

GUIDELINES FOR SETTING UP A YOUTH NON-FORMAL
EDUCATION PROGRAMME IN A DEVELOPING COUNTRY, WITH
SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE

BY

RAMOTSHABI LEVY TLHOAELE
B A; B Ed.

A Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the Degree of Master of Education, in
the Department of Planning and Administration, in the
School of Education, at the University of
Bophuthatswana.

PROMOTER: DR M W LEGOTLO

CO-PROMOTER: PROF. M MAQSUD

EXTERNAL EXAMINER: PROF. R I M MOLETSANE

DECEMBER 1994



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to express my appreciation to Mr I. Sebopela the senior adult education inspector in the North West Province, for supplying contemporary information and literature; Mrs A. Hlatswayo for language - editing; to Prof. M. Maqsd as my co-promoter.

I am particularly grateful to Dr M.W. Legotlo, my promoter, for his untiring interest and courage as well as professional guidance throughout this study.

I am indebted to numerous and sometimes nameless individuals, but I would have failed not to thank my sister-in-law Bright, who was always more than willing to type this work.

Finally, I want to thank my wife Malefyane, my daughter Tsheg^ofatso and my son Oratile for their patient support during this long and seemingly endless study.

ABSTRACT

Guidelines for the setting up of a youth non-formal education programm in the North West Province.

The purpose of this study was to determine the problems of the out-of-school unemployed youth and their needs, with the ultimate aim of providing guidelines for setting up a youth non-formal education programme.

Little has been documented about the youth non-formal education programmes in South Africa, especially the North West Province.

A sample of 500 out-of-school and unemployed youth between the ages of 15-25 years were used. Results from 416 respondents were analysed. The results revealed that youth unemployment is a problem which requires an immediate attention, because of its high socio-economic costs.

On the basis of the challenges identified from the literature and the empirical study, guidelines were drawn for setting up a youth non-formal programme.

Table of Contents

NO.	Content	Page
	Acknowledgement	
	Abstract	
Chapter 1:	ORIENTATION	
1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Statement of the problem	1
1.3	Aims of the research	7
1.4	Method of research	8
1.5	Delimitation of research area	10
1.6	Definition of terms	10
1.7	Chapter headings	11
1.8	Summary	12
Chapter 2:	YOUTH NON-FORMAL EDUCATION PROGRAMME	
2.1	Introduction	13
2.2	Youth and unemployment problem	14
2.2.1	Further definition of the term youth	14
2.2.2	Youth in the South African political context	15
2.2.3	Unemployment youth	17
2.3	Formal and non-formal education	22
2.3.1	Why non-formal education	25
2.4	Non-formal youth programmes	26
2.4.1	Types of out-of-school education for youth	26

2.4.2	Coomb's classification of non-formal education programmes for rural development	29
2.4.3	National youth service programmes	32
2.5	Youth non-formal programmes in United Kingdom	33
2.6	Youth non-formal programmes in Malaysia	38
2.7	Youth non-formal programmes in some African states	41
2.7.1	The Kanye Brigades of Botswana	43
2.7.2	The village Polytechnics of Kenya	45
2.8	Youth programmes in South Africa	49
2.8.1	Governmental programmes	49
2.8.2	Non-governmental organisations	52
2.9	Non-formal education in the North West Province	55
2.10	Non-formal programmes in the North West Province	57
2.10.1	Literacy programmes	57
2.10.2	Functional literacy	58
2.10.3	Vocational education	59
2.10.4	The problems facing non-formal education in the former Bophuthatswana	61
2.11	The need to strengthen out-of-school education in the North West Province	64
2.12	Summary	66

NEW
LIBRARY

Chapter 3: RESEARCH METHOD

3.1	Introduction	68
3.2	Questionnaire as a research tool	69
3.2.1	Disadvantages of questionnaires	71
3.2.2	Question construction	71
3.2.3	Questionnaire format	72
3.2.4	Pretesting the questionnaire	74
3.2.5	Final questionnaire	75
3.2.6	Covering letter	75
3.3	Administration procedures	75
3.4	Follow ups	75
3.5	Interview	76
3.6	Population and sampling	78
3.7	Data analysis	78
3.8	Summary	79

Chapter 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1	Introduction	80
4.2	Biographical information of respondents	80
4.2.1	Age of the respondents	81
4.2.2	Sex of the respondents	81
4.2.3	Rural and urban respondents	85
4.2.4	Marital status of the respondents	85
4.2.5	Respondents' qualifications	86
4.3	Challenges facing the youth	88
4.3.1	Responses on employment	93
4.3.2	School leavers and employment opportunity	97
4.3.3	Vocational skills	100
4.3.4	Ability to start a business	102
4.3.5	Academic qualification by age	103

4.3.6	Age and sex by employment "lag"	104
4.3.7	Age and sex by period of unemployment	106
4.3.8	Academic qualification by period of unemployment	109
4.3.9	Age and sex by willingness	109
4.3.10	Settlement and academic qualifications by willingness	111
4.3.11	Age by willingness and availability	115
4.3.12	Academic qualification by availability and age by vocational qualifications	117
4.3.13	Sex by certification and age by affordability	118
4.3.14	Sex by affordability and amount	122
4.3.15	Age and settlement by ability and skills to start a business	124
4.4	Open-ended responses	128
4.4.1	Employment needs of the respondents	128
4.4.2	Responses on the causes of youth unemployment	129
4.4.3	The challenges facing unemployed youth	130
4.4.4	Suggestions on how to address youth unemployment	131
4.5	Summary	131

Chapter 5: GUIDELINES FOR SETTING UP A YOUTH NON-FORMAL EDUCATION PROGRAMME

5.1	Introduction	133
5.2	Programme planning models	134
5.3	Guidelines for setting up a youth non-formal programme	136
5.3.1	Definition	136
5.3.2	Guidelines	136
5.4	Rationale for the guidelines for youth non-formal programme	145
5.5	Summary	145

Chapter 6: SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1	Introduction	147
6.2	Summary	147
6.3	Research findings	150
6.3.1	Findings on Aim 1	150
6.3.2	Findings on Aim 2	150
6.3.3	Findings on Aim 3	151
6.4	Recommendations	152
6.5	Conclusion	156

BIBLIOGRAPHY

157

Appendices

Appendix A Covering letter

Appendix B Questionnaire

Appendix C Map of the 28 districts of North West Province .

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1	Respondents by age, sex, marital status and academic qualifications.	82
4.2	Formal schooling and adult education.	87
4.3	Employment status.	89
4.4	School leavers and employment opportunity.	96
4.5	Vocational skills and affordability to pay for training.	98
4.6	Ability to start a business.	102
4.7	Academic qualification by age at which the first job was secured.	103
4.8	Age and sex by employment "lag".	105
4.9	Age and sex by period of unemployment.	108
4.10	Academic qualification by period of unemployment.	110

4.11	Age and sex by willingness to do work involving manual labour.	113
4.12	Settlement and academic qualification by willingness to do work involving manual labour.	114
4.13	Age by willingness and availability to take up full-time paid job.	119
4.14	Academic qualification by availability and age by vocational qualification.	120
4.15	Sex by certification and affordability.	123
4.16	Sex by affordability and amount.	125
4.17	Age by the ability and skills to start own business.	127
4.18	Youth employment needs.	128
4.19	The main causes of youth unemployment, in rank order.	129

4.20	Challenges facing out-of-school and unemployed youth in rank order.	130
4.21	How to address out-of-school youth unemployment problems, in rank order.	131

LIST OF FIGURES

Fig 2.1	Christie's education pyramid for Black South African's	23
Fig 5.1	A linear model for programme planning	134
5.2	A non-linear model	135
5.3	Collaborative and participatory planning	137
5.4	Modified non-linear model	138
5.5	Pre planning phase	139
5.6	Planning phase	141

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Every nation faces the problem of incorporating its youth and young adults into society. The success and vitality of a nation depend upon how well young people are integrated into primary social, political and economic developments (Braungart and Braungart, 1989). This chapter gives orientation to the study of out-of-school and unemployed youth in South Africa, with special reference to the North West Province.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Poverty, high unemployment rate and high illiteracy figures are some of the characteristics of developing countries. In most third world countries, there is a proportion of the population, who will never enter the formal system of education (Cantor, 1983:40). This will be for a variety of reasons, for example insufficient resources to provide school places, negative social attitudes to education, especially regarding girls and many others (Cantor, 1983:43). This reveals that there will be many people outside the formal system, for whom some educational provision will have to be made which does not entail long-term,

full-time entry into formal institutions. Non-formal education is seen as a bridge between formal and informal systems of education (Moletsane, 1979; Townsend, 1977).



Commenting on the failure of formal education, both qualitatively and quantitatively, to solve problems of development of third world countries and in particular on the unsuitability of the existing formal schools, to prepare children for life, Fourie (1980:22) called for fresh thinking on whether some other form of education cannot be established which is equally effective and which reaches out to a mass audience. Over the past years, formal education has been looked upon by most people as the main tool not only to acquire knowledge, but also to achieve status, power and personal comfort (Moletsane, 1979; Legotlo, 1992).

Formal education may not address the immediate, national needs of the community, because it concentrates on narrowly defined groups within the community (Coombs, 1990; Legotlo, 1992). Non-formal education on the other hand, makes provision for the increasing number of young adults, the uneducated i.e. children, youths and adults, the early school leavers and drop-outs, even the enrolled school pupils (van der Stoep, 1984:43).

The Lekhela Commission (1978) identified a shortage of skills in the then Bophuthatswana government, in the administration of the civil service and in the industry and commerce. This shortage, affected the Agricultural Corporation Agricor in the North West Province which has realised the necessity of undertaking literacy projects, because 47% of their farmers who were taking part in agricultural projects in 1990 had no education at all (Roth, 1990:25).

In 1991, according to the Department of Education's Annual Report (Bophuthatswana, 1992) there were 283 Adult Education centres, in then Bophuthatswana. Of these, 65 offered typing; 10 offered knitting and 8 offered weaving. Of the 283 only 6 used their own buildings. The effectiveness of these centres in addressing the problem of out-of-school population is questionable, because of the problems which Roth (1990:26) identified:

- * Lack of suitable resources for adult education, particularly books. School furniture in some instances is also inappropriate for adult use.

- * Shared use of school facilities creates conflicts, especially where principals wish to use schools for extra-curricular activities.

- * Links with other Departments involved in adult education are relatively undeveloped and a number of initiatives are duplicated.
- * There is little machinery for the evaluation of adult and non-formal education. There is a need for more training of inspectors and educators of adults.
- * Adult education centres vary in quality. Supervision is weak in some areas and school teachers may not always make the best adult educators.
- * Examination results are not encouraging because they remain poor year in and year out.
- * Apart from courses offered for formal examinations, very little is offered to workers, to "drop-outs" and those who would like to improve their matric pass symbols.

Among other recommendations made by the Bodenstein Commission (Bodenstein Commission, 1986:95) is that youths over the age of fifteen years (15) should be free to pursue adult and non-formal education as they choose. The Department of education should therefore provide enrichment and developmental courses as well as academic achievement.

courses. Among the major recommendations of the Lekhela Commission (1978) was the setting up of a youth movement for those who left school early. The "Botanya" youth movement was introduced by the Department of Health and Social Welfare, but it is not specifically for "drop-outs" (Roth, 1990). Provision for "drop-out" and school leavers is made in some developed countries.

In Great Britain, a Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP), which consisted of two main forms, known as work preparation and work experience was established (Townsend, 1977). In 1982 and 1983, Manpower Service Commission, introduced a Youth Training Scheme, which was a twelve-month course, offering an integrated range of off-the-job training. According to Townsend (1977) in September 1983 a youth training scheme (YTS) was introduced to replace YOP.

Most of the African States have already taken a stand in establishing youth programmes. In Cameroon, for instance there are Youth Centres for Education, known as Douala; Ethiopia and Uganda have young Man's Christian Association (YMCA) multi-purpose programmes; Kenya has Kenya National Youth Service; Botswana has a movement for secondary school leavers, called Brigade, and village Polytechnic movements. Brigade offered a low-cost two-or three-year post-primary education in occupations such as masonry,

carpentry, tailoring, bookkeeping, mechanics and welding (Moletsane, 1979).

The then Ciskei, established a youth programme in 1985, called "Intsika Yesizwe" (Kruger, 1986). The minimum entrance qualification is Standard 5 and their students should be from nineteen years (19) onwards. The following courses are offered: panel beating, brick-laying, woodwork and leather-work.

South Africa like all other African countries will have to address the problem of young people who drop out of formal schooling or who never had a chance to further their studies. This study focuses on the problems faced by young people who happen to lose out of school and how they can be assisted in preparing for adulthood, and contribute to the development of the country. The former President of Tanzania Julius K Nyerere, in his education policy for self-reliance, stated that the energies of millions of men in the villages and thousands of women in the town... are a great treasure which could contribute more towards the development of their country than anything they could get from rich nations (Fouries, 1980. UNESCO's projections of the number of out-of-school people between the age group 12 to 17 would increase from 136 million in 1980 to 222 million in 2000 (Coombs, 1990; Bishop, 1989).

This study will concentrate more on the age group of 15 to 25 years.

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The major aim of all non-formal education programmes is to improve the living conditions of the people, especially the down-trodden depressed section of the society (Kruger, 1986).

The main aims of this study are:

- *Aim 1 To examine current youth non-formal programmes in selected developed and developing countries.

- *Aim 2 To determine the challenges and concerns of the un-employed youth.

- *Aim 3 To develop guidelines for the setting up of a non-formal youth programme.

1.4 METHOD OF RESEARCH

1.4.1 Literature Study

In the review of literature a thorough study of secondary and primary sources was made with a view of gathering information on the development of non-formal education programmes. A dialog-search was conducted with the following words: non-formal education; youth needs, drop-outs, adult learners, formal and informal education systems, adult educators, programme planning and youth programme.

1.4.2 Empirical Investigation

* Questionnaire

A questionnaire was designed and pretested. The aim of the questionnaire was to gather information from a random sample of out-of-school youth from 15- 25. And its purpose was to collect information on the needs and challenges of the out- of-school youth.

*** Interviews**

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with one inspector of adult education and ten principals and organising teachers of adult education centres. The aim of the interviews was to gather information from people with experience in non-formal education.

*** Population and Sampling**

Out of a total number of out of school unemployed youth (15-25) a sample of 500 ($n = 500$) youths was selected to participate in the study.

*** Data Analysis**

A suitable statistical technique was employed with the help of the statistical consultant of the university.

1.5 DELIMITATION OF RESEARCH AREA

The study focuses on youth and non-formal education in the North West Province.

1.6 DEFINITION OF TERMS



Non-formal education, refers to all learning outside the formal system and has no parameters of time and space. In the former Bophuthatswana, this type of learning is carried-out in different Governmental Departments such as the Manpower Centre (Department of Manpower), and Adult Education Section (Department of Education).

Youth in this study refers to the age group of 15 - 25. Evans (1977) supports the fact that youth starts around fifteen years, but he is not specific on the maximum age.

Adult education refers to the education of those persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong. This education can be either formal, informal or non-formal.

Unemployment is a multidimensional concept and its definition and measurement give rise to difficulties. Generally, it is defined as all persons who are willing to work and are actively seeking work (Legotlo, 1988). In this project an unemployed person is the one who desires to work and is actively seeking work.

Formal education, is the institutionalised, chronologically graded hierarchically structured educational system, spanning lower primary school to university (van der Stoep, 1984:47).

1.7 CHAPTER HEADINGS

1. Orientation
2. Youth non-formal education programmes, in some developed and developing countries.
3. Research method.
4. Analysis and interpretation of data.
5. Guidelines for setting up a non-formal education programme.
6. Summary, findings and recommendations.

1.8 Summary

In this introductory chapter, a brief orientation to the study is provided, outlining the problem to be investigated. The major focus of the study is to develop guidelines for setting up a youth non-formal programme which would help in addressing out-of-school and unemployed youth problems.

YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND NON-FORMAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The development of human resources through non-formal education strategy, reflects the age old view that a nation's prosperity is determined mainly by the skills, dexterity and judgement generally applied by its labour (La Belle, 1988; Needham, 1991; Manamela, 1993). From this assumption, workers' skills and abilities are viewed as a form of capital because they determine the wages and improve one's knowledge.

According to Manamela (1993:11) one way in which man acquires his humanism is by getting to know, and understand himself as well as to make meaning of his life.

The problem of lack of knowledge results in multiple social and economic complications. Pease (1990:559) estimates drop-out rate of 20 000 per annum from standard three to ten, in South Africa. In addition to this, is the complete collapse and disillusioned youth who, even if certificated are often unemployed or unemployable (Rodda and Mareka, 1990:559).

Mass youth unemployment is a common problem among developing and developed countries. In the 1970's the impact of

unemployment in South Africa, increased rapidly among the youth. Unemployed youth can be classified into two groups of educated and uneducated. The educated unemployed refers to the high school and university graduates, ignoring the fact that not all standard 10 graduates are literate (Gaun, 1993). The uneducated youth, comes from the estimated 15 million illiterate Blacks (ANC, 1992). Some from the 15 million have never been exposed to formal education.

The magnitude of out-of-school youth unemployment, in South Africa is discussed in this chapter. Reference was made to the different non-formal education programmes, used to develop human potential in developed and developing countries.

2.2. Youth and unemployment problem

2.2.1. Further definition of the term youth

Different authors differ on the definition of youth. Vrey (1979) defines youth as the stage of development between adolescence, as typified by the senior secondary school student and adulthood. Partridge (1993) defines youth as people within the age range of 6-35 years.

Youth in this dissertation refers to the age group of 15-25 years as acknowledged by Evans (1977:14); Glader (1988:94). Another characteristic is that one may be "unemployed or underemployed."

The meaning of unemployment is clear (c.f. 1.6), while underemployment is not. Underemployed may mean the situation in which a person is working fewer hours than normal and who is looking for or would accept supplementary work or it may mean a person who is working normal hours with low productivity and low income (Ross, 1988). For the latter characteristic, the term "disadvantaged" is more generally applied and for the planner's purposes may mean someone who has not had the same chances as others in his age-group, due to the poor economic condition of his family, lack of schools in his neighbourhood or lack of opportunities for finding productive employment.

2.2.2. Youth in the South African political context

In South African political struggle, youths clearly constitute the most militant and politicised section of

the urban and rural population. Youth congresses and Students Representative Councils (S.R.C.) are firmly affiliated to and aligned with national movements and political parties like the African National Congress (ANC), Pan Africanist Congress (PAC). "The youth" is by no means a homogenous constituency. Youth in the late 40's and 50's were divided into two which was generally the semi-literate "tsotsi" dominated world which generally rejected schooling and the literate group (Teachers' League of South Africa, 1991).

The roots of Tsotsi culture emanates from three main causes, which are identified by Glaser (1988) as low levels of school attendance amongst the youth, massive unemployment and the unstable family life. Low levels of school attendance has been the order of the day in most Black schools since 1976's students' uprising. The school results became very poor ever since that time. Paterson (1992) states that the number of Black students with matric exemption has dropped from 30 685 in 1988 to 18 044 in 1990.

Standard 10 pass rate in 1990 was below forty per cent and in 1991 it was 39,2 per cent (Gerwel, 1992).

The culture of books was gradually lost by the students through their struggle for a democratic education system. Different concerned bodies and individuals tried to persuade the youth to go back to school, in order to avoid mass illiteracy, and unemployment. The National Education Co-ordinating Committee (NECC) launched "Back to School Campaign in 1992. The General Secretary of PAC, ! Khoisan X appealed to students and teachers to hold on all campaigns that may disrupt education. These calls were never heeded (Gerwel, 1992).

2.2.3 Unemployed youth

The Minister of Education in South Africa, Professor Sibusiso Bengu acknowledged the biggest challenge in education, to be the African community, which has been deprived. He stated that unless his department intervenes decisively Africans will remain on the periphery as an underclass of the South African economy on account of inadequate educational qualifications (Charle, 1994). One of the aims of the government of

national unity, is to target out-of-school youth through non-formal education (ANC, 1993).

The following facts could be raised, to indicate the immediate need, of addressing youth unemployment (Legotlo, 1988; French, 1992; Kizito, 1993):

- * The numbers of educated people without jobs are already considerable and are continuing to grow in South Africa. In future, the situation will be worse especially with the present economic climate which has not recovered from the apartheid era.
- * Youth unemployment has a high social and economic costs. The government spent a lot of money to educate people who do not have any input into the socio-economic situation of the country after completion. Those who are not working, reduce the standard of living and the potential savings. Unemployment, means a tragic waste of human resources.

- * Unemployment accentuates inequalities by pressing down the wages and earnings of the self-employed. The rich get richer, while the poor get poorer. Job seekers, sell their labour very cheap for securing the job.
- * Unemployment causes a great exodus of educated youth from rural areas, and this can result in poor farm production and can also retard agricultural modernisation.
- * Too rapid of influx into cities brings strain on the resources like water supply, sanitation, transport system, community health services and housing.
- * Prolonged youth unemployment leads to insecurity, of increasing juvenile delinquency, crime, mental disturbances, drug abuse and physical ill-health.
- * Unemployment leads to rapid expansion of formal education.
- * The school population increases with the increase of repeaters.

- * Unemployment leads to wastage of physical and human resources. Large numbers of educated unemployed means large numbers of young people denied the opportunity to contribute productively to the society that has invested so heavily in their education. Apart from waste of resources, the teenage idleness, the discontent, the sense of disappointment and frustration at not securing a job, demoralisation, often leads to social and political unrest and even violence.

Legotlo (1988) conducted a retrospective tracer studies of the Std 10 graduates and his findings revealed the following:

- * A steep decrease of the employment levels of the Std 10 graduates. It appears that the number of Std 10 certificate holders, increases rapidly and consequently outnumber the job opportunities created by the labour market. Both South Africa and North West Province in particular are faced with a problem of insufficient job opportunities for their graduates.
- * Males are more successful in gaining employment than females. This suggests that the labour market operates in

favour of males. Therefore, male graduates are more successful in gaining employment than females.

- * There is no significant difference between the employment levels of the urban and rural graduates.
- * The Std 10 graduates end up taking jobs which do not match their qualification. They take up any job offered, to them, jobs that need no schooling because of the increasing levels of unemployment. Thus a Std 10 certificate is no longer a guarantee for a good job.
- * Though the Arts stream graduates are less likely to get jobs, than graduates from other streams, the technical and commercial streams do not significantly increase the chance of getting jobs.
- * Rapid population growth rate in the then Bophuthatswana was estimated at 2,8% (Legotlo, 1988: 56), combined with enrolment explosion in the school system creates a greater pressure on the overstrained budget. Pupil enrolment explosion increases social demand and educational progress registered.

- * Educated youth, take up jobs at lower pay rates and of lower status, to avoid unemployment. This action leads to under-employment, and creates a decline of earnings associated with educational qualifications. Matric graduates will eventually settle for jobs like becoming a taxi driver and domestic worker.

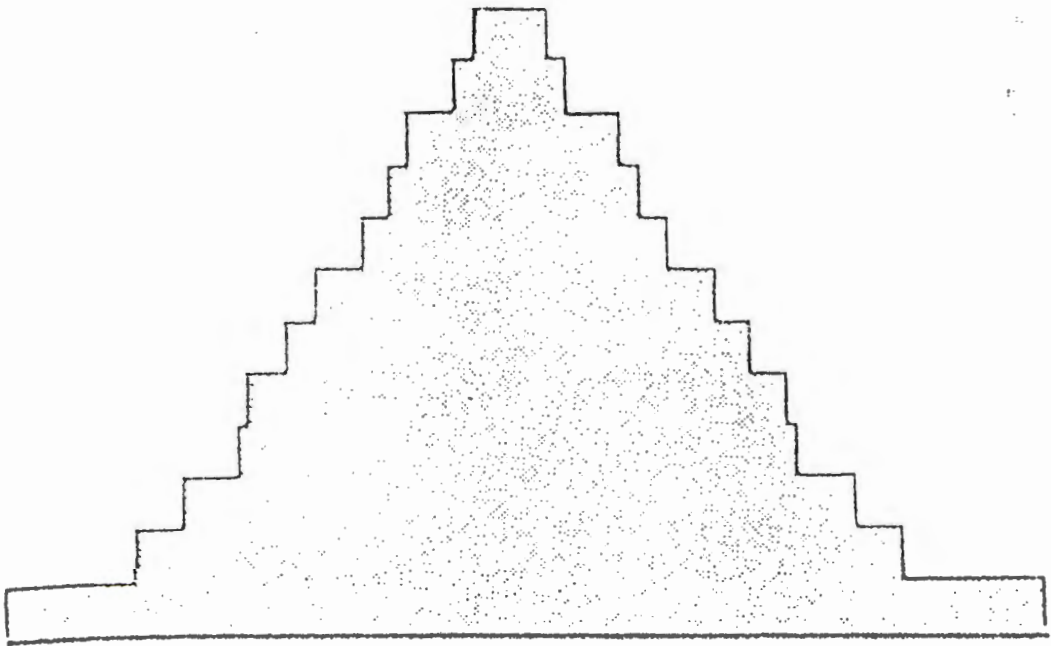
It is stated that in some parts of the U.S.A garbage collectors need a high school diploma for employment (Bishop, 1989:39). In turn the educated youth have to lower their aspiration in order to get employment. This situation presents a challenge to human capital theory. The next section discusses the two complimentary types of education which can be used to reduce youth unemployment.

2.3. Formal and non-formal education

Formal education can only account for about 5 per cent of Black students who complete their university education (Christie, 1988:107). What happens then to the 95% of the school going population. The following diagram from Christie

may clarify this point on formal education. Formal education, to which most school going children are subject to, may be one of the causes of high youth unemployment.

Fig. 2.1 CHRISTIE'S EDUCATION PYRAMID FOR BLACK SOUTH AFRICANS



Source: Christie, (1988:107)

Christie's (figure 2.1) Pyramid reflects high drop-out rates, low completion rates, and a need for alternative education for the development of human resources amongst the black South Africans.

In addition, over the past years formal education has failed to produce the necessary skills required by the labour market. Instead it has been looked upon by most people as the main tool not only to acquire knowledge, but also to achieve status, power and personal comfort (Moletsane, 1979). Formal schooling in developing countries is often criticised for being responsible for high growth of urbanised elites, neither willing nor able to participate in the development of rural communities. Formal or initial education concentrates on narrowly defined group within the community (Coombs, 1990). Furthermore formal education does not make provision for the rising number of young adults, who missed out altogether on formal schooling, the uneducated i.e. children, youths and adults, the early school leavers and the drop-outs, as well as the push outs (van der Stoep, 1984).

According to Ramphele (1992) South Africa stands to be deprived of the potential of an entire generation if the culture of learning is not restored; especially among the

Black children. She identified, chaos, disorganisation, lawlessness and a lack of responsibility as factors which drew youth out of schools. According to Integrated Marketing Research (1990) 23,4% of Black adults from sixteen years of age and older, representing 3,5 million people had no schooling in 1990, while 31,8% representing 4,8 million people had only primary education (Coetzee, 1990).

2.3.1. Why non-formal education

According to Bishop (1986:50) the World Bank reported needs of developing countries for the past decades. More and more planners and educators came to realise that more of same quality and quantity of schooling is unlikely to meet national objectives for social equality and mobility of manpower development needed for growth. The failure of formal education gives rise to alternative education, which is non-formal.

Non-formal education aims at fostering new work-skills and satisfying use of free time especially in developed countries (Forrester and Ward, 1991). Adult education becomes the primary social tool for promoting individual growth and self realisation (Collins, 1991). One other

factor operating in both developed and developing countries that has an important influence on the principle of adult education is the attempt to reduce or eliminate social inequalities, caused by ignorance. "There is nothing more terrifying than ignorance in action " (Husen, 1968:15). UNESCO's secretary general Federico Mayor Zaragoza states that the struggle against ignorance has to be the very important concern of UNESCO and it must not be forgotten that knowledge and culture contribute to creation of peace and stability (Skager, 1979). Non-formal youth programmes seem to be part of the solution to youth unemployment.

2.4. Non-formal Youth Programmes

This section sketches out different types of youth programmes.

2.4.1. Types of out-of-school education for youth.

Youth, particularly unemployed school leavers, form a large mobile and visible group which can be a potential disruptive force. The 1985 Population Survey, on Distribution of unemployment by age on Blacks between the

ages 15 and 64, reflected that high unemployment rate is between the ages 15 to 34, compared to ages 35 to 64 (Donaldson and Roux, 1990:467). According to Callaway (1971:45), there are three types of out-of-school programmes which could be used to uplift the youth:

*** Preparation for occupations**

Courses for those with little or no formal schooling are offered. They may include literacy and numeracy, civic and vocational education. Secondly, courses may also be offered for extension of general or pre-vocational schooling, which may refer to post-primary or post-secondary instruction in secretarial schools and technical workshops, military technical training, pre-work training and correspondence courses.

*** On-the-job training**

This type of programmes covers apprenticeship training in low or intermediate productivity enterprises such as carpentry, mechanics, tailoring, building trades and printing. Apprenticeship training in high-productivity enterprises like agriculture, industry and services run

by governments or private concerns are also included in this group.

*** Education for community improvement**

This type of education for community improvement programmes concentrates on three main sections namely; the group activities, national youth service programmes and education services to encourage self-help for communities. Group activities refer to youth clubs and young farmers' clubs. In addition to their social objectives, they also promote leadership and civic responsibility. National youth service programmes, provide general, civic or technical education, together with disciplined contribution to national development through community services. Examples of these are National Cadet Cops in India and National Youth Service in Kenya (Simkins, 1976). The educative services are aimed at encouraging self-help for communities and may be

provided by either government or voluntary organizations, through village authorities or groups based on kinship, religious affiliation or occupations. They may include training in planning and execution of projects such as

market stalls, community halls, maternity homes and clinics (Simkims, 1976).

2.4.2 Coombs' classification of non-formal education programmes for rural development

Coombs (1990:18), classifies non-formal education needed for rural development into four groups. He also acknowledges the fact that non-formal education is not only for the poor and uneducated people. The four main groups are:-

**NWU
LIBRARY**

- General or Basic education (Preparation for occupation)
- Family Improvement education
- Community Improvement education (Education for community development)
- Occupational education (On-the-job training)

* General or Basic education

The General or Basic education covers a command in basic skills in the mother tongue i.e. reading, writing and

numeracy (Coombs, 1990:78). Secondly, it covers elementary understanding of science and one's environment. Basic education lays the foundation for all types of non-formal programmes.

* **Family improvement education**

The Family Improvement Education covers knowledge, skills and attitudes useful in improving the quality of family life, and is exemplified by the following:

- Sufficient knowledge to solve health problems.
- The knowledge and skills required in the daily life of the various population groups e.g. house maintenance, repair of simple machines and tools, domestic skills, weaving, etc.
- Family planning.

* **Community improvement education**

The Community Improvement Education refers to the need for functional knowledge which is required to regulate an

individuals with the various administrative services and to enable them to fulfill their roles as citizens who can participate actively in the community life (Coombs, 1974:25).

* **Occupational education**

The Occupational Education is concerned with the development of particular knowledge and skills which are associated with various economic activities and useful in making a living (Coombs, 1974:21).

All the groups discussed, overlap. Coombs (1990) added the fourth group to those discussed by Callaway (1971). The extra group is the Family Education Improvement. Basically both Callaway and Coombs agree on types of non-formal education programmes. The focus of this dissertation, is on the efforts of youth service programme to help the unemployed youth, and develop them to be marketable.

2.4.3 National youth service programmes

National youth service programmes provide abilities whereby trainees can make a disciplined contribution to national development through work projects period of one or even two years (Callaway, 1971:40). These programmes are highly supported because of the existence of jobless youth, particularly school leavers. Again, where university students are involved, it is considered as a good gesture to the masses of the people, who through their taxes subsidize higher education.

Many countries introduced national youth service programmes. In Ceylon there is the Agricultural Development Corps, in Zambia, the Zambian Youth Service, in Congo is the Action de renovation rural, in Malawi, the Malawi Youth Pioneers, in Kenya, is the National Youth Service, in Thailand, is the Liberian National Youth Organization, in Tunisia is the Training Production Programmes, in Ethiopia is the Ethiopian University Service Camps. In Latin-American countries, young men do specified terms of national service for community construction projects (Callaway, 1971:41). Both

developed and developing countries use non-formal youth programmes to reduce youth unemployment.

2.5. Youth non-formal programmes in the United Kingdom

Youth non-formal programmes are used by developed countries to reduce youth unemployment crisis, which is a universal problem. United Kindom in this section is used as an example of a developed country. Adult and non-formal education in England, is characterised by three facets which should be considered before looking into different programmes. The main components are, General education, Vocational training and Social education (Tight, 1990).

* General education

This is a significant branch of non-formal education, which includes activities which help to provide adults with what is regarded as the essential educational background, required to function effectively. The programme include subjects like: mathematics, science, civic and social studies are included.

* Vocational training

This section of non-formal education makes provision for all forms of vocational and professional training. Different skills are taught.

* Civic and Social education

Both civic and social education are concerned with change, and the acquisition of new attitudes based on the understanding of present situation. The following themes are covered, namely civic education, family education, community development, cultural pursuits and individual interests.

In Bristol, Youth Education Service was introduced with the purpose of exploring alternatives to the formal system of education. One educational scheme in Bayswater Centre, which emphasises skills like expressiveness and self-reliance. Young people between 14 and 16 who attend the centre are all drop-outs from formal education. Brockington and White (1983) state that part of the Youth Education Service, is an evening literacy scheme, where young people who have left school without achieving

a functional level of literacy ability can continue their studies. In small informal group situations, they work with student teachers and social workers at improving their writing and reading skills.

The other unit of Youth Education Service offers a group of unemployed young people the opportunity to engage in theatre work. The work aspect of this scheme requires the youth to do their own search for material.

Since 1977, three-quarters of a million young people between the ages of 16 and 19 have passed through the Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP), according to Brockington and White (1983). YOP provides a comprehensive national scheme for unemployed school-leavers. The programme intends to prepare young people for work by means of work preparation and work experience schemes. This development has been stimulated by a number of factors, firstly the rise in the youth unemployment and the sharp decline in the number of jobs available.

YOP consists of two main forms, known as "Work Preparation" and "Work Experience". Work preparation courses are conducted mainly on employers' premises. Work experience programmes have been largely provided by employers, although there were few training workshops run by colleges whose products were made under factory conditions and sold.

- Training Opportunities Scheme (TOPS)

The Training Opportunities Scheme (TOPS) was introduced in August 1972 and was originally designed for the age group nineteen and over, who have been at least three years away from full-time formal education. It was later extended to include a proportion of sixteen to nineteen years old. The programme was essentially designed as a form of retraining and comprises of courses in a wide traditional craft skills, construction and automotive engineering, clerical and commercial occupations. Some courses were offered in colleges of further education. In 1978, training of computer staff, design, draughts-men and technicians was expanded. Priority was also given to technician training, especially in electronics and micro-electronics (Forrester and Ward, 1991).

- **Training for Skills Programme (TSPA)**

The Training for skills Programme (TSPA) was started in 1979, for employed young people at craft and technician levels. Among its objectives is to secure the removal of age barriers on entry to apprenticeship and to see adopted standards of terminal achievement for those undertaking skill training. Training consists of a combination of off-the-job training in colleges and elsewhere, normally in the first year and carefully supervised work experience. A very significant aspect of TSAP is that it represents a measured attempt to promote a long overdue reform of entrenched system of apprenticeship.

- **Youth Training Scheme (YTS)**

In 1982-3 the Manpower Service Commission introduced a programme called Youth Training Scheme (YTS) (Tight, 1990). YTS is a twelve month course, offering an integrated range of off-the-job training, and further education together with an opportunity to work in a community project.

In some different youth non-formal programmes offered in United Kingdom, reflect the picture of the development of out-of-school education in developed countries. In the next section, development of youth non-formal education programmes in Malaysia as a developing country will be discussed.

2.6 Youth non-formal education in Malaysia

According to Phaen-Thuy (1985) Malaysia is rich in natural resources and has recorded high economic growth rate over the past two decades, the problem of youth unemployment is being tackled through a wide range of youth training and employment programmes launched by various ministries, including the Ministry of National and Rural Development, the Ministry of Agriculture and Land and the Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports. The first two ministries provide training for rural youngsters in agriculture, forestry and fishery, while the land settlement schemes set up by the Federal Land Consolidation and Rehabilitation Authority (FELCRA) are designed to provide with employment. The Ministry of culture, Youth and Sports, for its part, set up a

national youth programme to cultivate leadership, business and technical skills among young people.

An in-depth review and assessment conducted by the ILO found that the training programmes carried out in the residential training centres of Dusun Tua, Kuala Trengganu and Peretak had proved very successful, with a low drop-out rate of 6 per cent and a high job placement rate of 80 per cent. Three types of training are provided for young drop-outs from the formal education system namely:

- * Paramilitary discipline and civic training under the Youth Development Corps Programme.
- * Technical and vocational training under the Youth Pioneer Corps Programme.
- * Business or Commercial training under the youth Entrepreneurship Programme.

On graduating from one of these residential centres trainees had several options: placement in the public or private

sector, participation in a land settlement scheme, setting up in business on their own account and further training.

The solution to the youth employment problem lies above all in creating greater productive job opportunities in their areas, in order to make life more attractive to young people.

Instead of launching costly national youth service programmes that fail to provide them with follow-up employment prospects, the following programmes with employment prospects are also offered:

NWU
LIBRARY

- * **Agricultural development schemes, for the rural areas.**

Such training may combine non-formal on-the-job training and formal training given by official institutions within the existing educational and training system. Land and capital should be made available. This programme would encourage young people to return to the rural lands.

- * **Labour intensive public works programmes**

It aims at improving the infrastructure in both rural and urban areas. It creates a need for new skills, like

repairing public works, vehicles, and supervisors to maintain order and efficiency on public works sites.

This can include the youth wood work training scheme under the special works programme for reconstruction in Dominica. This could be a training-cum-production scheme focused on basic wood training. Skills acquired through woodwork training centre, the manufacture of furniture for government housing and the building of low-cost housing.

Summary

In summary, Malaysia has also made to pay greater attention in addressing challenges facing out-of-school youth.

2.7 Youth non-formal programmes in some African Countries

Most African states, like developed countries have already taken a stand in establishing non-formal education programmes to develop their human resources. In Cameroon there are Youth Centres known as Douala, used for non-formal educational purposes. Uganda has the

Young Men's Christian Association(YMCA), for multi-purpose programmes. Kenya introduced the Kenya National Youth Service (NYS) (Fourie, 1980:268).

Non-formal education programmes in developing countries, caters for a different set of needs, compared to the first world countries. During the 1960's formal education systems in Africa underwent a period of rapid expansion. Within the last decade, the limits of expansion began to emerge, firstly as the education component of national budget reached and exceeded feasible limits and secondly as the problem of unemployment emerged and grew to proportions which threatens political stability (Badri, 1982: Legotlo, 1988).

Even so, the formal education system is serving only a relatively small sector of the overall population and the demand for education is great and continues to grow. Several creative and unique models emerge from the widespread problem of the unemployed school leavers. Both the Botswana Brigades and the Kenya village Polytechnics were designed to provide productive ways of intergrating primary school leavers into the process of

rural development. Both models evolve from small projects at the local level and grew by a process of trial and error to national level. The two programmes i.e. The Kanye Brigades and the village polytechnics will be used as examples from African developing countries.

2.7.1 The Kanye Brigades of Botswana

In 1965, Patrick van Rensburg, established the first Botswana Brigade in Serowe, in the district of Kanye. From the beginning of the 1980's, van Rensburg distanced himself from Brigades, to be involved in the establishment of the Foundation for Education with Production (FEP) in Botswana. In 1989, there were already twenty-five Brigade centres, throughout Botswana. Kanye Brigades Development Trust was established and consists of two training units namely the Ngwaketse Builders Brigade with an enrolment of about thirty six students. These students qualify after three years for a National Trade "C" certificate. The other unit is the Tshipidi Mechanical Brigade, whose trainees work towards a National Trade Test "C" certificate (Kruger, 1986).

The aims of the Botswana Brigades are:

- * to inculcate positive attitude to the development of rural Botswana;
- * to reduce the tendency for skilled workers to move from rural to urban areas;
- * to meet the educational, economical and social needs of Botswana;
- * to provide an alternative education for primary school leavers, who could not be absorbed in secondary schools;
- * to equip people with the competence and capacity to take charge of their own lives; and
- * to provide education with dual function of skill training and on the job production (Patereson and Rouhani, 1989).

The following courses are offered, namely carpentry, building, weaving, tanning, knitting, horticulture, mechanics, electrical wiring, metal work, farming, dress-making, pottery

and crafts. Initially courses were divided in 20% theory and 80% practice. Later it was altered to 50% each. The purpose is to equip learners with enough theoretical background knowledge to pursue further studies after the course.

The second move, is away from "soft" less technically based training to a "hard" technical focus. In 1988 skills like baking, knitting and weaving, replaced courses like building and automotive trades (Paterson and Rouhani, 1989). The move to "hard" technical training, contrasts the National Development Plan which emphasised "soft" less technically based training and agricultural production. Brigades lacked community support and their products lacked credibility. Cost recovery was never totally viable and state subsidy was too little.

2.7.2 The Village Polytechnics of Kenya

The Village Polytechnics could be referred to as an apprenticeship scheme of a low-cost training for rural occupations. It is aimed at meeting the local needs for primary school leavers. The first village polytechnic was established in 1966, through voluntary funding.

Simkins (1976:40) defines the village Polytechnics as:

" ...a low-cost training centre in a rural area, aiming at giving primary school leavers from a particular area, skills, understanding and values which will make them able to look for money-making opportunities where they live and to contribute to rural development by building up the economic strength of their own community."

The aims of the village Polytechnics are:

- * to provide youth with useful skills.
- * to alleviate or reduce youth unemployment.
- * to stem the migration of primary school leavers to the towns.
- * to motivate young school leavers, in developing their own communities.

The Village Polytechnics do not have a specific pattern, in fact they are extremely diverse in structure. According to Wanjala (1975:415) there are more than 100 village polytechnics in Kenya, and every programme is designed to suite the needs of its locality. Polytechnics are small institutions, which

utilises locally built structures for serving local inhabitants and therefore accommodating day school students only. Agriculture was supposed to be part of every polytechnics' programme. Artisan skills are taught for the maintenance of farming equipment. The functional form of general education like mathematics, language and social studies are taught to familiarise the learner with his immediate environment. Community support came in the form of land, buildings and cash collections. The following courses are offered (Wanjala, 1975): carpentry, masonry, tailoring, handicrafts, vegetable-growing, dress-making, poultry-keeping, baking and domestic-science. It is discovered that vocational skills obtained at the village Polytechnics are often valued by employers more than general secondary school qualifications. The following short-comings are experienced:-

- * when dormitories were built, the number of local trainees declined sharply;
- * curricula are often unnecessarily standadized and dominated by fixed period of two-year courses and trade tests;
- * teaching methods are often classroom based and authoritarian; and
- * agriculture is under-emphasised in most institutions.

As it has already been shown (c.f. 2.7.1.), that one of the problems confronting the Brigades has always been that cost recovery was never totally viable, and government subsidy amounted to only 13% of their expenditure in 1988 (Paterson and Rouhani, 1989), changes had to take place. Although classified as village organisation, Kanye had trained between 20 000 and 30 000 people by 1989.

Kanye Brigade facilitates the growth of infrastructure for further development in the region.

The contribution of the village Polytechnics and the Brigade should not be under-estimated especially in human resource development. As long as it is still known that almost 40% of black children in South Africa do not go to school and that almost 200 000 drop out each year in the first 4 years of schooling, and 10% per annum drop out from 4 years of schooling to standard ten, then the need for South Africa to learn from her neighbouring countries is unquestionable (Pease, 1990). The following section sketches out youth programmes in South Africa.

2.8 YOUTH PROGRAMMES IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Youth programmes in South Africa are clearly separated into governmental and non-governmental organisations. Before the dawn of democracy the two organisations were seen to have adopted different approaches and pursued different goals.

2.8.1 Governmental Programmes

Both Black and White Education Systems are characterised by hidden curriculum. In white schools, we can see the influence of the army in Cadet Training, Veld Schools and Youth Preparedness Programme. In black schools, there are "youth camps" and Cadet Training. The main objective of youth programmes was not to equip them with marketable skills but to prepare them mentally, to uphold the political status quo (Fourie, 1980).

* Youth Preparedness Programme

Dr A.L. Kotzee, Director of Education in the Transvaal, launched the Youth Preparedness Programme (YP) in 1972, in white secondary schools, because the

government began to fear that South Africa is heading for a "total onslaught." The international community sympathised with the ANC (African National Congress) and other liberation organisations in South Africa (Christie, 1988:170).

Youth Preparedness Programme, puts emphasis on military practices and values. Ceremonies and rituals are used to prepare children physically and at the same time "imprint" military attitudes and values.

Some of the compulsory components of Youth Preparedness Programme, (Christie, 1988:169):

- Drilling, shooting and orchestra
- Vocational guidance
- Moral preparedness
- Shooting and self-defence.

* **Veld Schools**

Veld Schools are another part of the white education system, in the Transvaal. The standard eight and tens are expected to attend, during the holidays. Their

stated purpose is to bring urban children into a rural environment. Among other hidden aim are the following:

- to show that a threat to South Africa's existence and stability does exist;
- to prepare the youth for emergencies which may take place; and
- to encourage pupils to become better South Africans and better Christians (Christie, 1988:172).

* **Youth Camps**

As part of the South African Defence Force's (S.A.D.F) campaign to win the hearts of the black and white population, Youth Camps were established in S.A. education departments. In 1975, the Theron Commission recommended compulsory military service and Cadet training for coloured pupils (Christie, 1988). Military adventure camps for coloured and Indians started from 1979. Participants are encouraged to develop leadership, patriotism and military discipline. Children from black areas of Langa, Nyanga and Guguletu were involved in

Youth Camps. The then Bophuthatswana Defence Force (BDF) followed in the foot-steps of S.A.D.F in training high school boys, to form Cadets. Students were collected from their respective schools on Fridays for week-end camps. This annual course ends up with a pass-out parade. This was an attempt of the Nationalist government to perpetuate its policy of dominance. The non-governmental organisations acted strongly against this approach and therefore came up with an alternative.

2.8.2 Non-governmental Organisations (NGO)

Since the mid 1970's there has been a proliferation of non-governmental organisations (NGO) in South Africa. The acceleration of the growth of these organisations reached their heights during the latter part of the 1980's, despite severe repressive action by the state. Throughout South Africa, there are now intricate networks of NGO's which form part of the broadly defined democratic movement.

Most NGO's shared a common purpose in that they are anti-apartheid and they see their work as contributing to the

transfer of state power from the white minority government, to the popular, democratic government. They aim in various ways to empower the poor and the oppressed, to strengthen community-based organisations and to promote democratic processes. Their functions can be categorised as (Walters, 1990):

- * to provide welfare - oriented social services;
- * to empower the population through education, organisation and mobilisation; and
- * to provide support services to other organisations in order to improve their effectiveness.

Some organisations are set up to organise around issues of concern for particular age, sex or economic groups, such as women, youth, students or workers. In all the organisations, informal and non-formal educational activity is intergrated into their work.

According to Walter (1990) in the Cape Town area there are at least 120 Non-governmental organisations which broadly form part of the democratic movement. Their non-formal educational

practices consist of one or more of the following:

- short training courses of a few days;
- longer training courses of up to two years;
- skills training services;
- production of educational media;
- self education of staff through structured evaluations;
- participatory management strategies which consciously teach management and organisational skills;
- staff development programmes; and
- provision of information and resources.

**NWU
LIBRARY**

Since February 1990 several organisations have begun to question whether their innovative educational work could and should continue, even under a new democratic order?

2.9 Non-formal education in the North West Province

The democratic South Africa is sub-divided into nine provincial administrations, of which North West is one. This study is conducted in the North West Province. A geographical layout of the province is provided in Appendix C.

The North West Province, comprises of twenty eight (28) districts (see Appendix C), of which more than a half are former Bophuthatswana areas. To a large extent, the province is a consolidation of the isolated regions from Kudumane to Moretele 1. It is estimated that 244 440 people within the province are unemployed (Letsebe, 1994). Among these unemployed there are youth, who are the target population of our research project.

Among the different departments of education which are operating within the province, the biggest is the former Bophuthatswana Education Department, which will be used to exemplify non-formal or adult education in the province. The difference between the North West adult education system and that of Department of Education and

Training is minimal because both followed DET's examinations for Std 5 (course II), Std 8 (course III) and Std 10 (course V).

The Bodenstein Commission (1986) defined non-formal education as a generic term covering any organised systematic educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system, to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, adults as well as children. For administrative purposes, adult education in the former Bophuthatswana was headed by a senior subject inspector with the assistance of six regional subject inspectors. The seventeen circuit education offices of the Bophuthatswana were grouped into six zones: i.e zone 1 to 6.

Adult Education in the then Bophuthatswana did not conduct any programme for the youth in particular although among the recommendations made by the Bodenstein Commission (1986) the following recommendations were made, that:

- consideration should be given to the setting up of a youth movement for those who left school early;

- radio and television services should be utilised for adult education.

According to the Bodenstein Commission report (1986) the most important recommendations which have not been fully implemented include the following:

- no working party was set up, to plan non-formal and adult education; and
- very little has been done, to help young people who drop out of school.

2.10 Non-formal programmes in the then Bophuthatsana

2.10.1 Literacy Programmes

The method of instruction used in the adult literacy classes in North West was Operation Upgrade, which was set up in 1966 in South Africa. Its work had been characterised by a number of features which were based on Laubach's approach. Laubach is known as "the father of literacy." Laubach's system has two essential bases, one is few weeks of tuition.

Laubach worked out phonetic charts in 262 languages, many of which had never been written down before. He used the missionary approach to literacy work. He began his work as a missionary in the Philippines in 1930, and used literacy for the express intention of winning people over to Christianity. He sees literacy work as a primary weapon in the global battle for the hearts and minds of the dispossessed billion illiterates in the work (Lyster, 1992:30).

Learn and Teach organisation in the then Bophuthatswana fell victim of lack of effective and economical management of resources. Lack of extension of outreach seem to have been another major problem.

2.10.2 Functional Literacy

Lekhele Commission report (1978) emphasises that literacy needs must be connected to the home, the job and the community. Emphasis is also put on the literacy needs of the agricultural community of North West. Around 56,8% of the Ba-Tswana population is engaged in agriculture, (Roth, 1990:20). Learning which is linked to issues like

nutrition, health and agriculture would not only result in successful literacy learning but also in improved standard of health and agriculture. In the case of functional literacy teaching, it is preferable that this be undertaken by instructors with a practical knowledge of that industry or agriculture rather than by teachers. Once a person knows a particular skill and is literate, it is relatively simple to teach him how to instruct non-literate adults, Agricor in the North West is now using its own officers as literacy instructors for illiterate farmers in agricultural project, not in schools or in a formal learning situation. All these factors should add towards making this particular literacy project a success. The other government departments which run their adult education sections are Police, Prison and Defence.

2.10.3 Vocational Education

More vocational subjects were introduced in 1988 in the then Bophuthatswana adult centres. Five centres offered cooking; three typing; three knitting; two weaving and one from Odi region, namely Mmakau Adult Centre extended its curriculum by including carpentry brick-laying and

motor mechanics. The 1991 Annual report of the Department of Education indicates that, students who follow the vocational subjects/courses are more likely to complete their studies than those who follow academic line. Statistics on vocational subjects in 1991 were as follows (Molosiwa, 1991):

- * Adult centres with Dressmaking 65
- * Adult centres offering Cookery 9
- * Adult centres offering Typing 5
- * Adult centres offering Knitting 10
- * Adult centres offering Weaving 8

Brick-laying, Carpentry and motor mechanics are still offered at Mmakau Adult Centre only. These and other skills are easily taught when students are functionally literate.

Advantages of functional literacy are:

- It is usually part of a broad development effort;
- Its aim is to acquire work oriented knowledge so that functional literacy programme combine

vocational and literacy content from the very beginning; and

- The overall aim of functional literacy is the acquisition of critical analysis achieved through the concept of problem orientated learning, involving the participation of the learner.

In the secondary school section i.e. course III and V no specific or special method is used. Most of the teachers in this section are full-time at their respective formal schools and offer the same subjects as those offered at adult centres.

2.10.4 The problems facing non-formal education in the former Bophuthatswana.

Many problems were experienced by the estwhile Bophuthatswana in non-formal education programmes (Roth, 1990). The provincial government has therefore inherited the following:

- Lack of electricity especially in the rural areas affects the evening classes. It is either that they use candles, paraffin lamps or conduct the lessons in the afternoon.

- Shared use of school facilities creates conflicts, especially when principals wish to use schools for extra-curricular activities.
- Necessary and appropriate resources for adult and non-formal education.
- Links with other Departments involved in adult and non-formal education are relatively underdeveloped and a number of initiatives are duplicated. To cite an example, Teacher Academic Upgrading Programme rightfully belongs to the Adult education section, but presently they operate separately.
- There is lack of effective evaluation of adult and non-formal education. Therefore there is a need for further training of inspectors and educators.
- Apart from courses offered for formal examinations, very little is prepared for workers, "drop-outs", youth and for those who would like to improve their matric symbols.

NEW
LIBRARY

- At the official opening of the adult education workshop on the 24/06/94, the Member of the Executive Council (MEC) for education in the North West Province, stated that she envisages a situation where government structures will be committed to the RDP, and all stakeholders co-operate for the use of centres of education (schools) as multipurpose centres for Adult education (Gaoretelelwe, 1994).

In both the National Education reports, a recommendation has been made, of the establishment of a "working party" which would conduct research and come up with a clear need assessment and analysis to draw a national plan and co-ordinate responsibilities of governmental Departments and all parties involved in adult and non-formal education. This is the basis on which adult education could make an effective beginning.

Among other recommendations made by the Bodenstein Commission (1986:95) is that youth over the age of fifteen (15) should be free to pursue adult and non-formal education as they choose, and that a youth movement for those who leave school earlier be established. The "Botanya" youth movement was introduced

by the Department of Health and social welfare, unfortunately it is not specifically meant for "drop-outs" and "push-outs" who are desperately in need of working skills, or alternative education, be it non-formal or informal. Youth from under-privileged and under-resourced areas and schools, who are mostly counted among the "lost generation" can regain their self esteem, self actualisation, self respect and personal pride

through being part of the campaign approach known as "each one teaches one" which is not relevant to the literacy classes practised in the then Bophuthatswana.

2.11 The need to strengthen out-of school education in the North West Province

Out-of-school education is a very broad concept which could be explained in different terms. For example, continuing education, life-long education, distance education. Drop-outs and push-outs from the three school levels i.e. primary, middle and high should be catered for, through (Roth, 1990):

- Literacy programmes for young people who have had little or no formal schooling.

- Apprenticeship and other forms of on-the-job training.
- Continuing education for those with professional qualifications.
- Extension programmes to be established, to assist youth involved in farming and small scale industries. Youth could be trained for self employment.
- Social and cultural youth programmes, could be planned. Dance groups for young men and women, social clubs either on ethnic or family relationships and church groups could be encouraged.
- Some clubs encourage the improvement of domestic skills for young women, such as home-making, child care, hygiene and nutrition, occupational skills like farming and football.

2.12 SUMMARY

The South African, Government of National Unity (GNV) rejects the past history of the country, which was dominated by colonialism, racism, apartheid, sexism and repressive labour policies. The new approach of Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), recommits the Government to people-centered development. It brings together strategies to harness all the resources in a coherent and purposeful effort that can be sustained into the future. The three levels of government namely the local, provincial and national should be directly involved in the development of the human resource. According to Gaoretelelwe (1994) the National Education policy Initiative and the centre for Education Policy Development have employed over 300 researchers to examine all aspects of the education system including Adult Basic Education and Adult Education.

In the past, several Western governments introduced youth conscription (Roberts, 1988). The emphasis today is on persuading young people to accept their new social condition and to make an informed decision. The RDP is

therefore the most relevant approach which employs consultation and contribution of the programme recipients. It is therefore obvious that new programmes which will be in line with the RDP are to be developed.

Much could be learned from national youth service programmes set up in other countries like the Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP) of United Kingdom (cf.25), the Youth training and employment programmes of Malaysia (cf. 2.6.4), the Kenya National Youth Service and the village polytechnic (cf. 2.7.2), and the Kanye Brigades of Botswana (cf. 2.7.1). Ethiopia and Uganda have YMCAs (young man's christian associations) which serve with multipurpose programmes (Moletsane, 1979).

None of the programmes mentioned, can be reproduced for the new South Africa. Every country is unique and therefore South Africa requires suitable strategies to address the problem of youth unemployment and under-employment through the Reconstruction and Development Programme(RDP). A new programme is therefore essential.

CHAPTER 3

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is mainly to gather the necessary information about the characteristics of out-of-school and unemployed youth. At this stage what we need to know about the youths may be gathered by answering the following questions.

- What is the age and sex of the youth?
- What is his/her educational background?
- What is his/her family background?
- What is his/her employment history?
- What is his/her present employment status?
- What is his/her aspiration for the future?
e.g. what would he/she like to be.
- What is his/her choice of skill training?
- What are his/her frustrations?

The data collected would help the planner in determining which sector of the youths is most needy and the kinds of educational services they would like to receive. According to Gay (1990:120) a survey research includes methods in which participants are asked question directly. The questions may be part of an interview schedule or a questionnaire and may be asked through one of several different procedures. Survey can be conducted

face-to-face or via the telephone which is an interview and through the mail as a questionnaire. Survey research includes obtaining information from a group of individuals. More often than not it includes interviews or questionnaire or both (Gay, 1990:122). Both questionnaires and interviews attempt to elicit the feelings, beliefs, experiences or activities of respondents (Ary, et al, 1990:407). Questions may be structured or unstructured as the situation demands. When making a survey, the best way to collect data may be to prepare a set of questions for subjects to respond to. The main purpose of this chapter is to outline the method of research of this study.

3.2. QUESTIONNAIRE AS A RESEARCH TOOL

The questionnaire provides a way to get personal information from subjects, that may not be readily obtainable using other methods. Probably no instrument of research has been more subject to censure than the questionnaire (Mouly, 1978:126). Yet it continues to be the most used and abused instrument, particularly in educational research. The questionnaire apparently dates back to Horace Mann, who used it as a research tool in 1847 (Mouly, 1978:131). The misuse of the questionnaire, has been the cause of its poor reputation. To write down a set of questions,

reproduce them in sufficient numbers and mail them to subjects who are expected to complete and return them, seems an easy way to gather research data. Without careful attention to important details, such as plan and principles of questionnaire construction very little will be achieved (Wiersman, 1991:59).

3.2 Advantages of questionnaires

Among the major advantages of the questionnaire, in comparison to the interview, is that it permits wide coverage at minimum expense in both money and effort (Ary et al, 1990:421). Questionnaires can be sent anywhere unlike an interview. The use of the mail, is to cover more persons. It does not only affords wider geographic coverage, but it also reaches persons who are difficult to contact. This greater coverage makes for greater validity in the results, through promoting the selection of a larger and more representative sample.

The questionnaire permits more considered answers. Its use would be indicated in situations in which the respondent needs to check his information. It also allows greater uniformity in the way the questions are asked and thus ensures greater comparability in the responses (Gay,,

1990:210). Each respondent receives the same set of questions phrased in exactly the same way as they are on standardized tests (Ary et al., 1990:223).

3.2.1 Disadvantages of questionnaires

According to Gay (1990:213) it is difficult to check the motivation of the respondents without knowing how motivated respondents are, the validity of their responses, is therefore difficult to judge. The questionnaire does not permit the investigator to note the reluctance or evasiveness of his respondents, a matter that is better handled through the interview.

Questionnaire does not allow the investigator to follow through on misunderstood questions or inadequate answers (Wiersman, 1991:190). Another disadvantage is the possibility of misinterpretation of the questions. This danger is increased when the questions are ambiguous because of improper formulation.

3.2.2 Question construction

Ary (1990:425) suggests five types of questions which must be arranged in an attractive way, to make it easy for the

respondent to read and answer. The question may be completion or fill-in, checklists, scaled items, ranking or likert-type items. It is necessary for questions to be simple and short.

3.2.3 Questionnaire format

Smith (1983) in her doctoral thesis on young adult dropouts in high school equivalency, used the interview and questionnaire in Columbia. Gorman (1991) used questionnaire in his doctoral dissertation on developing a continuing education programme for older learner in Edmonton, Alberta. Lastly, Derman (1993) in his doctoral thesis, on a survey study on the career opportunity programme for adults in Springfield, Massachusetts, as a prototype, used a questionnaire.

A questionnaire was the main instrument for data collection. It was mainly composed of close-ended questions with the intention of making the respondents to tick the areas which best represented their positions.

The first part of the questionnaire gave the respondents a chance to respond on their biographical data, which

included question on age, sex, academical level and settlement area. The names of the respondents were not included in the questionnaire to assure them confidentiality.

The second part (Section B) of the questionnaire had questions in which the respondents had to answer yes or no to the question on the needs and concerns of the youth. Question like are you employed? Are you qualified in vocational skill? Would you like to be trained in vocational education? How much can you afford to pay for your training? are asked.

The last section of the questionnaire dealt with the open-ended questions. Some of them are: What causes youth unemployed? What are the concerns of the unemployed youth? What could be done to reduce youth unemployment?

Both open and closed forms of questions are used in this dissertation. In an open-form question, the respondent may use any response, as in the following question:-

If unskilled: which skill(s) would you like to acquire?

Closed-form questions have a restricted set of possible

responses, as in the following example:

Sex:

Male

Female

Closed-form questions are easy to answer, unlike open-form questions which are even difficult to code and disliked by many respondents because they take too much time to work on. However, in some cases they are desirable, if you want respondents to give complex opinions that do not land themselves to closed-form questions.

3.2.4. Pretesting the questionnaire



Before the final printing, it is essential that the questionnaire be pretested in order to identify ambiguities and mis-understandings. Corrections to all the shortcomings must be effected before the final draft is printed. A small group of about ten to twenty, from the population to be considered in pretesting.

A questionnaire was pretested using a sample of 10 unemployed youths.

3.2.5. Final questionnaire

The final questionnaire was printed after necessary changes have been effected. The questionnaire should be clear, simple, attractive and easy to answer.

3.2.6. Covering letter

A simple covering letter that explained the purpose of the study accompanied the questionnaire.

3.3 Administration procedures

The questionnaires were distributed by mail. Individuals in some areas requested to co-ordinate submission of questionnaires. The problem of non-returns, which decreases the size of usable questionnaire was partly addressed by collecting some of completed questionnaires. Follow ups were effected where necessary.

3.4. Follow ups

Ary et al., (1990:431) outlines three steps of follow ups. The first is a polite letter or post card which requests the

respondent to complete and return the questionnaire immediately. This reminder is send after 10 days after the date of return. Fifteen days after the return date, the second reminder may be send. If the return percentage is still less than 75 the third reminder may be written. If this not be the case, the remaining may be regarded as non-respondents.

Follow ups in this study were carried out through personal visits. To some collection points the researcher had to drive there more than three times. Eventually most of the questionnaires were returned. Mail questionnaires were not the only way of collecting information, interviews were also used.

3.5. Interviews

An interview is defined as a direct or face-to-face attempt to obtain reliable and valid measures in the form of verbal responses from the respondents (Lewis and Stephens, 1990:240; Ary et al., (1990:433). The advantages of interviews are:

- * To allow the interviewer to clarify questions.

- * It can be used with young children and illiterates.
- * It allows freedom for informants to respond in any manner they see fit.
- * It allows interviewers to observe non-verbal as well as verbal behavior.
- * It is useful as a means of obtaining personal information, attitude, perspection and beliefs.
- * It reduces anxiety so that potential threatening topics can be studied.

Interviews are expensive to conduct and their scope is highly limited.

An informal interview was conducted with Mr I. Sebopela, the chief inspector of adult education in the North West Province. From that interview, he stressed the need for the non-formal section to be well staffed to address even the problems of the "lost generation". He was optimistic about the future of the non-formal section because the new provincial and national governments seem to be having this section as one of their priorities.

3.6. Population and sampling

A population is defined as all members of any well defined class of people, events or objects (Ary et al.,(1990:169). A sample is a portion of a population. The target population, is out-of school youth between the ages of 15 - 25 years. They may be graduates of different academic levels from the North West Province.

A sample of $n = 500$ potential respondents was identified in some districts of the North West Province. With the help of the Circuit Education Officers of Ga-Rankuwa, Mabopane and Jericho, a list of adult education centres was obtained from which respondents were drawn and issued with questionnaires to complete. No criteria were used to select the adult centres other than that they were within easy reach of the researcher.

3.7 Data Analysis

Simple statistical techniques were employed to analyse data.

3.8 Summary

The survey is a widely used research method for gathering data. Questionnaires and interviews are the major means of data collection for a survey. Both procedures involve asking questions on selected subjects, but each has unique advantages and disadvantages. It is important that the instruments used be reliable. The next chapter will discuss the analysis and interpretation of data collected.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, an empirical investigation is conducted to determine the concerns and problems of out-of-school and unemployed youth. The qualitative and quantitative data are analysed, summarised and discussed. The questionnaires were distributed to out-of-school youth at the adult education centres and youth groups around Odi, Moretele and Madikwe areas (c.f. 3.5).

Response in general was quite good. Of the total number of 500 questionnaires distributed, 479 (95,8%) were returned. Only 63 (13,2%) of the questionnaires were returned uncompleted. Of the 479 returned, 416 (83,2%) were usable.

4.2. Biographic information of respondents

The biographic data helps in gaining a picture of the background information of the respondents. Information concerning age, sex, marital status and academic qualifications is reported in Table 4.1.

4.2.1 Age of the respondents

According to Table 4.1, the subjects selected their age from five age groups given. Of the total respondents 416 (100%), 16 (3,9%) were below 15 years, and 115 (27,6%) between 16 and 20 years. Most of the respondents 165, (39,7%) as revealed by Table 4.1 were from the age group 21 - 25 years. A total of 296 (71,2%) of the respondents came from the age group between 15-25 years. Of the total number of 416 (100%) respondents, 120 (28,8%) were above age 25.

Hence Table 4.1 shows that youth i.e. 15-25 years, were in the majority of the respondents. Of the total 416 (100%), 296 (71,2%) were below 26 years.

4.2.2 Sex of the respondents

Table 4.1 indicates that, out of the total of 416 (100%), 180 (43,8%) were males and 230 (56,0%) were females. This suggests that most of out-of-school unemployed youth are females. The similar finding was revealed by (Legotlo, 1988) on school leaver problem.

Table 4.1 Respondents by age, sex, marital status and academic qualifications.

AGE Item 1.1	ROW SCORE	%
no response	0	0
below 15	16	3,9
16 - 20	115	27,6
21 - 25	165	39,7
26 - 30	62	14,9
above 30	58	13,9
TOTAL	416	100
SEX Item 1.2	ROW SCORE	%
no response	6	0,2
male	180	43,8
female	230	56,0
TOTAL	416	100

Table 4.1 Continues

SETLEMENT Item 1.3	ROW SCORE	%
no response	7	1,7
rural	261	62,7
urban	148	35,6
TOTAL	416	100

Table 4.1 Respondents by marital status

MARITAL STATUS Item 1.4	ROW SCORE	%
no response	2	0,5
never married	325	78,1
married	75	18,0
separated	12	2,9
divorced	2	0,5
TOTAL	416	100

Table 4.1 Continues

ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS ITEM 1.5	ROW SCORE	%
no response	6	1,4
below Std 7	124	29,8
below Std 10	164	39,4
Std 10 without exemption	49	11,8
Std 10 with exemption	66	15,9
Degree	7	1,7
TOTALS	416	100

4.2.3 Rural and urban respondents

According to Table 4.1, 261 (62,7%) of the respondents came from the rural areas of the North West Province. Only 148 (35,6%) were from urban areas. Table 4.1 reflects that there were more rural than urban respondents. From the researcher's observation, some of the respondents from "rural" villages like Hebron, which is situated between Ga-Rankuwa and Mabopane townships, do not lead rural lives. Services like electricity, telephones and water are supplied and the neighbouring industrial areas of Rosslyn and Ga-Rankuwa influence their life-style. Therefore a clear line of division in some areas can not be drawn between urban and rural. Some areas may be semi-urban.

4.2.4 Marital status of the respondents

Table 4.1 shows that, the largest number of the subject were single or never married at 325 (78,1%). Married respondents were 75 (18,0%). Those separated were 12 (2,9%) and this leaves us, with 2 (0,5%) of the divorced subjects. Youth Programme designer has to take into account the marital status of the recipients, because marital commitments can affect one's involvement in youth non-formal education as revealed elsewhere (Legotlo, 1988).

4.2.5 Respondents' qualification

Table 4.1 indicates that, respondents with below standard 7 qualification were 124 (29,8%). Those with standards 7, 8 and 9 were 164 (39,4%). Only 49 (11,8%) passed standard ten with a school leaving certificate, and therefore could not proceed to university, while 66 (15,9%) passed standard ten with exemption but for one reason or another could not proceed to university or tertiary institutions. The smallest number of 7(1,7%) subjects were university graduates. The implication of these findings especially for the high school and university graduates, is that academic qualifications do not necessarily increase the employability of school leavers, hence there are educated unemployed and underemployed youth (c.f. 2.1). Secondly, educated youth unemployment to some extent, reveals the failure of formal education in addressing the labour market requirements (c.f. 2.3).

Table 4.2 Formal schooling and adult education

LAST YEAR OF FORMAL SCHOOLING Item 2.1	ROW SCORE	%
no response	6	1,4
1993	97	23,4
1992	75	18,0
1991	45	10,8
1990	55	13,2
before 1990	138	33,2
TOTAL	416	100
ENROLMENT WITH A.E. CENTRES Item 2.2	ROW SCORE	%
no response	11	2,6
yes	150	36,1
no	255	61,3
TOTAL	416	100

4.3. Challenges facing the youth

This section analyses the needs and problems of the young people, in trying to cope with the unbearable situation in which they find themselves.

Item 2.1 Last year of formal schooling

Table 4.2 indicates that the majority of the respondents 138 (33,2%) left formal schooling before 1990. The question could be what have they been doing since then? In 1990, a total number of 55 (13,25%) respondents left formal education as revealed by Table 4.2. In 1993, 97 (23,4%) of the respondents left formal education. In the year 1992, 75(18,0%) left. Only 6 (1,4%) did not respond to this question.

Item 2.2 Enrolment at Adult Education Centres

Table 4.2 indicates that 255 (61,3%) respondents did not enrol with the Adult Education Centres which are available in the North West Province. Only 150 (36,1) enrolled in 1994. The advantages of using these centres is that some of them offer vocational skills, which are necessary for securing a job (c.f. 2.9)..

Table 4.3 Employment status

ARE YOU EMPLOYED Item 2.3	ROW SCORE	%
no response	0	0
yes	50	12,0
no	366	88,0
TOTAL	416	100
EVER EMPLOYED Item 2.4	ROW SCORE	%
no response	20	4,8
yes	113	27,2
no	283	68,0
TOTAL	416	100

Table 4.3 Continues

WAYS OF JOB LOSS Item 2.5	ROW SCORE	%
no response	322	77,4
staff deduction	53	12,8
miscoduct	9	2,2
disinvestment	11	2,6
liquidation	15	3,6
others	6	1,4
TOTALS	416	100
Age at which the first job was secured		
FIRST JOB Item 2.6	ROW SCORE	%
no response	260	62,5
before 15 years	12	2,9
15 - 20 years	24	5,8
21 - 25 years	83	20,0
26 - 30 years	26	6,2
above 30 years	11	2,6
TOTAL	416	100

Table 4.3 Continues

EMPLOYMENT "LAG" Item 2.7	ROW SCORE	%
no response	116	27,9
6 months or less	52	12,5
7 months - 12 months	58	13,9
13 months and more	190	45,7
TOTAL	416	100
PERIOD WITHOUT JOB Item 2.8	ROW SCORE	%
no response	112	26,9
1 month - 2 years	88	21,2
3 - 4 years	50	12,0
5 - 6 years	61	14,7
more than 6 years	105	25,2
TOTAL	416	100

Table 4.3 continues

LOOKING FOR A JOB Item 2.9	ROW SCORE	%
no response	7	1,7
yes	276	66,3
no	133	32,0
TOTAL	416	100
Item 2.10		
INTERESTING JOB THAT USE EDUCATION AND SKILLS	ROW SCORE	%
no response	23	5,5
yes	310	74,5
no	83	20,0
TOTALS	416	100

4.3.1 Responses on Employment

Table 4.3 gives the total number of 416 (100%) respondents, 366 (88,0%) of which were unemployed and only 50 (12,0%) were employed. This table indicates the magnitude of youth unemployment.

Some who are unemployed could have been employed at one stage. 283 (68,0%) of the respondents were never employed, since they left formal school system. Only 113 (27,2%) were once employed.

Table 4.3 deals with employment issues of out-of-school youth.

Item 2.3 Are you employed?

Table 4.3 displays that only 50 (12,0%) of the employed youth and 366 (88,0%) un-employed. The unemployment levels among drop-outs and school leavers was very high according to this table. The urgency of redressing youth unemployment is reflected by the statistics from Table 4.3 High youth unemployment can lead to social disorder, to minimize this, youth must be engaged in non-formal youth programmes.

Item 2.4 **Were you ever employed?**

Table 4.3 indicates that only 113 (27,3%) of the respondents were once employed and 283 (68,0%) were never employed. Reflection is still on high youth unemployment.

Item 2.5 **How the respondents lost their jobs**

53 (12,8%) of the youth lost their jobs as a result of staff deduction. Only 9 (2,2%) were dismissed for misbehaviour. The greatest cause of job loss, which was staff deduction, could not be controlled by the employees. Staff deduction was caused by those industrialists who pulled some of their financial resources out of the country before the new political order was put in place.

Item 2.6 **Age at which the first job was secured**

Table 4.3 indicates that 83 (20,0%) of the out-of-school youth were employed for the first time at the age group, 21-25 years. Only 11 (2,6%) of the respondents secured their first jobs after the age of 30 years. Table 4.3 reflects the employment potential of the age group 21-25 years. In addition, this finding shows a wide spread unemployment among the youth.

Item 2.7 **Employment "lag"**

Employment "lag" is the period, without a paid job and before securing the first job. According to Table 4.3, most youth 190 (45,7%) stayed for more than 12 months before they secured their first employment. Only 52 (12,5%) were able to secure jobs within six months. Many young people stayed for a long period without full-time paid job.

Item 2.8 **Period without a full-time job**

Table 4.3 displays 105 (25,2%) of the subjects who stayed more than six years without a full-time employment. 50 (12,0%) stayed 3-4 years without a full-time job. This implies that inequality is accentuated (c.f. 2.2.3).

Item 2.9 **Looking for a job**

Table 4.3 indicates that out of a total of 416 (100%) subjects, 276 (66,3%) were actively looking for jobs. Only 133 (32,0%) stated that they were not looking for any jobs. When unemployment levels are high job seekers stop looking for jobs, because of frustration (Legotlo, 1988).

Table 4.4 School leavers and employment opportunity

WERE YOU AVAILABLE Item 2.11	ROW SCORE	%
no response	24	5,8
yes	72	17,3
no	320	76,9
TOTALS	416	100
DID YOU RECEIVE AN OFFER? Item 2.12	ROW SCORE	%
no response	20	4,8
yes	34	8,2
no	362	87,0
TOTAL	416	100

Item 2.10 **Willingness to do interesting job only**

From Table 4.3, 310(74,5%) of the subjects were reflected as willing to do job that used their education and skills only. 83(20,0%) of the respondents were prepared to do any other job. This high percentage of not willing to do any job reflects on the attitude of the respondent on other jobs, which are regarded as of lower status like manual labour. Education causes unemployment by raising the aspirations of the school leavers.

4.3.2 **School leavers and employment opportunity**

This section discusses the availability of school-leavers for full-time employment and whether they (school-leavers) received employment offers whilst at school.

Item 2.11 **Availability of school-leavers for full-time
paid employment**

Table 4.4 indicates that the majority 320(76,9%) of the respondents left formal school before they were ready for full-time paid employment. Only 72(17,3%) of the subjects indicated that when they left formal school they were available for full-time paid employment. The implication is that formal schooling does not prepare students for work

Table 4.5 Vocational skills and affordability to pay for training.

ANY QUALIFICATION IN VOCATIONAL Item 2.13	ROW SCORE	%
no response	16	3,8
yes	52	12,5
no	348	88,7
TOTALS	416	100
A wish to be trained in vocational skill(s) NWU LIBRARY		
DO YOU WANT TO BE TRAINED? Item 2.14	ROW SCORE	%
no response	18	4,3
yes	294	70,7
no	104	25,0
TOTAL	416	100

Table 4.5 continues

CAN YOU AFFORD TO PAY? Item 2.15	ROW SCORE	%
no response	16	3,8
yes	172	41,4
no	228	54,8
TOTALS	416	100

Table 4.5 Affordable amount

HOW MUCH Item 2.16	ROW SCORE	%
no response	242	58,2
less than R200-00	140	33,7
R200-00 - R500-00	22	5,3
R500-00 and more	12	2,8
TOTAL	416	100

situation. Although other causes like age and unwillingness could also contribute to unavailability to take up a paid employment.

Item 2.12 Offer of a full-time job

An overwhelming majority 362(87,0%) of the subjects indicated (Table 4.4) that they left formal school, without any offer of full-time job. Only 34(8,2%) stated that they received offers for full-time jobs whilst at school.

So opportunities should be made available to expose the school leavers to effective vocational skills training, through non-formal youth programmes.

4.3.3 Vocational skills

This section deals with vocational qualifications, respondents who wish to be trained and financial affordability.

Item 2.13 Qualification in vocational skills

Table 4.5 reflects a total of 416 (100%) respondents, 348 (88,7%) were without any qualification in vocational skills. Only 52 (12,5%) of the respondent were qualified

in one or more vocational skill(s). Qualifications do not guarantee jobs, because according to Table 4.3 only 50 (12,0%) of the total of 416 (100%) were employed (c.f. 4.3). Many respondents were without marketable skill. This suggests that, the implication is that more unemployed youth must be exposed to vocational skills.

Item 2.14 A wish to be trained in vocational skills

According to Table 4.5 of 348 (83,7%) who were not qualified in any vocational skill, only 294 (70,7%) were prepared to be trained in vocational skills. 104 (25,0%) were not interested in vocational education. It is assumed that with vocational skills young people can earn themselves a living (c.f. 2.5).

Item 2.15 Affordability to pay for training

228 (54,8%) of the respondents could not afford to pay for their training as reflected in Table 4.5, for obvious reason of unemployment. The implication of Table 4.5 is that any youth programme, intended to be set up, must be subsidized either by the government or non-government organisation, or be geared at "Education with Production" (EWP).

Item 2.16 Affordable fees

Table 4.5 deals with the amount of money that could be paid by the respondents. Of the total number of those respondents who could afford to pay for their training, 140 (33,7%) could pay anything less than R200-00 per annum. 22 (5,3%) could afford between R200-00 and R500-00 and only 12 (2,8%) could pay more than R500-00 per year. The implication of this finding is that most respondents cannot afford to pay for their education.

4.3.4 Ability to start a business

Table 4.6 Ability to start a business

THOSE WITH ABILITY AND SKILLS Item 3.1	ROW SCORE	%
no response	29	7,0
yes	107	25,7
no	280	67,3
TOTAL	416	100

280 (67,3%) of the respondents had no ability and skills to create their own employment according to Table 4.6. Education should not only prepare children to be good employees but it should on the other hand prepare them to

be job creators and employers. With the vocational skills acquired one may be able to start a business. This study therefore intends to provide ways of acquiring skills.

4.3.5 Academic qualification by age

Table 4.7 Academic qualification by the age at which the first job was secured

b a	-15 yrs		15-20		21-25		26-30		30 +		TOTALS	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	6	14,6	8	19,5	15	36,6	4	9,8	8	19,5	41	100
2	6	8,7	13	18,8	33	47,8	15	21,3	2	2,9	69	100
3	0	0,00	1	4,76	17	80,9	2	9,6	1	4,74	21	100
4	0	0,00	1	5,0	14	70,0	5	25,0	0	0,00	20	100
5	0	0,00	1	20,0	4	80,0	0	0,00	0	0,00	5	100
T	12	8,2	24	16,4	83	56,8	26	17,8	1	0,8	146	100

Key: a refers to academic qualifications
b refers to age

Table 4.7 deals with the academic qualifications of the respondents, and the age at which the first job was secured. 15 (18,07%) with less than standard seven qualification, secured their first jobs at the age of 21 - 25 years. 33 (39,76%) of those with below standard ten

Item 3.2 Age and sex by employment "lag"
Table 4.8. Age by and sex employment "lag"

age \ "lag"	- 6 Months 7-12 Months 13 + Months TOTALS							
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
-15yrs	0	0, 0	0	0, 0	5	100	5	100
15-20 yrs	20	29, 4	4	0, 58	44	64, 7	68	100
21-25 yrs	16	12, 4	30	23, 3	83	64, 3	129	100
26-30 yrs	7	13, 7	17	33, 3	27	52, 9	51	100
30 +	9	91, 1	7	14, 9	31	65, 9	47	100
TOTALS	52	17, 3	58	19, 3	190	63, 3	300	100
Sex by employment "lag" Item 3.3								
sex \ "lag"	- 6 Months 7-12 Months 13 + TOTALS							
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
MALE	22	17, 8	19	14, 5	90	68, 9	131	100
FEMALE	28	16, 9	37	22, 4	100	60, 6	165	100
TOTALS	50	25, 5	57	29, 1	190	96, 9	196	100

qualifications also found their first job at the age group of 21 - 25 years. The age group 21 - 25 years is better qualified in all five levels of academic qualifications. This reflects on the potential of the youth.

4.3.6 Age and sex by employment "lag"

The relation between two biographical facts and employment "lag" are discussed.

Item 3.2 Age by employment "lag"

According to Table 4.8, the 15 year olds stayed for a longer period before they could find a full-time job. Table 4.8 reflects that, none of the 15 year olds was employed before the first twelve months of leaving school. Most of the respondents from all the age groups 190 (63,3%) stayed more than a year before they could secure their first occupation. This also suggests that there is a need for creation of more jobs.

Item 3.3 Sex by employment "lag"

The majority of respondents as revealed by Table 4.8 stayed for more than 13 months before they could secure their first jobs. 90 (68,9%) males and 100 (60,6%) females had

Table 4.9 Age and sex by period of unemployment
Item 3.4

age U	1 month 2ys		3-4 yrs		5-6 yrs		6 +		TOTALS	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
15yrs	1	1,14	0	0,0	3	4,92	2	1,90	6	1,97
16-20 yrs	23	30, 7	6	8, 0	21	34,43	25	33,81	75	100
21-25 yrs	34	26, 2	32	24, 6	18	13, 4	46	35, 4	130	100
26-30 yrs	18	34, 6	7	13, 5	12	23, 1	15	28, 8	52	100
30 +	12	29, 3	5	12, 2	7	17, 1	15	16, 6	41	13,49
TOTAL	88	100	50	100	61	100	105	100	304	100

Table 4.9 Sex by period of unemployment
Item 3.5

P sex	1-2yrs		3-4yrs		5-6yrs		6+		TOTALS	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
MALE	34	26, 6	22	17, 2	25	19, 5	47	36,7	128	100
FEMALE	53	30, 4	26	15, 2	36	21, 1	57	33, 3	171	100
TOTALS	87	29, 1	48	16, 1	61	20, 4	100	33, 4	299	100

Key: U refers to unemployment
P refers to period

an employment "lag" of more than 12 months. 22 (16,8%) male and 28 (16,9%) female had employment "lag" of less than six months. The table indicates that there were more males than females who were victims of employment "lag". The implication is that females are more likely to secure a full-time job than males.

NWU
LIBRARY

4.3.7 Age and sex by period of unemployment

Age and sex of the respondents are discussed in relation to the period of unemployment.

Item 3.4 Age and period of unemployment

Table 4.9 relates the age to the unemployment period. Of the 304 (100%) respondents 105 (34,54%) were unemployed for more than six years, compare to 88 (28,95%) who experienced unemployment for less than 2 years. Most of the unemployed 130 (42,76%) came from the age group 21 - 25 years followed by 16 - 20 years with 75 (24,67%).

Chi-square Test

Some data are tested by Chi-square Test, which is a statistical procedured used to determine the significance of differences

among two or more groups. It compares what is observed against what was expected.

STATISTIC	DF	VALUE	PROB
Chi-square	12	20,639	0,056

With 12 degrees of freedom, a χ^2 value of 21,549 is needed for significance at the .05 level. But our obtained χ^2 value of 20,639 is smaller than the table value and is therefore not significant. This means that the differences between the age categories and the period of unemployment frequencies are not beyond what would be expected by chance. In other words, the researcher does not have reliable evidence that there is a relationship between the variables "respondents age" and "period of unemployment". In this case the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Item 3.5 Sex by period of unemployment

According to Table 4.9, there were more unemployed females than males, with 171 (5,3%) and 128 (42,7%) respectively. This table reflects the need for a non-formal programme which would not exclude females.

Item 3.6

Table 4.10 Academic qualification by period of unemployment

AQ \ P										
	1-2yrs		3-4yrs		4-6yrs		6+		TOTALS	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
B.Std 7	14	18, 9	13	17, 6	18	24, 3	29	29, 2	74	100
B. Std 10	50	37, 6	23	17, 3	24	18, 0	36	27, 1	133	100
Std 10 without e.g	10	24, 3	11	26, 8	14	34, 8	6	14, 6	41	100
Std 10 with e.g	10	21, 3	3	6, 4	2	4, 3	32	68, 1	47	100
Degree	4	80,00	0	0, 0	0	0, 0	1	20,00	.5	100
TOTAL	88	29,33	50	16,67	58	19,33	104	34,67	300	100

Key: P refers to period of unemployment
AQ refers to academic qualifications

Table 4.11 Age and sex by willingness to do work involving manual labour
Item 3.7

	YES		NO		TOTALS	
age \	F	%	F	%	F	%
below 15yrs	3	18, 8	13	81, 3	16	100
16-20 yrs	37	34, 2	71	65, 7	108	100
21-25 yrs	72	48, 6	76	51, 4	148	100
26-30 yrs	44	75, 9	14	24, 1	58	100
30 +	31	59, 6	21	40, 4	52	100
TOTALS	187	48, 9	195	51, 1	382	100

Item 3.8						
	YES		NO		TOTALS	
Sex \	F	%	F	%	F	%
MALE	77	45, 1	94	54, 9	171	100
FEMALE	108	52, 4	98	47, 6	206	100
TOTALS	185	49, 1	192	50, 9	377	100

4.3.8 Academic qualification by period of unemployment

Table 4.10 indicates that the respondents without Std 7 and 10 qualifications were mostly affected by unemployment. 133 (44,33%) and 74 (24,67%) represent the two categories, respectively of below standard ten and below standard seven on the level of unemployment. 4 respondents out of a total of 5 with university degrees were unemployed for less than two years as shown by Table 4.10. 104(34,67%) respondents were unemployment for a period more than six years. This finding perports that higher academic qualification increases the chances or probability of being employed.

4.3.9 Age and sex by willingness

This section discusses the age and sex in relation to the willingness to do work involving manual labour.

Item 3.6 Age by willingness to do work involving manual labour

Table 4.11 reflects that the youth below 26 years were not prepared to engage themselves in manual labour. Their scores according to the table were 13(81,3%); 71(65,7%) and 76(51,4%) respectively, against the involvement in manual labour.

Age categories 26-30 years and 30 years and above reflected a different picture of willingness to do manual labour. Their scores were 44(23,53%) and 31(16,58%) against 21(10,77%) respectively. Young people seem to have adopted a negative attitude towards manual labour. This attitude has got to change for vocational education to be accepted.

Item 3.7 Sex by willingness to do work involving
manual labour

Table 4.11 indicates that there were more females who would not mind to do manual labour. The figures reflected 108(28,64%), compared to 98(25,99%) who were against manual labour. The figures from the males indicated that 94(24,93%) were not prepared to take up manual labour as compared to 77(20,43%). The implication of table 4.11 is that females would welcome vocational skills more than males.

4.3.10 Settlement and academic qualifications by willingness.

The question of whether settlement and academic qualification affect the willingness to do manual labour, will be discussed in this section.

Table 4.12 Settlement and academic qualifications by willingness
Item 3.9 to do work involving manual labour

S	YES		NO		TOTALS	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Rural	131	53, 3	115	46, 7	246	100
Urban	52	40, 3	77	59, 7	129	100
TOTALS	183	48, 8	192	51, 2	375	100

Item 3.10						
A.Q	YES		NO		TOTALS	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
B. Std 7	57	50,00	57	50,00	114	100
B. Std 10	85	56, 7	65	43, 3	150	100
Std 10 with- out exemp.	25	55,56	20	44,44	45	100
Std 10 with exemp.	17	27, 9	44	72, 1	61	100
Degree	2	33, 3	4	66,71	6	100
TOTALS	186	49.47	190	50, 5	50,53	100

Key: S = settlement
AQ = academic qualifications

Item 3.8 Settlement and willingness to do work
 involving manual labour

Table 4.12 depicts, more respondents 131(71,58%) compared to 115(59,9%) from the rural areas who were willing to do manual labour. More respondents, 77(40,1%) compared to 52(28,42%) from the urban area, were not willing to do manual labour. There were 192(51,2%) against manual labour and only 183(48,8%) who would welcome it. The attitude of the respondents toward manual labour has to change for vocational education to succeed.

Item 3.9 Academic qualifications by willingness to do
 work involving manual labour

Table 4.12 reflects more respondents 190(50,53%) who were against manual labour compared to 186(49,47%) who were for it. Respondents from the first category of below standard seven qualifications were equally divided between those who would take up a manual labour and those who rejected it. The trend among those with standard ten exemption and the university graduates was that they both did not prefer manual labour. Their scores are 44(72,1%) against, and 17(27,9%) for; 4(66,7%) against, and 2(33,3%) for respectively.

Table 4.32 gives the relation between academic qualifications and willingness to do work involving manual labour.

Chi-square Test

CHI-SQUARE	DF	VALUE	PROB
	4	15.799	0,003

With 4 degrees of freedom, a χ^2 value of 13.277 is significant at .01 level. The obtained value of 15.799 is higher than the table value, therefore there is a significant difference between the two variable of academic qualifications and the willingness to do work involving manual labour. The categories with matric exemption and university graduates do not generally support manual labour. On the other hand, the lower academic categories support manual labour. The null hypothesis is rejected.

4.3.11 Age by willingness and availability

Age in this section is discussed in relation to two variables namely, the willingness to do work that interests the job seeker and the availability of the respondents in taking up full-time paid job.

Table 4.13. Age by willingness and availability to take up full-time paid job.

Item 3.11

	YES		NO		TOTALS	
age \	F	%	F	%	F	%
below 15	12	75, 0	4	25, 0	16	100
16 - 20	91	81, 25	21	18, 75	112	100
21 - 25	126	82, 4	27	17, 7	153	100
26 - 30	41	68, 3	19	31, 7	60	100
30 +	40	76, 0	12	23, 1	52	100
TOTALS	310	78, 88	83	21, 12	393	100

Item 3.12
Availability

NWU
LIBRARY

	YES		NO		TOTALS	
age \	F	%	F	%	F	%
below 15 yrs	3	18, 8	13	81, 3	16	100
16 - 20	9	8, 2	102	91, 8	111	100
21 - 25	24	15, 6	130	84, 4	154	100
26 - 30	17	28, 3	43	71, 7	60	100
30 +	19	37, 3	32	62, 7	51	100
TOTALS	72	18, 4	320	81, 6	392	100

Item 3.10 Age by willingness of respondents

Table 4.13 indicates that more respondents 310 (78,88%) preferred to take up work that interests them and that used their educational skills. This reflects that respondents are choosy when looking for jobs. With job skills or vocational education the choice of job-seekers would be broadened.

Item 3.11 Age by availability of respondents

Table 4.13 relates the age to the availability to take up full-time paid job. 320 (81,63%) respondents left formal school before being ready to take up full-time paid employment. Only 72 (18,37%) of school leavers were ready to take up their rightful positions in the economic world. The largest number of premature school leavers came from the age category 21 - 25 years with 130 (33,16%). This reflects the need for an alternative education for the most affected age categories namely 21-25 years with 154 (39,29%) and 16-20 years with 111 (28,32%).

4.14 Academic qualification by availability and age by vocational qualifications

Item 3.13

	YES		NO		TOTALS	
AQ	F	%	F	%	F	%
below Std7	19	16, 5	96	83, 5	115	100
below Std10	36	23, 7	116	76, 3	152	100
Std 10 without exemption	8	17, 4	38	82, 6	46	100
Std 10 with exemption	6	9, 1	60	90, 9	66	100
Degree	3	42, 9	4	57, 1	7	100
TOTALS	72	18, 7	314	81, 3	386	100

Item 3.14

Age by vocational qualification

	Qualified		Unqualified		TOTALS	
age	F	%	F	%	F	%
-15 yrs	0	0,0	16	100	16	100
16 - 20 yrs	7	6, 3	105	93, 7	112	100
21 - 25 yrs	22	13, 8	137	61, 2	159	100
26 - 30	9	15, 0	51	85, 0	60	100
30 +	14	26, 4	39	73, 6	53	100
TOTALS	52	13,00	348	87, 0	400	100

Key: AQ =Academic Qualifications

4.3.12 Academic qualification by availability and age by
vocational qualifications

Table 4.14 reflects the relation between academic qualifications to availability of respondents and the age to vocational qualifications.

Item 3.12 Academic qualifications by availability

314 (81,35%) of the respondents according to table 4.14 left formal school before they were available for full-time job. This picture of unavailability of school leavers to take up paid jobs was reflected in all the five qualification categories. With vocational education respondents would be prepared for the labour market.

Item 3.13 Age and vocational qualification

Table 4.14 indicates that of the total 400 (100%) respondents, 348(87,0%) were unqualified in vocational education. 16(100%) out of 16(100%) respondents, with below 15 years of age; 105(93,75%) of the total 112(100%) below standard ten category; and 39(73,58%) out of 53 (100%) from the age group 30 years and above were vocationally unqualified. Table 4.14 reflects a high shortage qualified youth in vocational education.

Table 4.15 Sex by certification and affordability
Item 3.15

		Certificated		Uncertificated		TOTALS	
sex \		F	%	F	%	F	%
Male		29	16, 6	146	83, 4	175	100
Female		23	10, 5	197	89, 5	220	100
TOTALS		52	13, 2	343	86, 8	395	100

Item 3.16							
Age by affordability							
		Affordable		Unaffordable		TOTALS	
age \		F	%	F	%	F	%
-15 yrs		5	31, 3	11	68, 7	16	100
16 - 20 yrs		35	31, 3	77	68, 7	112	100
21 - 25 yrs		70	44, 3	88	55, 7	158	100
26 - 30 yrs		30	48, 3	32	51, 6	62	100
30 +		32	61, 5	20	38, 5	52	100
TOTALS		172	43, 0	228	57, 0	400	100

4.3.13 Sex by certification and age by affordability.

A clear distinction is drawn between certificated and uncertificated males and females, as well as the relation between age and affordability to pay for skill training.

Item 3.14 Sex by certification in vocational skills

Table 4.15 relates sex to certification in vocational skills. According to this table, 146 (83,43%) of the male and 197 (89,95) of the female were uncertificated in vocational education. Only 29 (16,57) of male and 23 (10,45%) of female were certificated in vocational skills like bricklaying and welding. The implication is that there is a dire need for vocational education.

Chi-square Test

CHI - SQUARE	DF	VALUE	PROB
	4	15.647	0.004

With 4 degrees of freedom, a χ^2 value of 13.277 is needed for significance at the .01 level. The probability of .01 is used because 0.004 does not appear on the Table of χ^2 . The obtained X value of 15.647 is higher than the table value of 13.277,

therefore the difference is significant. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

Item 3.15 Age by affordability

228 (57,0%) as compared to 172 (43,0%) could not afford to pay for their training as revealed by Table 4.15. From all the different age categories, only those who are 30 years and above indicate that the majority 32 (61,53) could pay for their training.

The implication is that for any programme to succeed other means of finance should be explored.

Chi-square Test

CHI-SQUARE	DF	VALUE	PROB
	4	15.345	0.004

With 4 degrees of freedom, a χ^2 value of 13.277 is needed for significance at the 0.01 which is the nearest probability scale to 0.004. Our obtained χ^2 value of 15.345 is greater than the table value of 13.277. The difference is therefore significant.

Item 3.17

Table 4.16 Sex by affordability and amount

	Affordable		Unaffordable		TOTALS	
sex	F	%	F	%	F	%
Male	88	50, 9	85	49, 1	173	100
Female	82	36, 9	140	63, 1	222	100
TOTALS	170	43, 0	225	57, 0	395	100

Item 3.18

Table 4.16 Sex by amount

	R200		R200 - R500		R500+		TOTALS	
sex	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Male	71	66, 9	20	18, 9	15	14, 2	106	100
Female	68	66, 7	22	21, 6	12	11, 7	102	100
TOTALS	139	66, 8	42	20, 2	27	13, 0	208	100

This means that there is relationship between the age variable and the financial affordability of the training. The null hypothesis is rejected.

4.3.14 Sex by affordability and amount

Discussion under this topic is centred around how much the two different sexes could afford.

Item 3.17 Sex by affordability



According to Table 4.16 on sex by affordability, more than half of the male respondents 88 (51,76%) were prepared to pay for their vocational training, unlike female respondents 140 (61,78%) who were unable to pay. Table 4.16 still emphasises the need for financial support for non-formal education programme not to be expected from the recipients.

Item 3.18 Sex and affordability

In Table 4.16 it is indicated that, the majority of both sexes, male 71 (51,08%) and female 68 (48,92%) could afford the minimum amount of less than R200-00 per annum. Very few respondents 27 (12,98) could afford the maximum of R500-00 and more per annum. Financial resources would have

Table 4.17 Age by the ability and skills to start own business

Item 3.19

	YES		NO		TOTALS	
age	F	%	F	%	F	%
-15 yrs	4	28, 6	10	71, 4	14	100
16 - 20 yrs	19	17, 6	89	82, 4	108	100
21 - 25 yrs	48	30, 8	108	69, 2	156	100
26 - 30 yrs	14	23, 7	45	76, 3	59	100
30 +	22	44, 0	28	56, 0	50	100
TOTALS	107	27, 6	280	72, 4	387	100

Item 3.20

Settlement by ability to start a business

	YES		NO		TOTALS	
sex	F	%	F	%	F	%
Rural	65	26, 4	181	73, 6	246	100
Urban	39	29, 1	95	70, 9	134	100
TOTALS	104	27, 3	276	72, 7	380	100

to be made available for the unemployed youth to be trained in vocational skills.

4.3.15 Age and settlement by ability and skills to start a business

The ability and skills are discussed in relation to some biographical factors.

Item 3.19 Age by the ability and skills to start own business

Table 4.17 reflects that, fewer respondents in all age categories had the ability and skills to start their own businesses. There were only 107 (27,65%) of the total of 387 (100%) who could create employment. Young unemployed should be taught to create jobs, for self-employment.

Chi-square Test

CHI-SQUARE	DF	VALUE	PROB
	4	13,361	0.010

With 4 degrees of freedom, a χ^2 value of 13.277 is needed for significance at 0.01 level. Our obtained χ^2 value of 13.361 is larger than the table value of 13.277, and is therefore significant.

Item 3.20 Settlement by ability to start a business

Table 4.17 indicates that 181 (47,63%) of the rural and 95 (25%) of the urban respondents were unable to start their own businesses.

More respondents 276 (72,63%) of the total 380 (100%) were unable to start their business. Inability to start a business reflects on the lack of skills. Vocational training is therefore essential..

Chi-square Test

CHI-SQUARE	DF	VALUE	PROB
	1	0,314	0,575

With 1 degree of freedom, a χ^2 value of 0,455 is needed for significance at the 0,50 level. Our obtained χ^2 value of 0,314 is smaller than the table value and is therefore not significant. This means that the differences between the settlement variable and the ability to start a business variable are not beyond what would be expected. In other words we do not have enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

4.4 Open-ended responses

A number of questions which required the respondent to give his/her own view in trying to address out-of-school and unemployed youth, were asked. The following responses were received:

4.4.1 Employment needs of the respondents

Table 4.18. Youth employment needs

Rank	Item	f	%
1	self employed	197	49,13
2	office work	85	21,19
3	professional occupation	79	19,7
4.	any other job	<u>40</u>	<u>9,98</u>
	TOTALS	<u>401</u>	<u>100</u>

From a total of 401(100%) respondents, 197(49,13%) according to Table 4.18, preferred to be self employed. 85(21,19%) would like to do office work, as clerks, computer operators, receptionists or stock controllers. 79(19,7%) were interested in professional occupations like teaching, nursing and police. 40(9,98%) of the respondents did not prioritize their needs, instead they generalized them as looking for full-time paid jobs.

4.4.2 Responses on the causes of youth unemployment

Table 4.19 reflects the main cause of youth unemployment as "lack of education". This could mean lack of appropriate knowledge and skills. It could also be related to the irrelevance of formal education (c.f. 2.3). High drop-out rates could lead to "lack of education" (c.f. 2.3).

Other causes of out-of-school youth unemployment which were raised are, lack of jobs 92(22,1%), poor economy, 45(10,8%) and lack of skills, 41(9,9%). 77(18,5%) did not respond.

Table 4.19. The main causes of youth unemployment, in rank order.

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Item</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
1	Lack of education	161	38,7
2	Lack of jobs	92	22,1
3	Poor economy	45	10,8
4	Lack of skills	41	9,9
5	No response	77	18,5
	TOTALS	<u>416</u>	<u>100</u>

4.4.3 The challenges facing unemployed youth

Many challenges were raised by the respondents. Challenges were summarised into seven main items as reflected in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20. Challenges facing out-of-school and unemployed youth in rank order

Rank	Item	f	%
1.	Lack of income	149	37,7
2.	Disillusionment	96	24,3
3.	Frustration	69	17,5
4.	Boredom	42	10,6
5.	Time wasting	17	4,3
6.	High youth pregnancy	12	3,1
7.	Rejection (by peer group)	10	2,5
TOTALS		395	100

4.4.4 Suggestions on how to address youth unemployment

Table 4.21 How to address out-of-school youth unemployment, in rank order

Rank	Item	f	%
1.	training youth	101	26,9
2.	vocational skills to be taught	87	23,1
3.	offering business education	62	16,5
4.	relating education to job situation	44	11,7
5.	expansion of industries	43	11,4
6.	establish youth programme	35	9,3
7.	decrease teacher-pupil ratio	4	1,1
TOTALS		376	100

4.5 Summary

This chapter outlines the findings of the empirical investigation conducted to determine the major problems facing the out-of-school and unemployed youth in the North West Province. The following points were raised:

- There is a dire need for an alternative education, which would be job orientated.

- Formal education has taught respondents to be job seekers and not job creators.
- Most respondents (72,8%), had no ability nor skills to start their own businesses (c.f. 4.3.15).
- Lack of relevant education, has been cited as one of the causes of youth unemployment.
- There is a high shortage of qualified youth (13,8%), in vocational education (c.f. 4.3.12; 4.3.13).
- Training youth in vocational skills, has been suggested by the majority of the respondents (c.f. 4.4.4).
- Vocational education cannot be regarded as the sole answer to youth unemployment problem, that is why other solutions like relevant education, business education and expansion on industries were also suggested.
- Most unemployed youth (54,8%), cannot afford to pay for training in vocational skills (c.f. 4.3.3).
- Majority of unemployed youth (45,7%), stay for more than a year before they could find a permanent job (c.f. 4.3.7).
- Unemployed youth with standard ten exemption or university degree (27,9% and 33,3%) do not like manual labour (c.f. 4.3.9).

The more pronounced problems for respondents in this study are problems that could be ascribed to the failure of the system to address certain youth out-of-school shortcomings.

GUIDELINES FOR SETTING UP YOUTH NON-FORMAL EDUCATION PROGRAMME

5.1. INTRODUCTION

From review of literature and findings of empirical data it was clearly spelt out that there is a need to train out-of-school and unemployed youth to be trained in vocational skills. The respondents acknowledged the need for youth programmes(s) to equip them with marketable skills.

Some youth programmes were discussed in chapter two (c.f. 2.5, 2.6, 2.7 and 2.8). Many of these programmes failed due to factors related to planning.

"Youth training schemes in the UK and other industrial countries have generally been unsuccessful because they were seen as a "last resort" by youth, they did not lead to any further education or training and they became too expensive (NEPI, 1992:63)".

The purpose of this chapter, is to briefly review the two basic programme planning models, namely the linear and non-linear models as the basis, and to suggest guidelines for the setting up of a youth non-formal education programme in the North West Province.

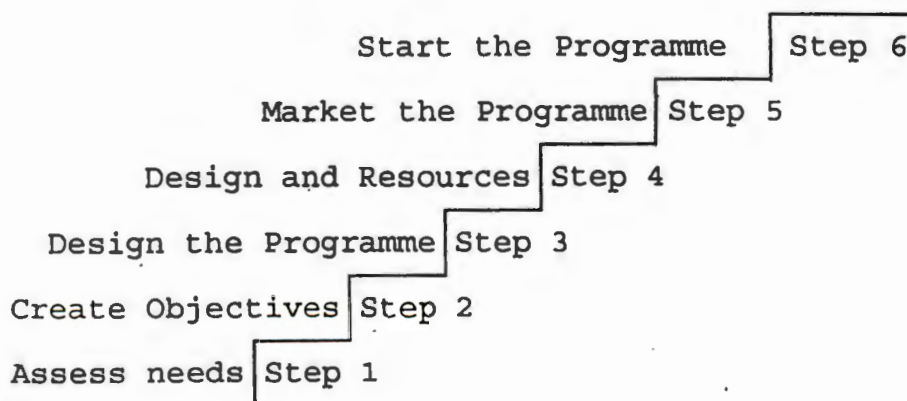
5.2. PROGRAMME PLANNING MODELS

Generally, youth non-formal programmes may follow either linear or non-linear models.

* LINEAR MODELS

Linear models provide a sequential path that outlines the major steps to be followed in planning or developing an effective programme. This model is pre-scriptive, simple and very popular. The model outlines steps to be followed in a particular order.

Fig. 5.1. A LINEAR MODEL FOR PROGRAMME PLANNING



Source: Kowalski, 1988:93

The needs of the target group should be identified because they reflect on the problems and challenges facing the youth. The needs can be changed into objectives. Objectives determine the purpose of the programme. The programme could then be drawn. For the programme to be established, the planner must look into the resources. They can be classified into human and material resources. The programme could then be advertised to the public. Depending on the turn up of the participants and the resources, the programme could be implemented.

* NON-LINEAR MODELS

NWU
LIBRARY

Non-linear approach to planning does not prescribe a pattern or sequence to be followed. What is of the essence is the end product. Greater flexibility in terms of time and resource allocation is provided.

Fig. 5.2 A Non-linear Model



Non-linear models tend to require less time than the linear models, because components of the process may be completed simultaneously.

Linear and non-linear models can be considered along with the following guidelines for setting up a youth non-formal programme for the unemployed.

5.3. GUIDELINES FOR SETTING UP A YOUTH NON-FORMAL PROGRAMME

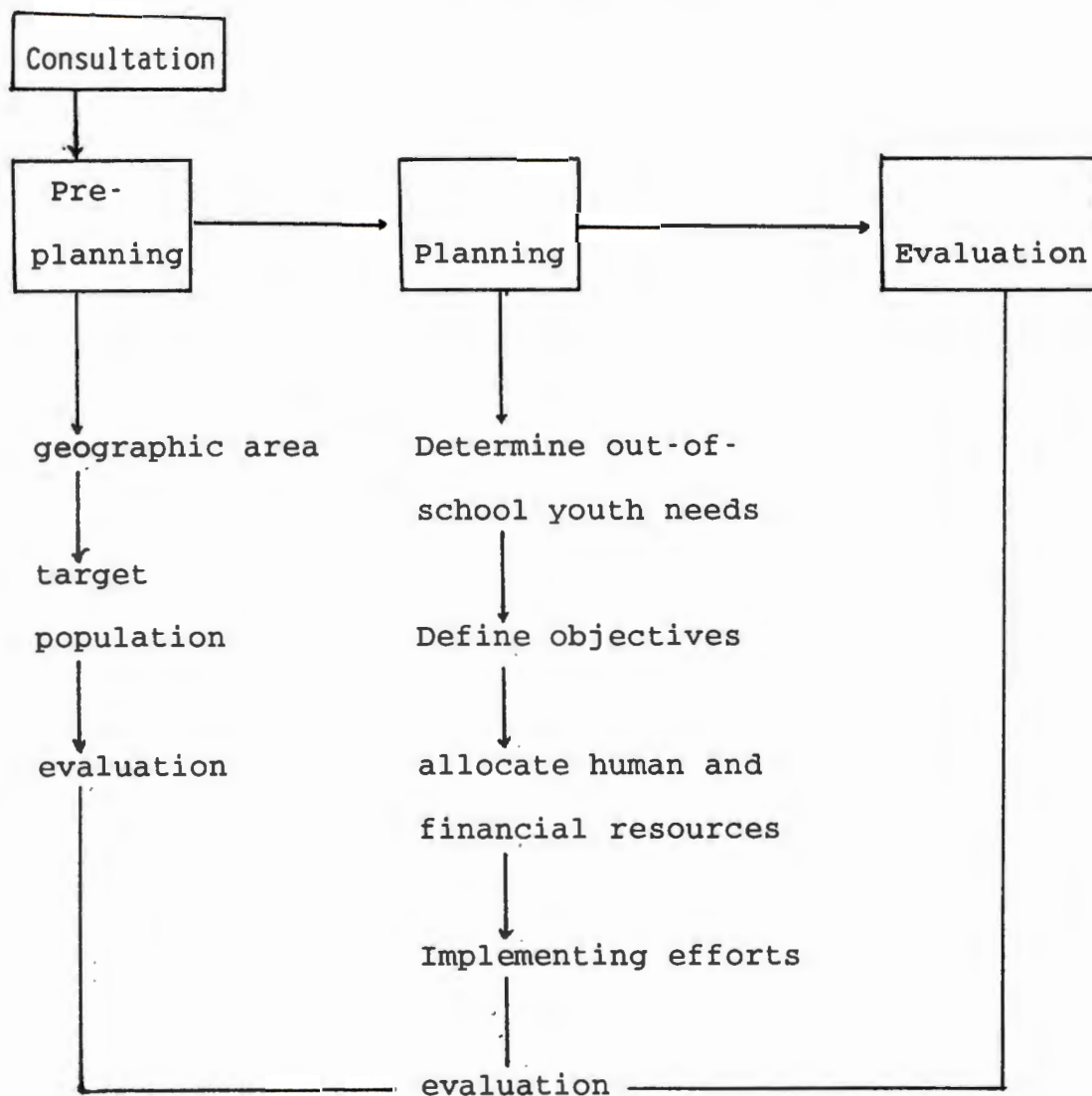
5.3.1 Definition

Guidelines, for setting up youth non-formal programme, are well-structured comprehensive aspects to be considered when a programme is developed. The guidelines highlight the directing principles, with the intention of minimizing failures.

5.3.2 Guidelines

Within the broader approach to programme planning there are four steps which can not be overlooked, namely the consultative, experimentation, wider application and continuing activities (Townsend, 1990).

Fig. 5.3 Collaborative and Participatory Planning



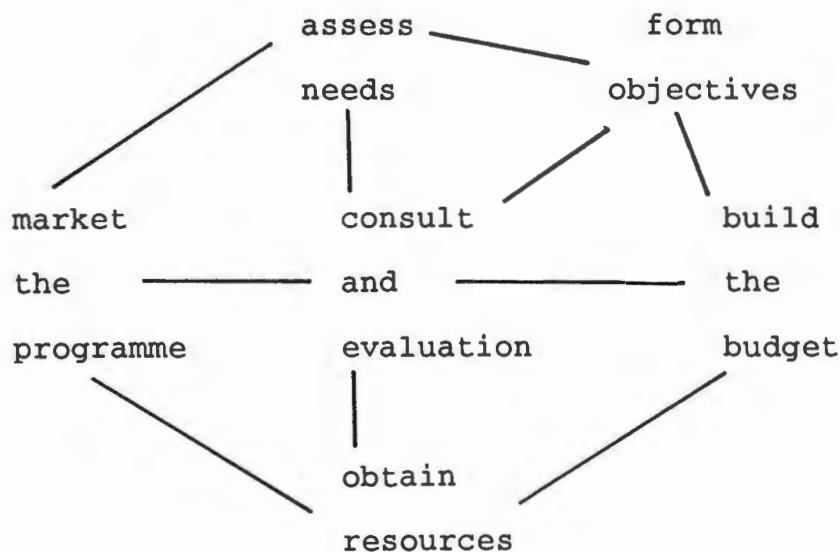
Phase 1: Consultation

- * Consultation is the key concept for the "New South Africa". All educational stakeholders must be involved in a democratic decision-making, because

planning is best completed in a collaborative and participatory fashion.

Consultation should go along with evaluation as the central core of a modified non-linear model presented in Fig. 5.4. According to Fig. 5.4. consultation and evaluation co-ordinate all aspects of planning, which are also closely inter-related.

Fig 5.4. Modified non-linear Model



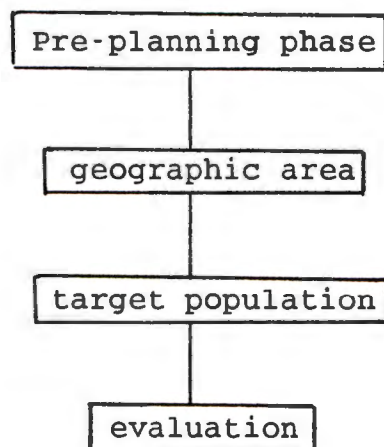
Wide consultation in youth programme development is one way of democratizing and legitimizing the programme. Among others, the following parties could be involved in decision-making:

- out-of-school and unemployed youth (c.f. 2.4.1).
- the government (c.f. 2.8.1).
- Non-governmental organisations (c.f. 2.8.2).
- Employers (c.f. 2.5; 2.6; 2.7).
- educationalists (c.f. 2.7.1).
- Financial institutions (c.f. 4.3.14).

Phase 2: Pre-planning

Fig. 5.5 outlines major activities to be carried out in the pre-planning phase.

Fig. 5.5 Pre-planning Phase



This phase should help the planner and practitioners to be better informed about the area as well as the target population.

* Geographic area (c.f. 2.4, 2.5, 2.6)

The demographic characteristics of the area to be served by the programme should be determined. The problems of youth unemployment should be studied in the context of their geographic area in order to suggest relevant and effective remedies (c.f. 2.9).

Identification of resources within the community and the community's attitude towards youth problems become more readily available through the limitation of the geographic area.

* Target population (c.f. 2.4, 4.2)

The target group should be clearly defined. In this study, the target group is the out-of-school and unemployed youth between the ages 15-25.

The main task that faces planners on non-formal education programmes, is to determine the characteristics of the learner. It is not only important to know the size of the youth problem in a given area, but also to know why the youth are characterized as problematic.

In order for planners to diagnose the problem and suggest

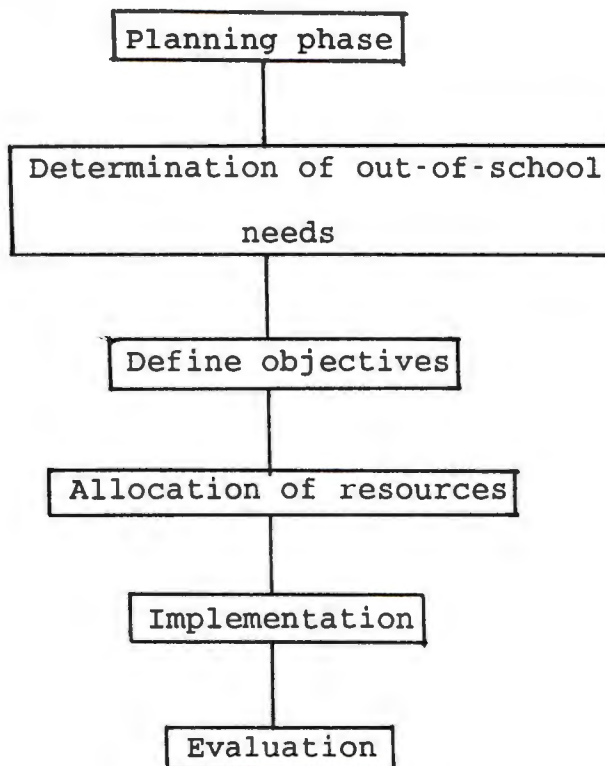
the most appropriate remedies, they have to identify the symptoms.

* Evaluation

All the stages of pre-planning are assessed.

Phase 3: Planning

Fig. 5.6 Planning Phase



**NWU
LIBRARY**

The planning phase outlines the different stages to be considered when a programme is developed.

* Determination of out-of-school youth needs

Attention be given to the needs of the target group. In simple terms, needs could be viewed as the gap between what is present and what is required. The needs in this study, were determined through a questionnaire (c.f. chapter 3 and 4) and review of literature in chapter 2.

In order to suggest guidelines to the setting up of a non-formal education programme, literature study was conducted in chapter 2 on the different youth programmes. In chapter 4 needs were identified through the analysis of data. The problems facing out-of-school and unemployed youth, to some extent reveal the youth's needs.

Without employing the needs assessment survey, appropriate guidelines may not be identified.

* Define objectives

Identified needs should be converted into objectives. As reflected below:

- to earn a living (c.f. 4.3)
- to acquire marketable skills (c.f. 4.3)
- to be exposed to labour situation (c.f. 4.3)
- to develop human resources (c.f. 2,2, 4.3)

- to increase economic growth (c.f. 4.3)
- to reduce and minimize social and political instability (c.f. 4.3)

Phase 4: Organization

*** Allocation of resources**

Human and material resources should be used effectively to ensure success of the programme. The service of academically qualified and competent personnel should be employed (c.f. 2.7).

*** Financial Resources**

To avert the financial problems, planners should consider programmes which are geared at "Education with Production" (EWP). EWP attempts to break down the divisions between mental and manual labour and to encourage recipients to sell their skills whilst training (NEPI, 1992:63).

Phase 5: Implementation

As soon as all the first four aspects of planning are effectively attended to the implementation stage could follow. Implementation stage would deal with conditions of admission and the learning process.

- * Governance of the youth programme should be clearly and democratically structured to enhance transparency and accountability. All interested parties even the students, be involved in the running of the programme.
- * Employers should make an undertaking to expose the trainees to the real work situation and to absorb some into the labour market.

Phase 6: Evaluation

It is necessary to evaluate each and every step of planning, to assess the success and/or failures. Phase 1 of the programme should to be evaluated in preparation to the planning phase. Both formative and summative evaluations could be used to ensure effective planning.

Individual aspects from the pre-planning phase should be evaluated against those from the planning phase. e.g. the relation between the geographic area and the out-of-school youth needs from that particular.

Phase 7: Wider application

A pilot programme should be conducted as preliminary stage to wider application. The success of the pilot programme

would determine the continuation of the programme on a larger scale.

5.4 RATIONALE FOR THE GUIDELINES FOR YOUTH NON-FORMAL PROGRAMME

A programme is designed for young school leavers in the North West Province, to help them to play a decisive role in the socio-economic development of the province (c.f. 2.1).

The guidelines for youth non-formal education programme are set from well-founded youth employment needs.

Human resource development and investment costs can be reduced by following appropriate guidelines in programme planning.

5.5. SUMMARY

The guidelines for setting up a youth non-formal education programme are outlined to facilitate an understanding of youth programmes especially for out-of-school and unemployed youth. The main purpose of the guidelines is to ensure a well-representative and stable youth non-formal programme.

Special implications of the guidelines are:

- * All educational stakeholders should be involved in decision-making processes.
- * Consultation and evaluation be regarded as the key to effective planning.
- * Profitability of investing in appropriate guidelines for youth non-formal programme can not be doubted, as it will eventually reduce costs, and improve the socio-economic position of the province.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

A brief summary and the major findings of this study are presented in this chapter. Furthermore a reflection on recommendations is made. An overview of this study is contained in the following summary.

6.2. SUMMARY

The foregoing chapters were used for investigating the needs and concerns of the unemployed youth and issues of planning non-formal programmes that are intended to help solve a social problem, of youth unemployment. This problem is not only individuals' problem but also a national problem, which affects the socio-economic development of the province. The researcher suggested guidelines that could be used in planning, developing and sustaining youth programme in the North West Province. The previous chapters can be summarized as follows:

* Chapter 1

An orientation to the study on out-of-school and unemployed youth in the North West Province was given. Attention was given to the challenges facing the urban and rural youth, with the intention of drawing guidelines which would

enhance efficiency and relevancy to the present socio-economic and political situation in the North West Province.

* Chapter 2

Literature on the different youth non-formal programmes in some developed and developing countries was reviewed. From the literature studies it emerges there are a number of youth programmes which were established in different developed and underdeveloped countries (c.f. 2.4.3). Some of these programmes failed as a result of lack of proper planning (c.f. 2.7.1, 2.7.2).

* Chapter 3

A survey research method was used to gather data from selected subjects. Data identified out-of-school and unemployed youth problems and frustrations which develop into social and political instability.

Out-of-school youth are faced with the problem of being rejected by the community and being referred to as the "lost" or "forgotten" generation.

* Chapter 4

An empirical investigation was conducted to determine the problems of out-of-school and unemployed youth in the North West Province. From the empirical investigation it emerged that out-of-school and unemployed youth have problems that can be ascribed to lack of vocational skills.

* Chapter 5

Guidelines were drawn for the setting up of a youth Non-formal Education Programme.

From this study, there are important findings in each section, that are related to the vocational development of out-of-school youth.

Reference was made to the linear and non-linear models when drawing the guide-lines for the setting up of a youth non-formal education programme.

The main purpose of the guidelines is to establish participatory planning which would ensure legitimacy and credibility.

6.3. RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.3.1. FINDINGS OF AIM 1

With regard to Aim 1, namely to examine current youth non-formal programmes in selected developed and developing countries (c.f. 1.3), the following findings were made:

- * most developed and developing countries established youth non-formal programmes (c.f. 2.4; 2.5; 2.6; 2.7; 2.8).
- * youth non-formal programmes can reduce unemployment (c.f. 2.7.1; 2.7.2).
- * South Africa experiences a high youth drop-out rate from formal schools since 1976. Out-of-school youth must be catered for through non-formal education programmes.

6.3.2. FINDINGS OF AIM 2

With regard to Aim 2, namely to determine the needs and concerns of the youth, with special reference to the

unemployed youth (c.f. 1.3), the following findings were made:

- * most out-of-school youth are actively looking for jobs but can not find them (c.f. 4.3);
- * most of the unemployed youth need money to lead decent lives (c.f. 4.3, 4.4);
- * some out-of-school and unemployed youth stay more than 12 months before they can secure their first occupation (c.f. 4.3);
- * out-of-school and unemployed youth become disillusioned and therefore resort to antisocial conducts like, murder, theft and vandalism (c.f. 4.3, 4.4);
- * most out-of-school youth lack vocational skills (c.f. 4.3) ; and
- * most unemployed youth are willing to be trained in vocational skills (c.f. 4.4, 4.5).

6.3.3. FINDINGS OF AIM 3

With regard to Aim 3, namely to develop guidelines for the setting up of a non-formal youth programme (c.f. 1.3), the

following findings were made:

- * Some youth non-formal programmes failed because of factors which could be attributed to planning (c.f.5.1)
- * Few guidelines for youth non-formal education have been drawn for the "New South Africa" (c.f. 5.4).
- * Guidelines used in other countries may not necessarily be applicable for the North West Province (c.f. 2.7, 2.8).

6.4 Recommendations



Recommendation 1

- All the Stakeholders like the community, the target population, industrialists, educationalists and government be involved in the preparatory planning of the programme.

Motivation

Unilateral decision had been taken in the apartheid era, and they were faced with strong opposition from the people. To reduce

chances of a programme being rejected, all the stakeholders must be drawn into the decision making process.

Recommendation 2

- Re-educate the public in general and the target population in particular, through the parental, business and vocational educators to build a more positive image of those who would have to take vocational education.

Motivation

Alternative education should not be regarded as the last resort for all those who can not make it in academic field. Unless the attitude of the public especially the youth is changed, vocational education would always be looked down upon.

Recommendation 3

- Youth non-formal programmes must link with clear career paths in industry and further education.

Motivation

The background of Adult Basic Education can enable programme participants to gain qualifications which would assist them in subsequent education or employment endeavours.

Recommendation 4

- Unemployed youth and lay people be trained as instructors.

Motivation

By training unemployed youth to become instructors is one way of addressing youth unemployment, and secondly this action can motivate their peers.

Recommendation 5

- A competent and qualified personnel structures be established on all governmental levels i.e. local, provincial and national, for co-ordination of youth non-formal programmes. The personnel must be committed and highly motivated.

Motivation

Non-formal education should not be given second preference by being poorly and under staffed (c.f. 2.10.4). Qualified and competent people should be employed for non-formal education section to be effective and productive.

Recommendation 6

- Education centres like schools, colleges, universities, technical institutions and manpower centres be fully utilized by accommodating youth non-formal programmes after hours.

Motivation

There is a shortage of appropriate centres where youth programmes could be conducted. This being the case, it is suggested that educational institutions be used after hours to accommodate youth non-formal programmes.

Recommendation 7

- Youth non-formal programmes must include Adult Basic Education, for those who left formal schooling before they could reach literacy level and those who have dropped back into illiteracy.

Motivation

With the background of ABE participants can gain qualifications which will assist them in subsequent education or employment endeavours.

6.5 Conclusion

The causes of youth unemployment are interwoven and complex. They are social, educational as well as economical. The solutions need to be designed according to the levels of political governance namely local, regional or provincial. It is evident that immediate action is necessary to address out-of-school and unemployed youth problem.

LIBRARY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- ALEMNEH, D. 1980. A broader concept of development and the role of non-formal education: analysis of three rural development projects. Ann Arbor, University Microfilms International. (Thesis-PhD.)
- ANC. 1993. Draft policy framework for education and training. (Unpublished).
- ANC. 1994. The Reconstruction and Development Programme. Johannesburg: Umanyano Publications.
- ARY, D., Jacobs, L.C. and Razavieh, A. 1990. Introduction to research in education, fourth edition. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.
- BADRI, A.A. 1982. Youth and non-formal Education in the Sudan: An assessment and planning model. Santa Barbara: University of California. (Thesis-PhD.)

- BEHR, A.L. 1988. Education in South Africa. Pretoria: Academica.
- BISHOP, G. 1989. Alternative strategies for education. London: Macmilliam Publishers.
- BODENSTEIN COMMISSION, 1986. Education for Popagano: Report of the Second National Education Mmabatho.
- BOONE, E.J. 1985. Developing programs in Adult education. England: Englewood Cliffs, N.J. Trentice - Hall.
- BOPHUTHATSWANA, 1991 - 1993. Department of Education: Annual Reports.
- BRAUNGART, R.G. and Braungart, M.M. 1989. Youth status and national development: a global assessment in the 1980s. Journal of youth and adolescence, 18, (2): 27.
- BROCKINGTON, D. and WHITE, R. 1983. UNITED KINGDOM: non-formal education in a context of youth unemployment. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- CACHALIA, C. 1992. New plan to solve education crisis. New Nation; 6-8 March, 6-8.

CAFFARELLA, R.S. 1991. Judging the quality of work-related, self-directed learning. Adult education quarterly, 42(91) 17-29.

CALLAWAY, A. 1971. Educational planning and unemployed youth. Paris: Unesco.

CANTOR, L.M. and Roberts, I.F. 1983. Further education today. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

BRIEVE, F.J., Johnston, A.P. and Young K.M. 1973. Educational Planning. Worthington: Charles A. Jones Publishing Company.

CAREER RESEARCH AND INFORMATION CENTRE, 1993. Unemployment. Journeyman, 11, Nov.: 17-18.

CHARLE, J. 1994. New government plan on education. Sowetan, May 19:1.

CHRISTIE, P. 1988. The right to learn. Braamfontein: Ravan Press.

CLIVE, G. 1988/9 Perspectives in Education. Adult education
quartarly. 10 (2): 1-15.

COETZEE, D.F. 1990. Illiteracy in South Africa: Some
preventative policies and strategies from a development
perspective. (A paper presented at a conference on
literacy and basic adult education in South Africa:
Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council).

COLLINS, M. 1991. Adult Education as vocation: A critical
role for the adult education. London: Routledge.

COMMANDAY, P.M. 1993. Partnerships across school levels. The
Education Digest. 15-18 December.

COOMBS, P.H. 1965. Education and foreign aid: ways to improve
United States foreign educational aid. Cambridge:
Harvard University Press.

COOMBS, P.H. 1974. Attacking rural poverty: how non-formal
education can help. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins V.P.

COOMBS, P.H. 1974. Major problems facing educational planning
in the next decade. Paris: Unesco.

COOMBS, P.H. 1985. Non-formal education: comparative studies.
London: Oxford Pergamon Press.

COOMBS, P.H. 1990. Practical uses of non-formal education: an international perspective. (A paper delivered at the conference of Literacy and basic adult education in South Africa. H.S.R.C. Pretoria).

COOMBS, P.H. and AHMED, M. 1973. New paths to learning for rural children and youths. Paris: UNESCO.

COOMBS, P.H. and AHMED, M. 1974. Attacking Rural poverty. How non-formal education can help. London: The Johns Hopkins University Press.



DEARMAN, W.M. 1993. Career opportunity programme in Springfield, Massachusetts, as a prototype. Dissertation Abstracts International, 52 (2) 1993:401 August.

De CLERCQ, F. 1986. The role of non-formal education in developing countries. Popagano, 13 (1): 3.

EDWARDS, T. 1984. The youth training Scheme: a new curriculum? Episode 1. London: The Falmer Press.

EGGLESTON, J., LESHLEY, H., KAUR, A. and SHEA, S. 1992. Re-education for employment: Programmes for uneducation of black adults. London: Trentham Books Limited.

ENDORF, M. and McNEFF, M. 1991. The adult learner, five types. Adult learning, 36, May.

ERICKSON, J.B. 1986. Non-formal education. Children today: 17-25, 15 Jan/Feb.

EVANS, D.R. 1981. The planning of non-formal education. Paris: UNESCO.

EVANS, K.M. 1968. Planning small-scale research. London: King, Throne and stace Ltd.

EVANS, K.M. 1977. Young adults in unversity Adult Education. The Journal Announcement, 49(3):9-11.

FELL, D.G. 1989. Providing economic education. A model partnership between education and the private sector Adult Learning, 1 (2) 15-17 Oct.

FORMAN, I. 1991 Post-Apartheid education in Zimbabwe. The Educational Journal, (1): 4-6, Jan-Febr.

FORRESTER, K. and WARD, K. 1991. Unemployment, education and training: case studies from North America and Europe. California: Caddo Press Inc.

FOURIE, J.J. 1980. Adult education, literacy campaigns and relevant educational adaptations for community development in Africa. Part II. Bloemfontein: University of the Orange Free State.

FRENCH, E. 1982. The promotion of literacy in South Africa. Pretoria: H.S.R.C.

FRENCH, E. 1992. Adult Literacy in South Africa: Past to present. (In Hutton, B. Adult Basic Education in South Africa. Cape Town: Oxford University).

GAORETELELWE, M.J. 1994. Official opening of the adult education workshop by the MEC for education in the North West Province: (A paper presented at St Joseph) Lomanyaneng.

GAUN, J. 1994. Matric graduates. The Citizen: 23, May 27

GAY, L.R. 1990. Educational Research Competencies for analysis and application, third edition. Merrill: Macmillan Publishing Company.

GERWEL, J. 1992. Constructing a new education system, Back to Learning: (The national education conference. Braamfontein. Sached Ravan Press).

GERWEL, J. 1992. Keynote Address: Back to learning: (The National Education Conference 1992 Pretoria. Sigma Press).

GILIOMEE, H. and SCHLEMMER, L. 1989. From Apartheid to Nation- building. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

GORMAN, E.L. 1991. Developing a continuing education program for older learner in Edmonton. Dissertation Abstracts International. 52(2) 401.

HAMADACHE, A. 1991. Non-formal education: a definition of the concept and some examples. Prospects, 21 (1): 111-124.

- HOOPER, W. 1984. Research project on youth, non-formal training and employment in Lusaka, Zambia. IDS Bulletin, 15(4), : 2-6.
- HOXENG, J. 1973. Let Jorge do it: an approach to rural non-formal education. Massachusetts: University of Massachusetts.
- HOLT, M. 1987. Skills and vocationalism: the easy answer. Philadelphia: Open university press.
- HUTTON, B. 1992. Adult Basic Education in South Africa. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- JAVIS, P. 1990. An international dictionary for adult and continuing education. New York: Routledge Ltd.
- KANNEL, S.J. 1989. Program Planning for the future: Adult Learning, 1 (1): 120.
- KARODIA, Y.M. 1986. Non-formal education for Blacks in the Durban area Pretoria: UNISA (Thesis-M.Ed).

KIZITO, R. 1993. The problems of the post-school youth today.

Popagano, 14 (2) : 15-17.

KNOWLES, M.S 1985. Andragogy in action. San Francisco:

Jossey - Bass Publishers.

KNUDSON, H.R. 1978. Organizational behaviour: a management

approach. Cambridge: Winthrop Publishers.

KOTZE, A. von. 1991. Training grassroots educators: provision
of non-formal adult education in the Durban region.

Convergence, 24 (4): 16-24.

KOWALSKI, T.J. 1988. The organization and planning of Adult

Education. New York: State University of New York Press.

KREED, L. 1993. The Education renewal strategy. The

educational journal (2) : 6-8.

KROSS, R. 1988. Unemployment in South Africa: the hidden

realities. The educational journal, (8): 120-126.

KRUGER, C.J.H. 1986. Non-formal education in the developing

states in the South African context. Bloemfontein:

University of Orange Free State.

KRUGER, E.K. 1990. The Gordian Knot in South African Education. Popagano, 11 (1): 4.

La BELLE, T. 1988. Non-formal education for industrialization in Latin America: The human capital approach. The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, (3). Sept: 203-214.

LAFLAMME, C. and Baby, A. 1993. Intergration of youth into the labour market: Some theoretical considerations on a structural/conjunctural issue. The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, (1) March: 151-160.

LEGOTLO, M.W. 1988. Survey of occupational outcomes of the Std 10 graduates in Bophuthatswana, with special reference to the unemployment problem. Mmabatho: University of Bophuthatswana (Thesis-M.Ed).

LEGOTLO, M.W. 1992. Adult education issues: Observations in the field. Popagano, 13 (1) June: 19-22.

LEGOTLO, M.W. 1994. An induction programme for newly-appointed school principals in Bophuthatswana. Potchefstroom: University of Potchefstroom. (Thesis- PhD)

LEKHELA COMMISSION, 1978. Education for Popagano: Report on the National Education Commission, Mmabatho.

LETSEBE, T. 1994. Thousands unemployed. The mail September, 30(12).

LUNGWANGWA, G. 1987. Basic Education in Zambia: a study in education policy development. Illionois: Xerographic process. (Dissertation-PhD.)

LYSTER, E. 1992. An overview of the debates in Adult Basic Education in South Africa: Literacy, English as a Second Language and Numeracy, Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

MANAMELA, N.N. 1993. Acquisition of basic human skills as the foundation for the development of self-confidence: Prospects for economic empowerment. Popagano, 14 (2) 12.

MAZENGERA, K.E. 1989. The necessity of teaching Agriculture in Bophuthatswana Schools. Popagano, 10 (1): 14-16.

MEINTJIES, F. 1992. Bringing back a culture of learning. In Back to Learning. (The National Education Conference 1992. Pretoria: Sigma Press).

MOLETSANE, R.I.M. 1979. Complementary functions of formal and non-formal education, in Lesotho. London: Microfilms International. (Dissertation-DED).

MOLOSIWA, S.M. 1992. Department of Education 1991. Annual Report. Mmabatho: Craft Press.

MOLOSIWA, S.M. 1993. Department of Education 1992. Annual Report. Mmabatho: Craft Press.

MOUNLY, G.L. 1978. Education Research. The art and science of investigation. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

NEEDHAM, V. 1991. Post-apartheid Education: a concept in process. The Educational Journal, (3): 15-17.

NEPI, 1992. Human Resources Development. Cape Town: Oxford University Press/NECC.

- NEPI, 1993. Education Planning System and Structure. Cape Town: Oxford University Press/NECC.
- NOMADOLO, M. 1992. Education for Liberation. City Press June 14: 11.
- NUM conference on education resolution 1991. The Crisis in Education. The Educational Journal, (1): 8-12.
- NYATHI, M.M. 1984. Non-formal education development in the Republic of Transkei. London: Cardiff. (Dissertation-M.Ed.)
- O'CONNOR, T. 1984. Non-formal education and national development: a critical assessment of policy, research and practice. Educational Studies, 15: 415-419.
- PATRIDGE, T. 1993. "Ponch" Motsoahae-managing Bop's greatest asset. Bophuthatswana Pioneer, 15 (15): 9-12.
- PATERSON, A.N.M. 1992. Adult and non-formal education: Some issues for the future. Discussion paper. March.

PATERSON, A. and ROUHANI, S. 1989. "The Story is by no means over." A case study of the Kanye Bridgades in Botswana. Perspectives in Education, 11(1): 37-49.

PHAAN-THUY, L. 1985. Employment and Training schemes for rural youth: learning from experience. International Labour Review, 124, (4): 435-446.

PEASE, J. 1990. Participative construction of knowledge. The basis for a discourse of relevance. (Conference on Literacy and Basic Adult Education in South Africa. 5 - 7 Sept. 1990. Pretoria: H.S.R.C).

**NWU
LIBRARY**

PERSAUD, D. and MADAK, P. 1992. Graduates and drop-outs: comparing perceptions of self, family and school supports. The Alberta Journal of Education Research, (3), September.

PETER, J.M., JAVIS, P. 1991. Adult Education, San Francisco: Jossey-Boss Publishers.

PRUSENT, N.E. 1993. Unemployment Journey-man. November. (Department of manpower former Bophuthatswana).

QUINLAN, R.A. 1989. Programming for mature learners. Adult Learning. 214-216.

ROBERTS, K. 1988. The restructuring of work entry and the redefinition of guidance issues. Prospects, (4), 451-453.

RODDA, Y.D.J. and MAREKA, C.L. 1990. Conference on literacy and basic adult education in Southern Africa. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

ROSS, J. 1981. Education for Popagano. Perspectives in Education, 15 (1): 14-16 March.

ROSS, K. 1988. Unemployment in South Africa. The Educational Journal,: 112:7.

ROTH, M. 1990. Adult literacy in Bophuthatswana. Mmabatho: University of Bophuthatswana.

SAX, G. 1979. Foundations of Educational Research. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.

- SEFFIELD, J.R. 1972. Non-formal education in African development. New York: African-American Institute.
- SINGH, R.P. 1987. Non-formal education: alternative approach. India: Sterling publication.
- SLAVIN, R.E. 1984. Research Methods in Education: a practical guide. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- SMITH, F.B. 1983. Young adult drop-out in high school equivalency: a case study of a distinctive student subpopulation. Dissertation Abstract International, 44(11) :3248-3249.
- SCHOEMAN, S. 1984. Development and non-formal education. Africa insight, 15: 47-55.
- SIMKINS, S. 1976. Village Polytechnics. Adult Education Quarterly, 20 (4): 7-12.
- SLAVIN, R.E. 1984. Research Methods in Education: a practical guide. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.

- SMITH, F.B. 1983. Young adult drop-outs in high school equivalency: a case study of a distinctive student sub population. Dissertation Abstract International 44(11):3248-3249.
- SKAGER, R. 1979. Lifelong education and evaluation practice. Hamburg: UNESCO.
- SPENCER-COOKE, B. 1989. Conditions of participation in rural, non-formal education programme: A Delphi study Educational Media International, 26,: 115-124.
- STONE, H.S. 1984. The importance of non-formal adult learning in planning education for development. Perspectives in Adult Learning and Development, 5 (1): 14-17.
- TEACHERS' LEAGUE OF SOUTH AFRICA, 1991. The Education Crisis (ii), The Educational Journal, (3): 7-10.
- TIGHT, M. 1990. Adult learning and Education. London: Ronteledge.
- TOWNSEND, C.E.K. 1977. Adult Education in developing countries. 2nd Edition. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

TOWNSEND, C.E.K. 1988. Let the people learn: the establishment of a Department of non-formal education in Botswana. Mmabatho: Direct Estate Ltd Printers.

UNESCO. 1978. Experiments and innovations in education. No. 36: Basic Services for children: a continuing search for learning priorities. Paris: UNESCO.

VALENTINE, S. 1992. Equality and skills needed-Gerwel. New Nation, : 17 March. 27.

VALENTINE, S. 1992. Getting employers to play their part. New Nation, 27 March-2 April: 20.

Van der STOEP, F. 1984. Non-formal education. Pretoria: Codex.

VERMAAK, D. 1985. Education and development: the role of non-formal education, especially in developing countries. Development studies Southern Africa, 2: 411-421.

VREY, J.D. 1979. The self-actualising educand. Pretoria: UNISA.

VULLIAMY, G., LEWIN, K. and STEPHEN, D. 1990. Doing educational research in developing countries: qualitative strategies. London: The Falmer Press.

WALTERS, S. 1990. Non-formal educational organisation and the South African State: present and future relations. (A paper read at conference on literacy and basic adult education in South Africa, September 1990).

WANJALA, A, 1975. A case study of the village polytechnics of Kenya Adult education quarterly, 35(3): 112-120.

WIERSMA, W. 1991. Research Methods in Education: An Introduction. Fifth Edition. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

WINFIELD, L.F. 1991. Resilience, schooling and development in African-American Youth. Education urban society, 24(1) Nov: 87-91.

Yonge, G.D. Andragogy and pedagogy: Two ways of Adult Education Quarterly, 35 (3): 27-30.

ZACHARAKIS-JUTZ, J. and SCHIED, F.M. 1993. Workers' education, social reconstruction and adult education. Adult Education Quarterly, 43 (2): 25.

APPENDIX A

P.O. Box 247
MABOPANE
0100

30 August 1994

NEW
LIBRARY

Dear Respondent

QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE GUIDELINES FOR SETTING UP A YOUTH NON-FORMAL PROGRAMME:

South Africa, particularly the North West Province, experiences high drop-out rates which increases youth unemployment. The problem requires effective and immediate attention. The questionnaire will help to identify the needs and concerns of the young drop-outs.

I therefore request you, to co-operate with me in trying to find a solution to this problem. I would urge you to complete the questionnaire and return it in the enclosed addressed envelope by September, 30 1994.

Individual responses will be kept confidential. The data from this survey will be made available to all participants on request. Completed questionnaires may be send to the above mentioned address. Should you require any additional information, feel free to contact me at:- 8343 Unit M, Mabopane or phone (01461)36406 (W) Your co-operation is greatly appreciated.

Yours faithfully

Ramotshabi Tlhoaele

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Please answer the following questions by crossing X on the appropriate block.

1.1. Your age category in years

below - 15
16 - 20
21 - 25
26 - 30
above - 30

	1
	2
	3
	4
	5

1.2. Sex male
 female

	1
	2

1.3. Type of settlement where you stay
 rural
 urban

	1
	2

1.4. Marital status

never married/single
married
separated
divorced

	1
	2
	3
	4

1.5. What is your highest academic qualification.

below Std 7
below Std 10
Std 10 without exemption
Std 10 with exemption
Degree e.g. B.A

	1
	2
	3
	4
	5

SECTION B

NEEDS AND PROBLEMS OF THE YOUTH

2.1. When did you leave formal schooling (education)
 last year i.e. 1993

end of 1992
end of 1991
end of 1990
before 1990

	1
	2
	3
	4
	5

2.2. Were you ever enrolled with adult education, or any out-of-school education programme

yes
no

	1
	2

2.3. Are you employed?

yes
no

	1
	2

2.4. Were you ever employed?

yes
no

	1
	2

2.5. If ever employed, how did you lose your job?

staff deduction
misconduct (dismissal)
disinvestment
(pulling out of the country)
liquidation (closing down)

	1
	2
	3
	4
	5

Any other causes (specify) _____

2.6. If ever employed or presently employed, at what age did you secure your first job (occupation)?

before 15yrs
15 - 20yrs
21 - 25yrs
26 - 30yrs
above 30yrs

	1
	2
	3
	4
	5

2.7. Employment "lag" (period without job and before securing first job)

6 months or less
7 months - 12 months
13 months and more

	1
	2
	3

2.8. If still unemployed, for how long have you been without a full-time job?

1 month 2yrs
3 yrs 4yrs
5 yrs - 6yrs
more than - 6yrs

	1
	2
	3
	4

2.9. Are you presently looking for a job?

yes
no

	1
	2

2.10. Where are you looking for a job? e.g. industries, mines, farms. _____

2.11. Are you willing to do work involving manual labour?

yes
no

	1
	2

2.12. Are you only willing to do work that interests you and uses your education and skills?

yes
no

	1
	2

2.13. Were you available for full-time paid employment immediately after leaving school?

yes
no

	1
	2

2.14. Did you obtain an offer of a full-time job before you left school?

yes
no

	1
	2

2.15. Are you certificated in any vocational skill(s)? e.g. brick-laying, welding.

yes
no

	1
	2

2.16. Would you like to be trained in vocational skill(s)?

yes
no

	1
	2

2.17. Can you afford to pay for your training?

yes
no

	1
	2

2.18. If yes, how much can you afford per annum?

less than R200,00

R200,00 - R500,00

R500,00 and more

	1
	2
	3

2.19. What are your main employment needs e.g. to be self-employed, to do office work, become a farmer?

SECTION C

GENERAL INFORMATION

3.1. Do you have the ability and skills to start your own business?

yes
no

	1
	2

3.2. If yes, what type of a business would you opt for

3.3. What causes youth unemployment

3.4. Name three major challenges facing unemployed youth?

3.5. What can be done, to create more jobs for the unemployed youth.

THANK YOU

28 Districts Making up North West Province

