses, have their score at 3.131 significantly greater than that of the youth who do not currently own businesses, when other factors are held constant.

Table 4.23: Fast growing business

Parameter	B	Std. Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	d.f	Sig.
(Intercept)	0.127	0.4100	-0.677	0.930	0.095	1	0.758
Gender							
Male	0.020	0.0835	-0.144	0.183	0.055	1	0.815
Female	0[a]						
Education							
Some primary school	0.532	0.4582	-0.366	1.430	1.350	1	0.245
Primary school completed	0.373	0.3547	-0.322	1.068	1.106	1	0.293
Some high school	0.429	0.3282	-0.214	1.072	1.710	1	0.191
High school completed	0.326	0.3218	-0.305	0.956	1.024	1	0.312
Short programme completed	0.415	0.3468	-0.264	1.095	1.436	1	0.231
Diploma/Degree completed	0.383	0.3179	-0.240	1.006	1.450	1	0.228
Post graduate qualification	0[a]						
Business ownership							
Yes	3.269	0.0817	3.108	3.429	1599.696	1	0.00005
No	0[a]						
YEDP							
BBB	-0.049	0.1735	-0.389	0.291	0.079	1	0.778
YEF	-0.190	0.1264	-0.438	0.057	2.266	1	0.132
Kickstart	0[a]						
Age							
Age	-0.009	0.0096	-0.028	0.009	0.969	1	0.325
(Scale)	0.648[b]	0.0456	0.565	0.744			

Dependent Variable: Current Fast Growing
Model: (Intercept), Gender, Education, Business ownership, YEDP, Age

a. Set to zero because this parameter is redundant.

b. Maximum likelihood estimate.

Again, for currently operating a fast growing business, currently owning a business (business ownership), with a p-value of 0.00005, on average, has the most effect on the outcome of perceiving that one is operating a fast growing business, when compared to other predictor variables. On average, for the youth who currently own businesses, their score tends to be 3.269 significantly above that of those who do not currently own businesses, when all other factors are constant.

Table 4.24: Internationalised business

Parameter	B	Std. Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	d.f	Sig.
(Intercept)	0.414	0.4653	-0.498	1.326	0.790	1	0.374
Gender							
Male	-0.023	0.0913	-0.202	0.156	0.062	1	0.804
Female	0[a]						
Education							
Some primary school	-1.082	0.4881	-2.039	-0.126	4.916	1	0.027
Primary school completed	-0.072	0.4027	-0.861	0.718	0.032	1	0.859
Some high school	-0.310	0.3732	-1.042	0.421	0.692	1	0.405
High school completed	-0.370	0.3663	-1.088	0.348	1.018	1	0.313
Short programme completed	-0.441	0.3888	-1.203	0.321	1.284	1	0.257
Diploma/Degree completed	-0.335	0.3619	-1.045	0.374	0.858	1	0.354
Post graduate qualification	0[a]						
Business ownership							
Yes	2.508	0.0879	2.336	2.680	814.325	1	0.00005
No	0[a]						
YEDP							
A	-0.059	0.1797	-0.411	0.294	0.106	1	0.744
B	-0.059	0.1384	-0.330	0.212	0.182	1	0.670
C	0[a]						
Age							
Age	0.002	0.0106	-0.019	0.022	0.021	1	0.885
(Scale)	0.848[b]	0.0564	0.745	0.966			

Dependent Variable: Current internationalization
Model: (Intercept), Gender, Education, Business ownership, YEDP, Age

a. Set to zero because this parameter is redundant.

b. Maximum likelihood estimate.

For currently operating an internationalised business, the above table shows that education and business ownership have p-values less than 0.05, hence having the most effect on the outcome of the youth perceiving themselves to be currently running an internationalised business. On average, youth with some primary school education have a score that is 1.082 significantly less than that of the youth with post-graduate education, provided other factors are constant. Whilst, for business ownership, on average, youth who currently own business enterprises, have their scores at 2.508 significantly greater

than that of those who do not currently have businesses, when all other factors stay the same.

4.8 Summarised regression results

To summarise the results: Predictor variables that demonstrated a relationship with an increase in innovation entrepreneurial aspirations, as perceived by the youth are; some primary school education, currently owning a business and age.

A predictor variable that demonstrated a relationship with an increase in growth entrepreneurial aspirations, as perceived by the youth, is only the YEDP B training.

The only predictor variable that demonstrated a relationship with an increase in internationalisation entrepreneurial aspirations, as perceived by the youth, is currently owning a business.

The only predictor variable that demonstrated a relationship with currently operating an innovative business is currently having a business.

The only predictor variable that demonstrated a relationship with currently operating a fast growing business is currently having a business.

Lastly, the predictor variables that demonstrated a relationship with currently operating an internationalised business are: some primary school education and currently having a business.

The following section draws conclusions on the hypotheses and the conceptual model.

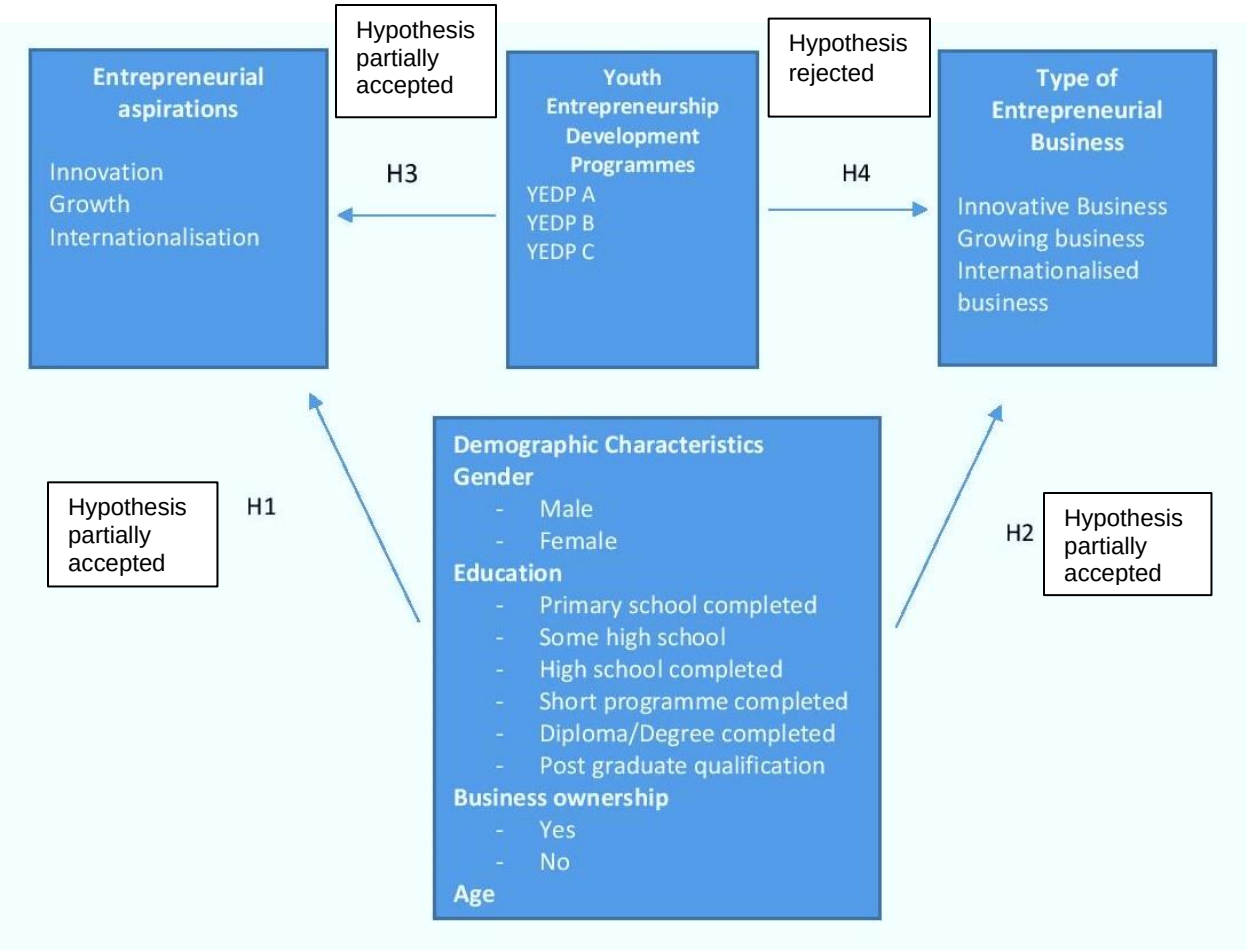

Figure 4.6: Conceptual model testing

H1$_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations.

H1$_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations.

- **The null hypothesis is largely accepted.** It should be stated though that all the demographic variables, used as predictor variables, demonstrated a relationship, except for gender.

$H2_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP participants and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

$H2_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP participants and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

- **The null hypothesis is partially accepted** as only education and currently owning a business demonstrated a relationship.

$H3_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of youth entrepreneurial aspirations.

$H3_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of youth entrepreneurial aspirations.

- **The null hypothesis is partially accepted** as only YEDP B demonstrated a relationship with an increase in growth aspirations.

$H4_0$ = There is a relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

$H4_a$ = There is no relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

- **The null hypothesis is rejected**, and the **alternate hypothesis is accepted**. This is because none of the YEDPs demonstrated any relationship with operating an entrepreneurial business (innovative, fast growing and internationalised).

4.9 Results pertaining to Question 23

The following section's objective was to collate suggestions on how the YEDPs could be improved. The 492 respondents were coded based on themes of their responses. These were further grouped to be presented as per the Entrepreneurship Development

Programme phase which needs improving according to (Bhat, 2015; Deshpande, 2015). The Bar Chart in Figure 4.7 presents the phases which need to be improved in the programmes. In the discussion, these are broken down to unpack the actual suggestions.

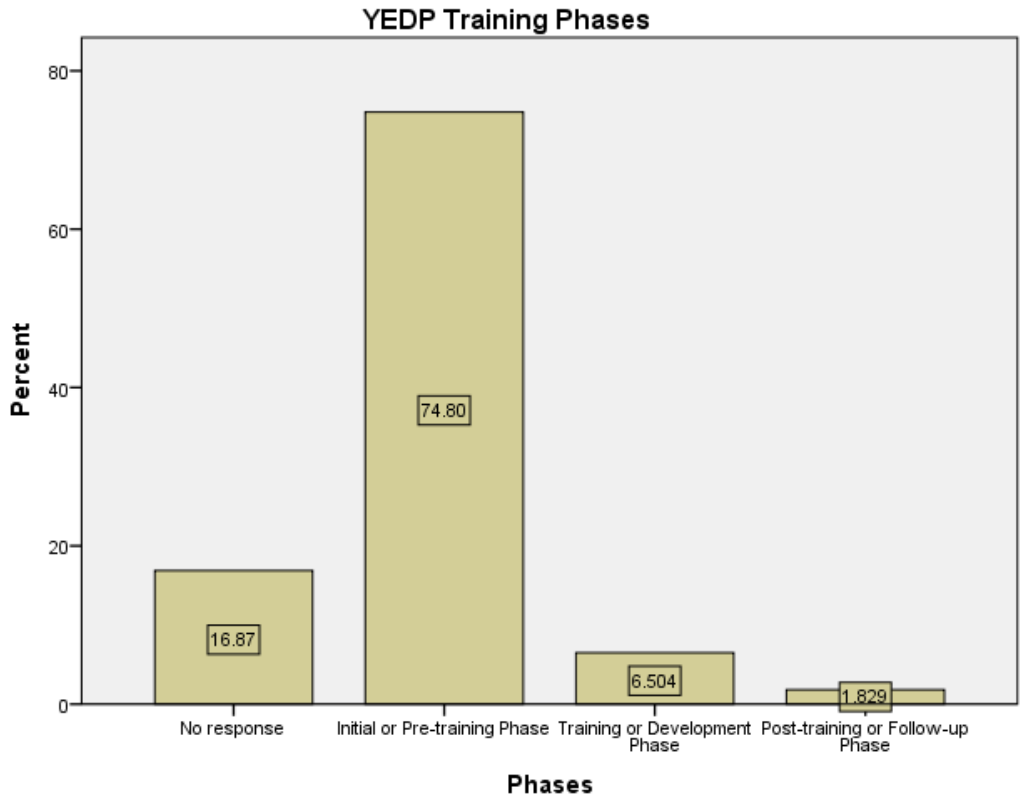

Figure 4.7: Suggestions for improving the YEDPs

As presented in Figure 4.7 above, 74.8% (n=368) of the improvement suggestions pertained the design stage of the YEDP, which is the initial or pre-training phase. 16.87% (n=83) of the respondents gave no suggestions. 6.504% (n=32) gave suggestions pertaining to the training or development phase, whilst only 1.829% (n=9) referred to the post-training phase.

4.10 Results pertaining to Question 24

The following section's objective was to collate suggestions on what the Government of Swaziland can do to improve the entrepreneurship development environment of the

country. The 492 responses were coded, based on their themes. These were further grouped to be presented as per the ILO's Entrepreneurship Development Model (ILO, 2006). The Bar Chart in Figure 4.8 below presents the areas which can be improved for the entrepreneurship environment to be more enabling as suggested by the 492 youth respondents. In the discussion, the model is broken down to unpack the actual suggestions.

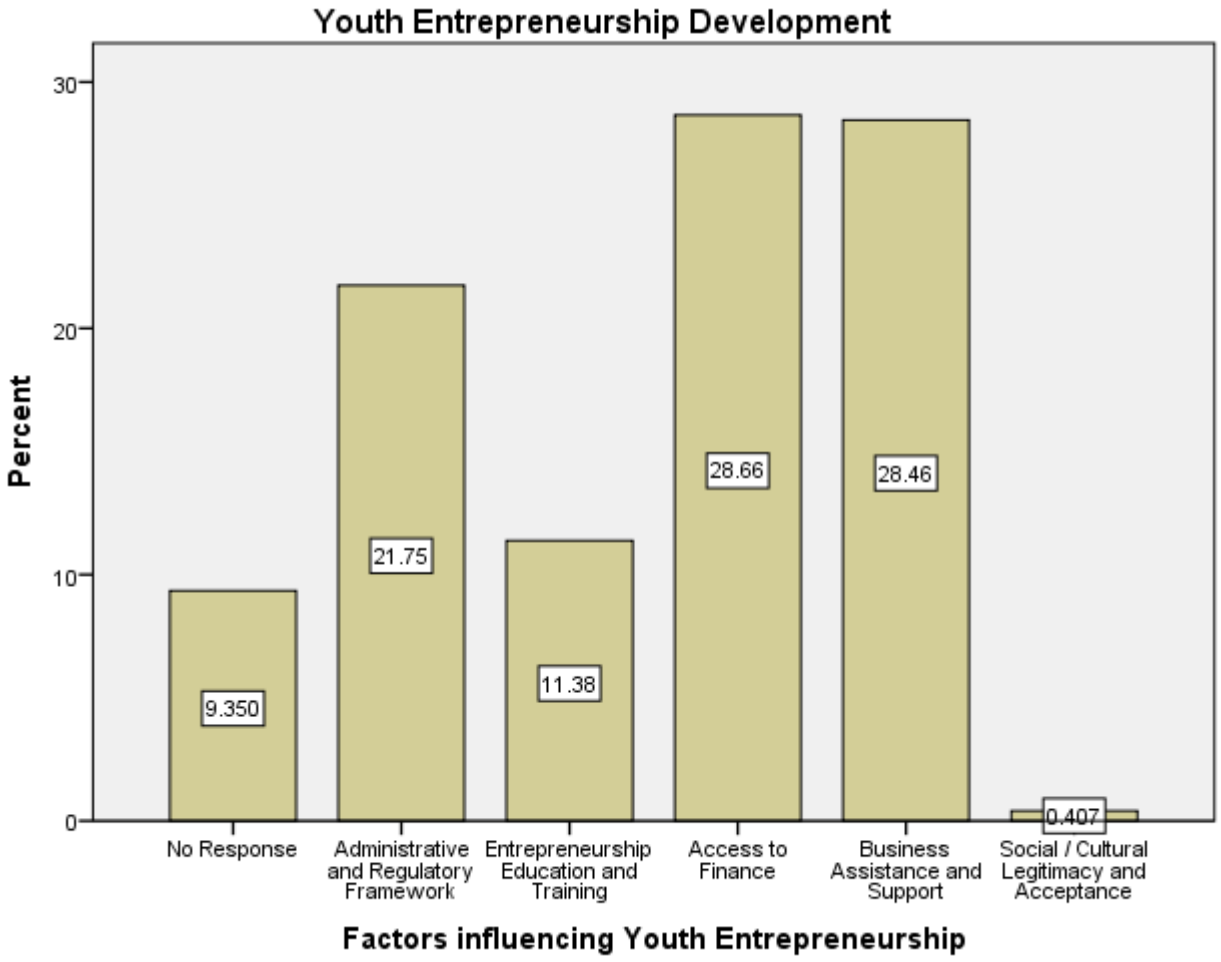

Figure 4.8: Suggestions for improving Government support

Figure 4.8 above indicates that 28.66% (n=141) of the respondents would like to see an improvement in access to finance, 28.46% (n=140) would like more business assistance and support, 21.75% (n=107) would like to see an improvement in the administrative and regulatory framework of the country, 11.38% (n=56) are interested in an improvement in

the entrepreneurship education and training in Swaziland, 0.407% (n=2) would like to see an improvement in social/cultural legitimacy and acceptance and 9.35% (n=46) gave no suggestions.

4.11 Conclusion

The current Chapter presented and described the results obtained from the analysis of the 492 collected responses. To begin with, it displayed the results of the Cronbach's alpha test for the pilot sample. It then proceeded to analyse the demographic data of the respondents. Factor analysis was applied on the dependent variables: to reduce them for further analysis. Then summation was done, followed by the testing of hypotheses using six Generalised Linear Regression Models, with the same predictor variables for all the response variables. These predictor variables included; gender, education, business ownership, youth entrepreneurship development programmes (YEDP) and age, while the dependent variables were the entrepreneurial aspirations and currently operating entrepreneurial businesses. The tests led to three of the hypotheses being partially accepted and one being rejected. The Chapter further displayed results which suggested that Swazi YEDPs need to strengthen their design for improvement, and that Government should prioritise improving the entrepreneurship development environment by improving: access to finance, business assistance and support, the administrative and regulatory framework of the country and entrepreneurship education and training, in that order.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

As Chapter four presented and described the findings of this study, according to its hypotheses and research questions, this Chapter now discusses the described results, starting with the discussion of the demographic results obtained before proceeding to discuss the hypotheses test results. The last findings to be discussed are those obtained from the last section of the questionnaire which contained two qualitative questions.

5.2 Discussion of demographic results

5.2.1 Age

This research found that the minimum age of the YEDPs participants was 18 years and maximum age was 35 years. This is in line with the Swaziland Youth Policy which states that youth is between 18-35 years in Swaziland (MOSCYA, 2009). The average years of those trained was 27.7 years which is close to the 30 years obtained by the UNDP survey conducted in 2013. This is also in line with the ILO (2005) where it denoted that evidence points to that participation in entrepreneurship in Sub-Saharan Africa, as in other parts of the world, increases with age and is concentrated within the middle age group, which is about 26-35 years old. The 2012 GEM Report for Sub-Saharan Africa pegged this average at 25 to 34 years of age. Even though another study carried out in Swaziland by the Sahee Foundation placed the average age at 23.5 years, which has a wide gap with the findings of this research, this could be because they solicited age from only 83 of their 146 respondents and they interviewed entrepreneurs aged 15-36 years (Sahee Foundation, 2011), so their results cannot be used to generalise the average of youth entrepreneurs in Swaziland.

The fact that the average is almost 28 years and the modal age is 25 years, with 10.4% of the interviewed youth being this age, seem to agree with the ILO (2005)'s assertion that the Sub-Saharan African youth entrepreneurs' high average age is most probably related to access to savings or other financial resources needed as capital for the enterprise, or access to other resources, such as networks. This group might have also been waiting to gain experience through being employed. They might have identified opportunities related to their experience or might have taken the time needed to learn about enterprise. This seems to be true in the Swazi context as UNDP (2013), based on the study they carried out, asserted that slightly less than 40% of young entrepreneurs in urban Swaziland were found to have prior work experience before starting their own company.

It is, however, interesting that the youth still seem to start business late, whilst the Swazi Government is supporting several in and out-of-school youth entrepreneurship programmes, such as Junior Achievement and ENACTUS (for in-school youth), the Kickstart and the Youth Enterprise Fund (for out-of-school youth) (Dlamini & Bimha, 2017; UNDP, 2013). Especially since the Prime Minister (The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011) and the State of the Youth Affairs Report (MOSCYA, 2015) cited the very high secondary school dropout rate, with the Prime Minister estimating that only 7–12 percent of high school graduates are admitted to tertiary education (The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011) due to lack of funds.

5.2.2 Gender

In this study, males made up 57.5% of the youth respondents and 42.5% were females. So even though there are more males than females, the gap is not very wide. These again, are in line with the findings of UNDP (2013) youth entrepreneurs survey which concluded that females made up 45.1% of their respondents, with males being 54.9%. In the Sahee Foundation study, however males formed 48% of the respondents while females made up 52% of the respondents. This can be attributed to their small sample size and the fact that they were not using random sampling, but instead used a research assistant, who used his network to select the participants (Sahee Foundation, 2011).

These numbers are comparable to the region, as according to the ILO (2005), there are generally more men than women in entrepreneurship in most African countries. Evidence of a study Francis Chigunta conducted in 2003 indicated that in Zambia, 71.4% men were self-employed in relation to 66.1% females. There were 32.8% young males compared to 18.3% females. This indicates that when developing youth entrepreneurship policies and programmes, more attention is to be paid in assisting females. The GEM (2012) report states that in the Sub-Saharan African Region, as well as the Latin America and Caribbean regions, there is greater gender equality. It does however seem like females are more necessity-driven when compared to the males. The ILO (2005) attributed the lower female numbers to restricting socialisation processes and socio-cultural limitations.

5.2.3 Education

The results of the 492 interviewed youth entrepreneurs indicated that 1.83% had only some primary school education when they attended the YEDP training; there were also only 1.83% which is nine people, who had completed post graduate qualifications when they attended the training. The largest number at 35.16% had completed high school, followed by 25.81% who had completed Diplomas or Undergraduate Degrees. The fact that such a small number at 1.83% had not completed high school is not surprising since Swaziland has a 91.03% literacy rate and free primary schooling (MOSCYA, 2015).

When comparing these findings with previous research carried out in Swaziland on youth entrepreneurship, they are found to be similar in that most of the youth were found to possess a secondary school education. The Sahee Foundation study concluded that about 14 % had completed tertiary education, 31% had completed high school, 30% had completed some high school and 26% had completed some primary school education (Sahee Foundation, 2011). The UNDP (2013) study had 35.3% of their respondents with tertiary education, 49.8% of them had received business training and only 44.3% of the trained respondents felt the training was useful. This then gives a picture that the youth in business in Swaziland, even though they are driven by both necessity and opportunity (UNDP, 2013), they are generally more educated than youth in some Sub-Saharan

countries, such as Malawi and Uganda, but on a par with the Region's average, according to the GEM (2012).

In profiling the African youth entrepreneurs, the GEM (2012), found youth entrepreneurs in Malawi and Uganda to have not received secondary education, and these countries are characterised by a high rate of necessity-driven entrepreneurship. In Ghana, most of the youth entrepreneurs had some secondary schooling, but Ghana only had 28% of the entrepreneurs being necessity-driven, which is contrary to most research. In most of the Sub-Saharan countries, the majority of the youth, at 54%–72% had completed at least a secondary level of education. Further to that, nearly one-third of entrepreneurs in Zambia and Botswana had completed their secondary education and received some post-secondary education (GEM, 2012). In 2015, the GEM recorded that in spite of the positive shifts globally towards higher levels of education for the youth, almost a quarter of the Sub-Saharan Africa youth still have less than a primary school education while 55% have not completed their secondary education (GEM, 2015).

It could also be interesting to investigate why the programmes being investigated attract such a high number of those who completed high school and those with tertiary qualifications, or why it seems as though the young Swazi entrepreneur is generally more educated while statistics are showing that only 7-12% of high school graduates attend tertiary (The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011) and only 12% of those that are age appropriate attend high school (MOSCYA, 2015). The question would be: what happens to those who drop out of the education system? This was not investigated in this study, but maybe they do not attend the youth entrepreneurship development programmes because these programmes are seen as "elitist". Another reason could be limited access as two of these programmes' forms were found on-line or by one travelling to a town (Beverages, 2017; Technoserve, 2009), while a large number of the Swazi youth reside in the rural areas (MOSCYA, 2015). Additionally, two out of three programmes also had their application forms only in English whilst statistics show that a large number of the youth might have only basic literacy (MOSCYA, 2015), but might not be competent enough to apply and write a business plan in English.

Education was cross tabulated with age and gender. Whilst the results showed that there was no significant relationship between age and education, there was however a significant relationship between gender and the level of education. It was discovered that there were more females than males at the lower levels of education, right from primary school to some high school. The frequency of males start overtaking that of females from the completion of high school to post graduate qualification. These are in agreement with the State of the Youth Report in the country, which shows that drop-outs are largely due to pregnancies (MOSCYA, 2015), so it would be expected that females would start dropping out of the education system more than males.

5.2.4 Current ownership of business

Almost half of the interviewed youth (52.24%) were found to be currently owning businesses. Whilst a cross tabulation of gender and business ownership showed no significant statistical relationship at the 0.05 significance level, it however showed that more males (n=157) owned businesses compared to females (n=100), as it has been asserted above, under gender. Generally, in Africa, there are more males owning businesses when compared to females due to a limited access to resources in relation to males and socialisation processes coupled with socio-cultural limitations (GEM, 2012; ILO, 2005; UNDP, 2013).

This section has discussed the demographic information, as obtained from the interviewed youth. The following sections now discuss the results obtained when testing the hypotheses.

5.3 Discussion of empirical results

The following section discusses the results of the hypothesised relationships between the independent and dependent variables of this study, as described in the previous chapter and in the conceptual model, found in Chapter two. The independent variables of this study are: the youth entrepreneurs' demographics and youth entrepreneurship development programmes. The dependent variables are: the entrepreneurial aspirations

(aspiring to own innovative, high growth and internationalised businesses) and currently operating entrepreneurial businesses (innovative, high growing and internationalised businesses). These relationships were tested using Multiple Linear Regression through the Generalised Linear Model. The initial section discusses the relationship as put forward in Hypothesis 1. This section is then followed by a discussion of the other hypotheses.

5.3.1 The relationship between demographic characteristics and entrepreneurial aspirations (H1)

When innovation entrepreneurial aspirations were regressed against the predictor variables, the three demographic characteristics found to be having a relationship with it were: **education** (some Primary school), **currently owning a business** and **age**. When the growth entrepreneurial aspirations score was regressed against its predictor variables, **none** of the demographic variables were shown to have a relationship with it by having a significance level of less than 0.05. When the internationalisation entrepreneurial aspirations score was regressed against its predictors, only **business ownership** was the most effective.

Since the youth mean scores, during factor analysis, indicated that on average, the youth agreed that their entrepreneurial aspirations were increased, especially their product and process innovation aspirations (OECD, 2011), it means the demographic variables which contributed to the perception that their innovation aspiration was increased were: education (some primary education), currently owning a business and age. The demographic characteristic that did not indicate any relationship, at the significance level of 0.05, was gender. Even though the youth showed that their growth aspirations, especially growth in terms of income and profit were increased, the results show that none of the demographic factors had any impact on those perceptions. Internationalisation aspirations had a more neutral mean, and that was influenced by currently owning a business. Since some demographic characteristics of the youth did show a relationship, hypothesis 1 was then **partially accepted**.

For the Swazi to display the above entrepreneurial aspirations due to demographic characteristics is confirming what the GEM (2015) articulated, when it said that the youth in Sub-Saharan Africa, in four years (2012-2014), displayed the highest level of perceived entrepreneurial competences (when compared to the other regions), measured in self-efficacy; opportunity alertness; risk willingness and; access to a role model. The GEM (2015) and the YBI and GEM (2013) further declared that this is in line with the previously carried out research showing that people in factor-driven economies, which are mostly Sub-Saharan African countries, normally have higher perceptions of good entrepreneurship opportunities and their capability in accessing them. This is normally not the case with most of the Efficiency-driven or Innovation-driven Economies. The GEM (2015, p.28) then argues that:

> While this seems counterintuitive, individuals in economies at different stages of economic development are likely to have different kinds of businesses in mind. This would suggest that the perception of what is considered an opportunity and the capabilities required to create and manage this entrepreneurial opportunity in factor driven economies, could differ significantly from the perceptions in efficiency or innovation driven economies.

Since education (some primary schooling) was one of the variables to show a relationship with the entrepreneurial aspirations, this relationship is now further explored.

5.3.1.1 Education and entrepreneurial aspirations

According to Dragomir and Pânzaru (2015), and Raposo and do Paço (2011), many studies that have been carried out internationally have correlated education with entrepreneurship, in particular, entrepreneurship education, such that developed economies, like the European economies, adjusted their education systems to integrate entrepreneurship for economic growth, so to them, higher education is in tandem with more entrepreneurship knowledge and ability. There have however, been mixed results

on the influence of education to entrepreneurial aspirations. These results have been largely observed on research taken amongst students (Yaghmaei & Ghasemi, 2015).

One would submit that in Sub-Saharan Africa, the mixed results on the relationship education has with entrepreneurial aspirations are largely due to the type of education currently being offered at schools or tertiary institutions. Ajagbe et al. (2016), Bawuah, Buame and Hinson (2006), Nguyen (2015), Peterman and Kennedy (2003) and Yaghmaei and Ghasemi (2015) assert that Sub-Saharan Africa still has most of her education system based on the old colonial system of education, which is more inhibiting than enabling to entrepreneurship. This is the case, particularly because it trains students to find formal employment "white collar jobs" either in the public or established private sector, and even though there are some tertiary institutions that have integrated entrepreneurship education in their syllabus, most of these still actually teach business management and not entrepreneurship. One might then argue that the entrepreneurs with the lowest level of traditional or formal education are exposed to learning more from the "school of hard knocks" (Chu & Yi, 2016) and having more entrepreneurial aspirations than those with a higher level of formal education.

Raposo and do Paço (2011) assert that research has proven that highest levels of entrepreneurship are linked to those with at least some college education, whilst Yaghmaei and Ghasemi (2015) argue that other studies, such as Kirchhoff and Greene (1995) have proven that higher levels of education have a negative impact on aspirations or intentions of becoming an entrepreneur. These are supported by Coduras, Saiz-Alvarez and Ruiz (2016), who state that recent studies have shown that individuals' educational levels show a negative correlation with entrepreneurship, but this normally depends on the country's development stage, as necessity-driven entrepreneurs normally are less educated when compared to opportunity entrepreneurs. They further assert that there were however, positive correlations between entrepreneurship training and entrepreneurial aspirations. When Pete et al. (2011) were analysing factors influencing innovation-orientation or high-growth early-stage entrepreneurs, they claimed to have found no statistically significant correlation between tertiary education and the above aspirations. This seem to imply that Swaziland needs to not only improve its education

system to be more entrepreneurial, but to expose every youth, even out-of-school youth, to entrepreneurship training.

5.3.1.2 Current business ownership and entrepreneurial aspirations

In discussing the impact of current business ownership, the relationship between aspirations and owning a business has been well established by various research (Nițu-Antonie et al., 2017; Shane et al., 2003), so it was no surprise that those who currently own businesses had an impact on the innovation and internationalisation aspirations perceptions. Over and above that, if one equated currently owning a business to experience, research such as Capelleras et al. (2015), Coduras et al. (2016) and Pete et al. (2011) would highlight that experience is correlated to entrepreneurial aspirations.

Another research conducted at Omani University by Uddin et al. (2016) examining the relationship of a father's occupation, gender, experience and level of education on the entrepreneurial intention of students at the Omani university, found that there was a high level of intention among students to start entrepreneurial ventures, influenced by the demographic factors. Experience was found to be the factor having the maximum influence on the entrepreneurial intentions.

Whilst Bilić, Prka and Vidović (2011) discovered that entrepreneurial experience has a strong influence on entrepreneurial aspirations, Walter and Dohse (2009), after conducting research, did not find work experience to increase entrepreneurial intention. Since their research was done on students though, the possibility is this type of work experience was being employed rather than entrepreneurial experience.

5.3.1.3 Age and entrepreneurial aspirations

Pete et al.'s (2011) study on factors influencing entrepreneurial aspirations highlighted age as one of these factors. This was supported by the GEM (2015) which stated that generally, the older youth exhibit the highest level of entrepreneurial predisposition. Yaghmaei and Ghasemi (2015) found age to be highly related to entrepreneurial

aspirations, they found that it was adversely related though. They did, however, assert that the direction of the association is currently not conclusive since other research has found that entrepreneurship gets better with age, while others have found the opposite. It would seem as though whilst aspirations for Sub-Saharan African youth is generally high (GEM, 2015), the actual establishment of the businesses could be happening a bit later in life, due to various reasons, some of which, as suggested by Chigunta (2006), could be the accumulation of savings and gaining experience. Coduras et al. (2016) also submitted that there is a relationship between entrepreneurial aspirations or starting a business and age. They added that it is in fact, generally accepted that middle aged individuals are those who normally start new businesses.

5.3.1.4 Gender and entrepreneurial aspirations

It is however, surprising that gender had no effect on the entrepreneurial aspirations whilst GEM (2012) offered that age and gender significantly affect entrepreneurial aspirations, especially growth aspirations. They further said more males than females demonstrated entrepreneurial aspirations in Sub-Saharan Africa. Several pieces of research, including Uddin et al. (2016) and Pete et al. (2011), found gender to influence entrepreneurial aspirations as well. Research, such as the GEM (2015), Bae et al. (2014) and Zhao, Seibert and Hills (2005), have concluded that men have higher entrepreneurial intentions or aspirations than women. Even though entrepreneurship training has more impact on the entrepreneurial aspirations of women than those of men. Bilić et al. (2011) found that male students have a higher entrepreneurial orientation than their female counterparts. Coduras et al. (2016) also attested to the above in that research (Bullough, de Luque, Abdelzaher & Heim, 2015) has shown that more males compared to women participate in entrepreneurship due to largely Government regulations and cultural-cognitive institutional arrangements.

A study carried out in Nigeria by Dr. Oyebola in 2014 however, obtained divergent results. This could be because she carried it out amongst students, who normally are already fixated on getting white collar jobs, while the GEM and other studies were carried out with

practicing entrepreneurs or those with the intention to practice. In her study, Dr. Oyebola interviewed 300 students to investigate their level of entrepreneurial aspirations in a tertiary institution in Ogun State. Her findings were that the majority of the students possessed a low level of entrepreneurship aspiration while there was no significant difference in the responses by gender (Oyebola, 2014).

In concluding this hypothesis testing, it should be highlighted that it is also divergent to the available research to find that none of the demographic characteristics influenced growth aspirations, especially because a study carried out at Staffordshire University using more than a million observation data, collected by the GEM from 2005-2013 in 62 countries, came to the conclusions that high-growth aspirations are primarily driven by individuals, and shaped by institutional settings. This means the education level of the entrepreneur, their household income, their social networks, perceived opportunities and skills will determine their growth aspirations. High growth ambitious ventures were found to be driven by educated entrepreneurs: i) formal and informal institutions had a substantial impact on growth aspirations; ii) the country's stage of economic development determined the effect of individual and institutional factors on high-job growth ventures; growth aspirations were found to be gender, age and industry sensitive; support from Government programmes for high growth firms, influenced high-growth aspirations positively and; Government corruption had a negative influence on growth aspirations (Lubishtani et al., 2017).

The following section discusses the results obtained when regressing demographic characteristics with operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.

5.3.2 The relationship between demographic characteristics and operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business (H2)

The demographic characteristics which showed a relationship with operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised businesses were: **current ownership of a business** and **education** (some primary school). The other characteristics, such as gender and age, displayed no relationship at the 0.05 significance level. The broken down results are discussed underneath.

When considering currently operating an innovative business, only one predictor variable had a significance of less than 0.05, that variable is **current ownership of a business**. For currently operating a fast growing business, **currently owning a business** was also the only variable that showed a significant relationship. For currently operating an internationalised business, **education** and **business ownership** had p-values of less than 0.05, hence having the most effect on the outcome of the youth's perception on running an internationalised business. This then led to Hypothesis 2 being **partially accepted** as some of the demographic characteristics displayed a relationship.

5.3.3 Current business ownership and operating an entrepreneurial business

Business ownership, which is tantamount to experience, is the one variable that had an association with currently owning an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business. As per Yaghmaei and Ghasemi (2015), those with business experience are highly likely to start a business and succeed. They add that even those with previous work experience are likely to succeed in business as they use their previous work experience to advance their business. Brockhaus and Nord (1979) asserted that personal experience and knowledge assist business people to operate successful businesses. Since the average response to whether the youth is running innovative, fast growing and internationalised businesses was largely neutral, it does make sense that it was influenced by the experience of running a business on the ground. Edwards and Smith (2014) argue that when people are given an option of a neutral response, if they feel the question is sensitive, they are more likely to choose a neutral response than report their true opinion. So even if they can feel that, as people, they are entrepreneurial, such as has been found by the GEM (2015), they however know, from running their businesses, the challenges they are facing to make their businesses innovate, make them grow fast and to internationalise them. Thus, even though the results of this research show that the youth felt their aspirations were increased, they were however largely neutral when asked if these aspirations resulted to running entrepreneurial businesses (innovative, growing and internationalised). Although the overall result was largely neutral, it is true that some

of the youth felt their businesses were innovative, growing and internationalised, basing that on their experience in running these businesses. It is also true that others felt their businesses were not innovative, growing and internationalised, they too were basing that on their experience of operating their businesses.

5.3.4 Education and operating an entrepreneurial business

Kolstad and Wiig (2009) submitted that primary schooling has been found to be one of the most important factors influencing growth in GDP per capita. Research carried out in Ghana, investigating returns associated with obtaining education in the formal and informal sector, concluded that there were positive returns at all levels of education in both the informal and formal sectors; there were however none obtained from having a primary education in the formal sector whilst they found a 11.6% return from obtaining a primary education in the informal sector (Djiogan, 2014). This shows that some primary education is most valuable to the youth in business in Swaziland, as many of them, especially in rural Swaziland, operate in the informal sector (Sahee Foundation, 2011). So even though education is related to entrepreneurship, for the Swazi youth, it is especially related with lower levels of education as those with higher levels can still get absorbed by the formal system as asserted by various authors (Van Adams, De Silva & Razmara, 2013; Yaghmaei & Ghasemi, 2015), whilst those with some primary education have no choice but to innovate and find ways in order to survive.

The fact that it was some primary school level education that showed a relationship with currently operating an internationalised business is interesting. This could be because the respondents were not very clear on what was meant by internationalisation, which is highly unlikely since different types of internationalisation were broken down in the questionnaire and explained in SiSwati, which is the native language of Swaziland. An alternative explanation is that they are involved in cross border trading with either Mozambique or South Africa, which is very common amongst businesses in the informal sector (Chikanda & Raimundo, 2017; UN Women, 2014). The latter is the most probable explanation.

In Malawi though, it was discovered that a year of additional schooling increased profits by around 6% (Kolstad & Wiig, 2009). On a sample of 88 countries, over a period of 36 years, when economic growth was regressed with 67 explanatory variables, primary schooling was found to be the second most vital factor influencing growth in GDP per capita. To their surprise, they found Government spending on public education and higher education not strongly related to growth (Doppelhofer, Miller & Sala-i-Martin, 2003).

Section 5.3.5 below discusses the findings obtained when testing for a relationship between the YEDPs and youth entrepreneurial aspirations.

5.3.5 The relationship that exists between YEDPs and youth entrepreneurial aspirations (H3)

When the innovation and internationalisation aspirations' scores were regressed against their predictor variables, none of the YEDPs showed any significant correlation. It was only when the growth entrepreneurial aspirations score was regressed against its predictor variables where **YEDP B**'s training had a significance level of less than 0.05, indicating that it had more effect on the outcome of the growth aspirations perceptions when compared to other predictor variables. The above results led to the hypothesis being **partially accepted**.

This is in line with the current literature which indicates that YEDPs are meant to largely increase entrepreneurial aspirations (Alam & Hossan, 2003; Darzi, 2016; Jakubczak, 2015; McClelland, 1965; Shri et al., 2016; World Economic Forum, 2010). Aspirations have been proven in many studies that they are not only positively related to entrepreneurship, but they are one of the key factors influencing an individual to be entrepreneurial (Yaghmaei & Ghasemi, 2015).

Qureshi et al. (2016) carried out a study in Pakistan to ascertain the impact of certain interventions, during an INVENT Business Plan Competition, on the relationship between the participants' personality, intellectual capital, entrepreneurial skills and their entrepreneurial aspirations. This study was administered to about 3000 participants over a period of five months. During this entrepreneurship development programme, there

were numerous trainings, mentorship sessions, lectures, workshops and case studies. The study first developed a baseline before conducting the evaluation at the end of the training. Findings of the study were that the entrepreneurial interventions administered by the programme resulted in a positive relationship between the variables and had a positive impact on the entrepreneurial aspirations of the participants.

When analysing the YEDP B's training, the indication is that it did train for some of the entrepreneurial aspirations, such as growing one's business and entrepreneurship, including understanding an entrepreneur and turning one's ideas into business (Imbita, 2011).

What is interesting to note though, is that when targeting people, this YEDP targeted all youth, and did not discriminate between entrepreneurial and non-entrepreneurial youth (MOSCYA, 2011), whilst documented best practice specify that it is important to identify that youth possess different skills, experiences, status, needs, aspirations and capacity etc. Chigunta (2002). Deshpande (2015) in addition, explained that these differences should be identified and acknowledged, whilst Schaumburg-Müller et al. (2010) further postulated that entrepreneurship is not for everyone, so in order to improve the success rate, proper targeting and selection of those with potential should be prioritised.

This YEDP has also faced challenges of adequate capitalisation, as the demand for loans by the youth was way above its capitalisation, which was solely from Government (MOSCYA, 2011). UNDP (2013) further elaborated that this fund also faced low repayment rates from the youth, as some youth started and failed in their enterprises. This situation was mostly as a result of the youth receiving fewer funds than they had requested in their business plans, poor monitoring and poor selection criteria. According to Chigunta (2002), another best practice is to ensure the Programme has adequate funding for its implementation and is sustainable. In order to be sustainable, the YEDP should be able to access a lot of funding, such as have internal investments, access Government funding and do fundraising, whilst not relying on a single source.

YEDP B did however display some of the best documented practices which included: the provision of mentorship, providing customer-centred loans, setting clear objectives, reliance on appropriate 'micro' delivery mechanisms, reliance on local business

specialists, initiative-based, supportive policy environment (Chigunta, 2002; Deshpande, 2015; MOSCYA, 2011; Schaumburg-Müller et al., 2010; The W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2006; World Economic forum, 2010). There are also a few key things to highlight about YEDP B, when compared to the other YEDPs: firstly, it was the only YEDP which had its forms in both English and SiSwati (the two formal languages of the country), that must have benefitted the high number of youth school dropouts (MOSCYA, 2015). Secondly, it was also the only one which distributed its forms to the constituencies, throughout the country, which included the rural areas. That way even the youth without transportation fare or access to technology, such as the internet, could access this information.

It is interesting to note that one of the two YEDPs which were not perceived to raise the aspirations, was recently evaluated and its approach found adequate in meeting the needs of small business owners and entrepreneurs (Arubayi, 2010). The differing conclusions could be due to the fact that Arubayi's evaluation in 2010 was not focusing on youth, it took a sample of 144 entrepreneurs trained in 2006-2009, which included youth and adults, whilst this research only sampled the youth trained in 2009. It is however, understandable why the conclusion would be that the training was adequate since this programme practiced most of what was highlighted as best practices. These included: provision of an integrated package, clear objectives and targeting, monitoring, provision of aftercare services (Chiguta, 2002).

Finally, the results obtained when testing the last hypothesis are discussed in the following section.

5.3.6 The relationship between YEDPs and operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business (H4)

When carrying out the regression analysis, no relationship was found to exist between any of the YEPDs and operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business. This then led to the **rejection of the null hypothesis** and **accepting the alternative hypothesis**.

Raposo and do Paço (2011), after analysing research on the impact of entrepreneurship education on businesses, highlighted that research seems to agree that there is a lapse of time after the training, before the trainees start their own businesses. What is not highlighted, though, is the amount of time it actually takes, since that would be context specific.

The above result is in agreement with Dlamini and Bimha (2017), Sahee Foundation (2011) and UNDP (2013)'s assertion that whilst young Swazis are drawn to entrepreneurship out of both necessity (to build livelihoods and escape unemployment) and opportunity (to realise their wealth accumulation vision and contribute to the economy of the country), they face a myriad challenges, like many Sub-Saharan African countries, which result in them running mostly informal businesses, which then means few of them are registered and can access loans from financial institutions (Ranyane, 2015) or access markets such as Government or company tendering. These businesses then end up as mostly "me too" types of businesses, which are struggling to innovate or register growth.

While the youth had indicated that their aspirations were increased, Storey (1994) discovered however, that the SMMEs that state growth as an aspiration are much higher than those who actually achieve growth; this is due to the external environment and other factors. Kanungo (1998) agreed with Storey and reiterated that the success of an SMME greatly depends on both the entrepreneurship orientation and environmental factors. He further said research has nonetheless shown that environmental factors have more of an impact than entrepreneurship orientation in developing countries.

So while research such as Gielnik et al. (2017) and McClelland (1965) have highlighted that entrepreneurial aspirations normally result in entrepreneurial businesses, the issue of the importance of the type of entrepreneurship obtaining in that country (necessity or opportunity driven), and the entrepreneurial environment being conducive, is supported by a lot of research, which cite the following as important: the state of the economy; access to venture capital; competition and government regulations; intellectual property rights protection; regulatory burden and the rule of law; corruption and government activism, networks of innovative enterprises and research organisations; suppliers and customers; the public financing system for research; the nation's system of schooling;

training; financial establishments and the national efficiency enhancing framework which acts as a stimulant for the entrepreneurial behaviour (Estrin et al., 2014; Henley, 2005; Lubishtani et al., 2017; Nițu-Antonie et al., 2017; Pete et al., 2011; Shane et al., 2003; Širec & Tominc, 2017). The inhibiting business environment in Swaziland was well documented in Chapter two of this research, as per studies conducted in the country (MCIT, 2009; MOSCYA, 2015; Sahee Foundation, 2011; UNDP, 2013).

Further contributions were made by Henley (2005), after conducting a longitudinal study using British data and tracking individuals from entrepreneurial aspiration into self-employment. The results were that, if entrepreneurial aspirations are as a result of low satisfaction at work, and not a desire to create wealth, the aspirations do not get realised, as aspiring entrepreneurs do not seem to engage in preparatory behaviour first, such as saving, etc.

A conclusion to draw in this section would be by Bogatyreva and Shirokova (2017) and Welsh et al. (2016) who narrated that, while different research has shown that it is not every entrepreneurial aspiration which translates into business, since other factors come to play, such as the entrepreneur's type of economy (Factor driven, Efficiency-driven economies or Innovation driven) and entrepreneurial aspirations (necessity or opportunity driven), there are however, many demonstrated cases where aspirations developed, actually resulted in entrepreneurial businesses. This would mean there is still a possibility for the country's youth to turn their increased aspirations to actual entrepreneurial businesses in a conducive environment.

This then leads to the subsequent section on proposed improvements, firstly for the YEDPs, then for improving the entrepreneurship environment or ecosystem by the Government. These suggestions are responses to the last two questions which were qualitative in the questionnaire.

5.3.7 Proposed improvements for an enabling youth entrepreneurship environment

The research results show that only one of the YEDPs increased growth aspirations and not the other aspirations. This means that the YEDPs need to be improved so that all of them are in a position to impact and increase the youth's entrepreneurial aspirations: innovation, growth and internationalisation. These suggestions are discussed per the YEDP phases as proposed by Bhat (2015) and Deshpande (2015).

5.3.7.1 Improvements on YEDPs

The youth had 74.8% of the improvement suggestions pertaining to the design stage of the YEDP, which is the initial or pre-training phase. 6.504% gave suggestions pertaining to the training or development phase whilst only 1.829% referred to the post-training phase. Schaumburg-Müller (2010) and Shri et al. (2016) asserted that the development phase is more effective when it includes a needs assessment or baseline. Literature further shows that there is a need for YEDPs to offer an integrated package since often markets will not function properly, and direct support will be needed to stimulate private initiatives, including entrepreneurship, through access to skills, markets and finance, and through access to technology information (Chigunta, 2002; Deshpande, 2015; Schaumburg-Müller et al., 2010). The Ministry of Sports, Culture and Youth Affairs (2011) wrote that unfortunately, in most of the Swazi YEDPs, a baseline research study was not carried out to ascertain empirically what the situation was before the programmes were introduced. This then made it hard for the programmes to determine the exact needed interventions.

The specific suggestions for the initial phase from the youth are as follows:

5.3.7.1.1 Initial or Pre-training Phase improvements

- Decentralise Programmes to Constituencies and train all ages in all sectors;
- There should be access to adequate finance for everyone trained;
- Involve and collaborate with all stakeholders working with youth and SMMEs, and create more YEDPs with the stakeholders;

- Extend the repayment period for the loans;
- The training curriculum should be flexible and expanded to include other business management skills and other industries such as the art industry;
- The YEDP should provide access to markets;
- The training should be practical and longer or be on-going;
- Tailor make training to business needs;
- Monitoring and mentoring (handholding) of trained youth;
- Make Programmes accessible by effectively marketing these;
- Reduce interest being charged on the loan;
- Prioritise funding innovative companies.

For the training or development phase, best practice proposes that in order for the YEDP to be effective, it has to be flexible and have an adaptable operation style (Ajbani, 2015). In the development phase, the youth highlighted the following:

5.3.7.1.2 Training or Development Phase

- Provide youth with adequate training notes for future reference;
- Better administration of the programmes during the training, such as limit the late arrival of trainers, etc.

According to Bhat (2015), Deshpande (2015), Shri et al. (2016), the follow-up phase is about the support given to the participants to actually start or expand their businesses. This involves facilitating the provision of finance, production assets, infrastructure, access to markets, etc. It also involves counselling and handholding the participants as they implement their business ventures. In this phase, the pre-training work, the process of the training programme and post-training approach is reviewed. Here, there is a need to assess how many participants have actually started their own enterprises after completing the training. The suggestions from the youth for this phase are written in the following section.

5.3.7.1.3 Post-training or Follow-up Phase

- Monitoring and evaluation of the programmes;
- Write off bad debts for youth loans after a certain period of time and allow them to re-apply for funding.

The current section discussed improvements to YEDPs, as suggested by the Youth. YEDPs are however part of a bigger ecosystem of entrepreneurship. The following section addresses the whole entrepreneurship ecosystem in Swaziland, whose improvement will ensure that the environment is conducive for youth entrepreneurship.

5.3.7.2 Improvements on Government support

Raposo and do Paço (2011) stated that it is a generally accepted assertion that Government policy influences, either directly through targeted measures, or indirectly through general measures, the level of entrepreneurship. Minniti (2008) discussed the importance of putting in place a Government policy that is responsive to the particular challenges obtaining in its environs. Further to that, Isenberg (2011) discussed the main principle for Governments, which is that they should intervene holistically with a comprehensive ecosystem perspective. Isenberg (2010) further breaks it down and says Governments should: stop emulating Silicon valley; shape the ecosystem around local conditions; engage the private sector from the start; favour the high potentials; get a big win on the board; tackle cultural change head-on; “stress the roots” by gradually giving new ventures funding so they can develop resourcefulness; not over-engineer clusters, but assist them grow organically and; reform legal, bureaucratic, and regulatory frameworks.

To emphasise the importance of an enabling environment for entrepreneurship, several researchers and institutions have put in place entrepreneurship ecosystem frameworks and policies to guide Governments in ensuring an enabling environment. This research will highlight just a few of those Entrepreneurship Development Models or Entrepreneurial ecosystems frameworks: one of those is that proposed by Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen

(2009) which consists of the entrepreneurial orientation, supportive environment and co-operative environment. Another ecosystem was proposed by the World Economic Forum (2013). This Ecosystem comprises accessible markets; human capital workforce; funding and finance; mentors advisors support systems; regulatory framework and infrastructure; education and training; major universities as catalysts, and cultural support. Another entrepreneurship ecosystem as proposed by Fuerlinger, Fandl and Funke (2015) is known as the Isenberg's Six Domains of an Entrepreneurship Ecosystem. This one also has markets, human capital, supports, culture, finance and policy. The United Nation (2015) advances the UNCTAD framework which includes: optimising the regulatory environment, enhancing entrepreneurship education and skills development, facilitating technology exchange and innovation, improving access to finance and promoting awareness and networking. These are all very similar though.

The following section presents the suggestions from the youth on how the Swazi Government can improve the youth entrepreneurship environment or ecosystem. These are structured according to the model of youth entrepreneurship development presented by the ILO, which is similar to the Isenberg's Six Domains of an Entrepreneurship Ecosystem, but has five, instead of six domains (ILO, 2006; Isenberg, 2011). It is also similar to the other Entrepreneurship Ecosystems Models as mentioned above.

The responses of youth indicated that 28.66% of the youth respondents would like to see an improvement in access to finance, 28.46% of the youth respondents would like more business assistance and support, 21.75% would like to see an improvement in the administrative and regulatory framework of the country, 11.38% were interested in an improvement in the entrepreneurship education and training in Swaziland.

These suggestions address the observed challenges noted by other studies, such as the MCIT (2009), MOSCYA (2015), Sahee Foundation (2011) and UNDP (2013). The Swazi challenges are similar to those cited by several studies which normally refer to access to finance as the leading challenge needing correction (Akhtar et al., 2016; Jakubczak, 2015; Shibru, 2017; European Commission & OECD, 2012; YBI, 2010).

The specific suggestions are as follows:

5.3.7.2.1 Access to finance improvements

The ILO (2006) mentions that access to finance challenges are specifically normally in the area of lack of personal savings and resources, or collateral or securities and debt credibility, multifarious credit/financing documentation procedures with long waiting periods for decisions, lack of (successful) micro lending/finance and seed funding, and lack of knowledge of financing possibilities, including grants. Similarly, challenges in Swaziland under this pillar, pertain to accessing capital from financial institutions, while the youth have inadequate resources such as savings and collateral. It is alleged that the banks have a perception that youth are unstable and unreliable, and thus present a higher risk; there are also challenges in accessing community grants, such as the Rural Development Fund (RDF) or getting information on how to access them, especially for youth who live away from their home areas, as they do not meet the residency requirement, normally imposed by these grants (MCIT, 2009; MOSCYA, 2015; Sahee Foundation, 2011; UNDP, 2013).

The suggestions by the youth meant to alleviate the above challenges were:

- Provide Individual not group loans;
- Extend the repayment period / reduce the interest charged on loans from Government through YEDPs;
- Improve access to adequate finance;
- Prioritise funding innovative companies.

In agreement with the youth suggestions, ILO (2006) adds that in order to improve access to finance: there should be in-depth research carried out on start-ups and business finance for young people, following which, the youth should be offered grant finance, debt financing and equity financing by Government, working with other stakeholders, such as financial institutions and development partners. It further submits that another area to improve is the administrative and regulatory environment for start-up finance. There should also be information and counselling available to youth in business on how one accesses finance.

5.3.7.2.2 Business Assistance and Support

Under this domain, MCIT (2009), MOSCYA (2015), Sahee Foundation (2011) and UNDP (2013), found the following challenges: inadequate networks to help the youth advance their businesses; inadequate business support services to assist the youth whilst the available ones, from service providers, are perceived as poor quality. For example, some of the service providers are said to use templates from the internet to formulate business plans and do not customise those templates. Another challenge is the lack of access to information, such as how to draw up a business plan, etc.

The youth proposed the following solutions:

- Monitoring and mentoring (handholding) of trained youth;
- Establish incubation centres throughout the country;
- Access to training for all SMMEs decentralised to constituencies / their locality.

The ILO (2006) in agreement, further suggests that to ensure an improved business support and assistance for youth, needs assessment research would need to be carried out by the country, before providing business skills training, guidance and counselling services, as per the assessment results. There should also be mentor support and business coaching for youth to succeed in business. The Government and partners should also provide working infrastructure, such as business incubators, and promote enterprise integration and business linkages, through working with a youth chamber of commerce and industry, trade association, etc.

5.3.7.2.3 Administrative and Regulatory Framework

Under this domain, the youth suggested the following:

- Upgrading infrastructure;
- Ensure youth have access to land and water for agriculture;
- Access to markets (local and international);
- Tax reduction for local SMMEs and youth businesses;

- Put in place laws and policies favouring youth and SMMEs for ease of doing business;
- Involve and collaborate with all stakeholders working with youth and SMMEs.

These are meant to provide a solution to the following challenges: the Swazi land tenure system (access to land) which has numerous issues including idle government and individual farms, discrimination against women and youth, landlessness and lack of access to water for agricultural purposes; challenges with property rights; the youth not being involved in Government Youth Policy formulation; since most youth are typically less educated than adults, that makes it harder for them to understand and comply with the regulatory environment, such as doing their taxes; high tax rates for SMMEs; an over-regulated information and technology sector which makes it hard to innovate; as youth businesses are normally smaller, in relation to the number of employees and turnover, complying with the regulatory environment was discovered to be an added burden, since regulatory costs resemble fixed costs. There was also a perception from the youth that legal requirements for business registration and licence acquisition are challenging, as there are cumbersome administrative processes with which they have to deal; the under-developed infrastructure and the high cost of production, which includes the unavailability of skilled labour at affordable costs and other costs, such as internet access and the limited reliable statistical information to assist youth make decisions in the sectors in which they would like to operate (MCIT, 2009; MOSCYA, 2015; Sahee Foundation, 2011; UNDP, 2013).

In order to reduce the administrative and regulatory burden, the ILO (2006) suggested that Governments must introduce supportive taxation regulations and rates, streamline business registration procedures whilst lowering their costs, re-draft bankruptcy laws, involve the youth entrepreneurs when changing policies and laws and also provide information, counselling and assistance to the youth, when they are dealing with regulatory issues.

5.3.7.2.4 Entrepreneurship Education and Training

Several studies have been undertaken to correlate the influence of entrepreneurship education to students' aspirations and behaviour (Din et al., 2016; Kwong & Thompson, 2016; Olugbola, 2017; Oyebola, 2014; Ponceelia & Franco, 2017; Uddin et al., 2016; Vilcov & Dimitrescu, 2015).

Most of these studies have shown a positive effect on the entrepreneurial aspirations and behaviour of the trainees, which is why it is essential for every nation to have well designed and implemented entrepreneurial education programmes to improve its entrepreneurial environment for entrepreneurship development (ILO, 2006).

Oyebola (2014) further stressed the view that entrepreneurship education is a vehicle for developing academic skills and creative thinking, which are useful skills, even if one decides to be employed. Kiadese (2008), citing Nelson (1996), noted that entrepreneurship education is more relevant in the tertiary education curriculum, as it provides students with the right foundation of skills and knowledge, to successfully launch and operate their own business ventures.

The UNDP (2013) asserted that Swaziland has only recently started including entrepreneurship education in schools and tertiary institutions, and this is still not widely spread or co-ordinated in a manner that addresses the need for appropriate skills which has come about as a result of the education system. Bae et al. (2014) and Lorz, Volery and Müller (2011) then suggested that even though research on entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions or aspirations has produced mixed results, all Sub-Saharan Africa has to ensure that all of the courses offered include an aspect of entrepreneurship. Raposo and do Paço (2011) highlight the importance of ensuring that the entrepreneurial education or training is appropriate for the needs of the country.

The youth proposed the following solutions under this domain:

- Entrepreneurship/vocational training incorporated at primary school, also increase vocational and technical colleges;
- Ensure the youth is well trained before loan disbursements;

- Gender streamlining YEDPs;
- Put in place more YEDPs.

5.3.7.2.5 Social / Cultural Legitimacy and Acceptance

The only suggestion under this domain was:

- Host Youth Entrepreneurship Awards.

In the past under this domain, the youth had cited two main challenges: the pervasive corruption culture and the negative societal and cultural attitudes towards entrepreneurship which leads to entrepreneurship not becoming the career of choice. (MCIT, 2009; MOSCYA, 2015; Sahee Foundation, 2011; UNDP, 2013). It is clear that the holding of awards will make entrepreneurship more attractive as a career choice, and will not be seen as a last resort, or an act of survival.

The suggestion is in agreement with the ILO (2006)'s proposal that hosting youth competitions and awards assist in ensuring social and cultural acceptance of entrepreneurship. The ILO further proposed Governments, after undertaking comprehensive research with the view to understand all the cultural influences, attitudes, and youth aspirations towards entrepreneurship: promote role models; have public relations campaigns; while ensuring youth business events are covered by media. He added that each country should make use of education to promote the culture of entrepreneurship.

The above suggestions are not isolated to Swaziland, many Sub-Saharan countries have similar needs for improvement, such as South Africa, whose survivalist businesses still need access to training and access to finance, among other assistance (Iwu, Gwija, Tengeh, Cupido & Mason, 2015).

5.4 Conclusion

This Chapter examined the results as obtained and described in Chapter four. It commenced by discussing the empirical results of the four hypotheses as proposed in Chapter two, which showed that some of the youth demographic characteristics have a relationship with entrepreneurial aspirations, especially the innovation and internationalisation aspirations. It also showed that some of the youth demographic characteristics have a relationship with operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business. The Chapter also discussed that one, out of the three, YEDPs increased the entrepreneurial aspirations, especially the innovative and growth aspirations. The lack of a relationship between the YEDPs and currently operating entrepreneurial businesses was also discussed. This Chapter then discussed the results of the youth suggestions on improving the entrepreneurship ecosystem in the country. For the YEDPs, the youth mostly recommended that the Programmes be designed or planned in an effective manner, and gave suggestions on how to do that. The suggestions for the Government largely concentrated on access to finance, access to business assistance and support and improvement in the administrative and regulatory framework of the country.

The following Chapter concludes this study by looking at the implications of the findings, its limitations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The previous Chapter discussed the findings of this study in relation to the available literature, as explored in Chapter two. It then drew conclusions on the findings by accepting or rejecting the previously hypothesised relations in the Conceptual model. It further itemised the proposals presented by the youth in improving the Swaziland entrepreneurship ecosystem.

The current Chapter concludes the whole study. It starts out by presenting what the purpose and objectives of the study were. It then presents an abridged version of the reviewed literature, then summarises the results, before exploring the implications of the study to policy and its limitations. It concludes by advancing recommendations for future research.

6.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess three Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes (YEDPs): the Believe, Begin, Become (BBB); the Youth Enterprise Fund (YEF) and; the Kickstart, by evaluating the perceptions of the youth they have trained, on whether their training: increased the level of entrepreneurial aspirations of the trained youth; if they produced youth who are currently operating innovative, fast growing and internationalised enterprises; to determine how these YEDPs can be improved, and how the Government can ensure a conducive environment for youth entrepreneurship development in Swaziland. This study achieved this purpose as relationships between the independent and depend variables were determined and the youth advanced suggestions on how to improve both the YEPDs and Government support. This purpose led to the crafting of the research objectives as described in the subsequent section.

6.3 Objectives of the study

The research questions and objectives of this study were to carry out an investigation into the impact that inherent characteristics of the youth have on their entrepreneurial aspirations and operating entrepreneurial businesses, the second level investigated the impact YEDPs have on the entrepreneurial aspirations of the youth, the third level investigated how the external environment of the youth entrepreneur can be improved in order to enable the facilitation of youth entrepreneurship. These objectives are re-stated below:

Research Objective 1: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations;

Research Objective 2: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP Participants and the level of currently operating an innovation, fast growing and internationalised business;

Research Objective 3: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of their participants' entrepreneurial aspirations;

Research Objective 4: To investigate the relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business;

Research Objective 5: To propose improvements in the YEDPs and Government support so as to create a more enabling environment for youth entrepreneurship.

The above research objectives were also accomplished. These objectives guided the literature reviewed for this study, which is highlighted in the following section.

6.4 Summary of literature

Swaziland is a small country of about 1.2 million people, with 39% of its population aged between 15 and 34 years and 79% of its population below the age of 35 years. The

country has weak labour markets which have resulted in 73% of its youth being unemployed and under-employed, that is coupled with a very sluggish economy (Africa Economic Outlook, 2017; ILO, 2010; MOSCYA, 2015; UNDP, 2013).

The Swazi Government has been supporting in and out-of-school youth entrepreneurship development programmes with the aim of having them impact entrepreneurship skills and aspirations on the youth so they can create jobs for themselves and others for economic growth and development (Dlamini & Bimha, 2017).

In exploring the literature, it was revealed that YEDPs have been proven to increase entrepreneurial aspirations (Davidsson, 1989; Gielnik et al., 2017; Mohanty, 2005; Murthy, 1989; Shaver & Scott, 1991). Age-old experiments such as the Kakinada experiment by McClelland (1965) started the conversation on increasing entrepreneurial aspirations or the need for achievement through entrepreneurship development programmes.

More research, such as Pete et al. (2011) and Shane et al. (2003), have however found that factors influencing people to decide on becoming entrepreneurs can be classified into: individual and macroeconomic factors. Individual factors include demographic characteristics, such as: gender, age, wealth, household income, current working status, individual human capital (education, working experience), the perceptions of an individual towards entrepreneurship (opportunities recognition, fear of failure, entrepreneurial skills and abilities) and motivations (improvement-driven opportunity or necessity). The macroeconomic factors consisted of venture capital availability, economic freedom index, the rate of inflation and country risk, the state of the economy, competition and government regulations.

Kanungo (1998), while underscoring that SMMEs greatly depend on both the entrepreneurship orientation and environmental factors, further asserted that research has nonetheless shown that environmental factors have more of an impact than entrepreneurship orientation in developing countries.

Based on the above summary, a conceptual model was put in place and tested. The summary of the obtained results is discussed in the following section.

6.5 Summary of results

This research sought to find the relationship between the youth's demographic characteristics and entrepreneurial aspirations; this relationship was found to exist between the youth's age, education (some primary education) and currently owning a business.

Further to that, a relationship was investigated between the youth's demographic characteristics and currently owning an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business, and the findings were that there was a relationship between the youth's level of education (some primary school) and currently owning a business.

Furthermore, a relationship was explored between the youth entrepreneurship development programmes and the youth entrepreneurial aspirations. The relationship was found to exist in one Programme: YEDP B.

Lastly, a relationship was sought between the youth entrepreneurship development programmes and currently owning an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business; none was found.

This then showed that neither the YEDPs nor Swaziland's entrepreneurship ecosystem were operating efficiently. The youth then made suggestions to improve the entrepreneurial ecosystem in Swaziland. The suggestions given by the youth were that: the YEDPs should be designed in such a way that they provide interventions custom-made to offer solutions to identified youth challenges; the programmes should be flexible and administered better, and the YEDPs should monitor and mentor the youth after the programme had been completed. The youth further requested the Swazi Government to improve access to finance, access to business assistance and support, entrepreneurship education and training, administrative and regulatory framework and for Government to ensure social/cultural legitimacy and acceptance of entrepreneurship as a viable career option in Swaziland.

The results are now summarised in a tabular form below.

Table 6.1: Summary of the research results

Hypothesis 1	*There is a relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the participants of YEDPs and their level of entrepreneurial aspirations.*	**Partial acceptance**
Hypothesis 2	*There is a relationship that exists between the type of demographic characteristics of the YEDP Participants and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.*	**Partial acceptance**
Hypothesis 3	*There is a relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of youth entrepreneurial aspirations.*	**Partial acceptance**
Hypothesis 4	*There is a relationship that exists between the type of YEDP and the level of currently operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business.*	**Rejected**

With the above assertion, this study made the following policy implications for Swaziland.

6.6 Implications of findings (policy)

Isenberg (2011), Isenberg (2010) and Minniti (2008), whilst highlighting that most Governments have recognised that entrepreneurship can transform their economies, have cautioned against the tendency of using policies that are not well researched, benchmarked against similar economies and custom-made to provide solutions to empirically unveiled challenges to that country's entrepreneurial ecosystem. So the findings of this research are essential for policy making.

The research showed that there is a relationship between YEDPs and entrepreneurial aspirations. Actually, the YEDP which had the most influence on this outcome was funded by Government and had financial challenges as the demand for the loans they were offering to the youth was in excess of its capitalisation (MOSCYA, 2011), so even though it was effective in raising the entrepreneurial aspirations, its funding was not prioritised. UNDP (2013) further elaborated that this fund also faced low repayment rates from the

youth, as some youth started and failed in their enterprises. UNDP states that this situation was mostly as a result of the youth receiving fewer funds than they had requested in their business plans. This then implies that the Swazi Government, working with partners, such as the private sector and development partners, should prioritise the funding of YEDPs. They should also prioritise funding to improve the entrepreneurship ecosystem for the youth, in order for the aspirations to be formed through the YEDPs, then graduate these aspirations into actual businesses, that will be supported by an enabling environment in order for them not to fail, but create jobs, alleviate poverty and contribute towards economic growth and development.

This research demonstrated the relationships, in the context of Swaziland, that exist between YEDPs and entrepreneurial aspirations, which demonstrated that YEDPs can improve entrepreneurial aspirations. It however showed that not all the researched YEDPs in Swaziland are currently raising entrepreneurial aspirations. The research then showed that whilst entrepreneurial aspirations were improved, these did not translate into tangible innovative, fast growing and internationalised businesses, which are the type of businesses necessary for job creation, poverty alleviation, economic growth and development. This implies then that: firstly, the YEDPs have to be improved in order to develop more aspirations and result in entrepreneurial businesses on the ground; secondly, this implies that what was asserted by Acs (2006) is true for Swaziland. Acs provided that if the businesses on the ground are informal self-employment, then high levels of entrepreneurship may mean that there are substantial bureaucratic barriers to formally creating a new business, or the economy is only creating a few conventional wage-earning job opportunities. In such a case, it can be said that the high levels of entrepreneurship would result in a slow economic growth and lagging development or even a negative effect. This then means that the Swazi Government has to implement administrative and legislative changes to ensure the youth entrepreneurship ecosystem is more enabling. This research provided the suggested improvement for both the YEDPs and Government as made and prioritised by the 492 interviewed youth.

Since literature has shown that policies have to be custom-made, based on research, instead of being copied from someone else, the Swazi Government has to decide on what will be most effective for the country through instituting comprehensive research on the Swaziland Entrepreneurship ecosystem. For example, whilst Bawuah et al. (2006) recommend that all tertiary going students should take courses in entrepreneurship, this will not necessary have the anticipated impact in Swaziland, as the Prime Minister of the country highlighted that in Swaziland "only 7–12 percent of high school Graduates get admitted into tertiary education, often because parents lack the funds to support their children's studies" (The Brenthurst Foundation, 2011, p.8). A supposition would then be that what would actually work more would be an integration of entrepreneurship from primary school level, since Swaziland provides free and compulsory primary education, which results in 92.3% enrollment for primary school aged children, whilst the high school enrolment is only 27% (MOSCYA, 2015). This Raposo and do Paço (2011) agreed with, and said whilst most research for entrepreneurship is started at the tertiary level, research such as Ajagbe et al. (2016) and Sexton and Landström (2000) stated that children are seen as entrepreneurial by nature, so a proposal would be to start entrepreneurship education at the youngest possible age.

Bawuah et al. (2006, p.2) and Ranyane (2015), state that most Sub-Saharan African countries, have "haphazard policies" which are not making an overall impact. Since Swaziland has several policies which are meant to improve the entrepreneurial environment, yet the country is still not growing; this research proposes that the Government's comprehensive research on the ecosystem which was proposed above, be used to develop an entrepreneurship development model specifically for Swaziland. The research should also be used to formulate one comprehensive policy, targeted at youth entrepreneurship development, with an action plan that has prioritised programmes for implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. This model should institute a system that will ensure co-ordination and collaboration of all stakeholders, to leverage on each other's resources, expertise and networks, for furthering the youth entrepreneurship development agenda as highlighted by UNDP (2013) and Van Adams et al. (2013). This model should be able to track the impact and ensure no wastage of resources and that no fragmented approach is taken towards youth entrepreneurship development in

Swaziland. That can be done by having it piloted, monitored and evaluated (Van Adams et al., 2013).

Even though this study does contribute to the body of knowledge, it might experience a few limitations as discussed below.

6.7 Limitations

This study faced the following limitations:

- When the research was started, it was put forward that it could contain a few biases as it largely depended on the perceptions of the interviewed youth, as such, human perceptions are influenced by a lot of factors. One of the major weaknesses of this research is that it was conducted post the training, and for most youth, it was several years after the training. This coupled with the fact that no baseline study was undertaken before the training, could lead to biases or errors. As articulated by Henley (2002), results from a study which relies on cross-sectional analysis of existing entrepreneurs may be spoiled by "recall" bias (retrospection) and may provide only limited insight. Over and above this, since this study is being done retrospectively, some youth might struggle to mentally and conceptually separate the aspiration brought about by a YEDP training, with their current business circumstances, at the time of the survey. The assumption made in this study is that if the youth perceived an increase in their aspiration right after the training, that would have led them to work towards achieving their aspirations and they would still remember as they would still be striving to achieve their aspirations; this is based on Pecher and Zwaan's (2005) book that claims there is a relationship between perception, action and memory. It is also based on several studies, such as Dijksterhuis and Bargh (2001), who claim empirical evidence exists to prove that perception has a direct effect on behaviour. This limitation though does not seem to have manifested in this research since the findings are largely in line with the current literature on youth entrepreneurship in Sub-Saharan Africa.

- Another bias could have been the Social Desirability Bias. Hall (2008) describes this as an affinity for humans to show themselves and their views in a positive or socially desirable way, rather than being candidly honest. This bias can affect the validity of self-reported information. Even though the youth were informed that in the information sheet it is written that the responses are important, and there are no right or wrong answers, since youth are still largely marginalised, there is a possibility that they would present their opinions in a manner that they believe is desirable. The only instance where this bias might have manifested is when the youth were reporting on whether their businesses are innovative, fast growing or internationalised. Most of them might have given a response they felt was more acceptable. Again, they might have been candidly honest, since the GEM (2015) have explained that when the Sub-Saharan African youth think of innovation and fast growth, it is normally not in the way the West thinks about it. For example, whilst one might think of internationalisation in terms of born globals, the Swazi youth might think of it in terms of exporting handcraft to Mozambique or South Africa.
- The research did not test the strength of the associations or relationships of the independent and dependent variables. Testing of the relationships would have improved the findings of this research.

This study recommends further research as articulated below, to further investigate youth entrepreneurship and the entrepreneurship ecosystem in Swaziland, as a way to ensure that youth are able to create jobs for themselves and provide jobs for others, whilst contributing to the economic growth and development of the country.

6.8 Recommendations for future research

It is recommended that in the future, a longitudinal study be carried out that will investigate the aspirations of the youth pre-training and post-training. This should have a control group as well. This longitudinal research should further study the transition between the entrepreneurial aspirations to actual ownership of entrepreneurial businesses.

Another recommendation is that an investigation be done on youth entrepreneurship development programmes for in-school youth, then the results compared with those of this study to ascertain which programmes are raising more entrepreneurial aspirations, since currently these programmes do not show an impact on the economy, which is still sluggish in growth (Africa Economic Outlook, 2017) whilst, according to Minniti (2008), studies have established the relationship between more entrepreneurial citizens and economic growth.

Further investigate the entrepreneurship ecosystem in Swaziland, especially in relation to how it can be more enabling to youth entrepreneurs. This will assist the Government in streamlining and in prioritising its interventions (Eser & Özdemirci, 2016). Debate has been on-going on whether to only target “entrepreneurial businesses”, those who show the potential or all small businesses, in this case, all youth businesses (Ligthelm, 2013), Swaziland can better make these decisions, based on empirical research in the Swazi context.

Another recommendation would be to institute research to learn from countries within Sub-Saharan Africa, such as Rwanda, who have shown great improvement in the entrepreneurship ecosystem within a short period of time (Isenberg, 2010).

It is also recommended to conduct research and develop a model for entrepreneurship development specifically for Swaziland, which can be used to formulate one comprehensive policy, targeted at youth entrepreneurship development, with an action plan that has prioritised programmes for implementation, and monitoring and evaluation.

Further investigate the relationship between gender and entrepreneurial aspirations, and operating an innovative, fast growing and internationalised business. This should be further investigated because research has highlighted a relationship between gender and entrepreneurial aspirations and entrepreneurial businesses, but this research showed no relationship. Also further investigate the reason the YEDPs or Swazi entrepreneurs seem to be educated whilst the country has a very high school dropout rate, to ascertain what happens to those who drop out of the education system.

Another recommendation would be to investigate why youth seem to start businesses late in Swaziland while there are in-school programmes being supported by Government, such as Junior Achievement and ENACTUS, which are meant to develop entrepreneurship at an earlier age (Dlamini & Bimha, 2017).

It is also recommended to conduct a study which compares the needs of rural youth entrepreneurs with those of urban youth entrepreneurs in Swaziland. This proposed study is important since Swaziland has the majority of its population residing in the rural areas (MOSCYA, 2015). Knowing and providing the exact assistance needed by rural youth will most probably result in a reduction in the youth's rural-to-urban migration currently being experienced, as they look for job opportunities (MOSCYA, 2015). This phenomenon of rural-to-urban youth migration is not only confined to Swaziland, it is a Sub-Saharan Africa wide challenge (Bawuah et al., 2006), and so its findings would contribute to solution provision to the whole region.

This last section leads to the conclusion of this Chapter.

6.9 Conclusion

Botha (2006) highlighted the lack of available research on entrepreneurship development programmes as most of the available research is on in-school youth entrepreneurship development programmes (YEDPs) compared to out-of-school YEDPs. This research set out to contribute to this knowledge gap, not only in Swaziland, but in Sub-Saharan Africa. It set out to obtain empirically the relationship between youth entrepreneurship development programmes and entrepreneurship aspirations of the Swazi youth. The findings were that whilst not all the YEDPs had an impact, they do however have the potential, shown by the fact that one out of the three was perceived to improve the entrepreneurial aspirations of the youth.

This research however discovered that those aspirations did not particularly result to innovative, growing and internationalised businesses, which then led to the conclusion that the entrepreneurial environment was not much enabling, that conclusion was

supported by previous research carried out by organisations, such as UNDP (2013) and even Government Ministries such as MCIT (2009) and MOSCYA (2009).

This study then recommended means for an improvement of the Swaziland Entrepreneurship Ecosystem, which entails the improvement of YEDPs and improvement of the holistic entrepreneurship ecosystem by Government, in partnership with key stakeholders.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Ethics Clearance Certificate

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Tfwala

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H16/06/35**
PROJECT TITLE	Exploring the perceived impact of youth entrepreneurship development programmes on entrepreneurial aspirations amongst Swazi youth
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Ms C Tfwala
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Economics and Business Science/
DATE CONSIDERED	24 June 2016
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved
EXPIRY DATE	17 October 2019

DATE 18 October 2016 **CHAIRPERSON** (Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Dr R Venter

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University.

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

_____ _____/_____/_____
Signature **Date**

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (YOUTH)

The Perceived Impact of Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes on Entrepreneurial Aspirations of the Youth in Swaziland

Date: _____

Dear Sir/Madam,

Good day. My name is Colisile Tfwala and I am a Master of Commerce candidate in the School of Economic and Business Sciences at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. I am conducting research on the above mentioned topic**.** The aim of the research is to ascertain the perception of the Swazi youth, trained through youth entrepreneurship development programmes, on the ability of the programmes to raise the desire to own enterprises that are innovative, fast growing and trade internationally. The lessons learnt through the study can be used to appreciate and improve Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes in Swaziland.

As a young person who has gone through one of the youth entrepreneurship development programmes in Swaziland, you are invited to participate in my research by answering questions in a questionnaire. I will conduct a telephone survey. An initial call will be made to arrange for the most appropriate time to call and administer the questionnaire. The questionnaire is broken down into four sections, it contains 24 questions and should take about 15 minutes to complete. This research does not involve treatment and/or payment.

What will happen if you choose to participate in the research?

- There is no risk to you and no harm will come to you if you do participate.
- You will be requested to verbally give your consent, by giving your consent you agree to participate in the research. Before giving your consent, please make sure that I have answered any questions you might have about the research.
- Your responses are important and there are no right or wrong answers. It would be appreciated if you answered all the questions. However, you may choose not to answer certain questions and you may stop answering the questionnaire at any stage. I have also prepared a SiSwati version of the questionnaire.
- Your responses will be taken to be both confidential and anonymous. In order to ensure your confidentiality and anonymity, you will not be required to give your name or your business's name at any stage.
- This study is for academic purposes only. The results of the study will only be reported in my dissertation, which will be the property of the University of the Witwatersrand. The dissertation will be placed in the University's library, and will also be accessible to anyone, on the world-wide web. Questionnaires will be kept for a period of 5 years in my supervisor's office, and will be destroyed thereafter.

What will happen if you choose <u>not</u> to participate in the research?

- Participation in the research is purely voluntary. Nobody will force you to complete the questionnaire.
- There will be no penalty or consequence if you do not complete the questionnaire.

The study was given a conditional approval by the Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical) of the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

Thank you for considering participating in my research. Should you have any queries relating to the research, please feel free to contact me on 76036499 or colzin@gmail.com. Alternatively, you can contact my supervisor, Dr. Robert Venter, on +27 84 580 7587 or robert.venter@wits.ac.za . You can also contact the HREC (Non-Medical) Ms. Lucille Mooragan, on +27 11 717-1408 or Lucille.Mooragan@wits.ac.za. You may additionally direct any requests for copies of the results, or summary of the research, to me on the aforementioned numbers.

Colisile Tfwala

Appendix C: Consent Form

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN MASTER OF COMMERCE RESEARCH (YOUTH - QUESTIONNAIRE)

The Perceived Impact of Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programmes on Entrepreneurial Aspirations of the Youth in Swaziland

Please read the following, and sign in the space below should you agree to respond to the questionnaire. If you have any questions relating to the consent form, please ask me.

I have read and understand the contents of the participant information sheet given to me by the researcher, a copy of which I have received for my own records. I have been encouraged to ask questions about the research and all of my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. By signing this form:

- I understand that my responses will be treated as anonymous and confidential at all times and that this signed consent form will be kept separate from my responses.
- I know that my participation is voluntary and I can withdraw from the study at any time.
- I agree to respond to the questionnaire.

_____ _____

Signature of participant Date

_____ _____

Signature of person obtaining consent Date

Appendix D: Youth Questionnaire – English

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR YOUTH

SECTION A

In this section please either fill in the blanks or place a tick in the block that best corresponds to your answer.

1. Your age in years at the time of participating in the Youth Entrepreneurship Development Programme: _____

2. Your Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

3. Indicate your highest level of education at the time of the training.

Some primary school ☐ Primary school completed (grade 7/standard 5) ☐

Some high school ☐ High school completed (Form 5/IB/A Level) ☐

Short programme completed ☐ Diploma/Degree completed ☐

Post graduate qualification completed ☐

4. Do you currently own a business?

Yes ☐ No ☐

5. Which youth entrepreneurship development training programme did you participate in?

BBB ☐ YEF ☐ Kickstart ☐

6. Year of participating _____

SECTION B

In this section, please indicate your response by ticking the block that shows how much you agree or disagree with the statement.

STATEMENT		**STRONGLY AGREE**	**AGREE**	**NEUTRAL**	**DISAGREE**	**STRONGLY DISAGREE**
7.	As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new type of product or service was increased.					

8.	As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new way of producing a service or product was increased.					
9.	As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise offering a new way of delivering or promoting a product or service was increased.					
10.	As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise serving an unattended market niche for a certain product or service was increased.					
11.	As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its income by at least 20% per year was increased.					
12.	As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its profit by at least 20% per year was increased.					
13.	As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that grows its staff by at least 20% per year was increased.					
14.	As a result of the training, my desire to own an enterprise that sells its products internationally was increased (e.g. exports, uses ecommerce, joint ventures with foreign companies, foreign licensing, franchised internationally, company branches internationally).					

SECTION C

In this section, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with a statement by placing a cross in the block that corresponds to your answer.

STATEMENT		**STRONGLY AGREE**	**AGREE**	**NEUTRAL**	**DISAGREE**	**STRONGLY DISAGREE**
15.	You are currently running an enterprise that offers a new type of product or service.					
16.	You are currently running an enterprise that offers a new way of producing a product or service.					
17.	You are currently running an enterprise that offers a new way of delivering or promoting a product or service.					
18.	You are currently running an enterprise that is servicing an unattended market niche for a certain product or service.					
19.	Your business's income increases by at least 20% annually.					

20.	Your business's profit increases by at least 20% annually.					
21.	The number of your staff increases by at least 20% annually.					
22.	You currently sell some of your products internationally (e.g. export, use ecommerce, joint ventures with foreign companies, foreign licensing, franchised internationally, company branches internationally).					

SECTION D

In this section, please fill in the blanks.

23. How can these programmes be improved to increase the desire to innovate, grow fast and sell your products to international markets?
_____

_____

_____

_____

24. What can the government of Swaziland do to increase the support it gives to youth entrepreneurship in general?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for the giving of your time to participate in this study.

Your input is most appreciated and will be treated as confidential at all times.

Appendix E: Youth Questionnaire – SiSwati

SISWATI QUESTIONNAIRE FOR YOUTH (IMIBUTO YESISWATI YENSHA)

SICEPHU SEKUCALA

Kulesicephu lesilandzelako ngicela ugcwalise tikhala noma umake libhokisi lolikhetsako.

1. Iminyaka yakho ngesikhatsi ungenela lomncintiswano wekufundziswa ngetemabhizinisi: _____

2. Bulili: Wesilisa ☐ Wesifazane ☐

3. Chaza kutsi bewufundze kanganani mawungenela lomncintiswano.

Bewuhlolile esikolweni lesincane ☐ Bewusicedzile sikolwa lesincane ☐

Bewuhlolile esikolweni lesiphakeme ☐ Bewusicedzile sikolwa lesiphakeme ☐

Wawucedze ikhozi lemfishane ☐ Bewunesitifeki seNyuvusi ☐

Bewunesitifiketi sekucocodzela eNyuvesi ☐

4. Unayo yini ibhizinisi manje?

Yebo ☐ Cha ☐

5. Wangenela muphi umncintiswano kulena lengentasi?

BBB ☐ YEF ☐ Kickstart ☐

6. Ngumuphi lomnyaka lowangenela ngawo lomncintiswano? _____

SICEPHU SESIBILI

Kulesicephu lesilandzelako, ngicela ukhombe imphendvulo yakho ngekumaka libhokisi lelichaza kutsi uvemelana kanganani nalokushiwoko.

UMUSHO	**NGIVUMAKAKAHULU**	**NGIYAVUMA**	**ANGISHOLUTFO**	**NGIYALA**	**NGALAKAKAHULU**

7.	Lomfundza sikolwa wangenta ngaba nenshisekelo lenkhulu yekuba nebhizinisi lekhicita umkhicito noma leyenta umsebenti lomusha longakavami.					
8.	Lomfundza sikolwa wangenta ngaba nenshisekelo lenkhulu yekuba nebhizinisi lenendlela lensha lengakavami yekukhicita noma yekwenta umsebenti.					
9.	Lomfundza sikolwa wangenta ngaba nenshisekelo lenkhulu yekuba nebhizinisi lenendlela lensha yekumaketha noma kumikisa umkhicito noma umsebenti kumakhasimende.					
10.	Lomfundza sikolwa wangenta ngaba nenshisekelo lenkhulu yekuba nebhizinisi lenemakhasimende lebekakadze anganakwa ngumuntfu phambilini.					
11.	Lomfundza sikolwa wangenta ngaba nenshisekelo lenkhulu yekuba nebhizinisi lekhulisa imali lengenile ngalokungemashumi lamabili ekhulwini njalo ngemnyaka.					
12.	Lomfundza sikolwa wangenta ngaba nenshisekelo lenkhulu yekuba nebhizinisi lekhulisa inzuzo ngalokungemashumi lamabili ekhulwini njalo ngemnyaka.					
13.	Lomfundza sikolwa wangenta ngaba nenshisekelo lenkhulu yekuba nebhizinisi lekhulisa tisebenti ngalokungemashumi lamabili ekhulwini njalo ngemnyaka.					
14.	Lomfundza sikolwa wangenta ngaba nenshisekelo lenkhulu yekuba nebhizinisi letsengisa nangaphandle kwaleli lakaNgwane.					

SICEPHU SESITSATFU

Kulesicephu lesilandzelako, ngicela ukhombe imphendvulo yakho ngekumaka libhokisi lelichaza kutsi uvemelana kanganani nalokushiwoko.

UMUSHO		**NGIVUMAKAKHULU**	**NGIYAVUMA**	**ANGISHOLUTFO**	**NGIYALA**	**NGALAKAKHULU**
15.	Kungumanje unebhizinisi lekhicita umkhicito noma leyenta umsebenti lomusha longakavami.					
16.	Kungumanje unebhizinisi lenendlela lensha lengakavami yekukhicita noma yekwenta umsebenti.					
17.	Kungumanje unebhizinisi lenendlela lensha yekumaketha noma yekumikisa umkhicito noma umsebenti kumakasimende.					
18.	Kungumanje unebhizinisi lenemakhasimende lebekakadze anganakwa ngumuntfu phambilini.					

19.	Imali lengenako ebhizinisini iyakhula ngalokungemashumi lamabili ekhulwini njalo ngemnyaka.					
20.	Inzuzo ebhizinisini iyakhula ngalokungemashumi lamabili ekhulwini njalo ngemnyaka.					
21.	Inombolo yetisebenti iyakhula ngalokungemashumi lamabili ekhulwini njalo ngemnyaka.					
22.	Kungumanje utsengisa linyenti lemkhicito nome imisebenti yakho ngephandle kwaleli lakaNgwane.					

SICEPHU SESINE

Kulesicephu lesilandzelako, ngicela ugcwalise tikhala.

23. Kungentiwanjani kute lemincintiswano ichubeke ikhulise inshisekelo yekwenta tinfo ngendlela lensha lengakavami, inshisekelo yekukhulisa ibhizinisi ngematata, kanye nenshisekelo yekutsengisa ngephandle kwelive lakaNgwane?

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24. Yini lokungentiwa ngu Hulumende weMbube kwesekela bosomabhizinisi?

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Siyabonga kakhulu kutsatsa sikhatsi uphendvula lemibuto.

Timpendvulo takho tiyabongeka impela, angeke sisakate kutsi tibuyephi letimphendvulo.