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**A profile of perceptions  
and behaviour of youth in  
the Free State:  
Survey findings (2003 and 2008)**

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# **A profile of perceptions and behaviour of youth in the Free State:** Survey findings (2003 and 2008)

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## **1. Aim of the study**

The aim of this survey was to conduct empirical research on youth and youth-related matters in the Free State in order to provide a comprehensive review of living conditions, perceptions, aspirations, lifestyles and expectations of the youth. More specifically, the focus was on providing empirical evidence on the state of the youth<sup>1</sup> in the Free State, and particularly with regard to the research issues/clusters that were identified by the Free State Youth Commission (FSYC), the Centre for Development Support (CDS) and other stakeholders during an exploratory youth scan in 2003. In addition to these aims the study also aimed to compare the 2008 profile with that of 2003 in order to present the profile in a longitudinal fashion. The project was commissioned by the FSYC. It was co-funded by the FSYC and a grant maker<sup>2</sup> while the survey was managed by the Centre for Development Support at the University of the Free State in association with the FSYC.

The focal points of the above research issues entail, amongst others, government programmes and actions with regard to the youth, youth sexuality and gender issues, HIV/AIDS, education, skills and training needs, economic expectations and empowerment, youth unemployment, youth businesses, access to and use of information technology, etc. A better understanding of the youth landscape in the Free State will improve policy making and eventually contribute towards creating a Free State more fit for young people. Irrespective of the rhetoric of UN summits and commitments made under United Nations auspices to create a world fit for young people, often youth are still not integrated into international and national policy agendas (*cf.* White, 2003:1-3). At the same time, the longitudinal nature of the survey will also help to assess the current policy approaches.

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<sup>1</sup> For purposes of this study youth refers to those South Africans 14 – 35 year of age, thus bringing it in line with the definition used by National Youth Commission. However, the UN defines youth as 15 – 24 years of age.

<sup>2</sup> The grant maker requested that the name of the organisation should not be divulged.

## **2. Research strategy and methodology**

### **2.1 Approach in 2003**

Data for this research was collected using both quantitative and qualitative methods.

The following research techniques had been employed:

- An exploratory workshop as to identify research problems regarding the youth in the Free State.
- Dimensions of social issues/ concerns associated with being young and believed to impact upon the youth were developed by applying a participatory workshop methodology to identify relevant themes and then to prioritise these.
- An empirical survey was conducted, using a structured questionnaire to obtain a broad scope of youth perceptions about their social, economic and health status.

Since this research is multidisciplinary in nature, various stakeholders had been involved to propose research issues to be incorporated in the survey. (i.e. Technikon Free State, HSRC, Mangaung University Community Partnership Project (UFS), Unit for Leadership Studies - Department of Industrial Psychology (UFS), Directorate Community Services (UFS), Centre for Development Support (UFS), Centre for Health Systems Research and Development (UFS), Centre for Business Dynamics – School of Management (UFS) - etc.). At a workshop held in October 2003, additional inputs were received from various Departments and stakeholders (see Table 2.1) regarding the themes and dimensions to be included in the questionnaire that was to be used in the survey. This in itself increased the content validity of the questionnaire. (See Annexure A for the questionnaire)

**Table 2.1: Stakeholders contributing to the identification of themes for the 2003 youth survey questionnaire**

<b>Institution</b>	<b>Position</b>
Dept of Health	Special Programmes Officer (Assistant Director)
Dept of Safety and Security	Special Programmes Officer (Assistant Director)
Dept of Local Government and Housing	Special Programmes Officer (Assistant Director)
Dept of Land Affairs	Special Programmes Officer (Assistant Director)
MUCPP	Youth Manager
MUCPP	Manager (Economic and Agriculture Management)
Love Life	Youth Assistant Manager
Love Life	Youth Line Manager
Vista campus of the Free State University	Lecturer
Free State Youth Commission	Researchers
CDS	Senior Researcher
CDS	Junior Researcher
CDS	Assistant Researcher
CDS	Assistant Researcher
CDS	Short Course Assistant

## **2.2 Approach in 2008**

The approach followed in 2008 was less intensive. The following should be noted specifically:

- A workshop was conducted between the FSYC and the CDS staff working on the project. The aim of the workshop was to evaluate the purpose of each question and to consider additional questions.
- Yet, the principle was to retain the original questionnaire. In the process only a small number of questions were added, which made it possible to compare most of the data between 2003 and 2008.
- Comparisons were fairly easy in the case of open questions. Yet, they were more difficult in respect of the open questions. The comparisons in respect of open questions were further hampered by the fact that the original responses to the open questions were not recorded electronically in 2003. Against this

background, it was decided limited comparisons between the two years to open questions.

### 3. Target Population

In terms of Census 2001 results, 40.5% of the Free State population of 2,7 million were youths. Table 3.1 below depicts a breakdown of youth compilation according to different variables.

**Table 3.1: Breakdown of youth compilation according to different variables, 2001**

Biographic variable	N	%
Population group		
African	982 675	89.6
Coloured	33 894	3.1
Indian	1 756	0.2
White	78 368	7.1
Level of urbanisation		
African		74.2
Coloured		82.4
Asian		96.1
White		86.8
Languages		
SeSotho		65.6
Afrikaans		10.4
IsiXhosa		9.2
SeTswana		6.9
English		1.0
Other		6.8

Statistics South Africa, Census 2001

### 4. Sampling

Identical sampling procedures were employed for both the 2003 survey and the 2008 survey. Based on the data in Table 3.1, a multi-stage stratified random sample was drawn. The sample comprised 383 white youths and 466 black youths, i.e. 849 respondents. Comparatively, the sample for 2008 included 466 black youths and 384 white youths. These were the minimum sample sizes in order to generalise the findings to the two population strata, and to enable inferential analysis of the data in order statistically to compare differences in perceptions between the two groups. For both the 2003 and 2008 data, the subsample sizes for the white and black cohorts and the demarcation thereof therefore purposefully did not reflect the *overall* demographic profile of youths in the Free State (in respect of population proportions), but

- were representative of white and black youths respectively;
- were representative of the spatial spread of black and white youths in the Free State; and
- allowed for comparison between black and white youth perceptions in the province.

In the first stage, the sample was stratified according to race and further proportionately compiled to reflect the urban/rural<sup>3</sup> distribution of the respective population groups. In the second stage, the sample was further geographically demarcated to reflect, proportionately, the population distribution in the five district municipalities of the Free State. The sample compilation is depicted in Table 4.1 and in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.1: Stage 1 compilation of sample**

<b>Strata</b>	<b>Sample size 2008</b>	<b>Sample size 2003</b>
Black <sup>4</sup> youth (urban)	294	297
Black youth (rural)	164	169
White youth (urban)	328	329
White youth (rural)	56	54
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>842</b>	<b>849</b>

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<sup>3</sup> *Urban* areas refer to population concentrations in cities and secondary towns while *rural* areas refer to small towns. These definitions differ slightly from the conventional definition of urban areas as population concentrations in proclaimed urban municipal areas, while *rural* areas refer to areas that are not sharing a common boundary with a proclaimed municipal area.

<sup>4</sup> “Black youth” is used here as an encompassing term also to include Coloureds and Asians.



**Table 4.2: Stage 2 compilation of sample**

<b>District proportion of population)</b>	<b>Municipalities of Free State</b>	<b>(and State</b>	<b>Stage 1 strata</b>	<b>Sample (N)</b>
Xhariep (4.7%) (Trompsburg)			Black youth (rural)	22
			White youth (rural)	18
Motheo (27.5%) (Bloemfontein, Mangaung, Thaba Nchu, De Wetsdorp)			Black youth (urban)	86
			Black youth (rural)	40
			White youth (urban)	93
			White youth (rural)	12
Lejweleputswa (23.9%) (Welkom-Thabong, Wesselsbron, Hoopstad)			Black youth (urban)	74
			Black youth (rural)	36
			White youth (urban)	87
			White youth (rural)	10
Thabo Mofutsanyane (27%) (Bethlehem, Vrede, Qwa Qwa)			Black youth (urban)	86
			Black youth (rural)	42
			White youth (urban)	90
			White youth (rural)	10
Fezile Dabi (16.7%) (Sasolburg, Edenville, Kroonstad)			Black youth (urban)	51
			Black youth (rural)	29
			White youth (urban)	59
			White youth (rural)	6
<b>TOTAL</b>				<b>849</b>

## **5. Fieldwork/data collection procedures**

### Approach in 2003

Data was collected by means of personal and telephone interviews using a structured questionnaire that contained both closed and open-ended measuring items. Given the historical and current disparities in socio-economic status between whites and blacks in South Africa, telephone interviews were conducted with white youth, while personal (face-to-face) interviews were used in the case of black youth (a large proportion of the latter did not have access to landlines or cell phones). Fieldworkers who were capable of conversing fluently in at least two or more of the dominant regional languages, had been recruited and trained to act as interviewers. During the 2003 survey, the concept questionnaire was piloted amongst 10 respondents in order to verify the validity of measuring items.

Interviews were conducted in all the main languages spoken in the Free State (*cf.* Table 3.1). For this purpose, the final draft questionnaire that was approved by the Free State Youth Commission was cross-culturally translated and used as the interview schedule. Interviewers worked under the strict supervision of experienced fieldwork managers who assumed first line responsibility for controlling the quality of the collected data.

#### Data collection amongst the black youth (face-to-face and telephone interviews) (2008)

The fieldwork was conducted between 1 April and 14 April. The survey covered all of the five Free State municipal districts (see Table 4.2). The team responsible for the face-to-face interviews consisted of five experienced fieldworkers. Two Free State Youth Commission researchers also helped during the survey.

One male and one female telephone interviewer were also used to target households with access to a landline telephone. These calls were made between 7 April and 15 April. No problems that would seriously impact upon the data were experienced in either of the two survey parts. Justification for the move away from exclusively face-to-face interviews for black youths was based on the following:

- Increasing desegregation leads to a significant percentage of black youths being located in areas where white residents resided historically.
- By only concentrating on former black townships, the sample might be skewed towards the poorer section of the black population.

#### Data collection amongst the white youth (telephone interviews)

Data amongst the white youth was gathered during the period 7 April 2008 to 8 May 2008. A team of six telephone interviewers was used (four women and two men). For sensitive questions (such as those relating to sexual behaviour) a gender-on-gender strategy was employed, which means that questions of a sexual nature were put to a female respondent by one of the women interviewers, and not by the male interviewer. The reason for this strategy was to avoid, or at least reduce, the likelihood of an interview being terminated by a respondent because of an uncomfortable situation where a male interviewer – particularly somebody she did not

know - was asking sensitive questions of a sexual nature. Yet, despite this measure, a few respondents still refused to answer some of the more sensitive (sexual behaviour) questions. Some problems were experienced during the process of locating youths in the rural areas. This was due to population aging in these areas. Where this became a major problem, snowball sampling was employed to acquire those respondents who might have access to a cellular phone but not a landline.

## **6. Research Findings**

Besides some demographic variables (*i.e.* population, gender, age, employment status, *etc.*) the Free State Youth Survey focused on different dimensions/themes relevant to the perceptions and social behaviours of young people in the Free State of between 14 to 35 years of age. The following themes were operationalised in the questionnaire:

- Training and education
- Youth and civil society
- Youth and crime
- High-risk behaviour
- Youth and reproductive health
- Youth and government institutions and programmes
- Youth and economic participation (business/work)

Although population group was an important variable explaining differences in perceptions and behaviour in terms of the above-listed subthemes, other variables (*i.e.* gender, age, employment status, urban-rural, *etc.*) were also included in a bivariate analysis. Table 6.1 reflects the findings of these correlations for both 2003 and 2008. It should however be noted that the number of correlations for the two surveys are not directly comparable as each tested a different number of hypotheses. It is clear that population group, age and gender remain the three factors that mostly account for changes in youth perceptions and youth profiles. However, although some of these correlations may be statistically significant, a *logical explanation* for such correlations did not always present itself. Therefore, only some of these interrelationships are discussed in the text.

*Table 6.1: Number of statistically significant correlations at 0.05 significant level*

Variable		Population group	Employment status	Gender	Urban & rural	Age	TOTAL
Training / education	2003	6	3	7	3	3	22
	2008	7	7	5	4	5	28
Organisation participation (civil participation)	2003	12	1	9	2	6	30
	2008	7	5	4	6	3	25
Crime	2003	3	3	3	2	1	12
	2008	5	5	4	4	3	21
High-risk behaviour	2003	4	1	4	1	2	12
	2008	3	3	5	0	4	15
Reproductive health (sexual behaviour)	2003	5	3	4	1	4	17
	2008	7	5	6	1	4	23
Government programmes / institutions	2003	8	4	6	2	5	25
	2008	11	12	7	8	16	54
Business / work	2003	5	2	4	2	2	15
	2008	4	3	1	0	2	10
TOTAL	2003	43	17	37	13	23	133
	2008	44	40	32	23	37	176

## 6.1 Biographic profile of the youth

### 6.1.1 Population group

Before a more detailed analysis of the various responses could be conducted, a brief overview of the biographic characteristics of the samples for 2003 and 2008 should be provided. Table 6.2 reflects the composition of the various population groups.

*Table 6.2: The composition of the population groups, 2003 and 2008*

Population group	2003		2008	
	n	%	n	%
Black	441	52.4	440	51.8
White	384	45.6	383	45.1
Coloured	16	1.9	26	3.1
Indian	1	0.1	0	0.0
TOTAL	842	100.0	849	100.0

Considering the composition of the population groups above, there was a slight decrease in the ratio of black respondents (from 52.4% in 2003, to 51.8% in 2008), white respondents (from 45.6% in 2003, to 45.1% in 2008) and Indian respondents

(0.1% in 2003, to 0% in 2008). The only population group to have shown an increase was the Coloured group, which increased from 1.9% in 2003, to 3.1% in 2008. Overall, these changes should be seen as resulting from the survey process and not from being influenced by other process, nor do they reflect the composition of population groups of youth in the Free State.

### 6.1.2 Gender composition

Table 6.3 reports on the gender composition of the two surveys.

*Table 6.3: The gender composition of the samples for 2003 and 2008*

Gender	2003						2008					
	Black		White		Total		Black		White		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
<b>Female</b>	225	49.3	239	62.4	464	55.3	236	50.8	190	49.7	426	50.3
<b>Male</b>	231	50.7	144	37.6	375	44.7	229	49.2	192	50.3	421	49.7
<b>Total</b>	456	100.0	383	100.0	839	100.0	465	100.0	382	100.0	847	100.0

The main gender difference between the 2003 and 2008 data is that the 2008 data had a more equal gender distribution than the 2003 information. This is specifically true of the white population. In 2003 only 37.6% of the white population had been males compared with the 50.3% in 2008. The main reason for this more equal gender distribution is the fact that the 2008 methodology attempted to achieve a more equal distribution.

### 6.1.3 Place of residence

Next, consideration is given to the place of residence of the interviewees. Table 6.4 provides a more detailed overview in this respect.

*Table 6.4: Place of residence of the sampled population, 2003 and 2008*

Place of residence	2003						2008					
	Black		White		Total		Black		White		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%	n	%
Bloemfontein	83	18.1	87	22.7	170	20.2	73	15.7	93	24.3	166	19.6
Welkom	81	17.7	94	24.5	175	20.8	74	15.9	87	22.7	161	19.0
Sasolburg	31	6.8	20	5.2	51	6.1	36	7.7	30	7.8	66	7.8
Kroonstad	31	6.8	39	10.2	70	8.3	15	3.2	29	7.6	44	5.2
Bethlehem	80	17.5	87	22.7	167	19.8	86	18.5	90	23.5	176	20.7

Trompsburg	21	4.6	12	3.1	33	3.9	22	4.7	16	4.2	38	4.5
Thaba Nchu	34	7.4	1	0.3	35	4.2	29	6.2	0	0.0	29	3.4
Hoopstad	9	2.0	5	1.3	14	1.7	18	3.9	5	1.3	23	2.7
Vrede	9	2.0	14	3.6	23	2.7	11	2.4	10	2.6	21	2.5
Edenville	16	3.5	9	2.3	25	3.0	29	6.2	6	1.6	35	4.1
Wesselsbron	30	6.6	6	1.6	36	4.3	18	3.9	5	1.3	23	2.7
Dewetsdorp	4	0.9	10	2.6	14	1.7	24	5.2	12	3.1	36	4.2
Qwa Qwa	29	6.3	0	0.0	29	3.4	31	6.7	0	0.0	31	3.7
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>458</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>384</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>842</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>15.7</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>24.3</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>19.6%</b>

Although slight variations do exist between the 2003 and 2008 surveys, the overall percentages for the two years are mostly similar. The biggest difference seems to be in the case of Dewetsdorp, where the 2008 survey reported 4.2% of the interviewees compared with 1.7% in 2003. If the urban hierarchy of the Free State<sup>5</sup> is considered, the following main comparisons can be made:

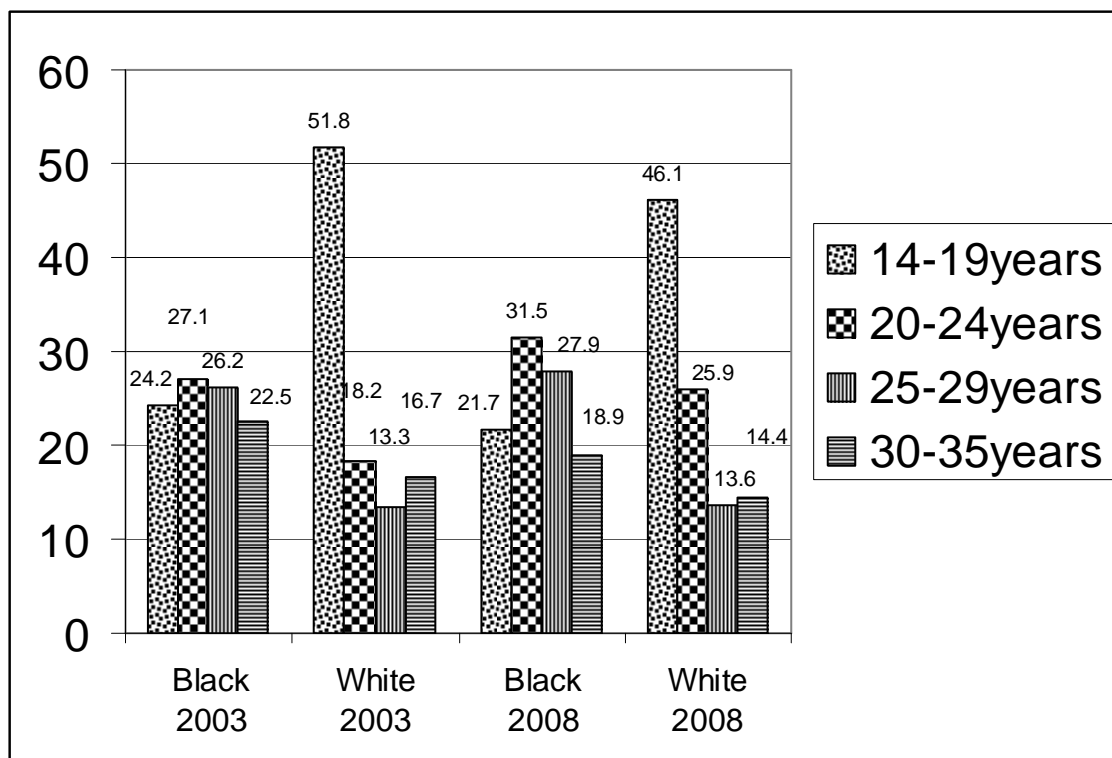
- Large urban areas: the 2003 sample had 47.1% of the interviewees in this urban form compared with only 46.4% in 2008.
- Regional towns: in 2003 28.1% of the sample originated from these towns compared with only 25.9% in 2008.
- Small and middle-order towns: in 2003 24.8% of the sample were inhabitants of these urban areas compared with 27.8% in 2008.

One of the specific shortcomings of the sampling process was that it was virtually impossible to access black youths on commercial farms.

#### **6.1.4 Age composition**

Youth, per definition, refers to a section of the population that is in transformation from childhood to adulthood. Demographically, the term thus includes a wide range of people – from children at school to already established households. The South African definition of youth, in terms of age, includes those aged between 14 and 35. This reinforces the fact that a wide range of people is actually considered when referring to youth. Figure 6.1 provides an overview of the age distribution in the five year age cohorts between 14 and 35.

<sup>5</sup> Krige 1995 developed an urban category for the Free State. According to this hierarchy, Bloemfontein, Welkom and Sasolburg would be classified as large urban areas. Bethlehem and Kroonstad were classified as regional towns, and the rest of the urban areas were classified as small or middle-order towns. It should be noted that Krige also categorised Thaba Nchu urban as part of the large urban population. In our survey the Thaba Nchu rural population was targeted.



**Figure 6.1: Age distribution of the sampled population, 2003 and 2008**

A number of remarks should be made in respect of the age distribution of black and white youths in the Free State as reflected in Figure 6.1:

- There was a decline in the percentage of black and white youths in the 14-19 age cohort. In the case of black youths, there was a decline from 24.2% in 2003, to 21.7% in 2008. For white youth, the decline was from 51.8% in 2003, to 46.1% in 2008. The 2003 report alluded to the fact that the age distribution of white youths did correspond to the normal age distribution of the population. Although the 2008 group still suffered from the same problem, the more than 5% decline in the proportion of youths in this age group indicates some form of normalisation in this respect. Yet, the availability of cell phone technology probably means that fewer households, especially in the white community, have access to landlines.
- The figures in Figure 6.1 reveal that for both the white and black youths there has been an increase in the percentage of the sample within the 20-24 year age cohort. In the case of the black youths it has increased from 27.2% to 31.5%. Comparatively, the increase for white youths has been from 18.2% to 25.9%.

- Less significant changes have recorded for the age group 25-29. In the case of black youths there has a slight increase in the proportion of youth in this category (26.2% in 2003, to 27.9% in 2008). For white youths the increase has been from 13.3% in 2003, to 13.6% in 2008.
- At the same time there was a decline of the proportion of households in the age cohort 30-35. For black youths the percentage declined from 22.5% in 2003, to 18.9% in 2008. In the case of white youths the percentage decreased from 16.7% in 2003, to 14.4% in 2008.

Overall, these changes should be understood in interpreting the results of the survey later on in the report. Furthermore, the fact that there has been a decrease in the percentage of youths in the 14-19 year age group should be seen against declining fertility trends in South Africa.

#### **6.1.5 Disability**

One of the questions that was added to the 2003 survey was one that aimed to determine the disability status of youth in the Free State. It has long been accepted that environmental and poverty factors influence disability. The survey results confirmed this and revealed that:

- Three percent of the black population and 2.6% of the white population were disabled.
- Physical disability was the most prominent form of disability: 43% of black youths reported this form of disability, compared with 63% of the white youths.
- Mental disability was reported for 57% of black youths and 13% of white youths.

#### **6.1.6 Marital status**

Marital status is the last biographical consideration in this report. Table 6.5 provides an overview in this respect.



**Table 6.5: Marital status of respondents, 2003 and 2008**

Gender	2003						2008					
	Black		White		Total		Black		White		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Single/never married	368	80.3	300	78.1	668	79.3	405	86.9	302	78.9	707	83.3
Married	67	14.6	75	19.5	142	16.9	37	7.9	69	18.0	106	12.5
Living with another person	15	3.3	1	0.3	16	1.9	20	4.3	8	2.1	28	3.3
Divorced/separated	5	1.1	8	2.1	13	1.5	4	0.9	3	0.8	7	0.8
Widow/widower	3	0.7	-	-	3	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.3	1	0.1
TOTAL	458	100.0	384	100.0	842	100.0	466	100.0	383	100.0	849	100.0

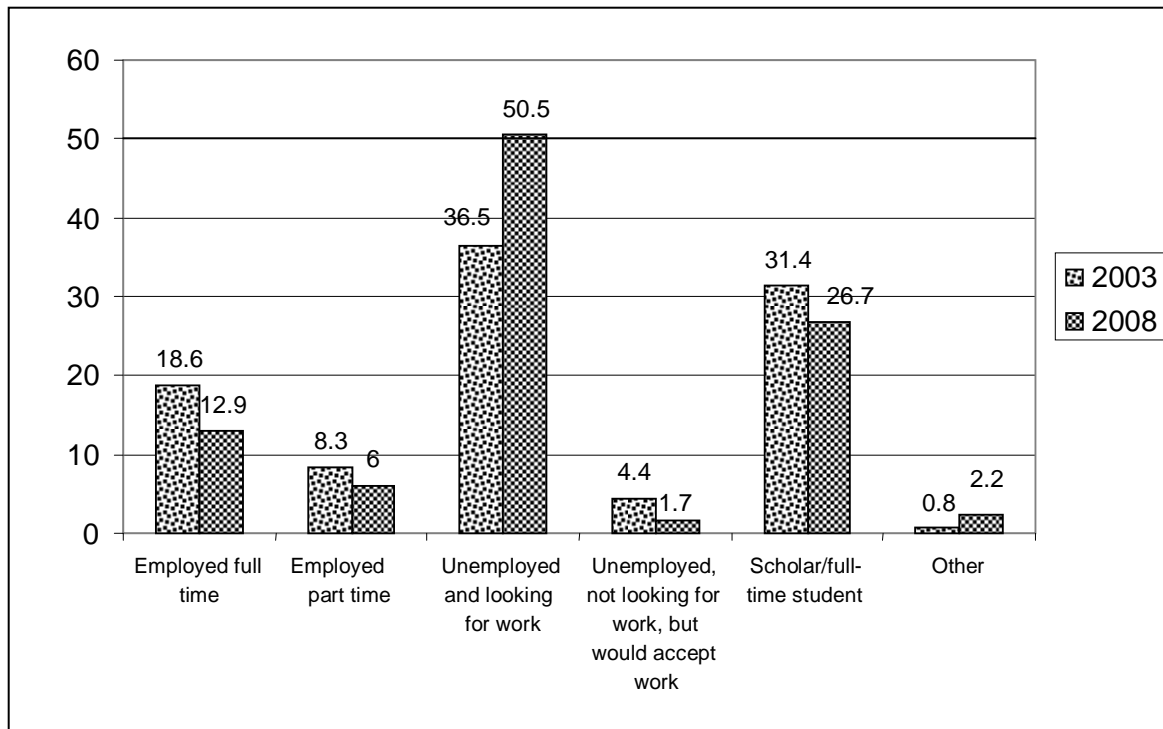
The above results reveal that in 2008 a smaller percentage of youths were married than was the case in 2003. In 2003, 14.6% of black youths were married, compared with 7.9% in 2008. The comparative figures for white youths in the respective years were 19.5% and 18.0%. Obviously the percentages for respondents who were single or never married showed increases. This finding is noteworthy if we consider the fact that there was a decline in the 14-19 age cohort. The percentages for those respondents who were either separated or lost a partner were marginal. Yet, a decline was reported for youths who reported being divorced or separated.

## 6.2 Youth and employment

This section considers aspects of employment among youth in the Free State. Three main aspects are considered: employment status, levels of self employment and perceptions of unemployed youths on whether they will ever find employment.

### 6.2.1 Employment status

In this section a distinction is drawn between black and white youths. First, the employment status of black youths is considered (see Figure 6.2).



**Figure 6.2: The employment status of black youths, 2003 and 2008**

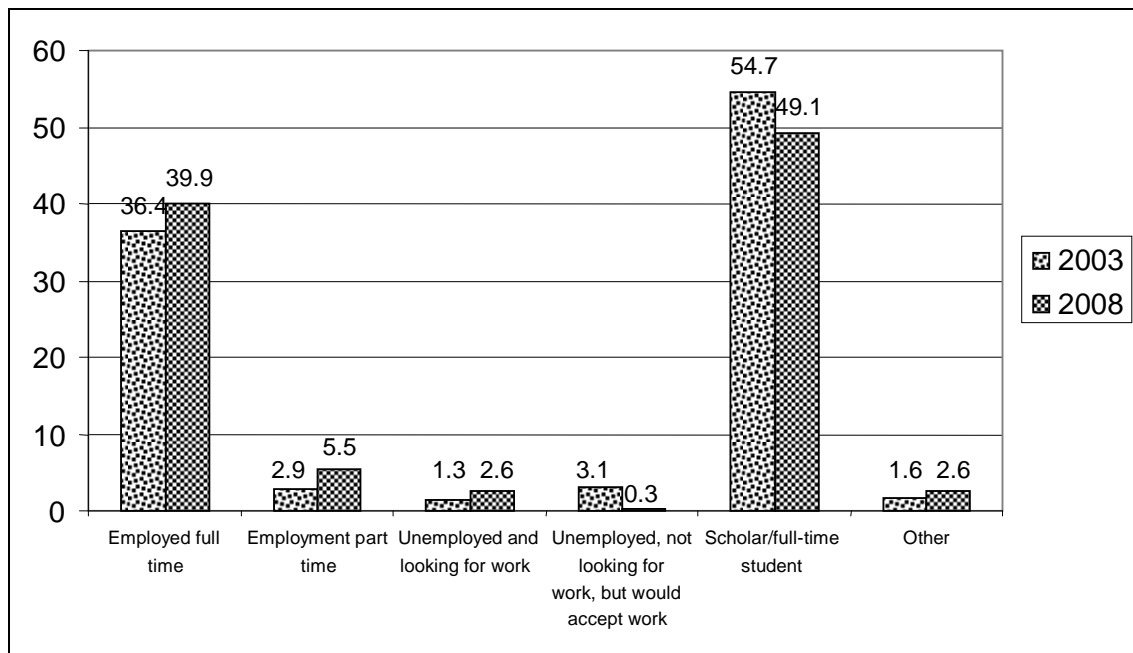
The results in Figure 6.2 reveal interesting trends. There seems to have been a decline in full-time employment and part time employment between 2003 and 2008. For example, in 2003, 18.6% of the black youths were employed full time, compared with only 12.9% in 2008. For part-time employment, the percentages dropped from 8.3% to 6% between 2003 to 2008. Consequently, the percentages of respondents who were unemployed showed a considerable increase from 36.5% in 2003, to 50.5% in 2008<sup>6</sup>. This is markedly higher than the average for the Free State and it confirms the national trend in this respect. At the same time there also seems to have been a decline in the percentage of youths who were scholars or full-time students. In 2003 31.4% of the respondents were scholars or full-time students, compared with 26.7% in 2008. This could partially be ascribed to fact that the age composition showed a decline in the percentage of respondents in the 14-19 year cohort.

These figures are not good news for youth development (especially of black youths) and reflect a marked deterioration in the employment status between 2003 to 2008. Although tougher economic trends have been prominent since the latter part of 2006,

the period 2003 to 2008 has been a period of significant economic growth with some progress even having been made in respect of a decrease in unemployment. The following questions can thus be asked:

- Is there still significant racial discrimination towards black youth in the labour market?
- Do the black youths have the appropriate skills to access the labour market?
- How difficult is it, from a regulatory point of view, to access the labour market?
- Are policies such as internships effective and applied widely enough to foster youth employment?
- If there is room for improvement in this respect, how does one achieve this?

Having reflected on the results for black youths, our emphasis now shifts to the results for white youths (see Figure 6.3).



**Figure 6.3: The employment status of white youths, 2003 and 2008**

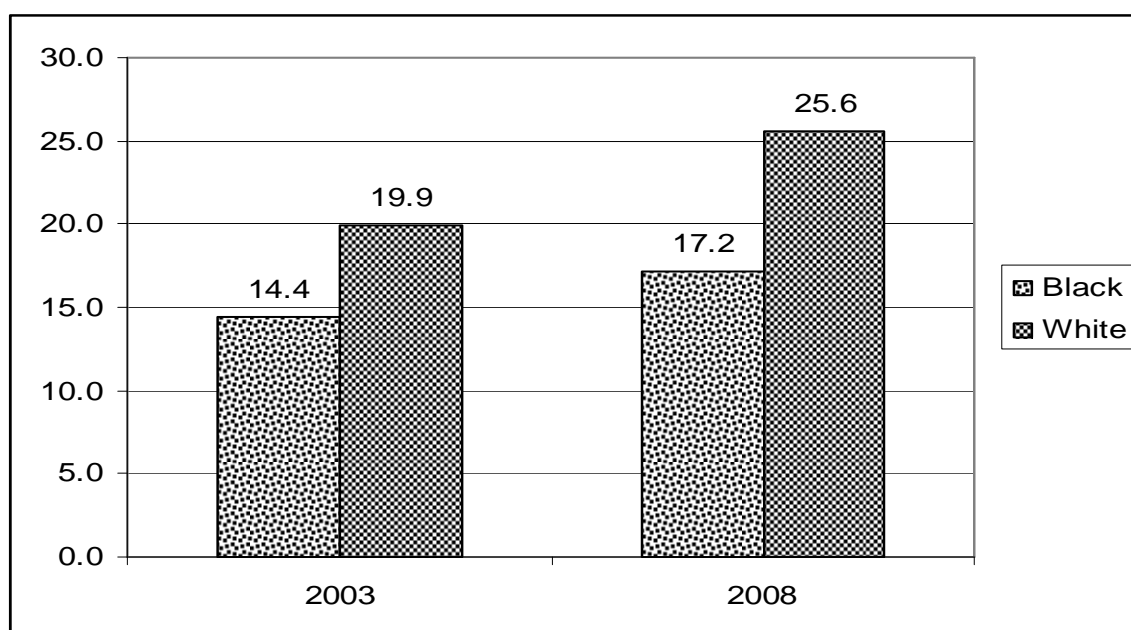
In contrast to the trends in the employment profile of black youths, the full-time employment of white youths increased from 36.4% in 2003, to nearly 40% in 2008.

<sup>6</sup> This figure could be ascribed to the expanded definition of unemployment. The narrow definition would entail the figures in the broad definition minus the figures reflected under the category

Part-time employment also increased from 2.9% to 5.5%. This trend could probably be associated with the fact that the sample included a smaller percentage of white youths in the 14-19 year age group. Yet, in contrast to the situation in the black youth category, there was no decline. What seems to be evident in both groups is the decline in the numbers of the respondents who are full-time students. This raises the question whether the trend can be attributed solely to methodological considerations or whether, in fact, young people (and in this case white young people) access the labour market earlier or do not consider further studies to be worth pursuing. Overall, the picture in respect of employment reflects an increasing inequality between black and white youths.

### 6.2.2 Levels of self-employment

Respondents who indicated that they were employed were asked whether they were self-employed or whether they worked for another person (see Figure 6.4).



*Figure 6.4: The percentage of employed youths who are self-employed, 2003 and 2008*

In respect of self-employment, the results suggest that there has been an increase in self-employment among both white and black youths. In the case of black youths, the

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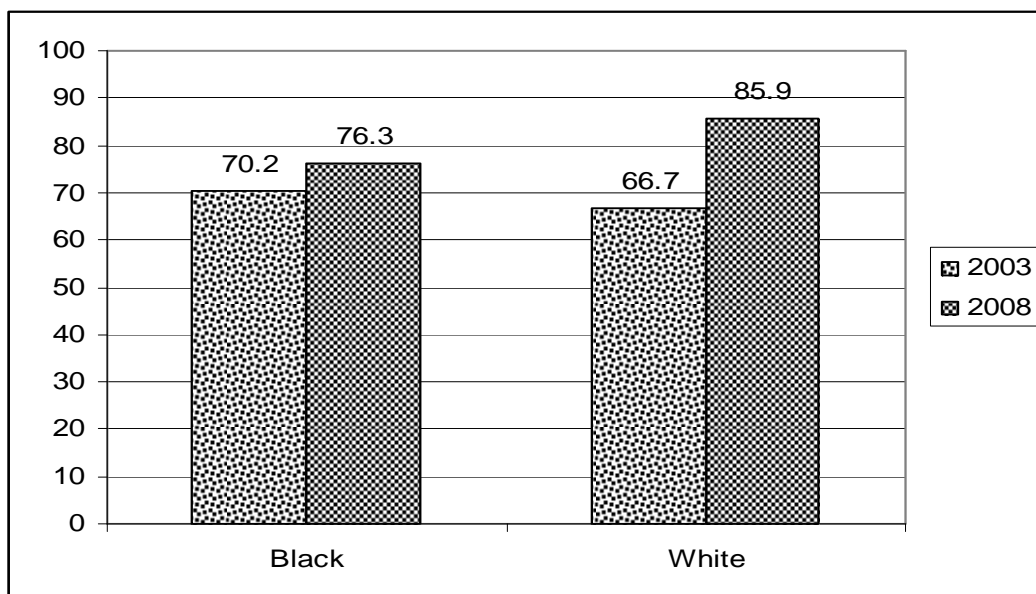
“unemployed, not looking for work, but would accept work”.

figures increased from 14.4% in 2003 to just below 20% in 2008. The similar figures for white youths were 17.2% in 2003 and 25.6% in 2008. Yet, considering the fact that employment in general has declined for black youths, this means that only 3.2% of black youths were self-employed in 2008 compared with 3.7% in 2003. In contrast, the figure for white youths increased from 7.5% in 2003 to 11.2% in 2008. In addition, and with reference to the questions already raised about black youth employment, the above results also show that black youths are less likely to be self-employed than are white youths, that there has in actual fact been a marginal decrease in self-employment among black youths – compared with a significant increase for white youths.

In 2008, respondents who were students were also asked about part-time employment. A considerably larger percentage of white youths (23.7%) than black youths (11.4%) indicated doing some form of part-time employment.

### 6.2.3 Perceptions about finding employment

Those respondents who indicated that they were unemployed and looking for a job (Figure 6.2 and Figure 6.3), were asked if they thought they would ever get a job (see Figure 6.5).



*Figure 6.5: Percentage of unemployed black and white youths who are of the opinion that they will find employment, 2003 and 2008*

Figure 6.5 shows that the majority of the youth are still optimistic that they will find employment and that the percentages for both black and white youths have increased since 2003. In the case of black youths the percentage increased from 70.2% in 2003, to 76.3% in 2008. For white youths there was an increase from 66.7% in 2003, to more than 85% in 2008. Thus, in spite of a considerable decrease in employment among black youth respondents, expectations of finding employment have risen in this group of youths since 2003.

In addition to this question respondents were also asked to give a reason why they thought they would not find employment. These reasons are reflected in Table 6.6 below.

**Table 6.6: Reasons why respondents feel that they will not find employment, 2003 and 2008**

Reason why respondent will not find employment	2003		2008	
	n	%	N	%
Looking for long time without success	20	35.1	10	29.4
Work scarce	16	28.1	8	23.5
No qualifications / experience	10	17.5	16	47.1
Too old/ want to start own business	5	8.8	0	0
Everybody rejects me	3	5.3	0	0
Physical problems	3	5.3	0	0
Total	57	100.0	34	100.0

From the above table it would seem as though the one reason that has increased since 2003 is the lack of qualifications or the absence of experience. Unfortunately the data do not allow disaggregation between experience and qualifications. The important point that should be noted from this is that there might be serious stumbling blocks to providing young people with a first-time job opportunity. Policies and programmes have thus far focused mainly on the supply side (for example internships), while demand-driven aspects (such as tax incentives to employ first-time job seekers have not been part of practice). The fact that fewer black youths than white youths (see Section 6.2.2) find part-time work while being a scholar / student further supports the

notion that first-time work experiences are important (even if it is part-time and sometimes informal in nature).

Respondents were also asked why they thought they would find employment. The following responses were received:

- Forty-two percent said that they were still looking. This in itself is a positive attribute in the sense that it is probably an indication that the respondents have not given up hope in finding employment.
- This emphasis on hope is confirmed by the fact that 11.7% of the respondents noted that they had not given up hope of finding employment.
- Interestingly enough just more than one-third thought that they would find employment as they had the qualifications / experience or considered themselves to be hard workers.
- A further 12% noted that they were positive about finding employment as “they have promises”.

In conclusion: it seems that in spite of an increase in the hope of finding employment in the future, there are decreasing trends in both black youth employment and self-employment. Obviously these realities have consequences for education, internships, the regulatory environment and overall youth policy.

### **6.3 Youth and education/ skills**

The above section indicated two main aspects in respect of employment. First, it was outlined that black youths are in a worse-off situation compared with white youths. Second, it made the point that the employment and self-employment levels of black youths have actually decreased since 2003. The education level and the skills associated with education are fundamental underlying aspects to employment. It is to a range of educational aspects that this report now turns.

#### **6.3.1 Highest educational attainment**

There is little sense in comparing the educational attainment of youths for the full population of the sample: as many are still in the process, and age distribution would

then determine the results. Table 6.7 thus only depicts the data for respondents twenty years and older.

**Table 6.7: Level of education for youths (20 years and older), 2003 and 2008**

Level of education	Black				White			
	2003		2008		2003		2008	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
None	2	0.6	1	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
Some primary	10	2.9	4	1.1	2	1.1	0	0.0
Completed primary	9	2.6	12	3.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
Some secondary	139	40.3	113	31.0	9	4.9	11	5.3
Completed secondary	139	40.3	170	46.6	122	67.0	93	45.1
Post-grade 12	46	13.3	65	17.8	49	26.9	102	49.5
Total	345	100.0	365	100.0	182	100.0	206	100.0

\* Note that the age group 14-19 (the school attending age group) has been omitted from the above calculation in order to avoid distortion of the profile.

Table 6.7 illustrates two main findings. First, it reflects the huge discrepancy in respect of highest educational qualification between black and white youths. Despite an improvement in the percentage of black youths without a Grade 12 certificate (from 46.1% in 2003, to 35.7% in 2008), this is still considerably higher than the current 5.3% for white youths. Other data that reflects this discrepancy is that 17.8% of black youths have a post-grade 12 qualification compared with 49.5% of the white youths. These results hold serious implications for the employability and opportunities of, particularly, black youths in the labour market. Second, having noted the importance of education, the contrast regarding employment results should also be noted. Ironically, despite an increase in the percentage of black youths with a Grade 12 certificate, the employment levels of this group have decreased. One wonders why this is so. Although this specific research project did not attempt to investigate the possible reasons, a number of questions could be considered in this respect:

- Does this mean that the quality of school and tertiary education is substandard?
- Does this mean that learners leave school / tertiary education without the appropriate skills and theoretical background to obtain work?
- Are students studying the right subjects?



In addition to the above questions, respondents (20 years and older) were asked whether they had progressed in their education as far as that they would have liked. The response of black youths confirms the above trend. In 2003 only 8.3% of the black respondents returned a positive response compared with 28.2% in 2008. Yet, while this confirms the improvements in educational attainment, it nevertheless stands in stark contrast to employment trends. The comparative figures for whites show a decline in this respect although the percentage of positive responses to the question remains high. For example, in 2003 67.9% of the white youths returned positive responses compared with only 55% in 2008.

### 6.3.2 Other training or qualifications

In addition to the question on basic education, respondents were asked to indicate what other educational qualification they had (see Table 6.8).

**Table 6.8: Other training or qualification skills, 2003 and 2008**

Other educational achievements	2003				2008			
	Black		White		Black		White	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Practical skills	22	26.8	12	13.8	20	20.6	10	15.6
Business-related	9	11.0	18	20.7	11	11.3	18	28.1
Sport and recreation	1	1.2	4	4.6	12	12.4	3	4.7
Social studies: general	26	31.7	16	18.4	8	8.2	7	10.9
Natural sciences: general	1	1.2	12	13.8	5	5.2	4	6.3
Information technology (computer science)	18	22.0	17	19.5	5	5.2	9	14.1
Medical sciences (paramedical)	5	6.1	8	9.2	11	11.3	6	9.4
Other	0	0.0	0	0.0	8	8.2	6	9.4
Safety and security	0	0.0	0	0.0	17	17.5	1	1.6
Total	82	100.0	87	100.0	97	100.0	64	100.0

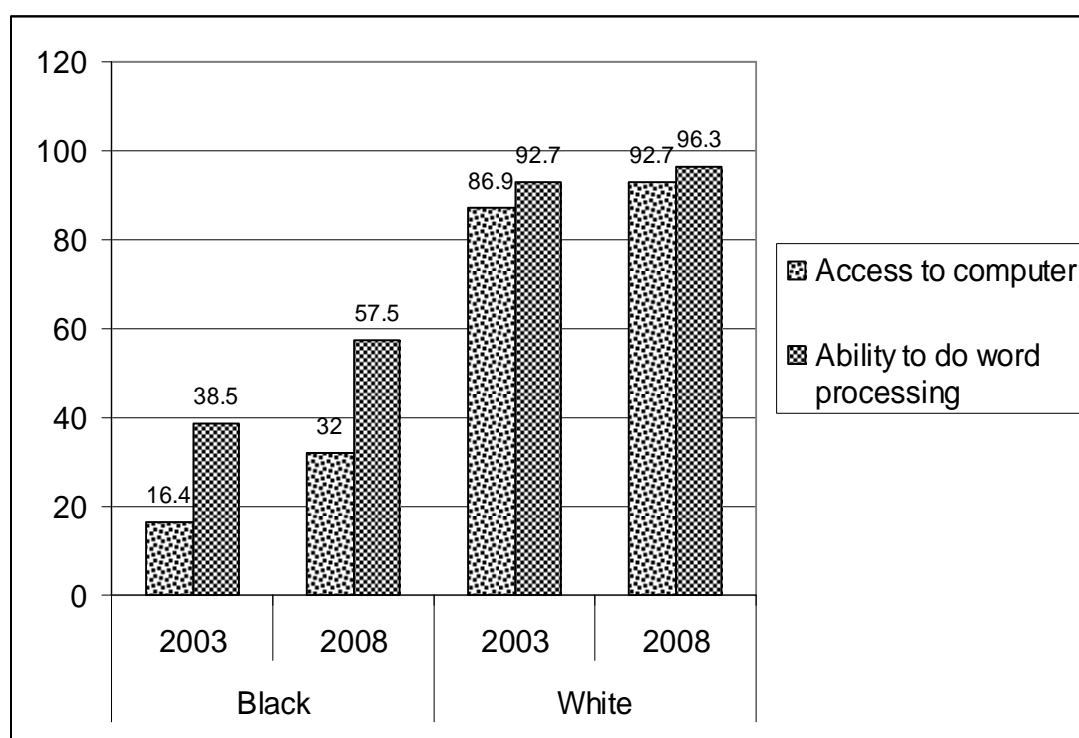
\* Note that the age group 14-19 (the school attending age group) has been omitted from the above calculation in order to avoid distortion of the profile. The totals further only reflect those respondents who indicated that they did have other training or qualification skills (i.e. apart from those mentioned in Table 10).

Table 6.8 shows the breakdown of additional skills or qualifications of the youth (i.e. over and above those listed in Table 6.7). In this regard it appears that most youths still favour qualifications in the broad field of social studies, despite young job seekers are often being cautioned that the labour market is saturated in respect of such

qualifications. It should be acknowledged that there has been a considerable decline since 2003. It would further appear from Table 6.8 that those areas of further study that had increased in importance between 2003 and 2008 were business-related training (especially for white youths), sport and recreation (for especially black youths), medical sciences (especially black youths) and safety and security (especially black youths). What seems to be declining is the percentage of, especially, black youths with practical skills. This has the major policy implication that a renewed effort is required to prioritise quality technical training.

### 6.3.3 Computer access

In an information age both access to and the ability to manage basic computer programmes are pivotal. Respondents were asked to reflect on their access to computers and their ability to utilise basic word-processing (see Figure 6.6).



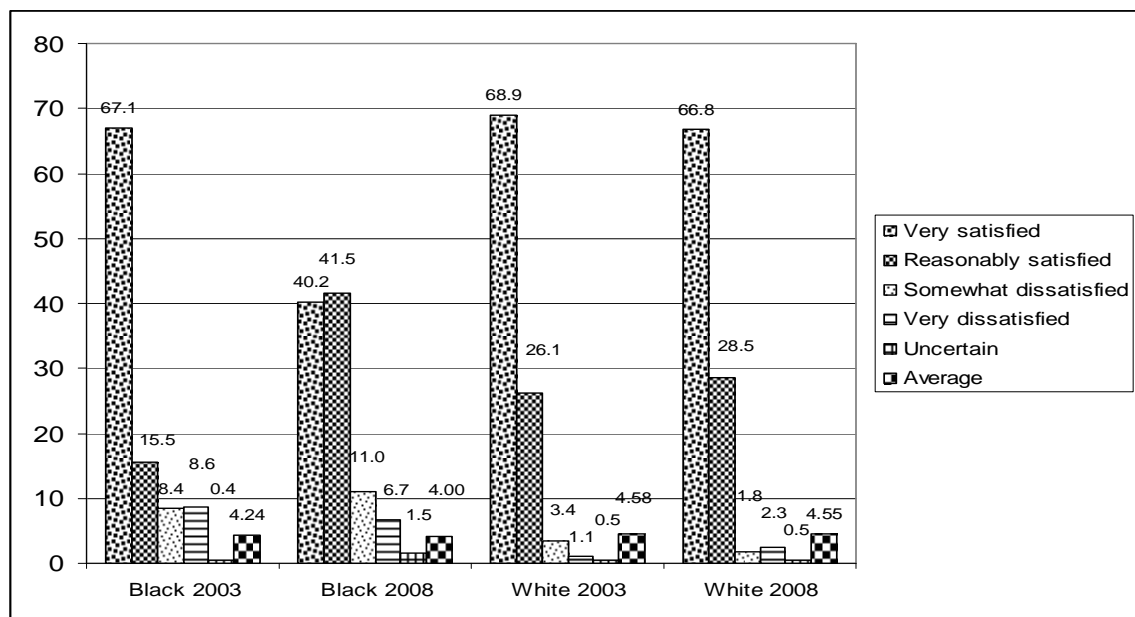
**Figure 6.6: Access to a computer and ability to do word-processing, 2003 and 2008**

Figure 6.6 suggests a considerable increase in the percentage of black youths who have access to a computer and who are able to do word-processing. In 2003, 16.4% of the respondents had access to a computer. By 2008 the percentage of black youths with regular access to a computer has more than doubled to 38.5%. The same

improvement is apparent in the percentage of respondents who have the ability to use a word processor. In 2003 only 32.0% of the black respondents could use a word processor, compared with 57.5% in 2008. What is also significant from the results in Figure 6.6 is that the gap between black and white youths has narrowed, though the figures for access to and the ability to use a computer for word-processing are still markedly higher for white youths.

### 6.3.4 Levels of satisfaction

Having compared the levels of education and access to computer programmes, the focus shifts to how the respondents evaluate their educational experience. The levels of satisfaction are measured for four institutions, namely schools, FETs, universities of technology and academic universities. The figures reflect the various levels of satisfaction as well as the averages for the Likert-scale (an average out of 5). Figure 6.7 provides an overview of the level of satisfaction in respect of school education.

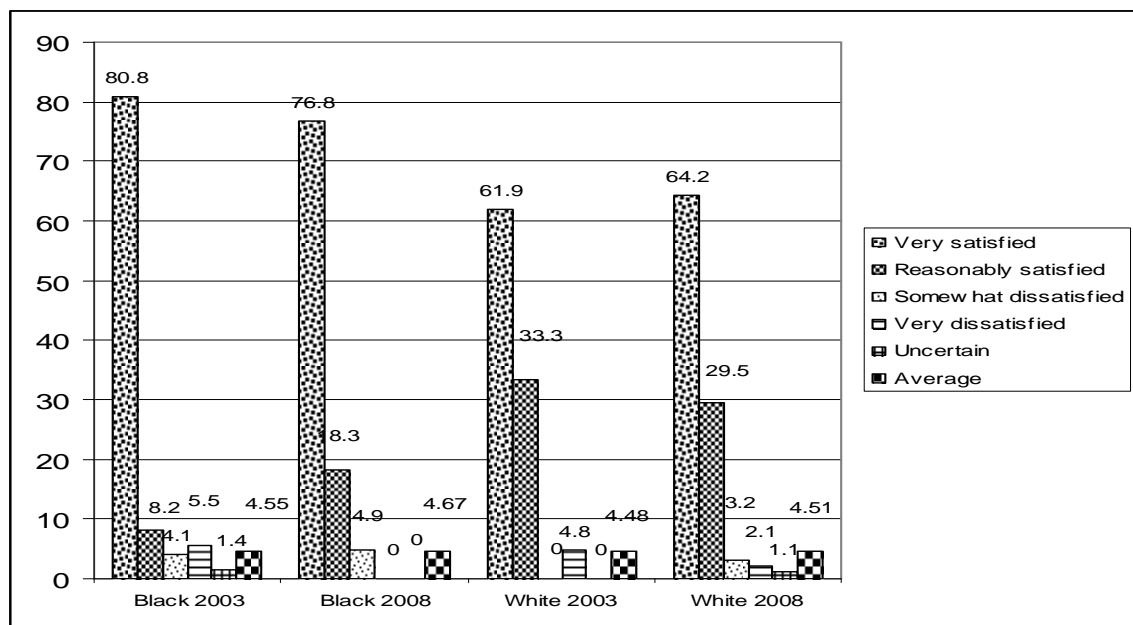


**Figure 6.7: Levels of satisfaction with school education, 2003 and 2008**

There was a slight decrease in the levels of satisfaction for black youths. The Likert-scale average in 2003 was 4.24. By 2008 this had deteriorated to 4.00. It should be acknowledge that despite this decrease, the overall levels of satisfaction were still high. The decrease could mainly be ascribed to a decrease in the percentage of people being very satisfied from 67.1% in 2003 to 40.2% in 2008. Consequently there was

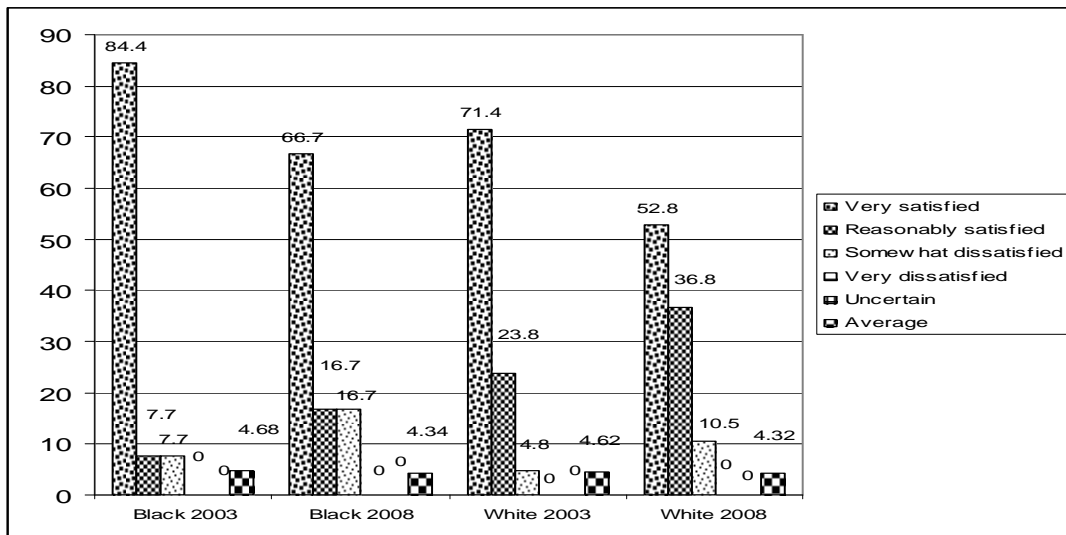
an increase in the percentage of respondents who were reasonably satisfied (from 15.5% to 41.5%). The overall level of satisfaction of white youths with their school education remained more or less the same (4.50 in 2003, and 4.55 in 2008). Significantly, white youths were more satisfied than black youths. Furthermore, the difference in the levels of satisfaction between 2003 and 2008 had also increased from 0.24, in 2003 to 0.55 in 2008.

Next, the report considers the levels of satisfaction in respect of Further Education and Training Colleges or Technical Colleges (see Figure 6.8).



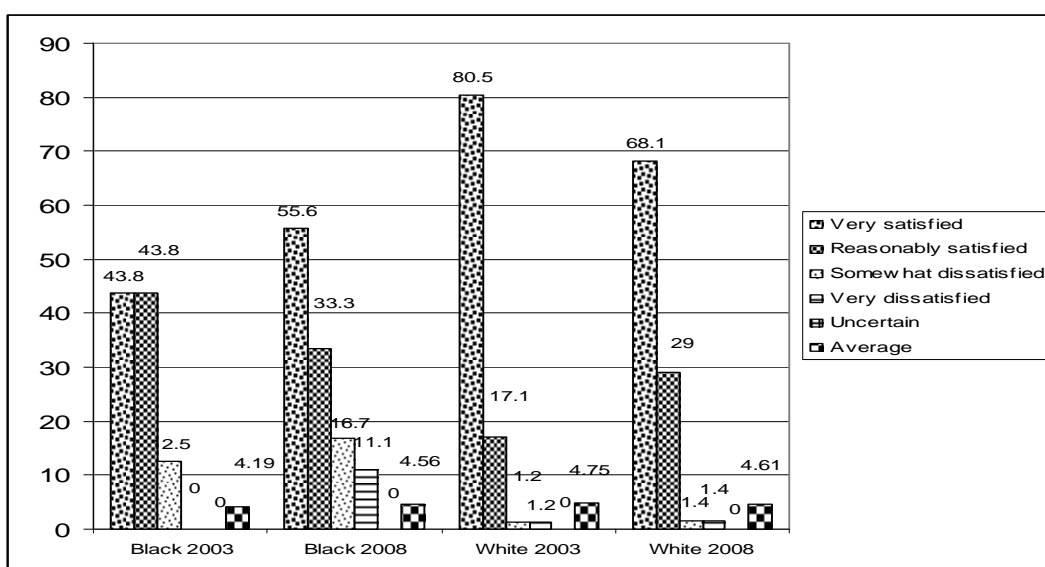
**Figure 6.8: Satisfaction with quality of FETs (technical colleges), 2003 and 2008**

The overall levels of satisfaction for this group of institutions had actually increased (albeit marginally) in the past five-year period. For black youths the figure increased from 4.55 to 4.67 on the Likert-scale. In comparison, the figures for white youths were 4.48 in 2003 and 4.51 in 2008. These figures should be treated carefully as the actual number of respondents were very low. In fact, in 2008 only 82 black and 95 white respondents responded to this question. Figure 6.9 reflects the quality of service received at Universities of Technology.



**Figure 6.9: Satisfaction with quality of higher education received at technikon / university of technology, 2003 and 2008**

Once again care should be taken in interpreting the percentages represented in Figure 6.9, as the actual number of respondents was very low (12 black respondents and 19 white respondents). The overall picture reflects a decrease in the levels of education. In the case of black respondents there was a decrease from 4.68, to 4.34. White respondents rated their satisfaction at 4.62 in 2003, which dropped to 4.32 in 2008. In both cases the percentages of respondents indicating being very satisfied have decreased. Figure 6.10 depicts the levels of satisfaction in respect of academic universities.



**Figure 6.10: Satisfaction with quality of higher education received at university, 2003 and 2008**

The results in Figure 6.10 indicate that black youths indeed increased their rating of universities from 4.19 in 2003, to 4.56 in 2008. In fact, there was a substantial increase in percentage of black youths who were very satisfied with their university education. It was also the only type of institution where such an increase was recorded for black youths. In the case of white youths there was a decline from 4.75 in 2003, to 4.61 in 2008. Once again this question was only answered by 9 black respondents and by 69 white respondents, which suggests that care should be exercised in the way the results are interpreted for, especially, black youths.

Overall, levels of satisfaction remained high. Yet, two points should be made:

- The decrease in the levels of satisfaction with school education among black youths should be noted. Although this is probably too early to make some confident remarks about this decline, the possibility of a trend of declining satisfaction should not be ignored.
- Ironically, the high levels of satisfaction regarding education are in direct contrast to the lower levels of employment recorded earlier in the report.

### **6.3.5 Recommendations from the youth**

Against the background of the question posed above, the respondents were also requested to make a number of recommendations with regard to the educational system. Three specific questions were asked in this respect:

- What aspects would the respondents like to change in respect of their education?
- Why do some youths not complete their school training?
- What type of training would they like to have in order to improve their opportunities of finding employment?

Table 6.9 reflects the answers to the question concerning the types of changes respondents would like to see.

**Table 6.9: Aspects respondents would like to change in respect of their education, 2008 and 2008**

Aspects to be improved	Black		White	
	n	%	n	%
Change subject/course selection	116	54.0	17	8.9
Introduce more technology into training/focus on practicals	24	11.2	46	24.0
Improve quality of education in general	20	9.3	5	2.6
Improve teachers and training/more teachers	18	8.4	30	15.6
Language-related: English	9	4.2	1	0.5
Personal changes	6	2.8	16	8.3
Educational policy/curriculum changes	3	1.4	3	1.6
Change negative social connotations	2	0.9	0	0.0
Language-related: general	2	0.9	3	1.6
Language-related: Afrikaans	0	0.0	7	3.6
Discipline	0	0.0	6	3.1
Other	15	7.0	58	30.2
Total	215	100.0	192	100.0

The above table is a true reflection of the current dilemmas in education. The fact that more than 50% of black youths suggest changing the subject or course is noteworthy. As already alluded to earlier in the report the poor quality of education and the irrelevance of some education that is implied in this response is precisely one of the main problems in respect of employability. The two other main points suggested by black youths are improved technology and a general improvement in education. The need for improvement of teachers is also mentioned. For white youth, the most prominent piece of advice is the need to utilise technology, followed by the need for improved teachers.

Respondents were next requested to provide reasons why some learners do not complete their school education. The results in respect of 2008 are depicted in Table 6.10 below.

**Table 6.10: Reasons for not completing school training, 2008**

Reasons for not completing school	Black		White	
	n	%	n	%
Socio-economic reasons	134	29.8	68	20.3
Negative social influence	116	25.8	27	8.1
Teenage pregnancies	95	21.2	12	3.6
Personal lack of inspiration /motivation	47	10.5	117	34.9
Lack of support from parents	35	7.8	28	8.4
Want to start earning	10	2.2	23	6.9
Problem with school/schooling	10	2.2	56	16.7
Learning problems	2	0.4	4	1.2
Poor education	0	0	0	0
Total	449	100	335	100

A number of trends both within and between the two population groups should be noted. First, for black youths the most prominent reasons given in both 2003 (36.1%) and 2008 (29.8%) were socio-economic reasons. These were followed by negative social influence and teenage pregnancies. In fact, teenage pregnancies increased as a reason between 2003 and 2008. In 2003, 17.2% of the black youths indicated this as a reason, compared with 21.2% in 2008. The high rate of teenage pregnancies has been identified as one of the most important health, development and population problems in South Africa, despite a declining trend in the general teenage birthrate. The South African Demographic and Health Survey (1998) found that 35% of all teenagers in South Africa have either been pregnant or have had a child by the time they turn 19 (Department of Health 1998). Teenage pregnancies are more prevalent among coloured and rural black girls, and among those with little or no education. In a national survey amongst South African youth aged 16-34 (April-July 2000), it appeared that only three out of every ten young women had planned their first pregnancy (CASE 2000). Unplanned pregnancies were highest amongst black youths (73%), and lowest amongst white youths (38%). The data in Table 6.10 to a certain extent confirm the above trend, since blacks were proportionately much more inclined than whites to identify teenage pregnancy as the main reason for not completing school. More than 50% of all young women in South Africa were still at school when they had their first child. Black women in particular tended to be at school (59%) when they fell pregnant and gave birth for the first time. An issue such as curbing the teenage pregnancy rate is not simply a matter of improved reproductive health services, although this is obviously one component of the solution. A vital



prerequisite to supplement the latter, is a “...multifaceted, multisectoral strategy involving not simply the health of young people but their entire being, *with poverty one of the most fundamental and intractable issues to be resolved*” (UNFPA 2000 - emphasis added). At the same time it is important to create an environment in which youths who fall pregnant do have the opportunity and the motivation to complete their school education. This is also an area that requires more detailed research – maybe in a far more ethnographic fashion.

The dominant reason provided by white youths is that of “personal lack of inspiration / motivation”, although socio-economic reasons were also mentioned by this group.

In addition to the general advice above, respondents were also asked to identify types of training that they would like to receive to improve their opportunities in the labour market (see Table 6.11)

**Table 6.11: Type of training respondents would like to receive to improve their opportunities in the labour market, 2008**

Type of training	Black		White	
	n	%	n	%
Information technology (computer science)	133	29.9	24	9.6
Business-related	92	20.7	52	20.8
Practical skills	70	15.7	24	9.6
Sport, arts, culture and recreation	31	7.0	27	10.8
Natural science: general	29	6.5	23	9.2
Social studies: general	20	4.5	40	16.0
Security/military	17	3.8	0	0.0
Medical science(paramedical)	12	2.7	14	5.6
Practical application/on-the-job-training/internship/learnership	6	1.3	11	4.4
Finish secondary schooling	5	1.1	2	0.8
Law	3	0.7	9	3.6
Other	27	6.1	24	9.6
Total	445	100	250	100

Black youths mentioned the availability of information technology as the most important aspect they needed training on so as to enable them to access the labour market (29.9%). Second, – and the most prominent requirement from white youths – was a quest for more business-related training (20.7% of black youths and 20.8% of white youths). The third most prominent reason for black youths was for more

practical-related training – an aspect also fairly prominent in the responses from white youths.

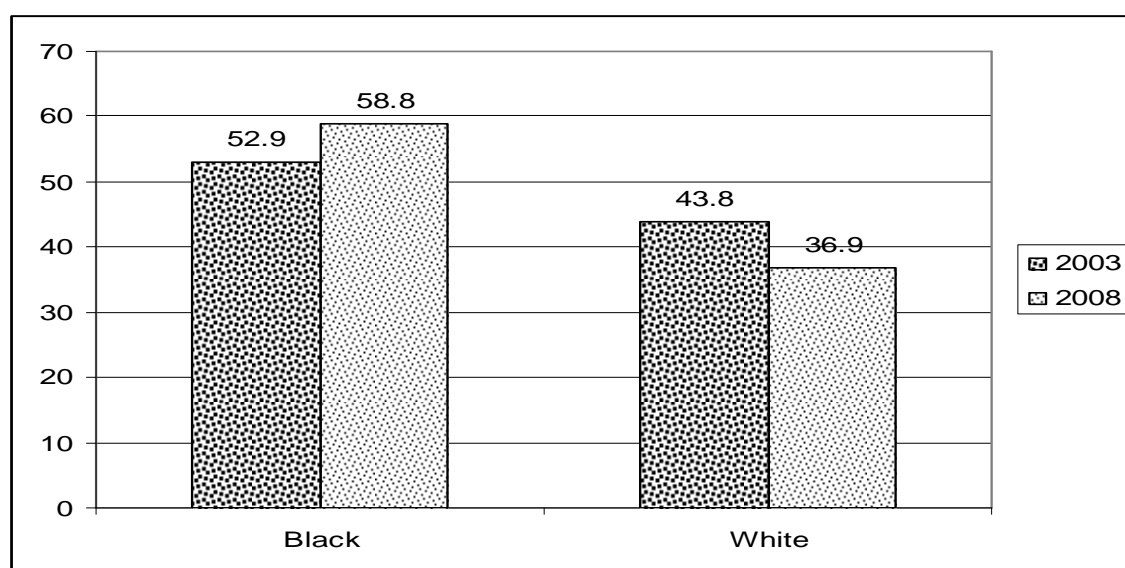
#### 6.4 Youth and organisations

The focus in this section shifts to the role of youth organisations. The following aspects were considered:

- General affiliation to organisations and the type of organisation to which respondents were affiliated
- An evaluation of the role of various organisations
- An indication by the respondents in respect of the type of programmes they would like to have

##### 6.4.1 Organisational affiliation

This section starts off by considering the general question on whether the youths do belong to some kind of organisation (see Figure 6.11).

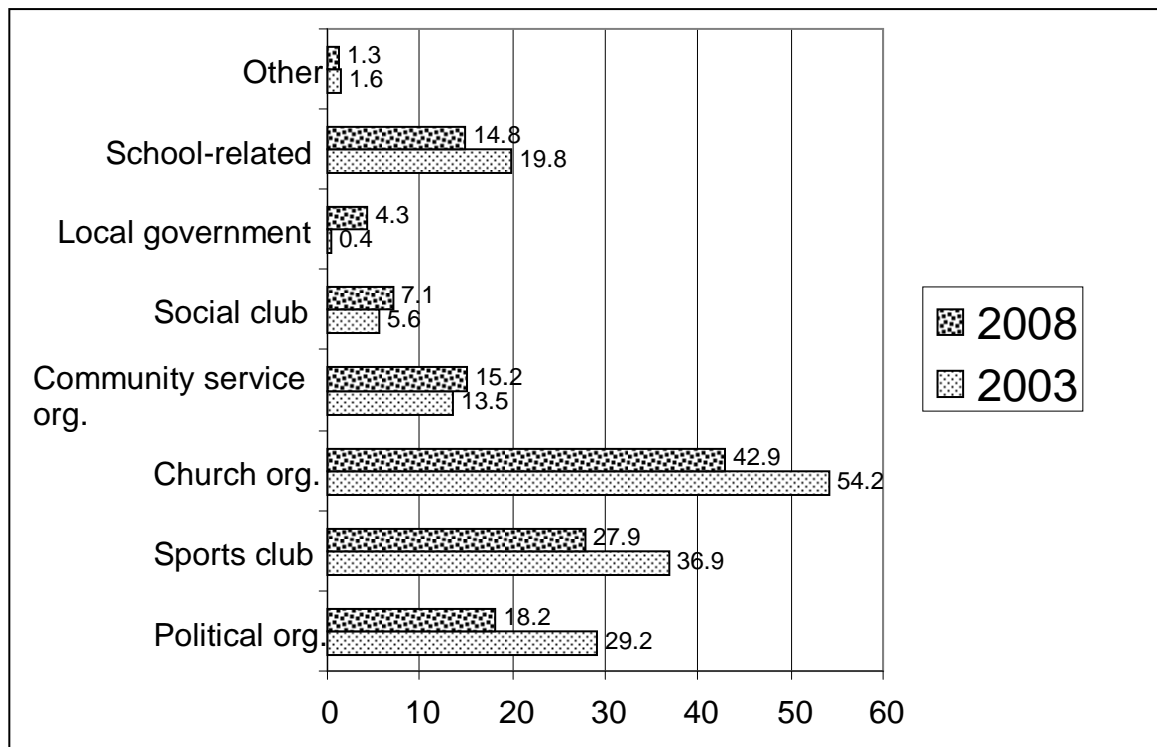


*Figure 6.11: The percentage of youths belonging to organisations, 2003 and 2008*

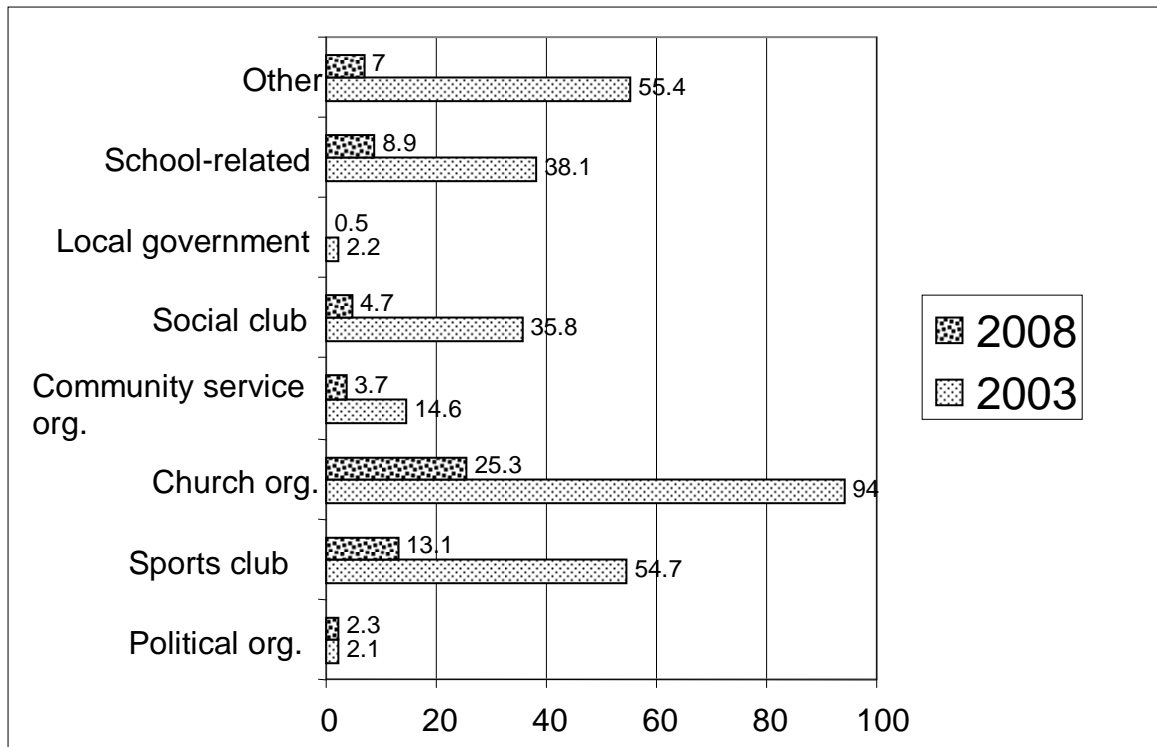
Figure 6.11 reveals that the percentage of black youths belonging to organisation has increased since 2003. In 2003, 52.9% of the respondents were affiliated to an organization, compared with 58.8% by 2008. The opposite trend applied in the case of white youths: organisation affiliation among white youths declined from 43.8% to 36.9% for the period under consideration. Although it is very difficult to speculate

about reasons for this decline, one might ask whether this indicates a larger degree of individualisation amongst white youths.

In order to arrive at a more detailed understanding of the trends in respect of the range of organisations, the respondents were asked to indicate affiliation to different types of organisations. For purposes of analysis, two figures are presented. First, Figure 6.12 portrays the results for black youths, while Figure 6.13 depicts the results for white youths.



**Figure 6.12: Percentage of black youths belonging to organisations, 2003 and 2008**



**Figure 6.13: Percentage of white youths belonging to organisations, 2003 and 2008**

The following should be noted in respect of the above two figures:

- As already suggested earlier in this section, organisational affiliation amongst black youths is considerably more than amongst white youths.
- The two figures reflecting specific affiliation for black and white youths between 2003 and 2004 indicate a marked decline. Regarding black youths, the most prominent decline has been in church affiliation (54.2% to 42.9%) and with political organisations (29.2% to 18.2%). In the case of white youths, the most prominent declines have been in respect of affiliation with church organisations (94% to 25.3%) and with sports clubs (54.7% to 13.1%).

Overall, the figures suggest a declining social affiliation, with the decline among white youths being far more significant than among black youths.

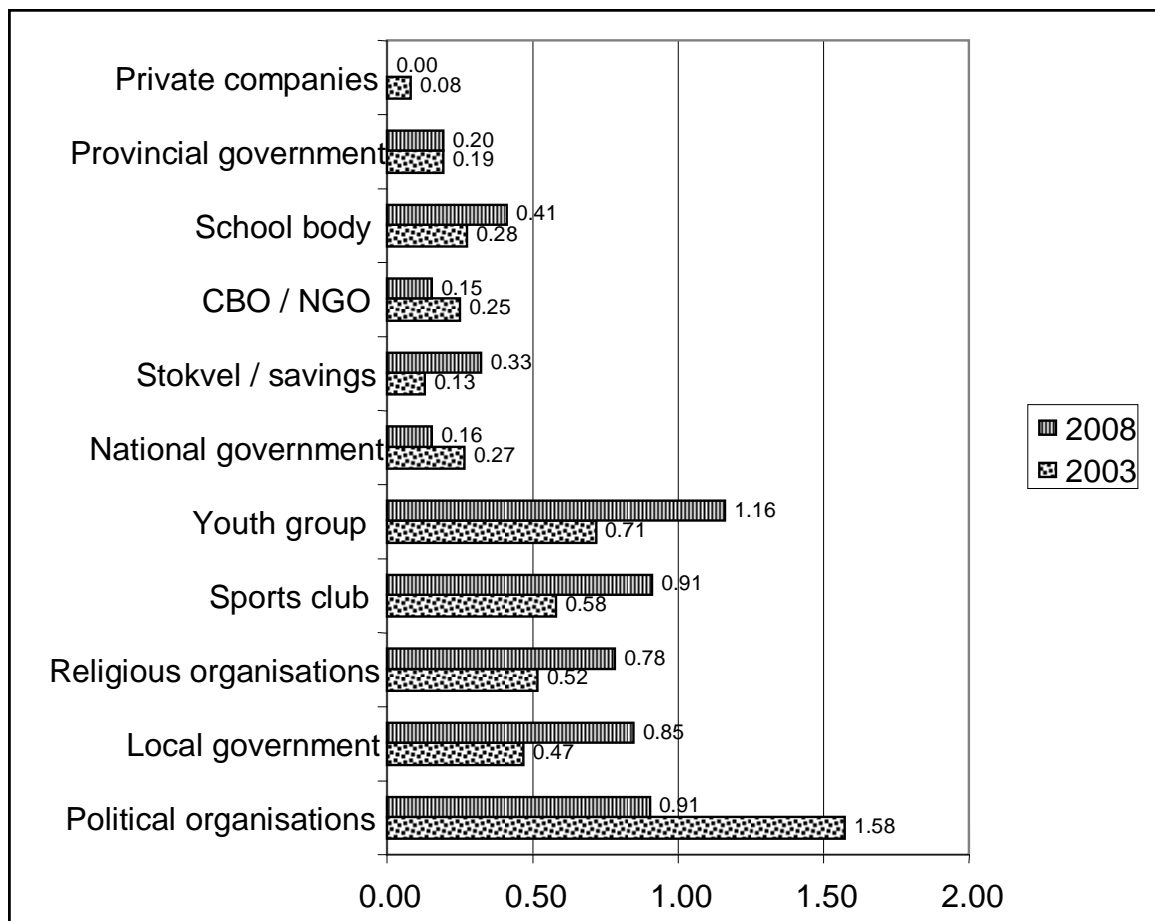
#### **6.4.2 The impact of organisations**

In addition to their affiliation with social organisations respondents were asked to indicate the organizations that have improved their communities. Respondents were

provided with a list of possible organizations, and they had to rate in terms of the following scale:

- Most important (3)
- Medium important (2)
- Least important. (1)

At the same time they were only allowed to select three options from the provided list of organisations. The average for the scale as outlined above was then used to compare the results of 2003 and 2008. Figure 6.14 provides the results for black youths, while the results for white youths are portrayed in Figure 6.15.

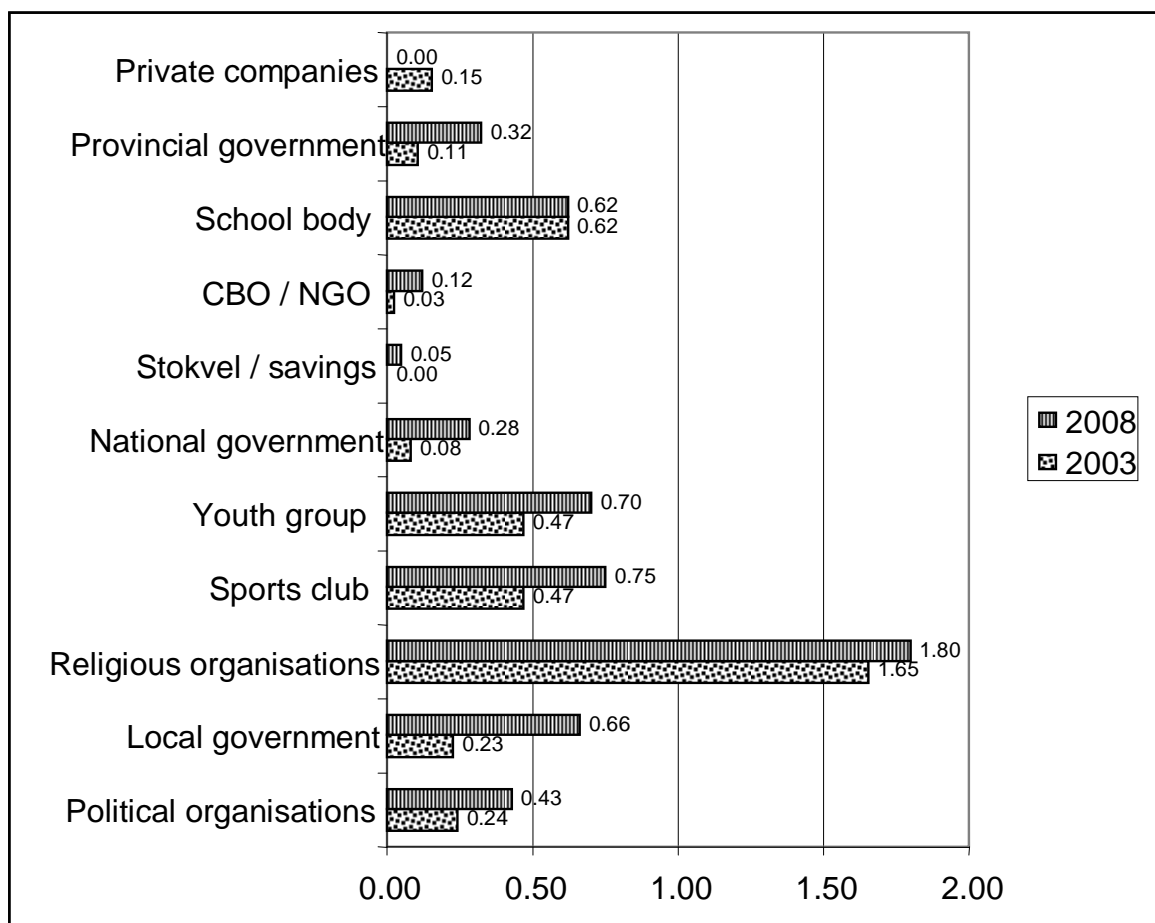


*Figure 6.14: The rating of the importance of various organisations to black youths, 2003 and 2008*

The following comments need to be made in respect of the black youths:

- The most significant drop in importance from 2003 to 2008 is seen in the rating of political organisations (from 1.58 to 0.91). This result is also confirmed by the fact that the percentage of youths who were affiliated to political organisations declined since 2003.
- There also seems to have been a decline in the importance of national government (0.27 to 0.16), but a considerable increase in the percentage for local government (0.47 to 0.85).

The ratings of organisations seem to indicate a shift from general and national organisations to more youth-specific and local organisations.



**Figure 6.15: The rating of the importance of various organisations to white youths, 2003 and 2008**

Religious organisations have been rated as being the most prominent among white youths. In fact, there has been an increase in the rating from 1.65 in 2003 to 1.8 in 2008. Other increases in the ratings since 2003 have been visible in political

organisations (as opposed to the decline among black youths), local government, sports clubs, youth groups, national government and CBOs / NGOs. It is interesting to note that there was an increase in the rating of the importance of national government, whereas among black youths the national government's rating deteriorated since 2003.

It is also important to compare what black and white youths, respectively, consider to be the three most important organisations. In the latest survey, black youths considered youth groups, sports clubs and political organisations to be the most prominent organizations. Comparatively, religious organisations, youth groups and sport clubs were rated the three most prominent organisations by white youths in 2008. Note that despite the importance of religious organisations to white youths, the earlier discussion noted a declining affiliation in this respect.

#### 6.4.3 Preferences in respect of youth programmes

Finally, respondents were asked what type of programmes they would like to get involved in (see Table 6.12).

**Table 6.12: Preference programmes for youths, 2008**

Programmes	Black youths		White youths	
	n	%	n	%
Educational programmes	113	25.7	43	12.9
General social programmes	91	20.7	11	3.3
Job creation	64	14.6	11	3.3
Youth actions and programmes	48	10.9	40	12.0
Welfare projects	16	3.6	92	27.5
Security	8	1.8	21	6.3
Religion and culture	2	0.5	21	6.3
Nothing	0	0.0	9	2.7
Other	97	22.1	86	25.7
Total	439	100	334	100

The most significant preference among black youths was for educational programmes, with 25.7% of the respondents requesting these. Educational programmes were followed by general social programmes (20.7%) and job creation (14.6%). The emphasis on wider life skills for black youths embedded in educational programmes

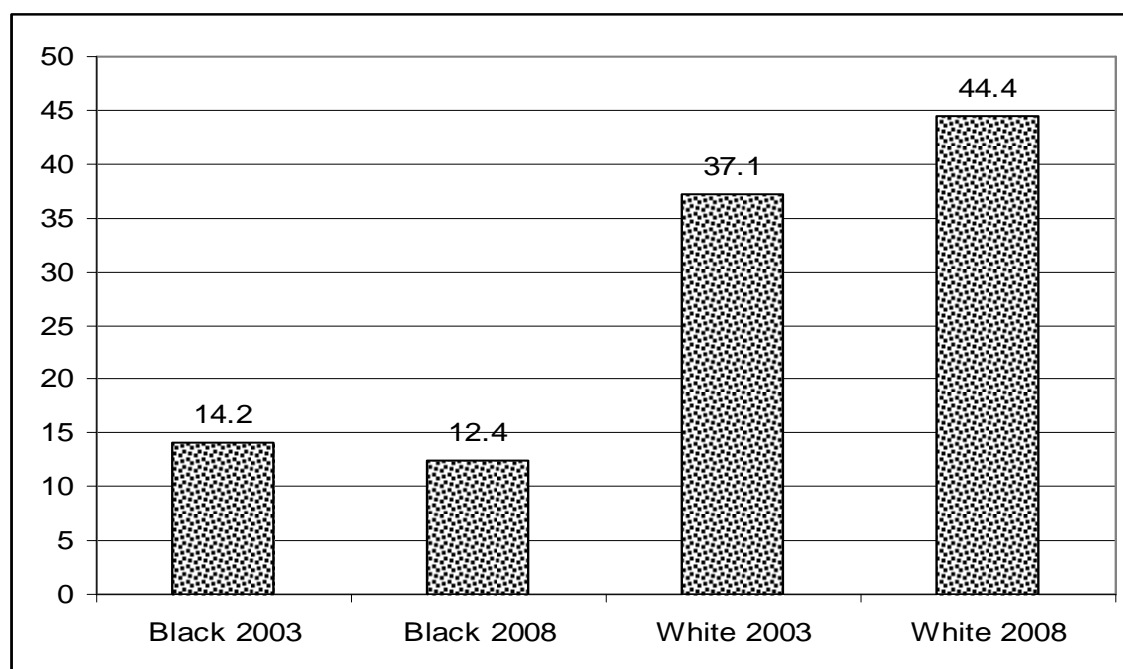
and general social programmes should be noted. The most prominent response – and surprisingly so among white youths referred to some form of welfare programmes. This was followed by educational programmes.

## 6.5 Youth and crime/ criminal justice

The emphasis in this section falls on crime and criminal justice. The section starts off with a discussion on experiences of crime followed and subsequently by a discussion on the efficiency of the policy. Finally, a number of questions are entertained on the criminal justice system.

### 6.5.1 Experiences of crime

In a first question, respondents were asked whether they had been victims of crime (Figure 6.16 provides an overview of the results).



*Figure 6.16: Levels of victimisation reported by respondents*

From the above figure it is evident that the black youths saw little to no change in their experience of crime (dropping from 14.2% to 12.4%). White youths, on the other hand reported an increase from 37.1% to 44.4% (an increase of 7.3 percentage points). Table 6.13 below suggests that there also was a corresponding increase in violent crime. Burglary and theft were down in both groups (from 69% to 17.5%

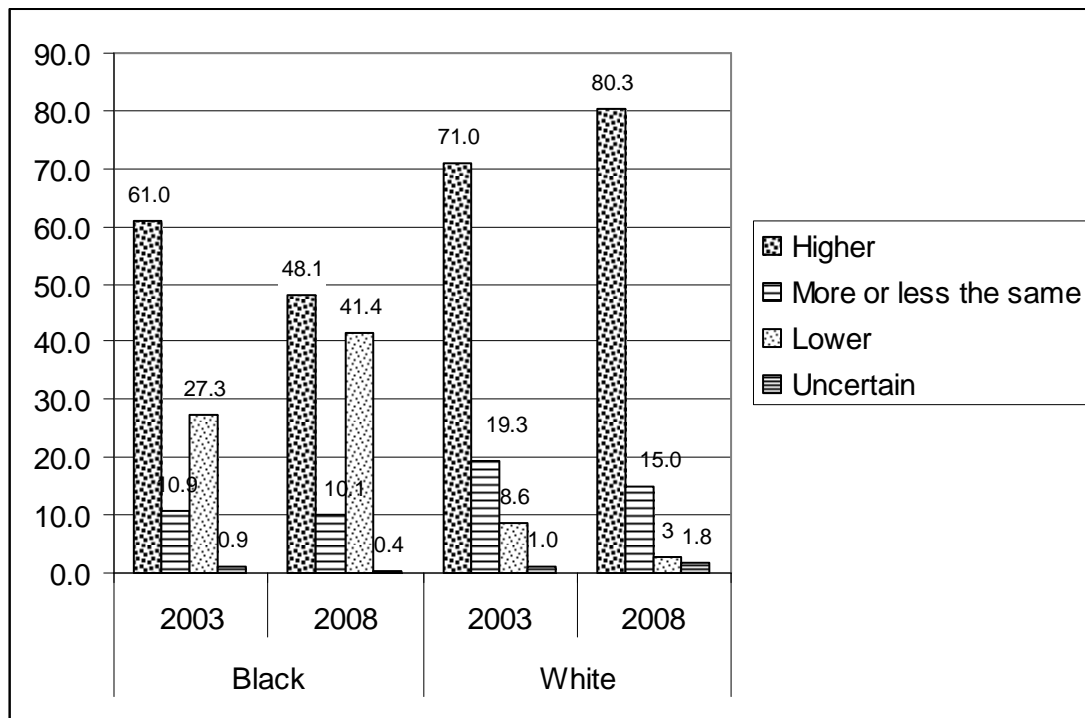


among black youths, and 87.9% to 66.9% among white youths), while armed robbery showed a massive increase among the black youths from 9.9% to 59.6% (though coding errors could have contributed to such a dramatic increase, the word ‘robbed’ appearing to have been used interchangeably with theft by the respondents), confirmed by another, though smaller, increase in reports of assault or abuse (up from 12.7% to 14%). Among white youths there was also a large increase in the number of reports of armed robbery (up from 5% to 23.1%), which further serves to confirm an increase in violent crimes.

**Table 6.13: Types of crime that respondents have been a victim of**

Type of crime	Black youths				White youths			
	2003		2008		2003		2008	
	N	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Burglary and theft	49	69.0	10	17.5	124	87.9	113	66.9
Assault/abuse	9	12.7	8	14.0	3	2.1	5	3.0
Armed robbery	7	9.9	34	59.6	7	5.0	39	23.1
Vehicle theft	3	4.2	3	5.3	4	2.8	9	5.3
Rape	3	4.2	1	1.8	2	1.4	1	0.6
Other	0	0.0	1	1.8	1	0.7	2	1.2
Total	71	100	57	100	141	100	169	100

As can be seen from Figure 6.17 below, the changes in reported experiences of crime seen in Figure 6.16 above translated into respondents’ perceptions of levels of crime in their communities.



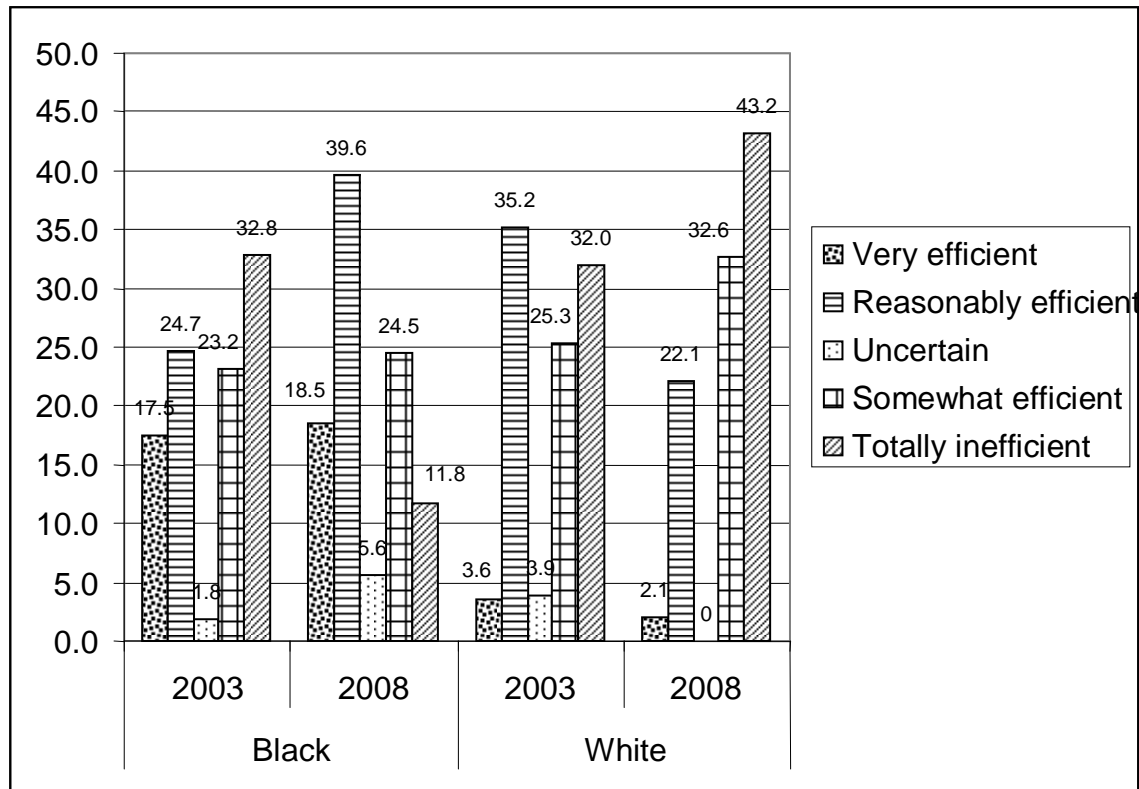
**Figure 6.17: Respondents' perceptions of levels of crime in their community, 2003 and 2008**

Among black youths there was an increase in the share of respondents who viewed levels of crime to be lower than two years ago (up from 27.3% to 41.1%), with a corresponding decrease in respondents who viewed the levels of crime to be higher than two years before (down from 61% to 48.1%). White youths on the other hand saw a decrease in the share of respondents who view levels of crime to be lower than or the same as two years before (3.6% to 3%, and 19.3% to 15% respectively) with a corresponding increase in respondents who viewed the levels of crime to be higher than two years before (down from 71% to 80.3%).

The divide between black and white youths' understanding of crime in their community appeared to be growing. The difference between blacks and whites who viewed levels of crime to be higher, increased from 10% in 2003, to 32.3% in 2008, while the difference between blacks and whites who viewed levels of crime to be lower increased from 23.7% in 2003, to 38.4% in 2008.

### 6.5.2 Police efficiency

The growing divide between the perceptions of black youths and white youths' perceptions of crime seen in the above discussion is continued in the youths' evaluations of police efficiency (see Figure 6.18).



**Figure 6.18: Respondents' perception of the efficiency of police, 2003 and 2008.**

Overall, there was an increase in the ratings of police efficiency among black youths (the Likert rating having increased from 2.71 in 2003, to 3.29 in 2008), and a decrease in the ratings among white youths (the Likert rating having decreased from 2.53 in 2003, to 2.07 in 2008). While there was little or no change among black youths' rating of police as being very efficient and as being somewhat inefficient, there was a significant increase in the share of respondents who indicated that the police were reasonably efficient (up from 24.7% to 39.6%), and also a sharp decrease in the share of respondents who indicated that the police were totally inefficient (down from 32.8% to 11.8%). However, more than a third of black youths still rated the police as being inefficient (36.3%, down from 56% in 2003). Among white youths was a sharp decrease in the share of respondents who indicated that the police were reasonably efficient (35.2% to 22.1%) and also significant increases among those who rated the

police as being somewhat inefficient or totally inefficient (25.3% to 32.6% and 32.6% to 43.2% respectively). Overall, three-quarters of white youths (75.8%, up from 57.3% in 2003) in 2008 rated the police as being inefficient.

The divide among black youths and white youths' perceptions of the efficiency of the police is growing. The difference between blacks and whites who rated the police as being inefficient increased from 1.3% in 2003, to 39.5% in 2008, while the difference between blacks and whites who rated police as being efficient increased from 3.4% in 2003, to 33.9% in 2008.

Respondents were also asked what could be done to address crime (see Table 6.14 below).

**Table 6.14: Respondents perceptions on what could be done to address crime, 2008**

What can be done to address crime?	Black youths		White youths	
	n	%	n	%
Community should become more involved and crime conscious	172	37.6	36	9.8
Create more job opportunities	109	23.8	33	9.0
Appoint more police officers	56	12.2	29	7.9
Sports, activities, programmes, centres	36	7.9	3	0.8
Police should be more visible	32	7.0	30	8.2
Heavier penalties in court	12	2.6	44	12.0
Improve police service/training/ corruption/response	10	2.2	66	17.9
Crack down on alcohol and drugs	10	2.2	0	0.0
Education	6	1.3	8	2.2
Bring back death penalty	4	0.9	74	20.1
Change/improve Government	2	0.4	10	2.7
Other suggestions	9	2.0	35	9.5
Total	458	100.0	368	100.0

Black youths favoured increased community involvement in addressing crime (37.6%), which had also scored highly among them in 2003 (30.8%). Job creation, another favourite during the 2003 survey (21.1% among black youths), took second place at 23.8%. White youths still favoured the death penalty (20.1%), which had scored 21.1% in the 2003 survey, while improvement of the police and of the service provided ranked second at 17.9%.

### 6.5.3 Criminal justice and the causes of crime

Respondents were also given a list of crimes from which they had to indicate the particular crime they believed should carry the heaviest penalty. Although a single crime was asked for, respondents occasionally felt that they could not single out a single one only, and these were then grouped together (see Table 6.15 below).

*Table 6.15: Choice of crime that should carry the heaviest penalty*

Type of crime	Black youths				White youths			
	2003		2008		2003		2008	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Rape	228	50.0	179	38.9	110	28.6	86	22.7
Murder	115	25.2	178	38.7	143	37.2	212	55.9
Child abuse	64	14.0	68	14.8	30	7.8	51	13.5
Armed robbery	18	3.9	12	2.6	2	0.5	1	0.3
Other	17	3.7	3	0.7	13	3.4	0	0.0
Two or more choices	9	2.0	17	3.7	85	22.1	29	7.7
Car theft	5	1.1	3	0.7	1	0.3	0	0.0
	456	100	460	100	384	100	379	100

During the 2003 survey, the black youths indicated that rape was the crime that should carry the heaviest penalty, with murder lying in second position. The category of rape did however see a significant reduction in the 2008 results (down from 50% to 38.9%), with the murder category taking up many of these votes (up from 25.2% to 38.7%). The category of murder also saw significant growth among the white youths (up from 37.2% in 2003, to 55.9% in 2008) but here, however, only part of the reduction came from the rape category (down from 28.6% to 22.7%) with the multiple choice category seeing the largest decline (down from 22.1% in 2003, to 7.7% in 2008).

When respondents were asked what they perceived to be the major cause of crime in South Africa, there was some agreement as to the top contributors (although in a changed sequence) (see Table 6.16 below).

**Table 6.16: Respondents' perception in respect of the major cause of crime, 2008**

Cause of crime	Black youths		White youths	
	n	%	n	%
Unemployment	242	53.3	59	16.2
Poverty	89	19.6	140	38.5
Drugs, alcohol	78	17.2	17	4.7
Poor upbringing of children/lack of education/lack of moral standards	13	2.9	32	8.8
Endogenous problems with criminals	12	2.6	22	6.1
Poor economic conditions	5	1.1	14	3.8
Poor/ineffective law enforcement	4	0.9	23	6.3
Penalties not sufficient	3	0.7	15	4.1
Government	0	0.0	18	4.9
Other	8	1.8	24	6.6
Total	454	100.0	364	100.0

Black youths believed unemployment (53.3%) to be the major cause of crime, while unemployment came second among white youths (16.2%). White youths believed poverty to be the major cause of crime (38.5%), which in turn was the second most frequently cited cause among black youths (at 19.6%). Unemployment and poverty were also the two most cited causes cited by the black and the white youths in 2003. Rounding out the top three-most cited causes among black youths in 2008 were drugs and alcohol (17.2%), with no other category registering more than 3%. The rest of the causes cited by white youths were somewhat more dispersed, with no category registering a percentage less than 3%.

The general conclusion on youths' perceptions regarding crime seems to be an increasing polarisation of views. While victimisation among black youths seems to be relatively low (compared with white youths) and steady between 2003 to 2008, victimisation among white youths appears to be relatively high and increasing. This is likely to lead to a further deepening of the divide about issues regarding crime levels and police efficiency. Additionally, wealthier areas (where white youths generally live) tend to be the focus of housebreaking and hijackings, with the Free State being one of the provinces showing a high increase in incidents of housebreaking (40 families attacked every day, 30/06/2008 Virginia Keppler and Amanda Roestoff, Beeld). The role of the "white" media in directing the narrative of crime in South Africa should also not be ignored.

## 6.6 Youth and healthy living

Unlike the youths' perception of crime, the situation regarding healthy living appears to exhibit a closing of the perception gap between black and white youths. On all indicators the two groups are either moving closer together or moving in the same direction. The indicators used include: tobacco use, alcohol use and extreme alcohol use, marijuana use, experimenting with other drugs and doing something illegal (see Table 6.17 below).

**Table 6.17: Risky behaviour among respondents**

Type of behaviour	Black						White					
	2003			2008			2003			2008		
	R	S	N	R	S	N	R	S	N	R	S	N
Smoking tobacco	22.9	4.8	72.3	21.7	9.9	68.4	21.9	9.8	69.0	17.8	12.6	69.6
Use of alcohol	12.9	29.9	57.2	7.8	39.4	52.8	10.9	55.5	33.6	7.6	54.5	37.9
Getting drunk	4.4	27.5	68.1	2.8	22.6	74.6	1.8	18.0	80.2	1.8	19.7	78.5
Smoking dagga	3.9	2.8	93.2	4.5	2.4	93.1	1.0	2.3	96.6	0.0	2.1	97.9
Experimenting with drugs	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.2	1.5	98.3	0.3	1.8	97.9	0.3	0.8	98.9
Something illegal	0.0	12.0	88.0	0.2	2.2	97.6	1.0	4.7	94.3	1.3	5.6	93.1

R = regular; S = Sometimes; N = Never

Table 6.17 above indicates that differences in indicators of healthy living appear to concentrate in the use of legal substances (alcohol and tobacco), the only exception being a significant decrease in the number of black youths who reported occasionally doing something illegal (down from 12% in 2003, to 2.2% in 2008)). White youths appeared to be significantly more likely to engage in occasional ('sometimes') alcohol use (54.5% of whites versus 39.4% of blacks reported occasional use in 2008), but in a stable pattern compared with the increased occasional use of alcohol amongst black youths (29.9% in 2003 and 39.4% in 2008, compared with 55.5% and 54.5% for white youths). For both groups regular use of alcohol decreased slightly (12.9% to 7.8% for blacks, and 10.9% to 7.6% for whites). The extreme use of alcohol (getting drunk) appeared to be more common among black youths (22.6%) than among white youths (19.7%). However, this gap in this respect was closing, with white youths having seen a small rise (from 18% to 19.7%) while black youths had seen a decrease (27.5% to 22.6%).

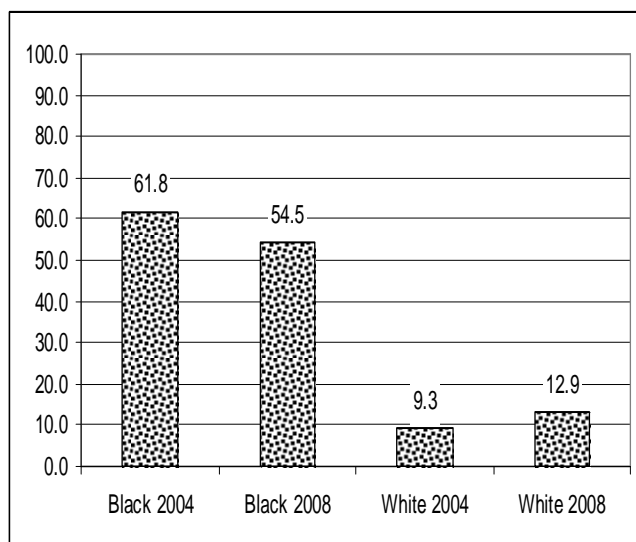
Both groups saw an increase in occasional use of tobacco (4.8% to 9.9% for blacks, and 9.8% to 12.6% for whites), though among blacks this was the result of more frequent use (the share of those who never smoke decreased from 72.3% in 2003, to 68.4% in 2008), while among whites this was the result of less frequent use (the share of those who smoke regularly having decreased from 21.9% in 2003, to 17.8% in 2008).

## 6.7 Youth and reproductive health

This section will look at the issues of reproductive health amongst the youth. The first subsection will look at sexual behaviour, while dealing specifically with question on age of first sexual activity number of partners and condom use. The second subsection will deal with pregnancy and the role of child support grants. The final subsection will deal with perceptions on HIV/Aids.

### 6.7.1 Sexual behaviour

There was a significant difference between the sexual behaviour of black youths in the Free State as compared with that of white youths (see Figure 6.19)<sup>7</sup>.



**Figure 19: Sexual intercourse in the past**

<sup>7</sup> Married couples were excluded from this analysis



The vast majority of black respondents (54.5% in 2008) aged 14-19 years reported having had sexual intercourse with another person. This stands in sharp contrast to the 87.1% (in 2008) of white respondents who reported that they had not had sexual intercourse in the past. This gap seems to be narrowing slowly, with a strong decrease among black youths (down 7.4 percentage points from 61.8% in 2003), and an increase among white youths (up 3.6 percentage points from 9.3% in 2003).

In a national youth survey conducted by loveLife in 2000, it was established that among sexually experienced South African youth, multiple sexual partnerships were common: 22% reported two or more lifetime partners, while 18% said they had more than two current sexual partners (ECI 2001:16). The situation was aggravated by the fact that young men between the ages of 15 and 24 had been largely ignored in HIV awareness and prevention campaigns, despite the fact that they had been found to have more sexual partners than any other group, and were more likely to practice unsafe sex regularly (Pelser 2002). This profile was confirmed for male youths in the Free State. Table 6.18 and Table 6.19 show that there is a significant difference between the sexual behaviour of male youths in the Free State when compared with that of female youths. In fact, males are more sexually active, more males are sexually active at an earlier age, and males moreover tend to have a larger number of different sexual partners.

**Table 6.18: Sexual intercourse in the past (by gender), 2003 and 2008**

Sexual intercourse	Male				Female			
	2003		2008		2003		2008	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	54	38.8	45	32.1	32	19.4	30	23.3
No	85	61.2	95	67.9	133	80.6	99	76.7
TOTAL	139	100.0	140	100	165	100	129	100

Table 6.19 illustrates the huge discrepancy between black and white youths regarding sexual behaviour.

**Table 6.19: Number of sexual partners over the preceding 12 months, 2003 and 2008**

Number of sexual partners	Black youths				White youths			
	2003		2008		2003		2008	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
0	80	17.4	75	16.2	255	66.1	226	61.7
1	208	45.2	225	48.7	122	31.6	117	32.0
2 to 3	116	25.2	93	20.1	6	1.6	19	5.2
4 to 5	28	6.1	30	6.5	1	0.3	3	0.8
More than 5	28	6.1	39	8.4	2	0.5	1	0.3
Total	460	100.0	462	100.0	386	100.0	366	100.0

The results show that 35% (162) of the total black respondents had had more than one sexual partner during the preceding 12 months, while 14.9% of black youths said they had four or more partners over this period. This proportion suggests high-risk behaviour, since it exponentially increases the likelihood of contracting HIV/AIDS. In comparison, only 23 (6.3%) white respondents indicated that they had had more than one sexual partner over the preceding 12 months. The general pattern over time suggests that while there was a slight reduction in the number of sexual partners among black youths (the category of two to three partners has a decline of 5.1 percentage points, while those with a single partner increased by 3.5 percentage points) there was a slight increase in the number of sexual partners for white youths (the category of those with no partners has decreased by 4.4 percentage points, while the category of two to three partners has increased by 3.6 percentage points). A series of value clarification workshops (as opposed to educational programmes) may help people to identify why many people prefer multiple partners to fewer (or even one partner) (Pelser 2002).

Respondents were asked at what age they had had sexual intercourse with another person for the first time (see Table 6.20).

**Table 6.20: Age at first-time sexual intercourse, 2003 and 2008**

Number of sexual partners	Black				White			
	2003		2008		2003		2008	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
12 years and younger	25	6.3	21	5.3	1	0.7	1	0.7
13-15 years	84	21.0	89	22.3	9	6.7	14	9.4
16-18 years	191	47.8	208	52.0	36	26.7	51	34.2
19-20 years	64	16.0	59	14.8	21	15.6	37	24.8
After 20 years	36	9.0	23	5.8	68	50.4	46	30.9
Total	400	100.0	400	100.0	135	100	149	100.0

While the average age for both black youths remained mostly stable since 2003, the average age for white youths declined dramatically. In 2008 white youths were significantly less likely to have waited until after 20 years of age (down from 50.4% to 30.9%), and more likely to have engaged in sex at between 19 and 20 years (up from 15.6% to 24.8%) or most likely to have engaged in sex at between 16 and 18 years of age (up from 26.7% to 34.2%). Table 6.21 assesses the above reality in terms of gender.

**Table 6.21: Age at first-time sexual intercourse (by gender), 2003 and 2008**

Age	Male				Female			
	2003		2008		2003		2008	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
12 years and younger	22	8.3	22	7.7	4	1.5	0	0.0
13 – 15 years	59	22.3	71	25.0	34	12.7	32	12.1
16 – 18 years	118	44.5	130	45.8	107	39.9	130	49.1
19 – 20 years	30	11.3	35	12.3	55	20.5	60	22.6
After 20 years	36	13.6	26	9.2	68	25.4	43	16.2
TOTAL	265	100.0	284	100.0	268	100.0	265	100

The average age of first sexual encounter for males appeared to have remained quite stable since the 2003 survey. For female youths, the average age appeared to have decreased somewhat. In 2008 female youths were significantly less likely to have waited until after 20 years of age (down from 25.4% to 16.2%) and more likely to have engaged in sex at between 19 and 20 years (up from 20.5% to 22.6%) or most likely to have engaged in sex at between 16 and 18 years of age (up from 39.9% to 49.1%).

To gain a true understanding of the condom use of the potentially “high-risk” group, married respondents and those who had not yet had sexual intercourse at the time of the survey, as well as those who only had a single sex partner, were excluded for purposes of the data interpretation in Table 6.22.

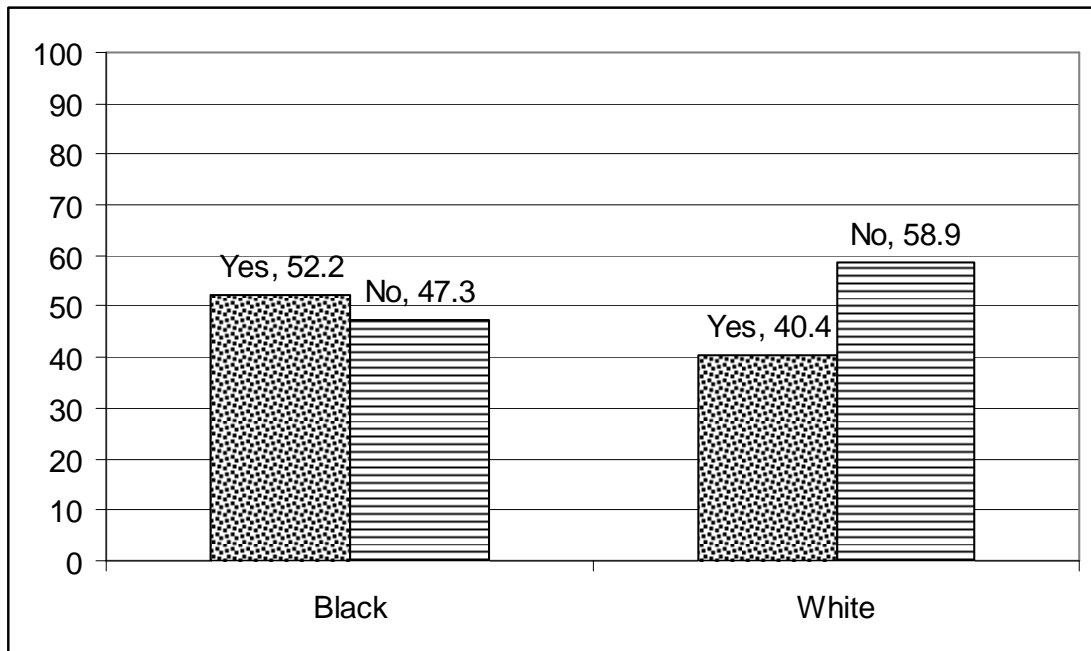
**Table 6.22: Frequency of condom use during sexual intercourse (“high-risk” group), 2003 and 2008**

Frequency	Black			
	2003		2008	
	N	%	N	%
Never	23	14.6	18	11.5
Seldom	34	21.5	28	17.9
Regularly	14	8.9	28	17.9
Always	87	55.1	82	52.6
Total	158	100.0	156	100.0

In 2003 more than one-third (36.1%) of black youths who were single and who had more than one sexual partner engaged in unsafe sex (never or seldom wearing a condom). In 2008 this figure improved only slightly, with 29.4% now engaging in unsafe sex; furthermore, the share of respondents who always wore a condom decreased (from 55.1% in 2003 to 52.6% in 2008). There were only twenty valid cases among white youths, meaning that no generalisations could be made about this group.

### 6.7.2 Pregnancy

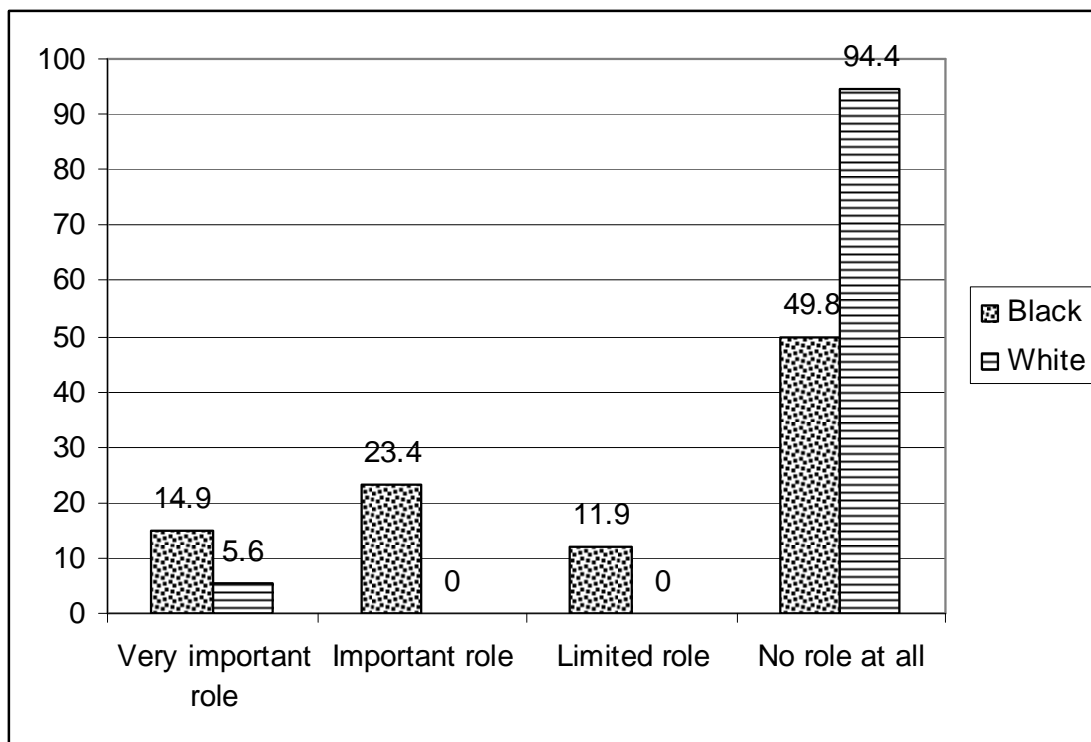
Respondents were asked if they had ever been pregnant or fathered a child (only asked in 2008) (see Figure 6.20). If they indicated that they had, they were asked what role child support grants had played in their decisions.



*Figure 6.20: Percentage of respondents who have ever been pregnant or fathered a child, 2008*

Black youths were more likely (52.2%), while white youths were less likely (40.4%) to have been pregnant or fathered a child.

Next, respondents were asked what role the availability of a child support grant had played in their becoming pregnant or fathering a child (see Figure 6.21).

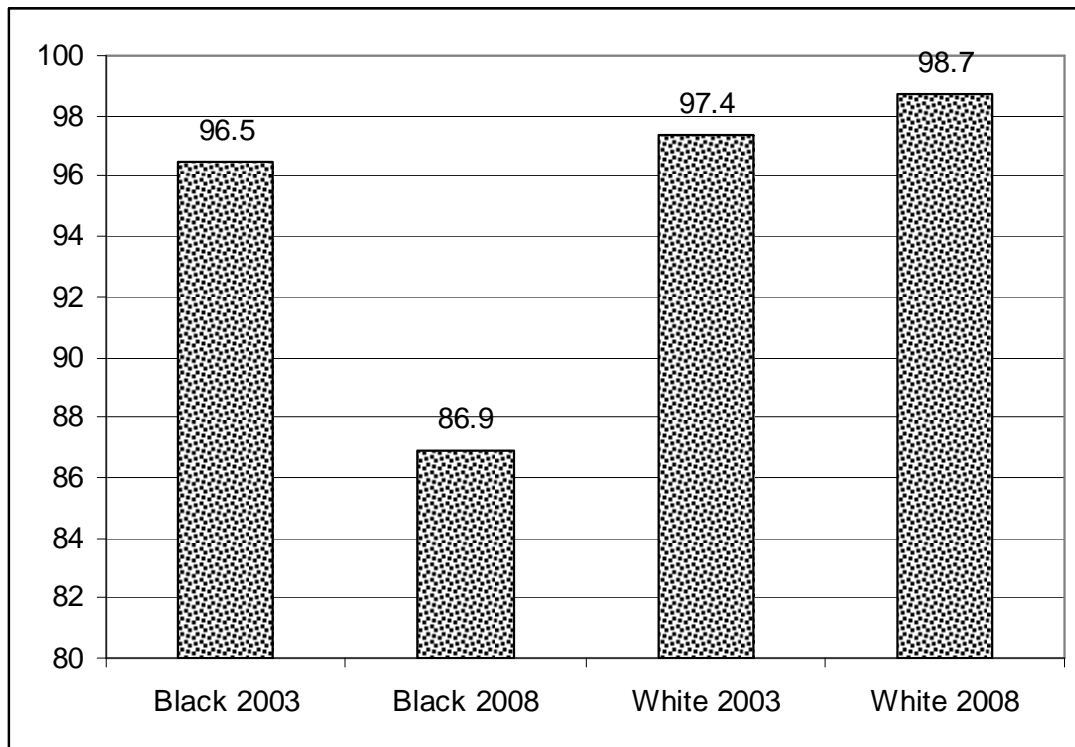


**Figure 6.21: Respondents' evaluation of the role the child support grant played in their choice to have child, 2008**

Large differences were detected between the two groups, with 94.4% of white youths and 49.8% of black youths indicating that the availability of the grant had played no role (see Figure below). Among black youths, the next most common response was that it had played an important role (23.4%).

### 6.7.3 HIV and AIDS

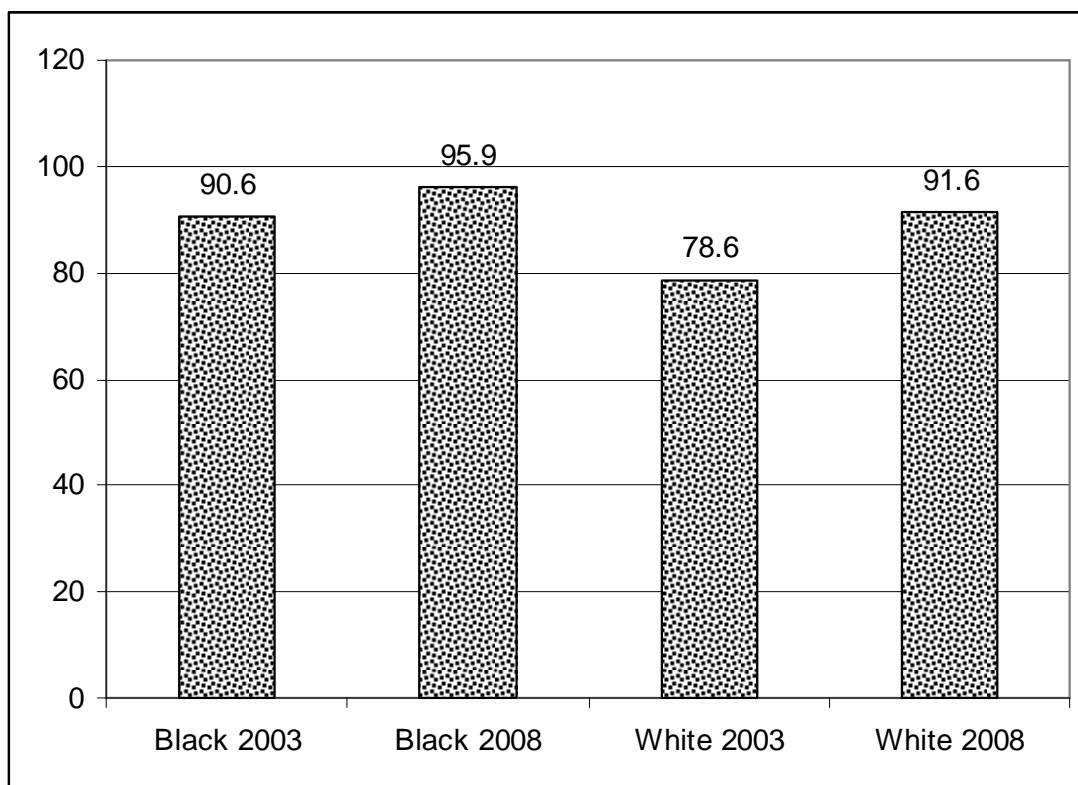
This sections deals with questions regarding stigmatisation and the perceptions of the respondents around HIV and AIDS. The first question posed to respondents was whether they believed the HIV/AIDS virus could be transferred during sexual intercourse (see Figure 6.22).



**Figure 6.22: Possibility of transfer of HIV/AIDS virus during sexual intercourse, 2003 and 2008**

In 2003 there were no statistically significant differences between the black and white population groups and their opinions on whether HIV/AIDS could be transferred during sexual intercourse. In fact, almost 100% of the respondents indicated that the HIV/AIDS virus is sexually transferable. This opinion, however, changed, with the 2008 survey registering a reduction among the black youths in the share of respondents who believed the HIV/AIDS virus to be transferred during sexual activity.

In a final question on HIV/AIDS, respondents were asked whether they would befriend an HIV/AIDS-positive person (see Figure 6.23).



**Figure 6.23: Would you be friends with an HIV/AIDS positive person?**

During the 2003 survey more black youths than white youths indicated that they would be willing to be friends with someone who was HIV positive. The 2008 survey measured a decrease in stigmatisation among both the white and black population groups. For the black youths the level of acceptance went up from 90.6% in 2003 to 95.9% in 2008. For the white youths the level of acceptance showed a steeper climb: from 78.6% to 91.6%. This reduced the gap between white and black perceptions, from 12 percentage points in 2003, to just 4.3 percentage points in 2008.

### **6.8 Youth awareness of government-initiated programmes**

Respondents were also tested on their awareness of various government-initiated programmes and institutions. The results are portrayed in Table 6.23 below.



**Table 6.23: Youth awareness of government-initiated programmes, 2003 and 2008**

Organisation	Black		White	
	2003 (%)	2008 (%)	2003 (%)	2008 (%)
Seda	not asked	37.8	not asked	14.7
Internships	not asked	23.2	not asked	26.1
Free State Development Corporation	50.9	41.3	55.5	41.2
Community project fund	47.2	56.6	42.2	33
Umsombomvu	22.1	75.5	8.9	11.2
Poverty alleviation programmes	30.3	28.6	16.1	44.9
Learnerships	40.4	80.4	40.2	23.4
Industrial Development Corporation	39.4	32	44.6	42.3
Development Bank of SA	37.6	29.2	44.6	26.9
Land Bank	56.6	63.9	79.6	68.4
Business referral and information network	24	20	19.3	16
Franchise referral and information network	16.2	14.4	16.2	13.6
NDA	52.4	47.7	43.3	23.7
Community-based public works programmes	40.4	44.9	24.3	16
National Youth Service Programme	52.2	57.2	49.6	48.7
Youth Commission	75.5	82.6	80.5	64.6
Provincial Youth Fund	not asked	46	not asked	30.3

Levels of poverty being higher in black communities than in white communities, one could expect the awareness regarding certain poverty alleviation programmes to be substantially higher amongst the black youth than the white youth. The following significant trends should be noted regarding the responses of black youths:

- Organisations experiencing a decline in awareness were the Free State Development Corporation, poverty alleviation programmes, the Industrial Development Corporation, the Development Bank of Southern Africa, the business referral and information network, and the NDA.
- Organisations where there was an increase in awareness were: the community project fund, Umsombomvu (a large improvement), learnerships, Land Bank (not necessarily for the right reasons), community-based public works programmes, National Youth Service Programme and the Youth Commission.
- The Youth Commission remains the institution / programme to have attracted the largest percentage of awareness among black youths.

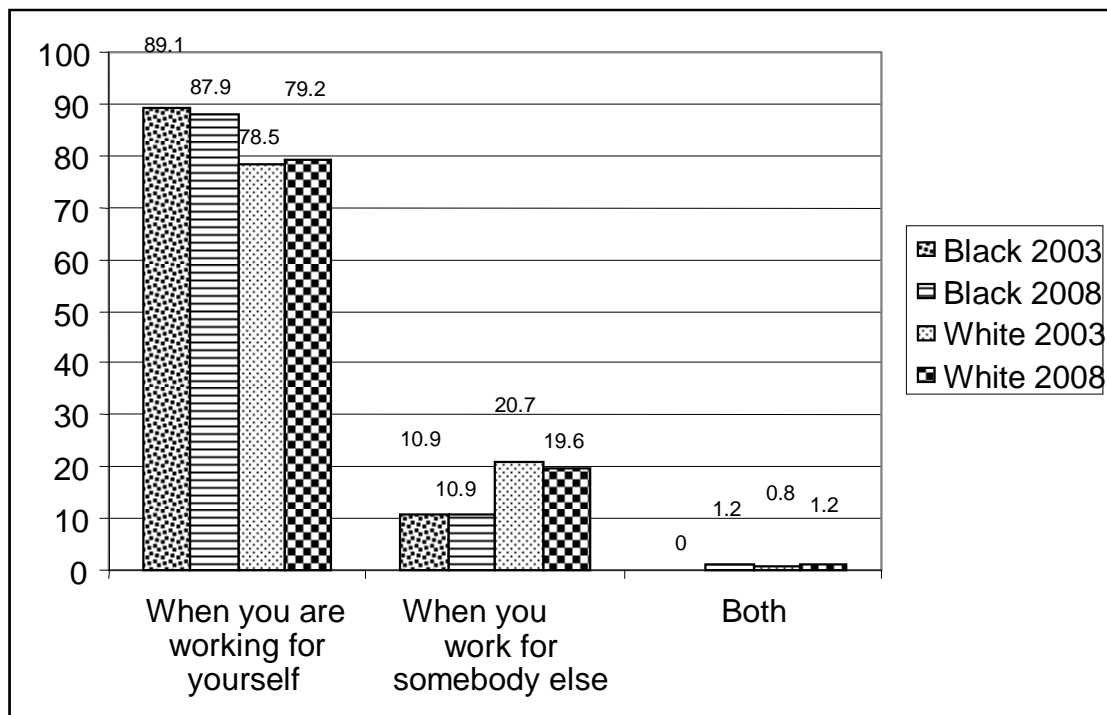
Among white youths, increased awareness occurred for Umsobumvu and poverty alleviation programmes. For the remainder of the organisations there was a decline in

awareness. In 2008, the Youth Commission also lost its ranking – as the organisation with the largest levels of awareness in 2003 – to the Land Bank.

If development entails enlarging the choices of people and thus sharing information regarding initiatives, one could deduce from Table 6.23 that there are still quite a number of government institutions and initiatives that could be better promoted among the Free State youth.

### 6.9 Youth and economic development/ entrepreneurship

In this section a range of questions were posed to respondents to test their tendency towards and experiences of entrepreneurship. Respondents were first asked what they considered to be the best way of making money: to work for themselves or to work for someone else? Figure 6.24 depicts the results for the two population groups and for the two respective surveys.



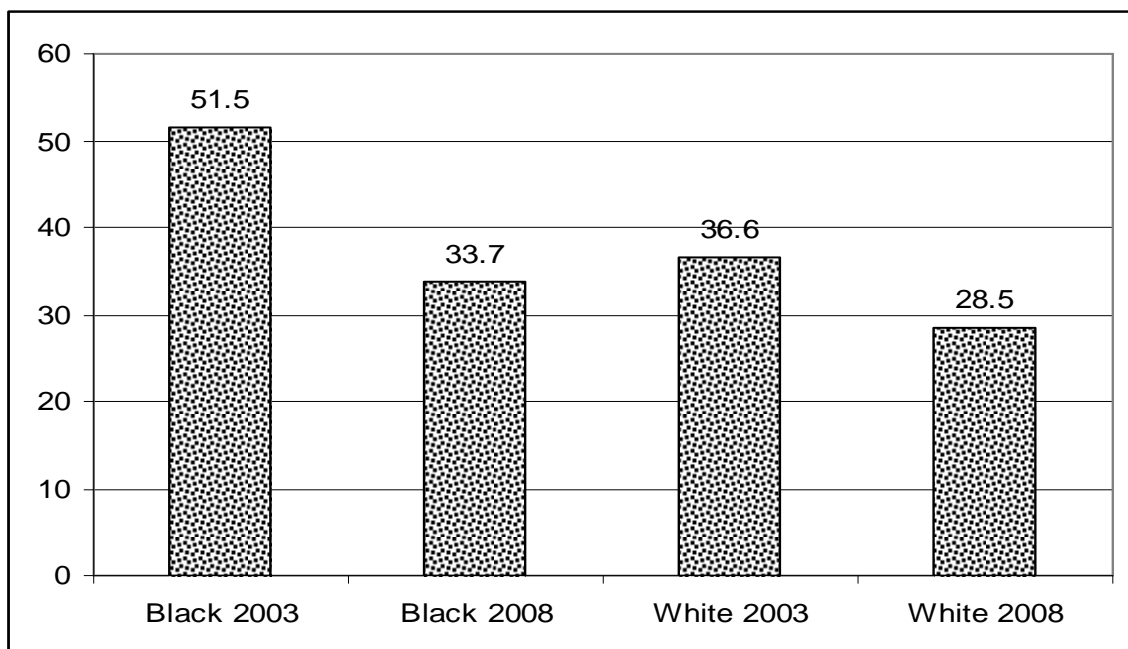
*Figure 6.24: Respondents reflections on what the best way is of making money, 2003 and 2008*

There seem to be only small difference between the responses for 2003 and 2008. Only 1.2% fewer black youths thought that one makes more money when one is self-employed. The responses for black youths considering working for someone else

were similar between 2003 and 2008. Among white youths there was a slight increase of 0.7% in the percentage of respondents who responded that the best way of making money was to work for oneself. This resulted in a slight decline in the response “when you are working for somebody else” for white youths between 2003 and 2008.

Ten percent more black respondents than white respondents considered the self-employment option to be the best way of making money. The fact that almost 9 out of 10 young people interviewed expressed this sentiment emphasised the importance of self-employment and entrepreneurship, at least at an attitudinal level for young people in the Free State. A similar question was asked during the 2000 Youth Study, and at that stage only 68% of youth in the Free State indicated that self-employment was a good way to make money (CASE 2000).

Taking due the cognizance of the above emphasis on self-employment, respondents were asked whether they had previously attempted to set up an enterprise (these questions were meant for respondents who were 20 years and older) (see Figure 6.25).



**Figure 6.25: Percentage of respondents who had actually attempted to set up their own businesses, 2003 and 2008**

Despite the high percentages of respondents who thought that more money was to be made by working for themselves, there was a decline in the percentage of both black youths and white youths who had attempted to set up their own enterprises since 2003. In the case of black youths there was a decline from 51.5% to 33.7%, while in the case of white youths the decline was from 36.6% in 2003 to 28.5% in 2008. Considering the importance of entrepreneurship development, the results are somewhat alarming.

Following the question on the attempt to set up a business, respondents were next asked what type of enterprise they had attempted to set up (see Figure 6.26).

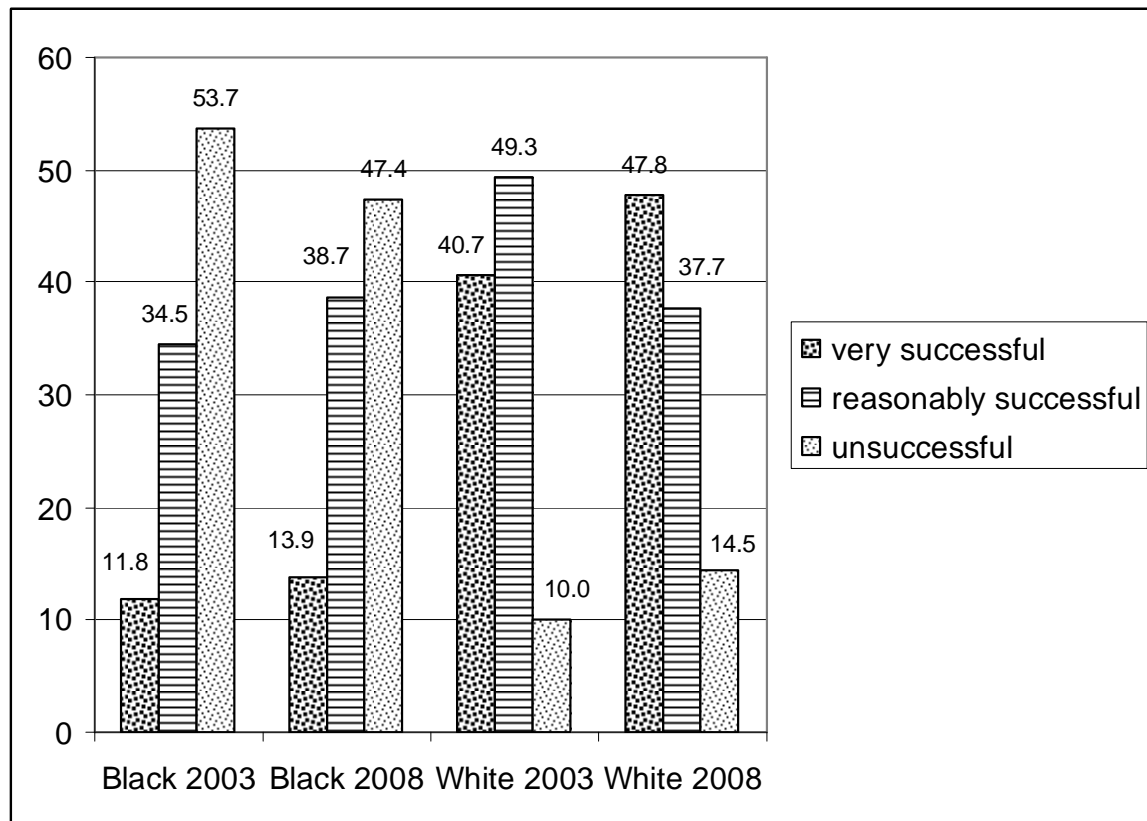
**Figure 6.26: Type of own business, 2003 and 2008**

Type of enterprise	Black youths				White youths			
	2003		2008		2003		2008	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Food/tuck shop	126	53.4	72	52.9	21	15.1	5	7.0
Manufacturing	7	3.0	3	2.2	50	36.0	12	16.9
Sales	62	26.3	22	16.2	30	21.6	13	18.3
Services	41	17.4	39	28.7	38	27.3	41	57.7
Total	236	100.0	136	100.0	139	100.0	71	100.0

The following should be noted in the above table:

- Among both black and white youths there seems to be have been an increase in enterprises that provide services. At the same time, the results suggest a decrease in the percentage of respondents who have attempted an enterprise in direct sales.
- Yet, among black youths the selling of food or having a tuckshop remained a prominent type of enterprise, but at the same time this was a sector with limited growth opportunities. Comparatively, services enterprises comprised the largest percentage of business attempted by white youths. This difference can be associated amongst others with the differences in respect of levels of education.
- Overall, enterprises in the manufacturing sector remained limited and, percentage-wise, in a declining trend for both black and white youths. It should immediately be noted that this is a common trend in the Free State.

Attempting a new enterprise is one thing; making a success of it is an altogether different thing. Figure 6.27 depicts the success of these enterprises.



**Figure 6.27: Success rate of newly established small businesses, 2003 and 2008**

The percentage of black youths who rated their attempts to start a business as unsuccessful declined from 53.7% to 47.4%. Yet, in the case of white youths there was an increase in the percentage of respondents who were unsuccessful (from 10.0%, to 14.5%). Yet, the percentage of black youths who were unsuccessful remained significantly higher than that of white youths. However, it should simultaneously be noted that increases were reported for respondents (white and black) who rated their enterprises as very successful.

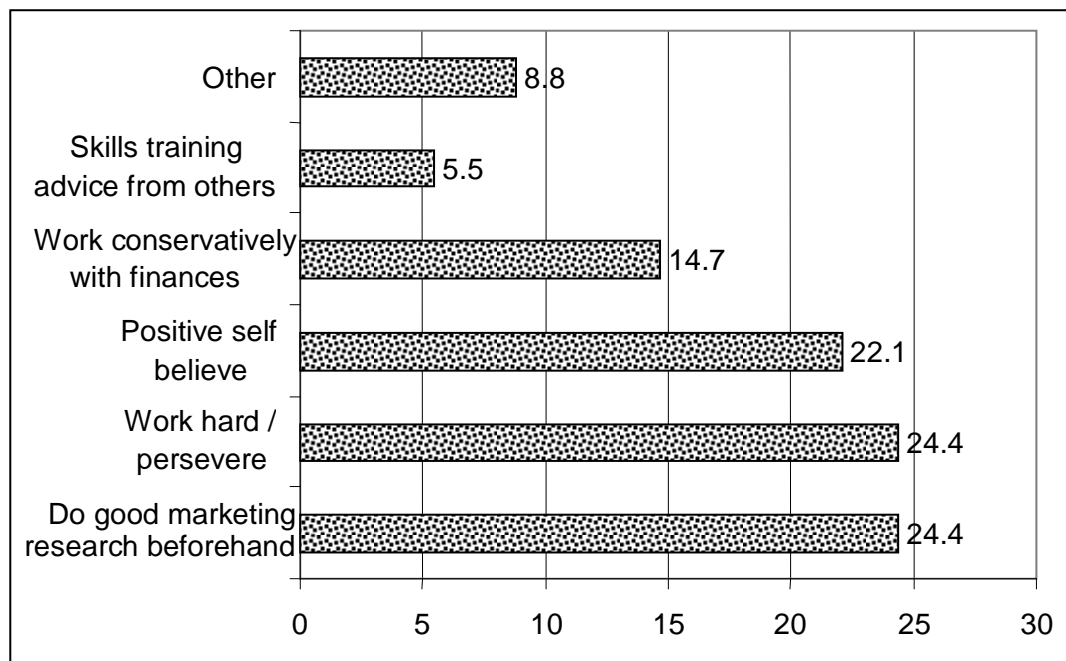
Next, respondents were asked to indicate the reasons for business failure (see Table 6.24).

**Table 6.24: Reasons for business failure, 2008**

Reasons for business failure	Black		White	
	n	%	N	%
Losses larger than profits	57	42.9	4	33.3
No market for products	24	18.0	1	8.3
Done in by other people / problems with partner	17	12.8	2	16.7
Poor management / planning	22	16.5	4	33.3
Other	13	9.8	1	8.3
Total	133		12	

The most significant reason cited by respondents was that their losses were higher than their profits. In the case of black youths this reason if followed by 18% of the respondents who indicated the lack of a market, 12.8% said they had had problems with a partner and poor management and planning were cited by 16.5%. In the case of white youths, one-third of the respondents said that poor management and planning was the most significant reason, followed by problems with a partner and the lack of a market.

Finally, respondents were asked, considering their experience, to provide some advice to others in setting up an enterprise (see Figure 6.28).



**Figure 6.28: Advice given to young entrepreneurs, 2008**

The three most prominent sets of advice were to do good marketing research, to work hard and to truly believe in yourself, followed by conservative financial management and skills and advice from others.

## **7. Summary and conclusions**

The following main conclusions can be drawn from this report:

- Disability amongst black youths is slightly higher compared with white youths.
- Despite a considerable increase in the educational levels (basic educational attainment and aspects such as computer access and literacy) of especially black youths, their employability has decreased (also for self-employment). This trend has serious implications for the entire range of educational institutions. Despite this being so, there is still an expectation among the majority of youths that they will find employment.
- According to the youths of the Free State urgent attention needs to be devoted to both the types of subject choices available, and especially those for which especially black youths opt. This also has serious implications for career counselling at the school level.
- Teenage pregnancies remain a major stumbling block preventing female youths from completing their school education.
- The affiliation of youths to organisations increased for black youths. Yet, there has been a decrease for white youths. Noteworthy is the fact that affiliation to church organisations, political organisations and sport clubs among black youths has declined considerably since 2003. The importance of political organisations for youths has also shown a marked decrease.
- Since 2003, there seems to have been a decrease in the experience of crime by black youths, but an increase among white youths. At the same time, black youths indicated an increase in police efficiency, while white youths experienced a decline in efficiency.
- No considerable difference has been recorded for risky behaviour between 2003 and 2008.
- There is also limited indication of changing trends in sexual practice among youths. White youths have, however, generally become somewhat more liberal in this respect.

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