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**EXPERIENCE AND REALITIES OF UNEMPLOYED YOUTH IN
KEISKAMMAHOEK, EASTERN CAPE.**

By

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Research, Faculty of Social and Humanities at the University of Fort Hare**

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Declaration

I, Lubabalo Makapela, declare that this dissertation is the product of my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university and that all the sources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references. It is submitted for the degree of Master of Social Science Degree in African Studies at Fort Hare Institute of Social and Economic Research at the University of Fort Hare, East London.



Signature

19/06/2017

Date

Dedication

To my wife, Ibongwe, my children, Lulibo and Lunika, and my mother, Thenjiwe:
“without you guys, I would have not been able to pursue my studies further”.

Abstract

This study examines the experiences and realities of unemployed youths in Keiskammahoek, in the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa. It looks at the challenges that are experienced by unemployed youths in Keiskammahoek, an area which already has high volume of unemployment. It also explores the factors that account for unemployment amongst the youths in this area. The study adopted a qualitative research approach and the data was collected through semi-structured interviews and observations. Purposive sampling was utilised to collect data from 22 participants who included the rural youths, professionals and decision-makers. The findings of this study reveal that the majority of youths are unskilled and are not easily absorbed in different sectors of the economy. This study recommends that the government needs to target and maximize programmes that are supported by social and economic policies for young people's benefit in order to alleviate the youth unemployment challenges.

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List of Abbreviations

BEE	- Black Economic Empowerment
BBBEE	- Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment
DALA	- Department of Agriculture and Land Affairs
DFI	- Development Finance Institutions
DLA	- Department of Land Affairs
DRDLR	- Department of Rural Development and Land Reform
DRDA	- Department of Rural Development and Agrarian
ECSECC	- Eastern Cape Socio Economic Consultative Council
ECRDA	- Eastern Cape Rural Development Agency
ECRDS	- Eastern Cape Rural Development Strategy
EDD	- Economic Development Department
EPWP	- Expanded Public Works Programme
GDP	- Gross Domestic Product
GEAR	- Growth Employment and Redistribution
IYDS	- Integrated Youth Development Strategy
ISRDS	- Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy
IOL	- International Labour Organization
LFS	- Labour Force Survey
NARYSEC	- National Rural Youth Service Corps
NYP	- National Youth Policy
NYDA	- National Youth Development Agency

NDP	- National Development Plan
YARD	- Youth in Agriculture and Rural Development
RDP	- Reconstruction and Development Programme
SOE	- State Owned Enterprise
UN	- United Nations
UNDP	- United Nations Development Programme

CHAPTER 1: Overview of the Study

1.1 Introduction

This study explores the experiences and realities of unemployed youths in Tshoxa village in Keisimmahoek, Eastern Cape, South Africa. This inquiry has been inspired by the increasing challenges that are facing the youths in contemporary South Africa. The youths of South Africa are faced by many socio-economic challenges such as high rate of unemployment, HIV/Aids, teenage pregnancy, lack of skills, crime and alcohol and drug abuse. Unemployment amongst the youths is prevalent from the time they transition from school to work.

Many rural people, especially the youth and women, seen to be excluded from economic opportunities through employment and this could be because of their minimal involvement in political as well as policy platforms. Due to scarcity of jobs in the rural areas, rural-urban migration has been pursued as an option to seek greener pastures in towns. Statistics South Africa's (Statistics South Africa, 2012) reports show high volumes of migration of rural youth to urban spaces or towns/cities in search of livelihood. It is generally believed that chances of getting employment, access to resources, useful networks, and knowledge is higher in urban areas. The World Bank (1991:1) emphasizes on the importance of knowledge acquisition in order to resolve a plethora of challenges such as poverty and unemployment amongst others.

1.2 Background of the study

This study examines the experiences of unemployed youths in rural areas of Keiskammahoek in the Eastern Cape Province. According to the African Youth Charter (2006) the concept youth or a young person refers to every person between the ages of 15 and 35 years. The National Youth Development Agency Act, 2008, defines youth as a person between the ages of 14 and 35 (African Youth Charter, 2006, pg. 3),

and this is the definition adopted in this study. The problem of unemployment amongst the youths seems to be spread all over the country. Hence, there is an alarming number of youths that are unemployed in South Africa today. Statistical reports (2014) indicates that the number of youth unemployment increased significantly from 32.7% to 36.1% between 2008 and 2014, while young adults made up between 52% to 64% of the working population (STATS, 2014, pg. 90). Therefore, youth unemployment is a challenge that seems to be dominating in South Africa, particularly in rural areas. One of the means of addressing youth unemployment is to invest in educating the youth. Moser (1996) asserts that although education is a household investment, the ability of a household to sustain this long-term investment may be hampered by short-term and intermediate-term economic difficulties and labour demands. For instance, an adolescent's unwanted pregnancy does not only endanger the long-term investment made in a daughter's education (NRC, 1993), but also creates additional financial strain that poor households may be unable to handle.

Although in many settings having a child marks the end of schooling for girls, a policy formalized in South Africa in 1996 but informally upheld previously by some school principals allows pregnant girls to stay in school. It also allows young mothers to do so if they can manage logistically and financially (Kaufman, Tanre, Dubovik, Kanieli & Remer, 2001). This policy, although not universally enforced, is credited with the observed lack of gender differences in total educational attainment and is believed to contribute to the observed delay before the birth of a second child to adolescent mothers in South Africa.

Lack of skills development amongst young people without any skills is much more likely to lead to many unemployed young people (structural unemployment). A report by Centre for cities (2009) suggests there is a correlation between youth unemployment and poor GCSE results in Maths and English. To some extent, the service sector has offered more unskilled jobs such as bar work, supermarket checkout and waitressing. However, the nature of the labour market is that many young people lack the necessary skills and training to impress employers.

The Survey by Centre for cities (2009) found 52% of them cited environmental or market factors, 47% mentioned a lack of technical competencies or hard skills, and 46% cited a lack of available applicants or no applicants at all for the position. Thirty percent of South African employers cited lack of industry-specific qualifications or certifications in terms of skilled trades as a challenge, while 26% mentioned lack of candidate experience. Furthermore, 19% of employers identified organizational factors as an issue, while 15% cited industry-specific qualifications and certification, in terms of professionals as a challenge.

South Africa's continued skills deficit is being compounded by a lack of technical skills, which has a negative impact on employment across many sectors of the country's economy. Furthermore, there is a high instance of poverty among South African youth, leaving millions unable to pursue secondary and tertiary education or training, which presents a challenge in terms of their skills development and employment prospects. (Manpower South Africa's Annual Survey, 2013)

The Human Capital refers to properties of an individual's knowledge and skills derived from education, talents, training and experience (Dube, 2011). The development of individuals as human capital has the following benefits: a) The contribution they can make to society by virtue of being educated; b) The contribution made by being educated and, therefore, employed or employable individuals to their immediate environment (themselves and their families) c) Their contribution to the global competitiveness of their country. A country with high levels of economically active people gives individuals broader chances of employment since job growth will not come from labour market interventions alone. Macro-economic and growth policies are fundamental. Nevertheless, there are some gains to be made from: addressing skill mismatches (through education, training and immigration policy), facilitating job search (e.g. through unemployment benefits), promoting entrepreneurship, targeting active labour market measures (PES, training & wage subsidies) to incentivize employers to hire young people and increasing labour market flexibility (Saldru, 2009).

Due to increasing levels of unemployment amongst the youths, crime is become a challenge in the communities. Faull (2012) argues that South Africa is one of the most violent countries in the world, and the core of the problem with violent crime is a “subculture of violence and criminality”. Factors that contribute to the high rates of violent crime in the country include: inequality, poverty, unemployment and marginalisation; the vulnerability of young people, which is linked to poor child rearing and youth socialisation; values related to violent crime, such as ambivalence towards the law and the normalisation of violence, over-dependence on an inefficient criminal justice system, and not enough emphasis on other approaches to prevent violent crime. Twenty- one percent of suspects in murders that resulted from an argument, and 31% of suspects in crime-related murders were 19 years old or younger. This indicates that the problem of violent crimes, including serious violent crime, is associated in part with young offenders (Parker, 2010). Research shows that young people constitute the majority of the population who commit crime (Muncie, 2009). Unemployment may lead to several factors, which may, in turn, force people to take the path of crime. For instance, unemployment may lead to social vices such as poverty and malnutrition, which may make some people turn towards crime.

In South Africa, strategies and interventions mostly related to training and education are spearheaded by various government and civil society groups in order to reduce levels and exposure to crime. To create more jobs, it is critical for the economy to achieve more rapid, sustained and inclusive growth. Strong economic growth between 2003 and 2008 helped to create more than 2 million jobs and lowered the unemployment rate from 27.1 per cent in 2003 to 21.9 per cent in 2008. Employment scenarios conducted by the National Treasury suggest that the moderate recovery projected in the 2011 Budget Review may only create 1.7 million jobs over the next five years. Without accelerated and sustained economic growth and a high employment-absorptive capacity of that growth, unemployment is likely to remain high. However, there is scope for interventions to accelerate this process by mitigating some of the impediments to job creation. Considerable evidence exists that young people are disadvantaged in the labour market.

The shortfalls in the education system constrain prospects of young people, leaving them ill-equipped for the workplace, in many cases without basic competencies (National Treasury, 2011). It has been noted that apart from education and skills challenge, young people also lack work experience, which provides critical on-the-job learning and training, contact with the job market and the potential to develop networks (an important factor in improving employment prospects). Experience is vital because a young person with some work experience is in a far better situation than one without. Together, these contribute to a gap between entry-level real wages and productivity, which is particularly large for young entry-level workers and deters firms from hiring young workers whose productivity they cannot adequately assess (National Treasury, 2011).

The importance of a job lies not only in the income that is earned and the skills that are acquired, but also in the intangible and invaluable benefits it provides including dignity, independence, accomplishment and freedom. Inclusion requires that people have the opportunity to work and make a productive contribution to the economy and society, whatever their race, age, gender and educational background. Very few, particularly among the young and the less skilled, have this opportunity. For South Africa to become more inclusive, more people need to work. The most obvious example of insiders and outsiders in the economy is between those that have jobs and those that are unemployed and non-economically active. South Africa faces the harsh reality that not enough people work, and out of a population of some 50 million people, there are only 13.1 million employed. Poverty, inequality and social inequities stem from the exclusion of the majority from the labour market. Higher employment and economic participation would help make progress in reducing poverty and income inequality in South Africa.

1.3 Research problem

The South African government made a decision to transform the economic structure that existed before 1994 to a more encompassed structure that would address the inequalities and poverty in the country, specifically for the youth because the South

African government believed that the youth are the country's future leaders (Rodrick, 2006:1). However to date, there still exists many rural youths that are unemployed despite the existence of these programmes (Economic Transformation, 2012:3).

The study focuses on the following important fundamentals; the employment status and financial independence of young people; assesses young people's level of and access to education and skills development; poverty, fertility and mortality levels; young people's access to housing, water, and electricity and other household amenities, and healthcare and measures their satisfaction with life in general. Morrow (2005) argued that South Africa has made progress in institutionalizing youth development, as a 'precondition for systematic advancement', but concerns about the marginalization of youth, first voiced in the late 1980s and early 1990s, still persist in the form of unemployment, poverty, inequality and for the most part, poor education systems, family and community disintegration, and exposure to crime and violence. Morrow (2005) further said that HIV/AIDS is clearly at the forefront on the list of challenges facing youth and seemingly political and civic disengagement are also a cause for concern of this viral epidemic disease.

It is highly paradoxical that although there is generally a linear relationship between the level of education and employment, from 1995 the largest growth in unemployment has been among those with matriculation and tertiary education, graduates have been worst affected and this has been related to the fields of study chosen and perceptions around the quality of education gained from historically disadvantaged institutions (STATSSA, 2006). Morrow (2005) contends that research shows that unemployed people often experience feelings of low self-esteem resulting from not being involved in activities that are valued by other people. Kalule-Sabiti (2001) argues that young people in rural areas are less likely to overcome poverty mainly due to poor education and lack of basic infrastructure, young people often react to lack of opportunities in their areas by moving in numbers to urban areas and due to the fact that most of these young people lack skills that will enable them to be absorbed in the urban economy, they get confined to the margins of the city in informal settlements.

Cantillon (1997) contends that youth poverty is linked to overall poverty in society. About 40% of South Africans live in poverty, South Africa is also characterized by high-income disparities and it is also acknowledged that urban–rural location plays a key role in the distribution of poverty, as the majority of the poor are concentrated in rural areas, young people are especially vulnerable to poverty an estimated 17 million of children and youth under the age of 18 in South Africa are likely to be living in poverty, youth poverty in South Africa, like child poverty, is passed on from one generation to another.

Kok (2003) observes that migration is classified into two categories, that of migrants ‘proper’ and that of labor migrants, the difference between migration and labor migration is the motive for relocation, for example labor migration is often used to identify the migrants that move in search of employment, migrants ‘proper’ are those who move as family units, not all in search of work but rather in support of someone who has obtained employment and a labor migrant is often a single person (one person) who goes in search of employment, migrant laborers decrease with increasing income whereas migration “proper” increases with the increase of income and the gender specifications differ for these two types of migration as females are more inclined to migration ‘proper’ than labor migration, whereas their male counterparts are more likely to migrate for labor purposes.

The problem of such identified rural youth unemployment by various sources is that it is researched and presented mostly as mere statistics and does not dig deep into the actual experiences of youth as well as the realities that they encounter. The focus on youth unemployment is thus motivated by the fact that young people are the biggest cohort of new job seekers and are therefore the most vulnerable group with regard to unemployment. The youths are the future of South Africa, and hence they challenges need to be investigated and solutions appraised.

1.4 Research objectives

1. To investigate the causes of high rate of unemployment amongst youths in Keiskammahoek.
2. To investigate the challenges experienced by the unemployed youths in Keiskammahoek.
3. To investigate the alternative livelihood strategies for unemployed youths in Keiskammahoek.

1.5 Research questions

1. What are the causes of high unemployment rate amongst youths in Keiskammahoek?
2. What are the challenges that are experienced by unemployed youths of Keiskammahoek?
3. What are the alternative livelihood strategies for unemployed youths in Keiskammahoek?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study would shed light on the unemployment challenges that are faced by rural youth in Keiskammahoek. The results of this study would shed light on unemployment and other related issues, and this would generate knowledge that could influence policy planning and implementation. This study also provides some key information that could motivate for the implement ventures. The study also seeks to identify the livelihood strategies and opportunities for rural unemployed youth in Keiskammahoek, and this could shed light on similar settings elsewhere in the country. This study would make recommendation that could assist the government and private sector on effective programmes that would make an impact to rural youth unemployment in Keiskammahoek.

1.7 Limitation of the Study

Limitation of the study – Although the research has reached its aims there were some unavoidable limitations such as time and funding the research was conducted only a small size of population of young people who were available in Keiskammahoek for this study due to loss of hope by the unemployed youths it discouraged their participations interest and motivation.

1.8 Delimitation of the Study

Delimitation of the study – This study outcome focused on Keiskammahoek unemployed youths between the ages of 14 to 35 years.

1.9 Chapter Outline

The outline of the study chapters is as follows:

Chapter 1 – Overview of the study: This chapter deals with introducing the study, background of the study, research problem, research questions, research objectives and outline of dissertation.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review and Theoretical Framework: This chapter discusses literature and theoretical framework on the following topics: Critical Social Theory of Youth Empowerment, Individual and Collective, Youth Development and Empowerment Program Model and Waithood and Youth and Gender.

Chapter 3 – This chapter details the Research Methodology that was adopted in this study. This includes the Research Approach, Study Population, Data Analysis, Validity and Ethical Consideration.

Chapter 4 – This chapter presents data as well as analysing it. The themes that are presented in this study are more of profiling the youths in Keiskammahoek.

Chapter 5 – This chapter discusses the youths in waiting by looking at realities of unemployment that the youths face each day as well as the livelihood strategies that they are pursuing in order to sustain their lives.

Chapter 6 – Presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature by other scholars on related issues. It also highlights theoretical framework on youth unemployment. Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painters (2006) state that literature review involves more than merely citing as many sources as possible. It should highlight pertinent literature and contribute to the field by providing a novel and focused reading of the literature. It begins by outlining the theoretical framework undergirding the study and then reviews available literature on studies done on the topic. As outlined by White (2003:36), this chapter will provide a substantially better insight into the dimensions and complexity of the problem and how others have contributed to the topic. A variety of sources was used to review literature, including research reports, dissertations, government publications and theses accessed through journals, textbooks and internet. The topics that the chapter covers are: Models of Empowerment, Youth Development and Empowerment Program Model, Social Capital and Youth Empowerment, Financial Capital and Enterprise Development, Rural Urban Migration of Youth, Homelessness the paradox between rural and urban youth, Youth Development, Waithood Youth and Gender.

2.2 Education and Unemployment

Chingunta (2002) argues that the main challenge is to provide job opportunities for the youth where the estimated unemployment level is in excess of 60%. This can be achieved through education; however, the level and quality of education in South Africa is one of the worst in the world. Spaul (2013) argues that the South African education, and that the current system, is failing the majority of South Africa's youth. By using a variety of independently conducted assessments of pupil achievement, the national treasury report (2011) shows that – with the exception of a wealthy minority – most South African pupils cannot read, write and compute at grade-appropriate levels, with large proportions being functionally illiterate and innumerate.

As far as educational outcomes go, South Africa has the worst education system of all middle-income countries that participate in cross-national assessments of educational achievement. To make it worse, it performs worse than many low-income African countries. The statistics from the annually-reported National Senior Certificate (NSC) exam in Grade 12 are particularly misleading since they do not take into account those pupils who never make it to that point. Of 100 pupils that start school, only 50 will make it to Grade 12, 40 will pass, and only 12 will qualify for university.

Those 18-24-year-olds who do not acquire some form of post-secondary education are at a distinct economic disadvantage and not only struggle to find full-time employment, but also have one of the highest probabilities of being unemployed for sustained periods of time, if not permanently. While there have been some recent improvements in pupil outcomes, as well as some important policy innovations, the picture that emerges time and again is both dire and consistent. However, one chooses to measure learner performance, and at whichever grade one chooses to test, the vast majority of South African pupils are significantly below where they should be in terms of the curriculum, and more generally, have not reached a host of normal numeracy and literacy milestones. As it stands, the South African education system is grossly inefficient, severely underperforming and egregiously unfair. South Africa has one of the highest youth unemployment rates in the world (Biavaschi, 2012).

Approximately 50 per cent of all 18-24-year-olds were unemployed by the end of 2011, and the youth currently accounts for about 30 per cent of all the unemployed in the country, despite the fact that the cohort constitutes only 22 per cent of the working-age population. These figures are all the more staggering given that the International Labour Organisation's (ILO) estimates of the global and sub-Saharan youth unemployment rates for 2011 are only 12,6 per cent and 11,5 per cent, respectively (ILO, 2012).

The bleak labour market prospects faced by many of the country's young people is partly attributable to insufficient job creation in the economy since 1994 in conjunction

with long and lengthening job queues – queues which are often already occupied by older, more experience job-seekers (NPC, 2011). However, the severity of South Africa's youth unemployment is largely the result of a pervasive lack of appropriate skills, competencies and work-relevant capacities among young labour market entrants.

The general lack of skills and employability among South Africa's youth is one of the perverse consequences of the poor quality of education received – predominantly by black and coloured pupils – in large segments of the country's primary and secondary schooling systems (Smith, 2011; Cloete, 2009; Sheppard & Cloete, 2009). Moreover, due to the widespread failure of the sector education and training authorises (SETAs), the poor quality of many FET colleges, stringent entry requirements and capacity constraints at higher education institutions, and the 'low participation-high attrition' nature of the tertiary education system as a whole, opportunities for remedial training or further formal skills acquisition after leaving secondary school in South Africa remains limited (Fisher & Scott, 2011; Mayer et al, 2011; Cloete, 2009). Collectively, the aforementioned factors imply that few South African youths manage to successfully transition into employment or tertiary education and training once they have left the secondary schooling system. This reality is reflected in the finding that South Africa had 3,2 million 18-24-year-olds who were not in education, employment or training (NEET) in 2010 – more than double the 1,25 million 18-24-year olds who were enrolled at universities or FET colleges (Cloete & Butler-Adam, 2012).

In fact, Figure 16 on (NPC, 2011) shows that, since 2002, more than 40 per cent of 18-24-year-olds in South Africa have been NEET, with the percentage of youths enrolled in some form of education decreasing by 14 percentage points from 50 percent in 1995 to 36 per cent in 2007. It is alarming to note that with the exception of 1999 to 2002, the percentage of youths in employment has consistently been below 20 per cent over the 1995–2011 periods.

The level of mathematics and science education in the country, as assessed by the Global Competitiveness Report (2014/2015), puts South Africa at #144 of 144 countries.

Unemployment is a major talking point in South Africa with government's National Development Plan targeting a jobless rate of 14 percent by 2020 and 6 percent by 2030. Given the current level sits at 25 percent, there is a lot of work to be done, with many speculating that it is not possible, given the current trend. The latest numbers also do not take into account the impending job cuts expected in the mining sector. Below is an interesting breakdown of the key trends from the second quarter jobs data from Stats SA released the Labour Force Survey (LFS) for Q2 2015.

The LFS is a quarterly household survey specifically designed to measure the dynamics of employment and unemployment in South Africa, including the informal sector as well as small-scale subsistence farmers. The following is a summary of the key trends in the labour market as at Q2 2015. In Q2 2015, there were 35.955 million people aged between 15 and 64 years in SA (up 156,000 relative to Q1 2015, and up 623,000 over the past year). Among these people: 20.887 million were economically active (down 107,000 relative to Q1 2015, and up 639,000 year-on-year) 15.657 million were employed (up 198,000 relative to Q1 2015, and up 563,000 year-on-year) 5.230 million were unemployed (down 305,000 relative to Q1 2015, but up 76,000 year-on-year). As mentioned above, the number of employed people rose by an encouraging 198,000 in the second quarter of the year, after an increase of 139,000 jobs in Q1 2015 and a gain of a massive 563,000 over the past year. This is in sharp contrast with the Quarterly Employment Survey (QES), which indicated that SA had lost 44,000 formal sector jobs in Q1 2015 and that the formal sector employment had declined by 43,000 jobs over the past year. However, the LFS does indicate that 50% of the jobs created over the past year were in the agricultural sector and that a further 35% were in the informal sector. On the whole, informal sector jobs as well as agricultural employment are paid significantly less than the equivalent number of people employed in the formal sector (Stats SA Quarter 2 Report, 2015).

In other words, if South Africa had created 563 000 jobs over the past year in the formal sector, then the economy would be booming and not slowing as a broad range of economic data currently suggests. In 2014, South Africa created a total 143,000 jobs,

which is not especially encouraging given the existing high rate of unemployment, coupled with the expansion in the labour force. The labour market unrest in the mining and manufacturing sectors in 2014 was clearly very unhelpful. In the first six months of 2015, the economy has reportedly created 337,000 jobs (mostly in the informal sector) and since its low point in 2010, South Africa has gained a total of just over 2 million jobs, taking total employment to another record high (Stats SA Quarter 2 Report, 2015)..

It should also be taken into consideration that this total includes informal sector employment, which now comprises 17% of total employment. If private household employment is added to this, the percentage jumps to 25% of total employment. The official unemployment rate in South Africa fell to 25.0% in Q2 2015. This compares with a near-term high of 26.4% in Q2 2015. According to the expanded definition, the unemployment rate is 34.9%, down from 36.1% in Q2 2015 (this includes discouraged workers). According to the expanded definition, the unemployment rate for the youth (younger than 25) is at an incredible 63.1% (Stats SA Quarter 2 Report, 2015).

There is, however, a Marxist view of human capital theory, which argues that the human capital paradigm tends to reduce people into commodities (Dube, 2011). While the argument has some basis in truth, there are arguably also the individual and governance aspects that need to be considered. While employment benefits both society and government, the association of higher education achievement and higher income benefits the individual (Patron, 2008).) The schooling phenomenon, according to the human capital theory, is eventually an investment (Patron, 2008). The schooling generates higher future income for individuals and enhances economic development in a society (McMahon, 1998; Patron, 2008).

The decision to attend school is often taken with the expectation of educational benefits. McMahon (1998) categorises return to education as monetary and non-monetary, as well as private and social. Wages are the direct private and monetary returns from education, but non-monetary private returns, according to Patron (2008), include health effects, human capital produced at home, efficient household management, lifelong

adaptation, continued learning at home, motivational attributes and non-monetary job satisfaction. By contrast, Carlson (2002) identifies two monetary, social benefits: effects on growth in gross domestic product and the effects on the earnings of others, in terms of making them more productive. Non-monetary, social benefits are linked to humane or philanthropic characteristics such as gains from living in an educated society (lower crime rates, poverty reduction, democratic stability, and better citizenship) (Carlson, 2002).

2.3 Waitthood: youth and gender

Honwana (2013) says many young Africans are living in waitthood. The concept *waitthood* refers to a prolonged period of people's suspension between the stage of childhood and adulthood; it also implies people's feeling of being blocked in a particular stage of prolonged or permanent youth (Singerman, 2007).

Youth transition to adulthood has become so uncertain that a growing number of young men and women must improvise livelihoods and conduct their personal relations outside of dominant economic and familial frameworks. Honwana (2012) argues that protest movements, led mainly by young people stem directly from the economic and social pressures they suffer and from their pervasive political marginalisation. Consequently, the young are moving from dispersed and unstructured social and political acts into more organized street protests. This study examines youth's sense of being 'trapped' in a prolonged state of youth, and their views that global and national political structures create serious obstacles to real change and new politics.

What factors make waitthood in Africa particularly depressing? Young Africans constitute a disenfranchised majority, largely excluded from major socio-economic institutions and political processes. Whatever their class background, many youths cannot afford to form families and households and are unable to become fully independent and partake in the privileges and responsibilities of social adulthood.

Waithood was first used by Singerman (2007) in her work on youth in the Middle East, as she looked at delayed family formation and the increasing rates of youth unemployment. I found this notion to be very helpful in capturing young people's feeling of being blocked in a stage of prolonged or permanent youth. Waithood also evidences the multifaceted realities of young Africans' difficult transition to adulthood, which goes beyond securing a job and extends to aspects of their social and political life. Abdullah (1998) and Momoh (2000) have pointed to the use of the vernacular term *youth man*, in many West African countries, to describe those who are stuck in this liminal position. Young activists appear to be struggling to translate political grievances of the protest movement into a broader political agenda. Young people seem to be more united in defining what they do and articulating what they collectively want. The key questions then become: how to play an active role in politics and governance, beyond street protests, and how to create space for a new kind of politics? Taking the perspective of the youth involved in these movements, this study examines their sense of being 'trapped' in a prolonged state of youth, and their view that global and national political structures create serious obstacles to real change and new politics.

However, some young people become successful entrepreneurs by repairing electronic devices, making and marketing clothing and jewellery and doing hair and nails. Others are creating new artistic, musical, and performance forms, making graffiti, painting murals, writing blogs, and becoming savvy Internet users. In this sense, young women and men in waithood develop their own spaces where they subvert authority, bypass the encumbrances created by the state, and fashion new ways of functioning on their own. These youth spaces foster possibilities for creativity; and as Moore put it, for self-stylization, "an obstinate search for a style of existence, [and] a way of being" (Moore 2011: 2).

Maira and Soep (2005) concur with Maffesoli's notion of "urban tribes," understood as groupings that share common interests but whose association is largely informal and marked by greater "fluidity, occasional gatherings and dispersal" (1996: 98). Many young people see waithood as stemming from national and global policies that have

failed to reduce poverty and to promote equitable and broadly distributed economic growth. According to various political economists, structural adjustment programmes have seriously weakened African states' ability to determine national policies and priorities and to uphold the social contract with their citizenry (Rogerson, 1997; Manji, 1998; Potts, 2000). Bad governance, corruption and the absence of fundamental freedoms compound this predicament. Recent accelerated growth rates in the continent bear considerable promise. However, growth alone, without equity, will not guarantee social inclusion and better lives for the majority of the population. Indeed, young people rebel against the widening gap between the rich and the poor and the rampant corruption that they observe as elites enrich themselves at others' expense.

Having discussed waithood above, it appears that the plight of youth is trapped in transition. Young South Africans struggle with unemployment, the difficulty of finding sustainable livelihoods, and the absence of civil liberties. Political instability, bad governance and failed neo-liberal social and economic policies have exacerbated longstanding societal problems and diminished young people's ability to support themselves and their families. Many are unable to attain the pre-requisites of full adulthood and take their place as fully-fledged members of society. The recent wave of youth protests can best be understood in the context of this generation's struggles for economic, social, and political emancipation.

2.4 Homelessness: paradox between youth in rural and urban context

According to the Critical Social Theory of youth empowerment, most youth empowerment initiatives overlook the basic needs of the youth such as having a roof over their heads (Jennings, 2004), food, clothing, encouraging healthy life styles, and so on. This indicates that initiatives that are intended at addressing the basic needs of the youth are not effective in achieving their intended outcomes. Jennings (2004) claims that any youth empowerment initiatives are bound to fail if they do not address such needs effectively.

Bellamy (2004) argues that youth unemployment in rural areas is linked to homelessness. The issue of homelessness in rural areas, especially for youth, remains a critical area that needs to be discussed (Bellamy, 2004). This is because no empowerment initiative would be effective if this vital need is not addressed, hence discussion of homelessness of youth below. One of the basic needs of the youth that needs to be addressed is homelessness, especially the differences between the services that are provided to homeless youth in urban areas and those in rural areas. There are major points of divergence in terms of how homelessness affects urban and rural youth. Urban homeless youth experience the urban paradox of an intensive public visibility and exposure to institutions such as libraries, police, and big companies.

Urban contexts youth have better access to services that can assist them to maintaining themselves more independently in homeless situations. Social and Economic changes in many countries over the past two decades, as well as civil wars and health problems, have had a marked impact on the lives of children and youth. There is growing youth unemployment, changes in family patterns, increasing income disparities between wealthy and poor, increasing migration and immigration, the recruitment of child soldiers, the impact of AIDS and HIV, and the virtual exclusion of sections of populations living in inner cities or poor rural areas from the increased prosperity experienced by others.

In the past ten years, especially in urban areas, have experienced significant increase in population, crime and prison populations. There have been large increases in the numbers of street children, the incidence of youth gangs, alcohol and drug use, truancy and school dropout rates, and in physical and sexual violence by and towards children and young people. There is no universal agreement on the causes of the escalating youth crime and violence, but inequality and social exclusion have been identified as two of the most significant factors. Offending and victimization among young people are often highly predictable and closely linked the outcome of a variety of circumstances and experiences in the lives of children and young people, which can lead to serious consequences as they grow up.

While South Africa's macro-economic policies are shifting the country onto a higher growth path in GDP, the challenge remains to improve the lives of people who have not experienced the benefits of the economic boom in recent years. The ordinary South Africans living in impoverished areas like the Eastern Cape Province rural villages find it difficult to identify their most important community needs and how these should be addressed. All South Africans have attained civil rights; many have not secured economic and social rights, access to employment and a decent education is a central concern for those living in the poorest areas.

Access to basic and community services to improve the quality of life remains a problem for many. The Eastern Cape consists of six District Municipalities, two Metros and 45 Local Municipalities. According to the Municipal Demarcation Board, its total population is 6,436,763, covering six District Municipalities, namely: Cacadu; Amatole; Chris Hani; Ukhahlamba; O.R Tambo; Alfred Nzo and two Metro the Nelson Mandela Bay and Buffalo City. The size of the province is 169 952 square kilometres (SAIRR, 2010).

Eastern Cape is one of the worst-off provinces with respect to access to basic services, with 39% of the population having access to flush toilets, 27% reporting no sanitation services and 19% having access to ventilated pit latrines. Main sources of energy for cooking include: electricity (34%) wood (30%) and paraffin (30%). Some 16% of residents have no access to piped water, whilst 30% obtain their water supply from a regional source such as local schools. Only 11 percent can access piped water either from their dwellings or household yards. The average annual household income in 2005 was R54 068, with some 874 707 people living on less than R10/per day.

Rural homeless youth, in contrast, are largely invisible in the public and institutional sense. The lack of recognition in some respects barely allows for one to adopt the label 'homelessness' in rural contexts. Poor people have long been stigmatized and blamed for their situation.

According to theory on stigma and inequality-legitimizing ideologies, homeless people should be stigmatized even more severely than the generic poor. Gaetz (2004) argued that youths in the streets are much more vulnerable youth to be victims of a broad range of crimes. In particular, young women who are homeless face increased vulnerability to specific forms of violent crime, including sexual assault, the circumstances that produce such high levels of criminal victimization among street youth are countless and complex whilst background variables such as a history of violence, lifestyle and routine activities theories have been used to explain criminal victimization, it is argued here that the conditions that place street youth at risk are connected to their experiences of social exclusion in terms of restricted access to housing, employment and public spaces. Recent research suggests that the opposite may be true, but the data used in comparing attitudes toward homeless and other poor people have not been strictly comparable.

Extreme poverty is the strongest predictor of homelessness for families. These families are often forced to choose between housing and other necessities for their survival. At least 60% of children in Africa living in poverty are homeless. Female-headed households (particularly by women with limited education and job skills) are also particularly vulnerable. The current economic climate has made the labour market even less hospitable as many of them do not have more than a high school or higher education certificates. Teen parents are also particularly at risk of homelessness as they often lack an education and income of adults who become parents. Lack of affordable housing is also a risk factor for homelessness, particularly for families who devote more than 50% of household income to paying rent or those who experience a foreclosure. Foreclosures affect vulnerable tenants as well as homeowners who are delinquent in their mortgage payments. Substance abusing or physically violent parents and step-parents are the major drivers of homelessness in runaway youth.

Rural youth are forced to rely on local social networks to survive, and these are inadequate for those youth who explicitly need to cope with their homelessness for extended periods of time.

Social Networking is an activity or process that has always been with us. Simply put, it is the act of reaching out and connecting to others. In this way, we have always been networking—sharing information between individuals that provides enough value to justify maintaining the relationship. Some of these behaviours are purely utilitarian (meaning there is some gain to be had) whereas other behaviours are more focused on the socializing aspects of the relationship itself (Sedgar, 1992).

Although attention has been given to how broadband access is related to economic development in rural areas, scant consideration has been given to how it may be associated with voluntary participation. Communities are greater than the sum of their parts. Rather than simply an aggregate of individuals, communities are characterized by the relationships, networks, activities and functions that the individuals create and build together. The networks, norms, and trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit” within a community is referred to as social capital (Putnam, 1993).

2.5 Youth unemployment and inadequate entrepreneurship

The discussion in this section is about enterprise development as a means of alleviating youth unemployment. The existence of enterprise development is highly dependent on the availability of funding. However, at the present moment entrepreneurship does not seem to be accessible to everyone in South Africa, especially the youth. As a result, entrepreneurship cannot be viewed as a large scale solution to the youth unemployment challenge. This perception goes on despite that South Africa has several interventions for micro-finance that target the youth. The National Youth Development Agency is one of those interventions. The youth constitute 41,2% (14 to 35 years) of the South African population, but the number of young people involved in entrepreneurial activity remains extremely low at 6% of the total youth population.

South Africa’s Total Early-Stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) index, which currently stands at 8,9% youth, contributes a mere 10%, representing 0,9% of the total TEA index. Women’s TEA Index tends to fare worse than men.

Therefore, there is no doubt that accelerating entrepreneurship among young people will have a positive impact not only on the social plane of bringing equity in the economy, but also by raising the levels of the overall economic indicators of South Africa. According to IFAD's Rural Poverty Report (2011), there is lack of information, credit, training, advisory support and other facilities to offer other possible livelihood opportunities for unemployed youth. In the light of these points, South Africa has inadequate interventions that are aimed at promoting entrepreneurship. The Eastern Cape Province is one of those areas that are vulnerable to insufficient practice of entrepreneurship by the youth. In most cases, this situation is perpetuated by the ineffectiveness of government in implementing policies for youth entrepreneurship. Therefore, the inadequacy of youth entrepreneurship in the province contributes in the recurring challenge of youth unemployment.

2.6 The limited social and political power on youth

According to Green (2008), rural youth have a limited social and political power, while older people (males), tend to dominate the decision-making processes at many levels in traditional oriented societies such as in rural areas (where this study is located). Opportunities for youth to engage in governance and participate in political and decision-making processes depend largely on the political, socio-economic, and cultural contexts where social norms in many parts of the world result in multiple forms of discrimination against young women. Both formal and informal engagement can be understood as political participation, and both are beneficial for a vivid and resilient democracy and should be supported. There is strong evidence that the participation of young people in formal, institutional political processes is relatively low when compared to older citizens across the globe. This challenges the representativeness of the political system and leads to the disenfranchisement of young people.

The strong commitment of UNDP and other UN entities to foster youth political participation is based on several international conventions and declarations, including the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the World Programme of Action for Youth

and the Convention of the Rights of the Child (UNDP, 2011). They provide a strong frame of reference for a rights-based approach to related programmes of support. Participation is a fundamental democratic right. It should be an end in and of itself to remove existing barriers to youth political participation. For the most part, promoting youth participation needs to be geared towards achieving levels relative to those of the rest of the population. Effective and meaningful youth political participation has one of three attributes: it can be consultative; it can entail youth-led participation, where young people have a direct impact on decision-making within their own youth communities; finally, it can involve youth collaborative participation, where young people effectively take part in regular political decision-making processes (UNDP, 2011).

According to Bennel (2004), the subordinate position of youth is further compounded by the traditional welfare approach, where youth are viewed by their communities as presenting problems which need to be solved through interventions of older people. Therefore, young people have a major role to play in improving governance at the community level, including locally, provincially and nationally. The youth in rural areas should be at the forefront in the governance of the communities, including making efforts to broaden opportunities for youth in rural areas. There should be support to young people's inclusion in decision making in all levels of development processes. This needs to be through two measures, namely: focusing on UN governance and processes and young men and women's contribution to the identification and implementation of sustainable solutions.

Effective participation of young people and young people-led organizations in governance and decision-making processes (post-2015 agenda in particular), through National Youth Development Agency (NYDA) is slightly making the progress. The ability of young people and young people-led organizations to contribute to the achievement of durable solutions for humanitarian and peace building initiatives –focusing therefore on enabling young women and men to become active leaders in global efforts to achieve sustainable human development as a long-term investment contributions towards humanitarian peace work.

2.7 Rural-urban migration of youth

Rural-urban migration has been broadly researched and seeks to explain why people move from one area to another, including between rural and urban areas. According to Mashiri (2010), there is a flow of youth moving between rural and urban settlements, either commuting on a regular basis, occasional visits to urban based services, administrative centres, and temporarily or permanently to seek employment opportunities.

Moreover, one of the factors that promote migration into urban areas is a desire to have access to financial flow. This desire on the youth in rural areas is perpetuated by the fact that those (like family relatives, friends, and so on) that work in urban areas seem to be in possession of this financial flow. Financial flow includes primarily, remittances from migrants to relatives and communities, namely, transfers such as pensions, investments and credit from urban based institutions where they work (Mashiri: 2010). This financial flow, according to Mashiri (2010), influences those (the youth) that are based in rural areas to migrate to urban areas in the hope of being part of this flow through gaining employment. According to Alcork (2003), almost one-quarter of young people in the Eastern Cape live in households where income per head is less than one rand a day. Alcork (2003) alleges that rural youth are increasingly disinterested in small-scale farming, which is viewed as dirty work but prevalent in rural areas.

As a result, rural youth tend to be relatively mobile both nationally and increasingly across international borders (Alcork, 2003). Migration from rural to urban areas seems to continue taking place on a large scale, and this is an essential part of the livelihood coping strategies of the rural poor (Aliber, 2002). Youth unemployment is a global problem: individuals aged 12-24 constitute 25% of the world's working-age population, yet account for 47% of its unemployed (World Bank, 2006). The ILO describes the situation as reaching crisis proportions. In 2011, nearly 75 million youth worldwide (12.6% of youth) were unemployed, an increase of four million since 2007.

Not only are the numbers high and on the rise, but for many young people, unemployment is a long-lasting condition, with 10% of unemployed youth either abandoning job search altogether or delaying transition from the education system to the labour market (ILO, 2012).

High levels of entrenched youth unemployment in South Africa have been attributed to a combination of challenges facing labour market participants. These include the insufficiency of available jobs; the reluctance of employers to hire first-time job-seekers (applicants lack a track record to attest to their ability and a job history); and a skills mismatch between the type of worker demanded by firms and what the labour pool can supply (Perold, Cloete & Papier, 2012).

In rural areas, the arrival of a social grant in the form of the old-age pension has a positive effect on job search and migration for employment. In the absence of alternative sources of income for unemployed youth, the old-age pension is often used to cross-subsidise job search. This results in losses to pensioners. In addition, the old-age pension does not reach all unemployed youth, given that many live in households without a SOAP recipient. Contrary to claims that social grants weaken incentives to work and thus aid and assist youth unemployment in South Africa, youths have a desire to work after matric. Having a matric is, therefore, strongly related to improved labour market outcomes. The challenges to youth employment in rural and urban areas are different, and solutions may thus have to be different or differently targeted.

This suggests that while the old-age pension is a valuable mechanism for addressing credit constraints, it is not an appropriate mechanism for funding youth job search, given the limitations in its reach (based on its old-age targeting) and the inevitable diversion of income away from meeting the needs of the targeted elderly beneficiaries. The recourse to the old-age pension as a means of acquiring cash income to alleviate credit constraints facing youth would appear to suggest the need for a more directly youth-targeted cash transfer.

However, the indirect connection between grants, education and employment seems important, as it signals the need for a multi-pronged solution that goes beyond the introduction of a youth-targeted cash transfer. For example, social security should be accompanied by support for matric completion and lower tertiary education costs (or increased access to credit), given that the impact of each intervention in isolation would be limited.

According to Anderson (2001), low education levels play a big role in rural youth unemployment, which, in turn, leads to their migration to urban areas. In support of this assertion, Anderson (2001) claims that rural youth tend to be poorly educated, especially in comparison to urban youth. Factors associated with differences in the educational status of rural and urban, the educational attainment, the study fees, patterns of remaining in school for a longer time and future educational prospects of the rural youth, the relative effects of region or areas, sex, age and the socio economic challenges etc.

The rural adult population lagged behind the urban adult population in the educational attainment much of the differences can be accounted by the educational selectivity of migration and the past differences between rural and urban school systems which result in a more poorly educated older population in rural areas. The extent of urban bias in the provision of publicly funded education and training services is large, especially in most low-income developing countries (Bennell, 1999), which in this study's case is South Africa, in the Eastern Cape Province. Rural youth in developing countries make up a very large and vulnerable group that is seriously affected by the current international economic crisis. Globally, three-quarters of the poor live in rural areas, and about one-half of the population are young people. Climate change and the growing food crisis are also expected to have a disproportionately high impact on rural youth, forcing youths out of their homes to seek employment in the city. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) estimates that nearly half a billion rural youth "do not get the chance to realize their full potential" (FAO, 2009).

The 2005 International Labour Organization (ILO) report on Global Employment Trends for Youth states, “today’s youth represent a group with serious vulnerabilities in the world of work. In recent years, slowing global employment growth and increasing unemployment, underemployment and disillusionment have hit young people hardest. As a result, today’s youth are faced with a growing deficit of decent work opportunities and high levels of economic and social uncertainty” (ILO, 2005: p.1).

In addition, another form of migration includes teachers who migrate from one area to another. The deployment of teachers and other key workers to rural areas amounts to nothing less than a crisis in South Africa, particularly in the Eastern Cape and Limpopo provinces (Aliber, 2002). The universal primary education with acceptable learning outcomes can only be attained if teachers are adequately motivated. Teachers also have a critical role to play in supporting development activities in the wider community. In short, teachers are central to the realisation of ambitious national and international education and poverty reduction goals. However, there are growing concerns that teachers in South Africa, especially from rural areas and many other developing countries, are increasingly demotivated, which is reflected in deteriorating teaching performance and learning outcomes. Poor quality education and the scarcity of good jobs continue to dampen the demand for education among poor rural parents (Bellamy, 2004). The recently released World Economic Forum (WEF) Global Competitiveness Report 2014 on South Africa’s education crisis raises serious concerns of threats to national security.

Poor education standards, which lead to youth unemployment and labour inefficiency, depict the country’s compromised national integrity. To restore this integrity, both the government and civil society need to promote high moral spiritual consensus and prioritise higher education as a national key asset. The WEF report records South Africa’s quality of primary and higher education at 133rd and 122nd positions, respectively, of 144 countries surveyed. Overall, higher education and training is in 86th position (WEF, 2014).

Another issue that has been raised as responsible for rural youth unemployment is the cessation of agrarian projects which have a history of sustaining rural communities (Bellamy, 2004). In many parts of Asia and Africa, remittances from rural to urban migration are overtaking the income from agriculture due to droughts, unyielding land, and lack of agrarian education for the rural youth (Bellamy, 2004). It is important, therefore, that young people in rural areas are prepared for productive lives in both rural and urban environments (Bellamy, 2004). Deshingkar (2004) advises that policymakers can play a part in reversing this migration by revising rural-urban livelihood strategies of the poor particularly in rural areas.

A modern, sustainable and productive agricultural sector is the basis for national food security and improved nutrition and offers income and employment opportunities for young people, access to productive and decent work helps youth to realize their aspirations, improves their living conditions and active participation in economic development efforts. Therefore, investment planning needs to adequately reflect youth employment issues and consider explicit youth employment promotion programmes. In some African countries, the agriculture sector (farming, fisheries, forestry and agro industries) currently provides employment opportunities for up to 80% of the working age population. With 200 million people aged 15-24; Africa has a very youthful population at working age which grows by 2.7% p.a. (13 million) (Wobst, 2012). By 2030, 59% of youth aged 20-24 will have secondary education (137 million), and by 2040, Africa's labour force will be about 1 billion (Wobst, 2012).

2.8. Youth empowerment models

2.8.1. Critical Social Theory of youth empowerment

The goal of this section is to examine the Critical Social Theory of youth empowerment espoused by Jennings (2004). This theory emphasizes collective efforts to create socio-political change. According to Parra-Medina (2008), it draws upon analysis of four youth empowerment models and upon findings from a participatory research study which identified key dimensions of critical youth empowerment:

(1) a welcoming, safe environment, (2) meaningful participation and engagement, (3) equitable power-sharing between youth and adults, (4) engagement in critical reflection on interpersonal and socio-political processes, (5) participation in socio-political processes to affect change, and (6) integrated individual- and community-level empowerment. It concludes with a discussion of the measurement of outcomes and the challenges and opportunities for empowerment in youth organization. Social movements are a type of group action. They are large, sometimes informal, groupings of individuals or organizations which focus on specific political or social issues. In other words, they carry out, resist or undo a social change.

According to Jennings (2004), more recently, positive youth development approaches and youth political activism are sources of public hope in the context of globalization. During the past two decades, positive youth development has challenged a dominant stereotype of youth as carriers of risk and focused instead on the potential and contributions that young people make to their communities. Most importantly, all youths (including those whose families are poor) whose schools are of low quality or other ways do not enjoy the resources that the society provides them but nonetheless assets to their society and should not be treated the same way as government supported schools. Therefore, there are fundamental structural inequities in the distribution of family, institutional groupings and community opportunities in what positive youth development approaches refer to as external assets that have been expanded to incorporate a focus on youth empowerment. Empowerment is a multi-level construct which consists of practical approaches and applications, social action processes, and individual and collective outcomes.

In the broadest sense, empowerment refers to individuals, families, organizations and communities gaining control and mastery within the social, economic, and political contexts of their lives, in order to improve equity and quality of life (Zimmerman, 2000: 37). Elias (1993) argued that there is an operationalized set of skills linked empirically with social competence and peer acceptance in the areas of self-control, social awareness, group participation and critical thinking. In addition, in my view of this

theory, empowering young people typically leads to greater future and quality of future leaders, improved service delivery and better overall youth development satisfaction. The negative risks on putting pressure to young leaders are on the fact that the future leaders will put a lot of trust in young people to make decisions. Errors, abuse of power and security threats are all possible.

Furthermore, James (1995) argued that in South Africa, the role of youth (and women) in the economy is minimal because the majority of the special groups are unemployed. In ensuring that economic opportunities for (rural) youth are available, access to education, social welfare, healthy lifestyle, information and resources is required. Education is critical to social and economic development.

This theoretical framework, therefore, informs this study by suggesting that the rural youth can stand up to influence the direction of social and economic change and be partners to their development process (NYP, 2009-2014). Personal and Social effects of unemployment in South Africa lead to lack of individual and collective effort for young people.

2.9. Models of empowerment: individual and collective empowerment

Empowerment is a social action process that can occur at multiple levels such as individual, family, organization and community (Jennings, 2004). At the individual level, empowerment focuses on individual-level capacity-building, integrating perceptions of personal control, a proactive approach to life, and a critical understanding of the socio-political environment (Zimmerman, 2000: 56). Some studies are dedicated to the empowerment theme, and most of them measure social capital since it is considered an empowerment domain. Dimensions evaluated in these instruments could determine the capacity to act on one's own benefit or for the community. This ability was observed on those who were classified as high social capital (Soares, 2015).

The strategic goals of the Department of Social Development (DSD) are to: review and reform social welfare services and financing, improve and expand early childhood development (ECD) provision, deepen social assistance and extend the scope of the contributory social security system, enhance the capabilities of communities to achieve sustainable livelihoods and household food security and strengthen coordination, integration, planning, monitoring and evaluation of services. South Africa has made good progress in building social cohesion and promoting a new single national identity, and work is continuing in this regard. More than half of all households in South Africa benefit from government's social assistance programme (Department of Social Development, 2014). Jennings (2004) states that collective empowerment occurs within families, organizations and communities. It involves processes and structures that enhance members' skills, mutual support that is necessary to effect change, improving collective well-being, and strengthening intra-and inter-organizational networks and linkages to improve the quality of community life.

2.9.1 Youth development and empowerment program model

The aim of the Youth Development and Empowerment (YD&E) is to guide youth empowerment initiatives within the context of substance abuse prevention programmes (Kim, 1998). The YD&E goes beyond the prevention of risky behaviours (substance abuse) and is based on meaningful participation of youth in community service projects. There are three policy interventions that promote the economic mainstreaming of youth in the economy in South Africa, namely: The National Treasury which seeks to improve the employability of young people through wage subsidy; The EDD's multi-pronged strategy that seeks to improve employability and economic opportunities for young people through community-based employment programmes and targeted economic programmes; and the NYDA IYDS that seeks to improve the employability of young people through the promotion of self-employment. In addition, the National Youth Service (NYS), the Professionalization of Youth Work and programmes enhance the education and economic skills of young people through Learnerships.

The YEDS seeks to achieve two things: first, to promote the self-employment of young people through the development of youth-owned and managed enterprises through tailor-made programmes and, second, to enhance the economic participation of youth through the mainstreaming of youth in all existing enterprise development policies and programmes in the country. (National Treasury, 2014). A key to the YD&E processes is to enhance a positive social bonding and preparation of youth to participate in socio-economic and public affairs of the community. The Social Bond theory was created by Travis Hirschi in 1969. This theory later developed into the Social Control Theory, a historically interesting way of approaching social problems.

When applying the Social Bond theory, people must first have a firm understanding of its definition, which can be accurately described by Hirschi (1969) as elements of social bonding attachment to families, commitment to social norms and institutions (school, employment), involvement in activities, and the belief that these things are important.

Responsive governments and empowered citizens are important conditions for inclusive development but what can governments and civil society do to make sure that all voices are heard. Community participation and community development are terms that have such current connotations; both have actually been around for some considerable time. In the post-Second World War period, community development was defined as a 'movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with active participation and on the initiative of the community'. This definition arose in the context of strategies to promote development in Britain's colonies (Sautoy, 1958). Early community development programmes have been criticised on a number of grounds, including the view that despite their commitment to participation and 'bottom-up' approaches, many of the programmes were actually still paternalistic. They have a focus upon getting 'backward people in the right frame of mind', which typically involves providing unpaid 'voluntary' labour for colonial development projects (Manghezi, 1976).

In terms of the association of 'community development' with a colonial past, the term has been effectively abandoned in some quarters, in preference for the term 'community participation', emphasising as this does, participatory, rather than paternalistic approaches to development. Working with and alongside people, rather than for and on behalf of people, in order to tackle discrimination and disadvantage and the feelings of powerlessness experienced by many people, community development is about the involvement of people in the issues which affect their lives. It offers an exciting method through which individuals can develop their knowledge, skills and motivation, identify the common threads of problems which they experience in their lives and work to tackle these problems (AMA, 1993: 9). To conclude, key dimensions of critical youth development and empowerment are a welcoming, safe environment, meaningful participation and engagement; equitable power-sharing between youth and adults; engagement in critical reflection on interpersonal and socio-political processes; participation in socio-political processes to affect change and integrated individual- and community-level empowerment. It concludes with a discussion of the measurement of outcomes and the challenges and opportunities for empowerment in youth organization like National Youth Development Agency (NYDA).

2.10 Conclusion

The above literature offers a perspective on youth unemployment as a condition facing young people across the globe. This literature is not specifically about the Rural Youth in Keiskammahoek but an academic literature that reflects the debates and evidence demonstrated by various scholars and intellectuals whose main aim was to enrich the ambience of knowledge and serves as a reference to future scholars. The literature review chapter discussed youth employment issues to consider explicit youth employment promotion programmes in the rural urban migration, effective participation of young people in the decision making process, alleviating youth unemployment through entrepreneurship and the importance of personal empowerment for young people, rural homeless youth invisible to the public and institutions and the waithood, as a plight of youth is trapped in transition.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodology that was employed to collect the empirical data for this study. Qualitative research approach was adopted. Various data collection methods were used to collect data on unemployed rural youth's experiences in the Keiskammahoek area, and these include; interviews and observations. This Chapter further discusses study population, sampling, Location of the study, data analysis, validity and ethical consideration.

3.2 Research Approach

Qualitative research methodology informed by the interpretive approach to phenomena being studied was used in this study. Klein and Myers (1999) explain the interpretive approach as concerned with the meaning of phenomena and seek to understand social aspects of a particular situation. According to Punch (2005), the interpretive approach is consistent with the construction of the social world characterized by interaction between the researcher and the participant. In this study, the qualitative approach was used as it was best suited to studying individual people as the units of analysis. The reason for using this methodology was to collect detailed information from the respondents through interviews and observation.

3.3 Research methods

Data collection instruments used in this study is the qualitative approach. Three data collection methods were used, namely: interviews, observation and focus groups. The interview assists in a getting a conversation where questions are asked to obtain the information. The researcher posed the questions to the interviewee, in an alternating series of open ended questions and getting the elicit answers. Observation is a systematic data collection approach. The researcher examined people in natural settings or naturally occurring situations.

Observation of a field setting involves: prolonged engagement in a setting or social situation, for example, the researcher on this study even visited the sheebens, taverns and play fields in order to observe different dynamics about the youth. According to Dey (1993), qualitative research often seeks to show ways in which individuals interact to sustain or change social situations, as this study has as one of its aims. This study used qualitative research method as explained earlier in this chapter. The instruments for qualitative data were interviews and observations. Babbie and Earl (2013) give the following definitions of tools used in this study: Observations refer to observing and measuring the world around you, including observations of people and other measurable events and Interviews refers to asking participants questions in a one-on-one or small group setting.

a) Interviews

Open ended questions were used by the researcher to allow people to express what they think in their own words. These interviews were recorded by the researcher and data written up as a transcript (a written account of interview questions and answers) and later analysed. Only one councillor, one municipal official, two community leaders and two traditional authorities and 10 youth participants out of 22 were interviewed. The reason for interviewing them was influenced by benefits of interviewing skills espoused by Neuman (2004). The afore-mentioned author explains that interviews offer the researcher a rich data of direct interaction with respondents, which also yields non-verbal data, especially for a few numbers of participants. The researcher felt that it was important to personally engage the councillor, municipal official community leaders and traditional authorities as they have the ultimate know-how and influence on the area's development initiatives. The language that was used during the interviews was mainly IsiXhosa. The researcher read the questions in English then explained these in IsiXhosa to allow the participants to respond in IsiXhosa for the ease of communication without hindrances. The interview sessions were broken down to four weeks, with the first two weeks meant for youth participants, the third week for councillors and municipal officials and the last and fourth week for traditional authorities.

b) Observation

Kawulich (2005) argues that observation, particularly participant observation, has been used in a variety of disciplines as a tool for collecting data about people, processes, and cultures in qualitative research. Observation is a systematic data collection approach. The researcher examined people in natural settings or naturally occurring situations in order to understand their daily experiences. Observation of a field setting involved prolonged engagements in a setting within natural social situations in the community.

3.4 Location of the study

Keiskammahoek is a small settler village town in the foothills of Amatola Mountains in the Amahlathi Local Municipality under Amathole District Municipality. It is located about 50kms from Kingwilliams Town and about 112 kms from East London, at the confluence of the Gxulu and Keiskamma Rivers. It has been known to the locals as a sheltered and fertile spot. Despite being located in a drought ridden region, it has never lacked water because of its natural landscape. The indigenous name is Qobo Qobo which means 'a fragile thing' when translated (Amathole District Municipality).

3.5 Study population and sampling methods

3.5.1 Study population

Baxter and Babbie (2004) explain that a study population is the aggregate number of elements from which the sample for research is going to be selected with the element or unit representing every individual in the population.

For this study, the population that the researcher worked with was mainly constituted by rural youth and other stakeholders in the Keiskammahoek area. The study area, Keiskammahoek, has sixteen villages.

3.5.2 Sampling methods

According to Kumar (2011:397), a sample is a subgroup of the population which is the focus of the research enquiry and is selected in such a way that it represents the study population. This study utilised a purposive sampling procedure. Purposive sampling is based entirely on the judgement of the researcher in that a sample is composed of elements that contain the most characteristics, representative or typical attributes of the population (Singleton, Straits, Straits & McAllister, 1988 in de Vos et al., 2005:202).

A sample of the study was taken from Tshoxa Village. This sample comprised twenty-two (22) people from various community structures such as youth out of school, youth in schools, youth in business, unemployed and employed youth, traditional structures and government leaders who were interviewed. Sampling of young people for the study was as follow: the gender of participants 11 males and 11 females for the total of 22 young people. The ages between 14-20 years - 2 males and 2 females, ages between 21-26 years - 5 males and 2 females, ages between 27-31 years - 2 males and 4 females and ages between 32-35 years – 2 males and 3 females that compromises the total 22 young people. Therefore, the selection of the participants in this study was purposeful because of their involvement in the problem being investigated.

According to the eligibility criteria, the study was carried out on Keiskammahoek unemployed young people who fitted the youth age group. The term *youth* can be used to refer to someone between teenage-hood up to 35 years (Economist, 2013). It must be noted that the sample required for the research did not discriminate according to gender or any physical appearances; as long one had the physical characteristics that made him or her to fit well in the described qualities needed, he or she was able to participate. Therefore, youth within the explained parameters were selected as respondents for the study.

3.6 Data analysis

Data analysis is a stage at which the researcher focuses the meaning and messages of the data and builds up an appreciation of the variation or expression and structure and possibilities for analysis (De Vaus, 2002:1175). In analysing data for this study, the researcher considered the use of qualitative data analysis techniques for interviews. Qualitative analysis required the analysis of code data into themes, recurrent themes that create a trend for descriptive analysis. Data analysis is a process used to transform, re-model and revise certain information (data) with a view to reach to a certain conclusion for a given situation or problem. Data analysis can be done through different methods according to the needs and requirements of research. Data analysis in a research supports the researcher to reach to a conclusion. It is important as no research can survive without it (Johnson, 2011).

Data collected was analysed for linkages, commonalities and for any contradictions applicable. The overall objective was to link the findings to the main objectives set out at the beginning of the research in order to determine whether the collected data had supported, contradicted or achieved the objectives of the study.

3.7 Ethical considerations

According to Neuman (2011:129), ethical issues are concerns, dilemmas, and conflicts that arise over the proper way to conduct research and involve a balance between two values: the pursuit of scientific knowledge and the rights of those being studied or of others in society. Neuman adds: "Ethics define what is or is not legitimate to do or what 'moral' research procedure involves (2011:129)". Neuman (2000) argued that people have their right to privacy, and it is up to them to reveal the information as people have their personal beliefs and actions, so ethical considerations are very important. In this study, informed consent and voluntary participation, confidentiality, physical harm, reliability and validity were sought and received from participants.

In this research, the participants provided the information with regards to their individual beliefs and actions on a host of topics. Each participant provided honest responses when they were informed that their identity was not going to be exposed. The researcher emphasized privacy from the inception of the research to the publication of the results in order to guarantee confidentiality. In this study, the only amount of personal data collected for the research is the minimal amount needed to ensure proper sampling of the population. Moreover, it is also important to note that this study ensured that appropriate steps were taken to protect the human rights and welfare of individuals taking part in the research by observing ethical procedures as recommended by the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee of Ethical Principles (UREC) governing research with humans.

Confidentiality: Respondents were informed that data collected would be used only for this study, and no names and any form of identification would be used in any form, thus their anonymity would take top priority.

Prevention of physical harm: Special care was taken to ensure that there is no physical, psychological and mental damage to the respondents. Respondents were also guaranteed that the research would not harm them, and that through their participation, the study might help to improve the situation as per the purpose of the research. Respondents were briefed about the study under investigation, including the purpose thereof.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter discussed philosophical assumptions and design strategies underpinning this research study. Philosophical angle was discussed and presented; the interpretive paradigm was identified for the framework of the study. In addition, the chapter the research methodologies and design used in the study, including strategies, instruments, data collection and analysis methods, while explaining the stages and processes involved in the study.

CHAPTER 4: Profile of Youths in Keiskammahoek

4.1 Introduction

This chapter profiles the unemployed youths in Keiskammahoek. The empirical data that was collected from the field is presented and analysed. The demographic profile, income and education profile is presented. This chapter also looks at issues such as teenage pregnancy, social grants and early marriages which are in some instances a result of unemployment. The data is analysed and it is presented in themes that give a profile of youths in Keiskammahoek.

4.2 Demographic profile of individual respondents

4.2.1 Gender of participants according to age groups

The results of this study indicate that majority of the respondents were between ages 21-26. Of these, the majority five were males and two females. The second highest number of respondents was in the age group 27-31, and of these, the majority were females. The least number of respondents came from the youngest age group, which is 14-20. The total gender distribution for all respondents was equal; this means there were ten male and female participants, respectively.

4.2.2 Marital status of the participants

The results of this study indicate that twenty two of the respondents are single, and this pertains to both males and females. This means that although some may have children out of wedlock, all of them are not married and, therefore, not having responsibilities that come with marriage.

4.2.3 Monthly income of the participants

The majority of respondents (nine) have no income because of being unemployed, with seven females earning child grants, two female participants supplementing their monthly income with the child grant and as domestic workers, and four males earning below R2000,00 in a local timber factory and as taxi drivers. This indicates that poverty levels are highest among these young people as none of them own property. The majority of these young respondents report that they are bored in Tshoxa village; all respondents agree that drugs and alcohol abuse is their main challenge in the village. With the high cost of living, it is clear that their income cannot meet the demands of household living and also support a drug habit.

Figure 1: Youth working in the Timber Industry



Source: Author (10/11/2015)

As indicated by respondents, most of the youth are employed in the timber industry, Rance Timber.

4.2.4 Level of Education

The fourteen of the respondents dropped out at secondary education level, and eight received their matric. It seems that the poverty area where these people live in had a significant effect on their level of education and school attendance.

With regards to tertiary education, none of participants had the needed this level. The respondents mentioned that those with tertiary qualifications tend to move to urban areas, especially to the Western Cape Province for better working conditions and to search job opportunities. The respondents also indicated that if young people were educated, they could be employed at any given time if work was available. In addition, most of the respondents indicated that they did not give up hope for employment as they were busy looking for work although they complain of lack of information to assist them.

4.3 Self Help Projects

SMMEs (Small Medium and Micro Enterprises) contribute around 40% of South Africa's gross domestic product, and employ more than half of the private sector workforce. It is estimated that as much as 80% of new jobs in world economies are being created by SMMEs, making small business a key player in the future growth of our country. The idea of starting a home-based business is becoming more of a trend in South Africa. People want to be at home with their families rather than waste precious time in traffic and at the office. The idea of being your own boss, being able to choose your own hours, being more flexible with family and friends and having control of your own financial life is becoming more and more inviting. With the unreliability of future pension packages and retirement annuities and the general uncertainty of our future wealth, it is becoming more and more necessary to start creating one's own nest eggs for the future. (Department of Trade and Industry, 2010)

Every entrepreneur who has achieved success will have a story to tell of the hard work, commitment, mistakes made and lessons learnt in the process of building their business. Many start-ups do not make it beyond the first two years because of inadequate planning, lack of support, financial or knowledge resources this is the case in with Keiskammahoek youths, some young people have tried to open up carwashes, sewing business and crop production etc., are not sustainable due to the reasons explained above.

4.4 Teenage Pregnancy, Social Grants and Early Marriages

Teenage pregnancy is extremely common in South Africa; its problematic nature is a subject of debate reflects a pattern of sexual activity which puts teenagers at risk of HIV and Aids. Currently one in five pregnant teenagers is infected with the virus. This creates a new imperative to understand teenage pregnancy and the pattern of high risk sexual activity of which it is one consequence (Jewkes, 2001). In this study undertaken to investigate factors associated with teenage pregnancy amongst sexually active adolescents in rural context in Keiskammahoek and results presented focus on relationship dynamics and their association with the risk of pregnancy, some groups of teenagers had been dating for a minimum of two and a half years and about half were still with their first sexual partner.

The transition to parenthood is a major event in the lifespan of any individual, but takes on special significance when it precedes the transition to education, work, citizenship and marriage that collectively offer the skills, resources and social stock necessary for individuals to succeed as parents, teenage pregnancy has grown in significance as a social construct and come to represent one of several indicators of burgeoning adolescent delinquency, sexual permissiveness and moral decay. Education is central to the development of young people as it prepares them for the world of work and for life. As young people spend longer periods in education, as part of the natural course of development, sexual experimentation and maturity is increasingly coinciding with secondary schooling.

For most, it remains at the level of experimentation and if sex occurs, indications are that it is more likely to be protected when young people are still at school. However, for a minority, it results in unwanted pregnancy, HIV and other sexually transmitted infections (Panday, Makiwane, Ranchod, Letsoala, 2009). While in many African countries open unemployment is largely confined to urban areas and thus overall rates are quite low, in South Africa open unemployment rates hover around 30%, with rural unemployment rates being even higher than that. This is despite the near complete absence of an unemployment insurance system and little labour market regulation that applies to rural labour markets (Klasen, 2009).

4.5 Conclusion

The risks of long-term unemployment are dramatically higher for black youths as they must often contend with adverse living conditions and social circumstances on top of the lack of availability of employment opportunities. The unemployed and underemployed also experience lower levels of health and exhibit a tendency to engage in high risk behaviours due to forced idleness, thus leading to negative outcomes such as involvement in crime, substance abuse and early pregnancy. The higher incidence of these situations in poor communities those with the greatest number of unemployed creates a vicious cycle whereby outside businesses are less inclined to enter into these communities, further depriving the youth that live there of job opportunities within the rural areas. The contributing factor to the alarming youth unemployment figures and unemployment overall is the jobless growth occurring in South Africa's economy.

The national economy now creates fewer and fewer jobs and top down government job creation initiatives have proven ineffective; thus policies geared towards bolstering youth employment through alternative means are essential. Youth job creation will require a mix of policy tools and levers to create opportunities for this demographic and take advantage of new and neglected markets. The trend in youth unemployment intersects with jobless economic growth in South Africa; a concerted effort should be made to shift the focus toward fostering entrepreneurship among youths.

CHAPTER 5: Youths in Waiting, Realities and Livelihood Strategies

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides details on realities that the unemployed youth in Keiskammahoek are facing as well as the alternative livelihood strategies that they have adopted in order to cope with their circumstances. The youth that face uncertainty over their lives because of unemployment have resorted to migration, and others have gone to the extremes by engaging in criminal activities.

5.2 Rural urban migration

It has been noted that rural to urban migration has been one of the strategies that youths have adopted in order to cope with challenge of unemployment. Rural to urban migration has led to an absence of productive age group in the rural areas as a result of many young males leaving for cities in search of employment. However, a lot of uncertainty awaits the exiting youths in the cities. Suddenly, they discover that urban areas have a fair share of their challenges including unemployment. One of the biggest challenges that has faced youths in the city has been that of failing to find as well as to afford decent accommodation. As noted by Ngcabashe (1995) rural to urban migration also contributes to overcrowding in urban centres, which leads to a strain on social amenities. This complex situation in the urban areas has brought about a lot of disillusionment to the youth. In Figure 2 below, shows youth departing their rural homes on way to Cape Town by bus.

Figure 2. Rural urban migrations



Source: Author (10/11/2015)

Pictured below in Figure 3 is Cape Town, the obvious choice for Keiskammahoek rural youth because of its factory work and employment opportunities. Migration to Cape Town has historical roots for Keiskammahoek youth because from the 1980s, their grandmothers and grandfathers worked in Cape Town. According to the interviewees, it is easier to work in Cape Town because there is always a relative willing to offer accommodation for the first few months while looking for a job. East London, on the other hand, while nearer, has very limited job opportunities because factory work is limited.

One significant feature of the development process in most under-developed economies is the migration of labourers from the rural to the urban sector. The determinants of the patterns of migration are primarily - although not necessarily entirely - economic; that the migration results from the perceived differences in economic opportunities in the rural and urban sectors and that it continues until these differences are eliminated (Stiglitz & Joseph, 1969).

Figure 3. Cape Town



Source: Author (06/11/2015)

Over the past three decades, developing world cities, especially in Africa, have experienced remarkable and unprecedented population growth. While the rates of increase have declined slightly in recent years due to falling wages, contracting social services and changing demographic trends, contemporary urban areas remain the *foci* of economic growth and political and social unrest. The highest projected level of urban population growth in the world is in the cities of sub-Saharan Africa (Torado, 1997).

Figure 4 below shows the type of accommodation that most rural youth lives in once they are in the urban areas. These are called squatter camps, and life is reported to be harsh. Most respondents reported that they prefer living in the rural areas than the squatter camps in Cape Town. This is because the relatives who have been staying in Cape Town cannot afford to buy houses in the township due to the low weekly wages they get from being factory workers.

Figure 4. Cape Town shacks



Source: Author (06/11/2015)

Squatter camps are reported to be the option for most of the Keiskammahoek residents who migrate to Cape Town. According to most respondents, since Keiskammahoek residents have been working in Cape Town for decades, there are many relatives who have been living in Cape Town for more than 5 years; these qualify to own a shack in a squatter camp. The process, according to respondents, is that once you are able to own a shack in a squatter camp, future generations and relatives may also occupy this shack and also qualify for the Rural Development Project (RDP) housing once they have lived in the squatter camp for more than 5 years. Migration to Cape Town, therefore, according to the respondents, presents a much more convenient option than East London in terms of job opportunities, accommodation, and eventual ownership of an RDP house.

5.3 Coping Mechanisms

Government interventions on poverty and unemployment are effective; this was the question posed to all the respondents, the majority disagreed on the effectiveness of the government interventions. Effective investment in human resources can empower the citizenry with knowledge and skills capable of making them gainfully employed and socio-economically productive (Ekanem, 2010). This is because economic security of any country makes no sense if the job creation is not an output.

The majority of the participants indicated that they tend to disagree that the government interventions on poverty and unemployment are effective; others strongly disagree, whilst minimal tended to agree, whilst other respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that the government interventions on poverty and unemployment are effective. To address challenges, it is clear that there is a need for urgent intervention with regards to their lack of trust in government interventions. Young people need to be educated about the government interventions and policies.

This includes understanding how government works, having capable community leaders and information-sharing communities. Outreach to information centres and rural areas may include local leaders “*imbizos*”, community meetings, youth and seniority meetings, programs such as dialogues, motivational speakers and assessment by the private sector and higher education institutions (Johnson & Kercher, 2009).

The findings concur with the theoretical framework in Chapter Two regarding the limited social and political power on youth. The theoretical framework on this study further explains that there are many reasons for youth unemployment, namely: besides the general situation on the labour market, one might mention education and training systems, labour market and employment policies, but also the stratification and distribution of opportunities in society.

5.3.1 Livelihood strategies and opportunities

A livelihood constitutes of people, capabilities and their means of living, including food, income and assets. Important aspects are resources, intangible assets and access.

A livelihood entails environmentally sustainability when it maintains and enhances local and global assets on which livelihoods mainly depend and its beneficial effects on other livelihoods (Chambers & Conway, 1992). Theoretical framework on the critical social theory of youth empowerment concurs with findings as pillars such as: a welcoming, safe environment, meaningful participation and engagement, equitable power-sharing between youth and adults, engagement in critical reflection on interpersonal and socio-

political processes, participation in socio-political processes to affect change and integrate individual- and community-level empowerment were mentioned. The Livelihoods of Youths in Keiskammahoek includes migrating to bigger cities, others seek self-employment opportunities, others get married , whilst others rely on social grants as a source of income. It was revealed in this study that some youths having run out of options due to the socio economic challenges, have resorted to alcohol/drug abuse and crime.

5.3.2 Policy-makers and policy formulation for rural communities

Empowerment means that people gain an understanding of and control over social and political forces in order to improve their position in society (Killian, 1998: 118). As a process, empowerment refers to the development of an effective support system for those who have been blocked from achieving individual or collective goals because of the severity or complexity of the discrimination they suffered (Solomon, 1976:22).The majority of participants strongly disagreed that policy makers formulate policies that directly and more efficiently reach rural communities; others stated that they tend to disagree; others neither agreed nor disagreed, while others tended to agree and other minimal strongly agreed.

The general argument confirms that increased community participation in government decision-making produces many important benefits for communities; this is such that inherent in the idea of instrumental community participation is the explicit rationalization of the effort based on procedural reasons where citizen involvement is satisfied by the simple existence of a course of action grounded in principles of due process. In this case, everyone is entitled to means by which a person may or may not interface with a program, system, policy or decision-making procedure. Expression of opinions is not occurring very often, and it is difficult to visualize anything but positive outcomes from citizens joining the policy process, working together and reaching agreements to bring positive social and environmental change (Irvin & Stansbury, 2004).

It is important to remember that, as some rural youth pointed out, the traditional council and councillors should be those people who are clued up about important matters about rural communities, as they are entrusted to provide leadership and opportunities. The importance of good working authority structures is that: they each draw on divergent sources of legitimacy, exercise power on overlapping zones of competence and jurisdiction with traditional leadership. The latter's authority derives from custom and history. Solutions need to tackle the roots of poverty and unemployment which has links to damaged childhoods, disaffected youth, relative inequality and social exclusion – conditions that can precipitate individuals into deviance, offending and addiction of drugs and alcohol. Although it is well beyond the remit of the young people to follow initiatives that are developed by policy makers, there is no reason why young people cannot be involved in tackling some of these issues through voluntary social services and community projects, as indeed many of them do (Thomas, 2004).

5.3.4 Community leaders on taking young people seriously

All the participants strongly disagreed that community leaders take young people seriously and formulate policies that, directly and more efficiently, reach rural communities. According to Lim (2005), communities and community leaders play a crucial role in adolescent development along with families, schools and peers. Adults have a significant influence on the lives of young people. Qualities to look for in finding successful mentors are identified while the role that non-parental adults play in establishing leadership opportunities is explored. Recommendations are made for creating positive relationships with youth. Youth typically spend a substantial amount of time in extra mural activities in school, including involvement in community-based organizations, school and local sports teams, and school-based clubs.

All of these, and the interaction with individuals within them, directly influence youth involvement in their communities. Youth whose parents are actively involved in the community are more likely to become active themselves (Chan & Elder, 1999).

Youth whose parents do not participate in civic activities may still become active in their communities; however, a supportive and reinforcing parental relationship may have a greater contribution to civic engagement than parental modelling (Fletcher & Van Horn, 2000). Perhaps as a result of an increased awareness of the advantages for adolescents, parents play an important role in linking their children to the world around them (Parke & Ladd, 1992).

Fears of experiencing a crisis in communities have been increasingly directed towards youth. Popular political and government rhetoric has frequently positioned young people as a threat to the healthy functioning of community and democracy. Policies have been implemented to educate them and control their behaviour, particularly in their local communities, in an attempt to foster them to serve as compatriots is deemed appropriate to join adult society. The engagement and empowerment of young people should enable them to participate as young citizens and respects their voices as an important part of a fair society. Engaging with young people has significant differences than engaging with the wider community. Effective engagement with young people requires planning, time, effort and sustained support. This is magnified in the case of young people from hard-to-reach communities such as rural areas.

The key principles to engaging with young people that should be taken into consideration before beginning are: young people need longer to build up trust and feel confident to have their voices heard; effective planning ensures adequate time, young people have a higher need for engagement which is more intense and provides support, consultation does not work as a once-off method as it leaves young people feeling disillusioned and under-valued (Scottish Executive, 2006).

5.3.5 The acceleration of job creation

This section is about the responses that came from participants in relation to issues of job creation in Tshoxa Village. The majority of participants agreed that a job creation programme can be effective with regards to rural youth.

Other minimal participants disagreed that the job creation programme can be effective with regards to the acceleration of job creation in Tshoxa Village. In this section, out of twenty-two participants, twelve of respondents reported that issues related to high unemployment rates are not discussed or exposed to them during their early years of schooling, and that is where failure of choosing the correct career paths and lack of career guidance begins; this is because they are the ones who bear more brunt of unemployment as the majority in the population. Education, training, employment issues and opportunities for rural youth must address individual community demographics, culture, and youth desires. The importance of local creativity and partnerships between private business, community projects, higher education institutions and government in responding to rural development issues cannot be under-estimated (Kenyon, Sercombe & Black, 2001). The following are responses that were captured during fieldwork concerning unemployment and job creation.

Respondent 1: in some races and cultures, unemployment of young people is a norm like in our village, it is normal and accepted, whilst with other races or culture, they do not struggle to find work because of their quality of education or family business whilst poor races do not have such options. (10/10/2015, Cikizwa)

Respondent 2: If you are unemployed in your community and you are young, you are nothing; you lose your respect and dignity, you are labelled and called names which lead many young people to drugs and alcohol and crime to supplement the drugs and alcohol. (10/10/2015, Ayanda)

Respondent 3: Some elderly people in our village perceive attending school as a waste of time, instead we are told to look for work, but as dropouts, we realize that schooling is important. How I wish I can have another opportunity to study so I can find my dream job. (10/10/2015, Sakhumzi)

Respondent 4: 'Dreams are dying; for example, every child dreams of getting married at some stage but without jobs and money, how can you feed your own family? (10/10/2015, Philiswa)

Respondent 5: In our village, most people move to Cape Town for employment opportunities. It has been happening for many years in my own family, and many friends that I know even within the nearby village in Keiskammahoek are in Cape Town. Everyone goes to the Western Cape as the obvious choice as a big city, and many people get jobs in wine farms and factories. When they come back over Easter and Festive season, they have money and blame us for remaining in our village and not going up to Cape Town for jobs. (09/11/2015, Siyabonga)

Respondent 6: The young people in our village are useless; they do not respect their elders, use drugs and alcohol and blame us as community leaders for their situation. (05/11/2015, Amanda)

Respondent 7: Yes, their bad attitudes towards the families and community, consequently lead to unstableness, and young people instigate service delivery protests and many times say we, as leaders, employ our own people when in projects by government, but that is not true as we employ willing people. (05/11/2015, Siphamandla)

Less than four in every ten adults in South Africans are employed on either a full-time or a part-time basis and almost three in every ten are unemployed and looking for work.

In all surveys conducted since 1994 addressing these issues, unemployment and the slow process of job creation are mentioned as some of the biggest problems in South Africa. (Ipsos, 2013). It is also one of the twenty six policy areas in which government delivery is measured on a six-monthly basis in the Government Performance Barometer published by Ipsos. The question asked is whether the government is doing very well, fairly well, not really well or not at all well on “reducing unemployment by creating jobs”.

In November 2012, only a third of adults in South Africa indicated that the government is doing “very well” or “fairly well” in addressing this issue (Ipsos, 2013). Dr Erich Fromm, in his 1976 book, "To have or to be?" provides an analysis of the crisis of modern civilisation and when addressing the features of a new society, wrote: "The first requirement in the possible creation of the new society is to be aware of the almost insurmountable difficulties that such an attempt must face (Ipsos, 2013).

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter reflected on the realities that unemployed youths in Keiskammahoek have to face daily. As a result most youths opt of the village to bigger cities in search of employment upon completion of their studies. However, the cities also have their own challenges and this ends up complicating the life of the youths that migrate in search of jobs. It came out clearly in this work that there is little or nothing for youths in the village. This is a problematic picture. The rural youths end up becoming a burden in the city when they cannot find employment. Some end up taking illegal drugs and some get into relationships for monitory gains. It was noted that more needs to be done by the government in consultation with other stakeholders for the issue of youth unemployment to be resolved.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Summary and Conclusions

This study examined the experiences and realities of unemployment youths in Keiskammahoek. This included establishing the profiles of youths in Keiskammahoek, Youths waiting and livelihood strategies that can help to alleviate poverty, reduce unemployment, promote economic participation and improve lives of youths in Keiskammahoek.

6.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusion of this study, it is recommended that:

6.2.1 A clear distinction be made between social and economic policies that are not specifically targeted at youth but nonetheless benefit youth either directly or indirectly and policies that do target youth as a whole. This is because youth policies in developing countries have frequently been criticised for being biased towards non-poor males living in urban areas. As indicated in this study, rural communities want more youth-focused activities because as tomorrow's leaders, youth should be the primary client group for education and training programmes as well as health and health prevention activities.

6.2.2 Government should ensure that youth development programmes are concentrated in the rural areas so that they can retain youth to uplift their communities instead of them going to urban areas to look for jobs. This is because when rural young people move to the big cities, they are at risk of losing touch with their families and traditional cultures. The generally held notion that young people are moving back and forth between their rural homes and urban centres was not supported by respondents in this study.

A number of respondents during the fieldwork noted that moving back and forth is expensive, and young people who have not found jobs in Cape Town cannot always afford to go back home. Rather, many become part of the unemployed youth labour force in the big cities.

6.2.3 The government and communities have to work hand in hand with authorities to curb drug abuse in rural communities and develop activities such as sports for young people. This is because of the potential of youth sport programs to foster positive development while decreasing the risk of problem behaviours. The positive and negative outcomes of youth sport are tremendous for active young people.

6.2.4 There should be plans made in rural areas by authorities and communities to fight alcohol abuse brought about by boredom and unemployment of youth. Due to alcohol abuse, criminal and violent activities may arise, and addressing alcohol abuse could be a step in the right direction. The study noted that young offenders do actually grow out of crime when mentored and guided.

6.2.5 There is a need to have relevant educational programmes for youth in rural areas. This is because the relevance of schooling and its importance in rural areas is generally criticised for not adequately preparing children for productive rural lives and fuels youth aspirations to move to urban areas. Governments and other providers should rather focus on delivering reasonable quality basic education and qualified teachers to rural communities.

The greatest contribution to improving the future employment/livelihood prospects of disadvantaged children in both rural and urban areas is to make sure they stay in school until they are least functionally literate and numerate to eliminate the dropout rate.

The implications for existing theories the theoretical framework on Youth empowerment mode informs this study by suggesting that the rural youth can stand up to influence the direction of social and economic change and be partners to their development process

but to the current situation on the ground are not exposed to the economic opportunities and striking the balance between developing youth empowerment and the ownership of the programs, the empowerment takes time due to training, investment opportunities and adult support. Youth empowerment has a special appeal in high poverty and rural settings where young people feel marginalized and poorly served by society's institutions. The key dimensions of critical youth development and empowerment are a welcoming, safe environment, meaningful participation and engagement; equitable power-sharing between youth and adults; engagement in critical reflection on interpersonal and socio-political processes; participation in socio-political processes to affect change and integrated individual- and community-level empowerment but the community instability because the communities are economically depressed and the lack of connecting with family members and communities as the family and communities plays a lot of role in supporting young people to be successful. The nature of youth empowerment has two additional obstacles within the Keiskammahoek communities such as transforming youth adult power relations and turning the youth ideas into community wide actions.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview Guide for rural youth in Tshoxa Village, Keiskammahoek

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your age, gender and marital status.

Age

14 - 18	18- 24	24 - 30	30-35
---------	--------	---------	-------

Gender

Male	Female
------	--------

Marital Status

Single	Divorced	Married	Widow
--------	----------	---------	-------

2. Do you make any income on monthly basis?

.....

.

3. What level of education have you obtained?

.....

.

4. How many people depend on you financially?

.....

5. Do you receive a government grant? If so, indicate which one(s)

.....

6. Who do you stay with?

.....

7. Do you have children, if so how many?

.....

8. Do you have any work experience? If so, please indicate

.....

9. Have you thought of moving to another province to look for a job?

.....

10. Which sectors have you been looking for a job?

.....

11. How long have you been looking for a job?

.....

12. Are you involved in any business? If so, please indicate

.....

13. Do you actively participate in community projects, extra mural activities and community meetings etc.? If so, please explain.

.....

SECTION B: RURAL YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT

14. Are you involved in any economic activities in your community? If so, how do these benefit the community?

.....

15. Do you earn a living?

.....

16. How do you spend your day?

.....

17. How do you provide for your family? Explain your answer.

.....

18. Do you consider government interventions on poverty and unemployment effective?

.....

19. What is the meaning of unemployment to you? Please explain.

.....

20. What livelihood strategies and opportunities are available in your community?

.....

21. What keeps you in your community even though you are unemployed?

.....

22. What are the current challenges experienced by rural youth in your area?

.....

SECTION C: PERCEPTIONS

22. Are you satisfied with government unemployment and poverty alleviation strategies?

.....

23. It is very easy to access information on job opportunities?

.....

24. What are Local authorities doing to assist youth unemployment?

.....

Any other comments or suggestions on your experience on livelihood strategies. What opportunities are available for young people?

.....

Thank you for participating in this interview. Your time is greatly appreciate

Appendix B: interview guide Councillors, Community leaders and Traditional authority

1. Would you consider Tshoxa to be a poor community? Kindly support your answer.

.....

2. What unemployment and poverty alleviation programmes are in place in Tshoxa? If there any, are they effective?

.....

3. What is your view on youth development, and do you take young people seriously? Please explain in detail.

.....

4. What categories (youth in school, youth out of school, youth in business, employed youth and unemployed youth etc.) of young people do you have in Tshoxa, and do you have a database of all the young people in your community?

.....

5. How can job creation be accelerated in your community?

.....

6. How should the state encourage private sector investment and activity to create jobs in Keiskammahoek?

.....

7. What potential does Tshoxa or Keiskammahoek have in terms of economic spin offs?

.....

Thank you for participating in this interview. Your time is greatly appreciate