

RESEARCH ARTICLE:

University Entrepreneurship Programmes and their Implications for Youth Development in South Africa's Developmental Agenda: Case Studies from KwaZulu Natal

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Abstract

The South African government recognizes the significance of youth entrepreneurship amidst a backdrop of a burgeoning youth population, escalating unemployment, and evolving labour market dynamics spurred by technological advancements. Embracing this reality, the government has proactively integrated policies and legislative measures into its developmental agenda to foster youth entrepreneurship. Given that higher education institutions (HEIs) are hubs of young people, their pivotal role in nurturing entrepreneurial capacity among the youth warrants examination. This paper employed a case study approach and qualitative methodology to explore university entrepreneurship programs (UEPs) as tools in advancing youth entrepreneurship and sustainable development. Additionally, the study delved into the development policy and legislative frameworks underpinning youth development and empowerment. Focusing on two HEIs in KwaZulu Natal Province, South Africa, the research utilized inductive content analysis of strategic documents and archival materials. Key findings underscore HEIs' commitment to youth entrepreneurship evidenced by the establishment of dedicated bureaus overseeing various UEPs. The study's practical implications advocate for HEIs to enhance student awareness of UEPs, integrate design thinking into the curriculum, and broaden partnership networks to fortify UEPs' impact.

Keywords: development; higher education institutions; entrepreneurship programmes; youth entrepreneurship

Introduction

Many developing African countries have implemented various strategies aimed at fostering development. Such strategies include amongst others economic restructuring, infrastructural projects to facilitate development corridors, social welfare initiatives, trade agreements, and regional economic communities (Müller-Mahn *et al.*, 2021). Despite some successes and positive economic effects observed over the years, many of these strategies have largely failed (Ufomba, 2020). The failure can be attributed to factors such as leadership deficiencies; weak governance structures; policy crises (characterized by incoherent frameworks, poor implementation, and a lack of continuity); significant infrastructure deficits; state capture; and inadequate institutional learning and knowledge transfer, all of which collectively create an unfavourable environment for growth (Noman and Stiglitz, 2012). These persistent failures underline the urgent need for sustainable solutions to address the development challenges facing African nations, particularly in light of the remarkable success achieved by certain East Asian economies (such as Singapore, Japan, Taiwan, Malaysia, Hong Kong, and South Korea) and some Latin American countries classified as newly industrializing (Gumede, 2019; Ukwandu, 2019; Singh and Ovidia, 2018). Moreover, state interventions in numerous Western economies through emergency economic stabilization measures following the 2008 global financial crisis reignited discussions concerning the role and nature of the state in the development process (Theodore, 2020).

Literature widely acknowledges the absence of a singular definition that fully encapsulates the concept of a developmental state. Moreover, there are varying perspectives on the inherent attributes of a developmental state

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and the conditions fostering its emergence (Gumede, 2019; Routley, 2014). Consequently, the characterization of a developmental state remains fluid, evolving as different dimensions of the phenomenon are emphasized. This paper adopted definitions of developmental states that provide a foundation for examining youth entrepreneurship. In Singh and Ovadia (2018), the developmental state is portrayed as a concept embracing robust interventionist policies intended to promote rapid industrialization and sustained economic growth. According to Dikeni (2012: 37), a developmental state "primarily concerns itself with the ways and means of how a state governs, intervenes in the lives of its citizens, and organises and mobilises resources for itself in order to transform and effect economic and social change in society for development purposes". Routley (2014) outlined the attributes of a developmental state to include development-oriented political leadership, a competent state apparatus, state-led collaborative engagement with key industries, and effective growth-oriented policy interventions. These definitions situate the state as the central role player in the process of development, because the state is deemed to have controls with which to intervene in market failures, capital scarcity and address coordination shortcomings between governments and industry. Evans (2010) coined the term "embedded autonomy" to describe this unique form of state-society relations, wherein the state actively leads efforts for sustained economic growth and rapid industrialization through purposeful interventionist policies, guiding and structuring the market to achieve developmental goals.

South Africa's (SA) post-apartheid democratic government has consistently emphasized its commitment to constructing a democratic developmental state capable of driving economic growth (Ukwandu, 2019). The rationale behind advocating for a democratic developmental state in South Africa stems from the country's history of exclusion and persisting high levels of inequality, unemployment, and poverty. With a Gini coefficient of 0.67, inequality in SA is among the highest globally (World Bank, 2023). Furthermore, an estimate of 30% of the population experienced extreme poverty in 2022 (African Development Bank Group, 2023). The unemployment rate at 32.9% is recorded to be among the highest in the world with the youth bearing most of the burden irrespective of educational attainment (Statistics South Africa (Stats SA), 2023). These statistics show that there is a pressing need to reassess the efficacy of the state's economic interventions. Khambule (2020) argued that adopting a developmental state approach is crucial for addressing SA's challenges and facilitating necessary transformations. By pursuing a developmental state agenda, the South African government can actively intervene in society to promote economic growth and ensure the ensuing social benefits, redistribution, and improved living conditions for the majority of the population (Routley, 2014).

The National Planning Commission's (NPC) (2011) National Development Plan (NDP) is the development blueprint of the African National Congress-led government to address poverty, unemployment, and inequality over the long term (Gumede, 2015). The NDP outlines growing an inclusive economy, state capacity development, leadership enhancement, and fostering collaborations across society as key avenues to achieve its objectives. This agrees with Gumede's (2019) suggestion that the state's capacity building, particularly in knowledge required for policy development, hinges on collaboration among stakeholders from various sectors. Evans (2010) asserted that such broad-based coalitions facilitate information exchange, resource allocation, and co-production essential for capacity expansion crucial to development. Consequently, higher education institutions (HEIs) play a pivotal role in SA's developmental agenda as they have the potential to contribute to and bolster the objectives of the NDP, supporting growth, development, and societal transformation (Ogunsanya, 2021). This necessitates a shift in HEIs' focus towards outward engagement and alignment with the nation's reconstruction and development objectives.

Furthermore, the NDP emphasizes the youth's right to quality education and enhanced economic opportunities (NPC, 2011). The concept and objectives of developmental states in the twenty-first century spotlight socio-economic development and human development as central tenets of the developmental agenda. Hsu (2018: 1098) stated that "development is no longer simply conceived of as economic growth or industrialization, but also as encapsulating human development". Thus, alongside the traditional focus on economic growth and industrialization, fostering human capital development through quality investments is recognized as a vital component of the developmental agenda (Evans and Heller, 2019). A developmental agenda necessitates the empowerment and advancement of citizens. In the context of this study, this entails creating pathways to enhance the well-being and socio-economic progress of young people. Consequently, this investigation viewed youth empowerment and entrepreneurship from the perspective of human development.

The prevalence of high youth unemployment and underemployment among university graduates, suggests a disconnect between higher education and broader societal and economic needs (Bank, 2018). Inadequate education systems and curriculum deficiencies, where essential employability skills are not imparted, contribute to

youth unemployment (Mseleku, 2022). Numerous studies (see Tshishonga, 2022; Odeku and Rudolf, 2019; Chigunta, 2017; Gwija *et al.*, 2014) advocate entrepreneurship as a crucial strategy for youth to escape unemployment and create sustainable livelihoods, particularly in developing countries like SA. Iwu *et al.* (2021) and Dzomonda and Fatoki (2019) affirm the influential role of HEIs in shaping youth attitudes toward entrepreneurship through formal academic programs and informal outreach initiatives. However, concerns persist that SA's higher education curriculum inadequately addresses entrepreneurship. Radipere (2012: 11018) notes that entrepreneurship education in SA higher education predominantly focuses on the academic aspect of "education about entrepreneurship" neglecting the essential aspect of "education for entrepreneurship" which involves nurturing entrepreneurial skills in individuals. Dzomonda and Fatoki (2019) concluded that many HEIs primarily aim to produce employees rather than entrepreneurs, with many failing to adequately incorporate practical entrepreneurship training that could cultivate entrepreneurial ventures.

Given that HEIs are hubs of young people, it is pertinent to examine HEIs' efforts in empowering youth to become active contributors to the economy. Therefore, the aim of this paper was to utilize the lenses of University Entrepreneurship Programs (UEPs) to broadly explore entrepreneurship as a means of empowering youth in South Africa within the context of the country's developmental agenda. The objectives of the paper were two-fold: first, to examine global, regional, and national development policy frameworks pertaining to youth entrepreneurship; and second, to assess the role of HEIs in promoting youth entrepreneurship by evaluating the effectiveness of UEPs as tools for sustained youth empowerment.

Literature Review

This section of the paper presents a discussion of extant studies on youth entrepreneurship in SA and the developmental role of HEIs in youth entrepreneurship. Furthermore, various development policies and legislative frameworks are discussed to establish a case for youth empowerment in development agenda. In addition, the study's theoretical premise, the Triple Helix Development Model is presented.

Literature consistently underscores the crucial role of entrepreneurship in bolstering national economies, positioning it as a means for citizens to participate in the economy and enhance their well-being (Maheshwari *et al.*, 2023; Odeku and Rudolf, 2019; Gwija *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, research highlights the potential of entrepreneurship to bolster economic growth and socio-economic advancement in SA, with the small, medium, and micro enterprise (SMME) sector playing a significant role (Bowmaker-Falconer and Meyer, 2022; Makwara, 2019; Musengi-Ajulu, 2010). According to Stats SA (2023), approximately 63.3% of SA's population falls within the youth demographic, aged between 15 and 34 years. However, research shows a relatively low level of youth participation in entrepreneurship in SA, attributed to factors such as lack of start-up capital, limited awareness of or access to entrepreneurial support, and inadequate preparedness (Gwija *et al.*, 2014). Some studies, like Odeku and Rudolf (2019) and Herrington and Kew (2017), even suggest that youth entrepreneurship in SA lags behind that of other countries such as Senegal, Cameroon, and Botswana. Nonetheless, Bowmaker-Falconer and Meyer (2022) report an increase in early-stage entrepreneurial activity among 18-24-year olds from 3,4% (2001) to 19,3% (2021), and for 25-34-year olds, from 5,3% (2001) to 19% (2021). The authors attribute this rise to young individuals seeking self-employment opportunities due to a scarcity of alternative employment options.

The literature on factors affecting youth entrepreneurship in SA highlights various issues, yielding mixed conclusions. Some studies, such as Magagula and Tsvakirai (2020) and Chigunta *et al.* (2005), suggest a lack of interest and engagement among the youth, despite numerous initiatives aimed at promoting entrepreneurship. Conversely, Gwija *et al.* (2014) found an increasing enthusiasm for entrepreneurship among the youth. Entrepreneurial intentions are influenced by factors such as entrepreneurship education, which Pulka *et al.* (2015) described as equipping individuals with the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviours to establish sustainable ventures. Fayolle and Klandt (2006) argued that effective entrepreneurship education should address behavioural aspects, mindsets, and specific contextual considerations. Targeting entrepreneurial behaviour involves developing skills to identify opportunities, make informed business decisions, and effectively network with stakeholders. Education focused on mindset explores perceptions, attitudes, values, and principles crucial for sustaining entrepreneurial intentions. Additionally, entrepreneurial education enables individuals to leverage changing environments and uncertainties to generate new ideas and businesses. Importantly, entrepreneurship education addresses capacity development, a critical factor contributing to the success of entrepreneurship endeavours.

However, Bowmaker-Falconer and Meyer (2022) emphasize that while many individuals may have entrepreneurial intentions, these intentions don't always translate into actual business ventures due to various internal and external factors. In SA, obstacles faced by youth entrepreneurship are similar to those encountered by other types of businesses, largely stemming from the overall business environment in the country. Rector *et al.* (2016) highlight difficulties in obtaining start-up capital, which are often linked to issues such as lack of credibility with financial institutions, insufficient savings, and absence of collateral. Additionally, Sumaworo (2023) signalled high transportation and energy costs, along with inconsistent power supply and expensive rentals/leases, which contribute to the overall high cost of doing business, potentially deterring young entrepreneurs. Furthermore, Gwija *et al.* (2014) identified poor compliance with business regulations as a significant challenge, resulting from factors like ignorance or lack of knowledge about regulatory requirements and bureaucratic red tape surrounding business registration, tax compliance, and labour regulations. Despite these challenges, there is structural support for youth entrepreneurship in SA through government-driven programs and private sector initiatives. However, Gwija *et al.* (2014) noted that lack of awareness or inadequate exposure to these initiatives remains a barrier. Therefore, it is essential to ensure widespread availability of business support services across the country, accessible through platforms commonly used by youths. This would improve information dissemination and increase awareness of available support initiatives for youth entrepreneurs.

The relevance of youth entrepreneurship has been translated into policies and legislation that aim to accelerate the global, continental, and national vision of the state in promoting youth development. This section discusses such development policies and frameworks from a global perspective of the United Nations, continental agenda of the African Union, and national orientation of South Africa. In the international policy framework, youth entrepreneurship can be examined using the right to development as articulated in the United Nations (UN) Declaration on the Right to Development (UN, n.d; Felice, 2018). According to this declaration, every individual is entitled to participate in, contribute to, and benefit from development. Furthermore, states are called upon to formulate policies that promote active and free participation in development, ensuring that young people are provided with opportunities to shape their own futures through participation and contribution to development processes. The UN's 2030 Agenda and the accompanying Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (UN, 2015) represent universal targets aimed at building a sustainable future. The intersection of youth development, youth entrepreneurship, and the UN SDGs reveals that several goals are pertinent to this discourse. These include Goal 1 ("End poverty in all its forms everywhere"); Goal 4 ("Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all"); Goal 8 ("Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all"); and Goal 10 ("Reduce inequality within and among countries") (UN, 2015: 21). Specific targets within these goals, such as Goal 1 - target 1.2; Goal 4 - targets 4.4 and 4.7; Goal 8 - targets 8.3, 8.5, and 8.6; and Goal 10 - target 10.2, serve as an international development framework for fostering sustainable economic growth inclusive of young people. Additionally, the UN's youth agenda is guided by the World Programme of Action for Youth (WPAY) (UN, 2010), which provides guidelines for national strategies and international cooperation to improve the well-being of youths in their respective communities. Priority areas addressed by the WPAY include education, employment, poverty alleviation, and ensuring robust youth participation in society.

Sesay (2022) commended the African Union's (AU) efforts in youth development, highlighting key policies such as the African Youth Charter (AU, 2006), the African Youth Decade 2009-2018 Plan of Action (AU, 2011), and the Malabo Decision on Youth Empowerment (International Labour Organization, 2012). The AU Agenda 2063 (African Union Development Agency, 2022) serves as a framework for implementing these regional policies, with Aspiration 6 emphasizing Africa's development driven by its youth, women, and children, where opportunities for self-realization are created for Africa's youth. Articles 10, 11, 13, 14, and 15 of the African Youth Charter (AU, 2006) address various aspects of youth development, including the right to development, youth participation in society, education and skills development, gainful employment, and socio-economic empowerment. Additionally, the African Youth Decade 2009-2018 Plan of Action (AU, 2011) focuses on priority areas such as education, skills development, youth employment, and entrepreneurship. These collective regional policies provide a comprehensive framework for designing, developing, and implementing strategies to support youth development across Africa (Amupanda, 2018). AU member states, including SA, are obligated to prioritize policies that support and accelerate youth entrepreneurship (Boadu and Alaji, 2023). However, the implementation of both the AU Agenda and the UN SDGs by developing countries remains challenging (Fukuda-Parr and Muchhala, 2020). To address this, scholars like Filho *et al.* (2021) advocate for integrating development goals into HEIs' academic curricula, research, operations, partnerships, institutional governance, and culture. This integration can ensure a more holistic approach to achieving sustainable development objectives.

In addition to the NDP, various other policies and legislative frameworks guide youth development and entrepreneurship in SA. These include the National Youth Policy 2020-2030 (Republic of South Africa (RSA), 2020) which outlines the government's strategic direction and interventions for youth development over the specified period; the National Youth Development Policy Framework 2002-2007 (RSA, 2008) which is focused on promoting youth engagement in national service and community development activities; the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA) Act of 2008 (RSA, 2009) which established the National Youth Development Agency to play a central role in implementing youth development programs and initiatives; Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Amendment Act of 2013 (RSA, 2013) which is legislation aimed at promoting economic transformation and empower black youth through various initiatives; Skills Development Act of 1998 (as amended) (RSA, 1998) which promotes skills development and training opportunities for young people to enhance their employability and entrepreneurship skills; Youth Employment Accord 2013 (RSA, 2013) aimed at addressing youth unemployment by promoting collaboration between government, business, and labour sectors to create employment opportunities for young people; Skills Accord 2011 (RSA, 2011) which focuses on enhancing skills development and training opportunities for youth. Some of these frameworks have been decentralized to provincial and local government levels, as exemplified by the North West Youth Entrepreneurship Services Fund Act of 2015 (North West Provincial Administration, 2016). The interplay between legislation and policy underscores the state's responsibility for the well-being of its youth, who often face disproportionate challenges in economic crises (Yassine and Bakass, 2023). Leveraging this legislation can hold the state accountable for promoting youth entrepreneurship and creating a conducive environment for its growth. Additionally, it can be used to establish support institutions dedicated to promoting youth entrepreneurship (Yami *et al.*, 2019). Overall, these policies and legislative frameworks provide a structure for SA's youth development empowerment, and economic participation.

Prior to the democratic era in SA, HEIs played a development role albeit within the framework of apartheid policies where HEIs were envisioned as "place-based agents of change and development" contributing to a discriminatory race-based system of development (Bank, 2018: 3). This role included training skilled personnel for the apartheid state bureaucracy, promoting local economic development in specific industries, and shaping urbanization, among other functions. Bank (2018) further opined that since democracy the SA government has not directly mandated HEIs to fulfil specific development roles. Instead, state departments and agencies are tasked with ensuring alignment between HEIs and the country's developmental priorities. These agencies provide incentives and funding for research that addresses development challenges. Accordingly, it can be inferred that the state supports HEIs in contributing to the resolution of development issues such as youth entrepreneurship and sustainable livelihoods. In essence, while HEIs in South Africa historically served as instruments of apartheid-era development policies, the post-apartheid government has sought to align them with broader national developmental objectives through indirect mandates and support mechanisms. This approach reflects a shift towards a more inclusive and participatory model of development. The Higher Education Act 101 (Republic of South Africa, 1997) laid the foundation for a reformed and restructured higher education system intended to align institutions and academic programs with the broader needs of the country and the specific needs of HEIs' communities. In line with the Act's objectives, Chankseliani and McCowan (2021) observed a shift in the mission of HEIs from traditional roles of teaching and research towards greater engagement with communities. Successful integration of teaching, research, and engagement within the mission of universities enables HEIs to effectively contribute to development initiatives.

The NDP emphasizes the importance of a higher education and training sector that empowers citizens, enhances earning potential, increases productivity, fosters a knowledge-intensive economy, and contributes to innovation in key economic sectors (NPC, 2011). There is a growing emphasis on rethinking knowledge creation, transfer, and distribution within higher education to equip students with the skills and capabilities needed for economic participation (Ogunsanya, 2021). In line with these goals, several SA government agencies collaborate with HEIs to promote student and graduate entrepreneurship, feeding into the government's drive to develop SMMEs. This collaboration has led to the establishment of various UEPs aimed at fostering entrepreneurship awareness among students, providing practical entrepreneurship training, nurturing business ideas into viable enterprises, and offering support to student-owned businesses.

Theoretical and Methodological Approaches

The Triple Helix Model (THM) by Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff (1998) positions HEIs alongside government and industry as partners in a dynamic tripartite interlocking relationship. This model emphasizes the critical role of

knowledge utilization in building innovation capacity for economic development in increasingly knowledge-intensive societies. Etzkowitz and Dzisah (2008) extended the THM to propose a Triple Helix Development Model (THDM), advocating for socio-economic development to transition from being resource-led to knowledge-based. In the THDM, HEIs are central, leading development efforts through enhanced interaction with industry and government, facilitating fluid circulation of knowledge among the university-industry-government relationship. This shift requires HEIs to move beyond their traditional roles into entrepreneurship, engagement, and sustainable development (Rubens *et al.*, 2017). Governments need to prioritize higher education and provide adequate support for university-based activities that promote innovation, entrepreneurship, and economic development (Tornatzky and Rideout, 2014). This would harness HEIs' ability to congregate internal and external stakeholders around the entrepreneurial agenda; and to act as an incubator to promote creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship among students and academics (Bezerra *et al.*, 2017). The emergence of the entrepreneurial university, driven by the THM, emphasizes the integration of a commitment to regional socio-economic development with research and teaching (Etzkowitz, 2013). This shift towards entrepreneurial higher education institutions involves developing entrepreneurial capabilities within HEIs and fostering the same among students and academics. Mascarenhas *et al.* (2017, cited in Cele and Williamson, 2022: 2) define entrepreneurial HEIs as those that promote entrepreneurial intents and pursuits among students by providing opportunities and creating a conducive environment for entrepreneurial activities.

The study adopted a case study design to investigate the subject matter of the research within its real-life context. Two universities in SA's KwaZulu Natal Province were selected using the purposive sampling method, a non-probability sampling technique in which relevant subjects, units or cases are intentionally selected for a research study because they can best provide the data needed to achieve the research objectives (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). One university is a traditional university that is typically research- and theoretically-oriented and offers professional degree programmes (hereafter referred to as TRAD-Uni). The other institution is a university of technology having its origins in being a Technikon, a typology of HEI in SA with a focus on vocational education and technical training to serve industry and labour market needs. This institution will hereafter be referred to as UOT. The decision to select two distinct types of HEIs presented an opportunity to examine the influence of institutional typology on a university's approach to youth entrepreneurship. Historical data and document analysis were used in the study. Data was obtained from strategic documents such as institutional strategic plans and annual reports from the two universities. In qualitative research, documents are valid data sources (Bowen, 2009). Document analysis is an unobtrusive, systematic method of reviewing and analysing documents containing information about the phenomenon under study (Bowen, 2009). It is described as unobtrusive because information in the documents have been recorded without the researcher's intervention. The strategic plan 2023-2032 and annual reports of 2022 and 2021 of the TRAD-Uni were selected. For the UOT, its 2020 strategy map, 2021 annual report and 2022 State of the University Address were selected. These documents are readily available in the public domain and were accessed through the universities' websites.

Finally, the inductive content analysis was employed in the study. Inductive content analysis (ICA) is a qualitative data analysis technique that utilizes a process of abstraction to reduce textual data into themes, patterns, concepts or categories in order to gain insight into a phenomenon (Kyngas, 2020). ICA consists of three phases: preparation, organization, and reporting of results. The first phase of preparation involved collecting relevant institutional documents to make sense of their content as it related to the study. In the organization phase, themes and sub-themes as units of analysis were identified from the documents. Themes having similar content were combined to form categories which became the basis for drawing conclusions about the data. In the reporting phase, results are described by the content of the categories emerging out of the data, and these are presented in the section that follows.

Results and Discussion

The study found that both HEIs have institutional strategic plans. Strategic planning is a significant accountability function in many public HEIs (Fumasoli *et al.*, 2014). While traditional views of strategic planning focused on positioning organizations in the marketplace, it has evolved into a strategic mechanism for HEIs, particularly as their internal and external operating environments become more volatile and uncertain. The allocation of considerable resources to public HEIs makes strategic planning an imperative. Strategic plans enable HEIs to articulate a coherent narrative that accounts for their stated strategic objectives, outlines how compliance to stakeholder demands will be achieved, and upholds institutional values and principles (Fumasoli *et al.*, 2014).

The 2023-2032 Strategic Plan of the TRAD-Uni outlines five strategic goals. Strategic goals 1, 2 and 3 accommodate youth development and entrepreneurship (UKZN, 2023: 21). Goal 1 speaks to attracting high-potential students through high quality teaching and learning and developing their potential in global citizenship and leadership. Goal 2 is about producing graduates who possess the knowledge, skills and connections for successful life-long careers. Goal 3 speaks of high-impact research, innovation and entrepreneurship that ensure the university maintains an acclaimed reputation and high level of relevance in all ranks of society. These goals appear to prioritize the development of students and graduates who are well-prepared for successful careers in the job market rather than creators of employment. The language of the strategic plan shows an institutional commitment to ensuring employability of students predominantly through teaching and research. In itself, such a commitment is laudable since it is the conventional reason for HEIs' existence. However, when examined in the light of universities' expanded mandate as expounded in the discussions regarding the NDP and the DHET, TRAD-Uni's strategic plan does not explicitly express an intent, supported by proposed action plans, towards student entrepreneurship. Intentions about entrepreneurship are more about how the university can get rewarded through transactional research with industry.

The UOT's strategic planning document is named "ENVISION 2030". It is a strategy map depicting the university's logic and direction, and communicates its desired strategy (DUT, 2020). ENVISION 2030 is based on four perspectives. The first perspective is Stewardship which speaks to an institutional culture driven by values of shared responsibility, accountability and creativity. The second perspective is Systems and Processes which is about creating an institutional environment that enables innovative thinking and entrepreneurship. The third perspective, Sustainability refers to expected outcomes from the first two perspectives which include a financially sustainable and environmentally responsible institutional environment. The fourth perspective, Society, refers to the expected impact the university would have on society through its engagement initiatives, practical application of knowledge in research and production of future-ready graduates. Each perspective of ENVISION 2030 has three strategic objectives making a total of twelve strategic goals that signal the university's aspirations for institutional performance. This paper identified four strategic objectives that convey the university's intentions about youth entrepreneurship. These objectives are to "provide curricula that stimulate creativity and innovation to generate new knowledge and solutions"; "leverage new knowledge and solutions for societal impact"; "develop graduates with the acumen to initiate and/or respond to change"; and "be engaged and productive global citizens that establish mutually beneficial partnerships" (DUT, 2020). The paper surmised from the above that the UOT demonstrates more specificity in language in terms of strategic intent towards the development of entrepreneurship among students.

The incorporation of entrepreneurship in both universities' strategic plans confirms institutional buy-in and strategic intent to participate in government's agenda of promoting youth entrepreneurship. Furthermore, the presence of accompanying action plans to operationalize the strategic goals related to youth entrepreneurship underscores a proactive approach to implementation. This finding agrees with Yohana's (2021) observation that HEIs' strategic intent with youth entrepreneurship is often a direct response to their environmental context, where entrepreneurship development strategies are stimulated by societal issues as well as inducement from key stakeholders such as government. The universities in this study show a commitment to develop an entrepreneurial mindset in students.

In the UOT, there is a Centre for Entrepreneurship and Innovation which was established as the umbrella body for all of the university's entrepreneurial units. Units under this centre include an Enactus department where entrepreneurial action is geared towards creating community-based projects that positively affect the quality of life in needy communities; a centre concerned with social entrepreneurship ventures; as well as a business incubator funded by the Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA). Broadly, the UOT's Centre for Entrepreneurship and Innovation oversees theoretical and technical entrepreneurial training and learning, business support services – incubation, business coaching, access to markets, seed funding, and other related services to ensure creation of sustainable entrepreneurial ventures. No criteria is used to select students to participate in the UEPs. Some of the outcomes of the UOT's UEPs according to DUT (2022; 2021) are outlined in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Some outcomes of University Entrepreneurship Programmes in the UOT

Year	No. of students who received entrepreneurial training	No. of start-up businesses in incubation	No. of student-owned SMMEs in operation
2022	4,940	160	52 (consolidated turnover of R1.5million)
2021	3,500	150	45 (consolidated turnover of R1.25million)

In TRAD-Uni, there is an established department for innovation development and student entrepreneurship. This department runs a structured entrepreneurship skills programme for mentoring and coaching students to establish their own businesses (UKZN, 2021: 69). Also, workshops, funding and networking opportunities are organized for student entrepreneurs in addition to assisting them with technology transfer and providing guidance on how to navigate matters relating to intellectual property, commercial contracts and licenses. No criteria is used to select students to participate in the UEPs. One of the objectives of promoting entrepreneurship among students in the TRAD-Uni is to empower them to participate in broad-based sustainable economic development, and alleviate to some measure, SA's unemployment challenge (UKZN, 2021: 69). Some outcomes of TRAD-Uni's UEP recorded are outlined in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Some outcomes of University Entrepreneurship Programmes in the TRAD-Uni

Year	No. of students who received entrepreneurial training	No. of student-owned businesses managed by the university's entrepreneurship unit	No. of student-owned businesses that received funding
2022	544	47	58 (total funding of R2.19million disbursed)
2021	Not available	33	20 (total funding of R1.4million disbursed)

The data reveals that both institutions' entrepreneurship programmes for students are yielding positive outcomes albeit to different degrees. Su *et al.* (2021) found that university support has a significant effect on entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions among university students. According to the authors, university support has three dimensions: business development support, concept development support, and educational support. The availability of support in these forms together with students' participation expands students' fundamental knowledge and ability to engage in entrepreneurship, which may positively influence their participation in entrepreneurship. Bedő *et al.* (2020) opined that where universities have invested in entrepreneurship infrastructure to provide the kind of support outlined in Su *et al.* (2021), there is scope for UEPs to drive the development of more local spinout enterprises which can be both student-led and technology- or academic-led.

This study further explored factors responsible for a notable difference in the number of student businesses recorded in the two institutions. The level of students' awareness of UEPs on their campuses was considered. Morland *et al.* (2021) refer to the importance of increasing students' awareness of entrepreneurship opportunities as a stimulus of their interest. Student awareness of UEPs can hinge on the visibility of units driving UEPs on each university campus. In the UOT, their Centre for Entrepreneurship and Innovation is strategically located in the heart of one of the campuses giving it maximum visibility with easy access by students as the location is in the path of very heavy foot traffic. On the other hand, TRAD-Uni's innovation unit is not located directly on any of the university's main campuses. Instead, it is situated in a distant and separate site off one of the campuses where it is not easily visible or accessible to students. Students may not even be aware of the existence of the innovation unit because of its obscure location. Visibility and accessibility of HEIs' entrepreneurial units contribute to the level of awareness that students have of their operations. Future research in this direction can explore universities' efforts in guaranteeing awareness of their UEPs.

Factors Influencing University Entrepreneurship Programmes

The availability of funding affects UEPs because HEIs have to work within financial budgets. Funding can be determined by the types of partnerships HEIs have. This study found that both universities have multi-sector partnerships cutting across the public and private sectors, locally and internationally. Both universities acknowledge public funding from the Entrepreneurship Development in Higher Education (EDHE) programme of the DHET, Innovate Durban; and partnerships with agencies such as the Companies and Intellectual Property Commission (CIPC), the South African Revenue Service (SARS), the NYDA, and SEDA. Additionally, the universities acknowledged funding from organizations such as foundations and companies listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange like South African Breweries among others. This confirms HEIs' participation in quadruple helix collaborations, government–university–industry–society partnerships that are backed by capital investments to facilitate creativity and innovation needed to fulfil socio-economic aspirations (Carayannis and Campbell, 2012). In addition, it is important to highlight funding as a key concern in view of increasing higher education costs in SA and across the globe (Le Grange, 2020). Therefore, HEIs must aggressively pursue other revenue sources (Heaton *et al.*, 2019) in order to implement their strategic goals and objectives. Thus, it is logical

to find that the HEIs in this study source funding from various stakeholders to support their entrepreneurship development goals.

The paper examined whether institutional typology exerted any influence on the universities' entrepreneurship focus or their initiatives for youth entrepreneurship. The UOT is a former Technikon. Technikons demonstrated a proficiency in providing practical, vocational and technical-inclined education (Ogunsanya, 2021), and this has been retained in their evolution into universities of technology. TRAD-Uni is a traditional research-focused university. In traditional universities there is a strong research tradition and general focus on theoretical and academic teaching (Ogunsanya, 2021). This paper hypothesized that the characteristic differences in institutional typology may influence and possibly determine the types of UEPs in each university. However, this proposition was nullified because the two universities engage in almost the same types of UEPs which include competitions, entrepreneurship weeks, workshops/seminars (for example, design thinking and problem-based learning workshops), formal courses, enterprise incubation, and seed funding among others. The paper also examined student profile as a factor possibly influencing how UEPs are carried out in the universities. The student profile of the UOT is markedly different from that of the TRAD-Uni. Parker's (2012) study of student opinions in the UOT about state intervention found that African students, who are in the majority, support a state interventionist stance and populist economic policies. This finding may be based on the students' socio-economic backgrounds hence their preference for state interventions to gain equitable access to opportunities. Based on Parker's findings, it can be inferred that a majority of students in the UOT are from less affluent socio-economic backgrounds. Furthermore, this study used information regarding tuition payment to attempt to ascertain the student profile. In the UOT, the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) funded 70% of students registered in the 2021 academic year (DUT, 2021). The proportion of students needing financial aid proves the socio-economic profile of students in the UOT.

The TRAD-Uni's strategic plan document indicates that increasing numbers of students from quintile 1-3 schools now access higher education in the university. However, this paper surmises that the student profile in the TRAD-Uni depicts a student complement with slightly higher socio-economic status in comparison to the UOT students. The proportion of students funded by NSFAS in the 2021 academic year in TRAD-Uni was 59% which is less than the UOT's 70%. A university with a student complement where the majority is from disadvantaged backgrounds means the institution must do more to equip them to succeed in a world where the odds are already stacked against them. This paper concludes that this is the case for the UOT and is a key factor in the university's vigorous drive in fostering innovation and entrepreneurship among its students. Furthermore, the efforts of the TRAD-Uni in fostering entrepreneurship among its students may not be as intensive as that of the UOT. Further research can explore challenges experienced by the TRAD-Uni in achieving Goal 3 of their strategic plan.

Conclusion

There is a robust development policy framework in place which provides for youth entrepreneurship from a global (United Nations), continental (the African Union) and national perspective (National Development Plan). Findings suggest that HEIs understand the significance of their role in championing youth entrepreneurship in SA. Hence, UEPs are established to advance practical entrepreneurship skills among the youth. Although these programmes have different outcomes in each university, the ensuing entrepreneurial ventures are developing youth entrepreneurs who are contributing to job creation in SA. The contributions of UEPs notwithstanding, youth entrepreneurship remains low in SA. Therefore, strategies to stimulate youth interest in entrepreneurship should be employed in UEPs. The practical implications of this study suggest that universities should enhance student awareness of UEPs. Being aware of opportunities for developing entrepreneurial skills can motivate youths to engage in UEP activities within their university communities. Furthermore, the study highlights that both universities incorporated design thinking and problem-based learning workshops into their UEPs. Thus, it is advisable for universities to integrate design thinking into their curricula as a pedagogical approach to foster creativity and problem-solving abilities among students. This integration will expose students to innovative methods for exploring entrepreneurship within their academic fields. This paper recommends that HEIs should broaden their partnership networks beyond government agencies. There are private organizations including not-for-profit foundations which actively promote entrepreneurship on the African continent. Partnerships with entities with proven track records of funding, upskilling and empowering youth entrepreneurs will strengthen UEPs. Additionally, there is a need for proper monitoring and evaluation of UEPs to help gauge the effectiveness of UEPs and their ability to achieve

desired outcomes. This process will enable universities to identify areas for improvement, thereby increasing the likelihood of success for youth entrepreneurs involved in UEPs.

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