OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH:
A PSYCHOPEDAGOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

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Out-of-School Youth:
A Psychopedagogical perspective

By

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January 1998
DURBAN
DECLARATION

I declare that

Out-of-School Youth: A Psychopedagogical perspective

has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or at another university, and that it is my work and that all sources and material used or quoted have been indicated, recognised and acknowledged.

N.B. MADELA
January 1998
Durban
DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to

My late father Solomon Madela

who encouraged me to seek knowledge through study.

I also cannot forget my mother Elphina,

my brother Vusi, my wife Pretty and

my son Romario

for the support they have given me throughout the study

I thank you Malingode!
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* Words of gratitude to all not mentioned here who in any other way helped me in making this study a success.
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that I have, in my personal capacity, on a freelance basis, edited Mr N.B. Madela’s M.Ed. dissertation and can, to the best of my knowledge, declare it free from grammatical errors.

Yours faithfully

L.M. MPANYA (B.A., U.E.D., Dip. in Computer Education)
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SUMMARY

The aims of this investigation were:

* To undertake a literature study in order to attain a psychopedagogical perspective of out-of-school youth.

* To evaluate the theoretical implications of this research and to formulate certain recommendations which may serve as guidelines.

As an introduction the nature and dynamics of out-of-school youth are analyzed and discussed with an aim to state the problem clearly. From a psychopedagogical perspective the out-of-school youth finds himself in a situation of dysfunctional education mainly because he goes through life without the help and guidance of a responsible parent or adult.

This results in the psychic life of out-of-school youth being under-actualised. The lack of responsible adult intervention and guidance which is based on the pedagogical principles of love, trust and authority results in out-of-school youth forming relationships within his life-world which are inadequate for his emancipation. This makes the out-of-school youth fail to make a meaningful life-world. Currently only a few social workers and a few voluntary organisations, such as Child and Family Care, reach out to these needy children and endeavour to rehabilitate the families and supervise the children.

The hostility that communities attach to out-of-school youth implies that these children do not get enough support and trust. Most support structures that came into existence to provide some measure of support are existing illegally under present statutory provisions. They lack the services of suitably qualified personnel and are often haphazardly organised. Furthermore, they cannot cope effectively
with the present situation and there is a duplication of certain services in the provision of support. The findings of this report hence recommend the following:

- Re-appraisal of the nuclear family.
- Proliferation and extension of accountable support through multi-purpose educational centres.

It is hoped that the study will foster lasting awareness regarding out-of-school youth.
Die doel van hierdie studie was:

* Om 'n literatuuronderzoek van relevante navorsingsliteratuur rakende die oriëntering van die vroeë skoolverlaters te onderneem.

* Om sekere verantwoordelike riglyne ter ondersteuning van vroeë skoolverlaters aan die hand te doen.

Ter inleiding is die verskynsel "vroë skoolverlaters" ontleed ten einde die doel van die ondersoek te stel. Vanuit 'n opvoedkundig-psigologiese perspektief bevind die vroeë skoolverlater horn in 'n situasie van disfunksionele onderwys, hoofsaaklik omdat hy sonder die hulp of steun van 'n oouer of onderwyser wat horn tot volwassenheid kan begelei, grootword. Dit lei daartoe dat die psigiese lewe van die kind nie ten volle aktualiseer nie. Die gebrek aan verantwoordelike volwasse ingryping en steunegwing gebaseer op die pedagogiese beginsels van vertroue, begryping en gesag het tot gevolg dat die verhouding wat binne sy lewenswereld gestig word, nie toereikend is vir volwassewording nie. Gevolglik slaag die vroeë skoolverlater nie daarin om 'n sinvolle lewenswereld te stig nie.

Tans bestaan daar 'n gebrek aan sosiale steun en vrywillige organisasies wat hierdie kinders behulpaam kan wees. Die feit dat gemeenskappe afwydig staan teenoor hulle, lei daartoe dat hulle nie genoegsaam gesteun en vertrou word nie. Die meeste steunstrukture wat wel tot stand kom, is nie statutêr gevestig nie, gevolglik beskik hulle nie oor voldoende fondse of personeel nie. Hierdie strukture kan gevolglik nie effektief funksioneer nie en duplisering van funksies lei dikwels tot onnodige finansiële uitgawes.

Op grond van bevindinge van hierdie ondersoek word die volgende aanbevelings gemaak:
Die herwaardering van die kerngesin.

* Die daarstelling en uitbreiding van verantwoordbare steunstrukture aan vroeë skoolverlaters deur middel van veeldoelige onderwyssentrum.

Die hoop word uitgespreek dat hierdie studie 'n nuwe bewustheid rakende vroeë skoolverlaters tot gevolg mag hê.
CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Although "youth" constitutes 29,5% of all South Africans, it has been largely neglected by Government (National Youth Commission Strategy Document, 1997:11). Virtually no resources have been allocated for special programmes aimed at uplifting the standard of living for young people. This has led to a situation where out-of-school youth are increasing markedly. The out-of-school youth are without adequate education and possess no saleable skills (Van Zyl Slabbert, 1994:13). This scenario is also exacerbated by the continued declining economy of the country.

1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

Youth as a stage in life is characterised by a growing demand for independence and autonomy, but such growth can only take place in a stable parent-adolescent relationship. Within this relationship a progressive stride is made towards adulthood (Noller & Callan, 1991:104). The bond between the child and the parent is not only important for the satisfaction of the child’s biological needs, but it is crucial for his becoming.

According to Jennings & Everatt (1995:1), the environment in which youth grew up impacted heavily on their experience of education outside of school. For the most part, white and Indian youth were encouraged by their parents or primary caretakers to further their education, and their home environment, with access to reading material, enhanced this encouragement.
While coloured and African youth were similarly encouraged, their home environments, especially those of African youth, generally detracted from his encouragement (Jennings & Everatt, 1995:1).

According to Mathiane (1992:38), the majority of out-of-school youth is helpless, frustrated, discontented and angry with their leaders. South African youth are widely portrayed as available for violence. This is reinforced by media images of police fighting running battles with youth (Everatt, 1994:2).

A stage like adolescence is very important in the child's life. It is during this stage that dramatic personality and identity development takes place. This makes it possible for "youth" to be taken very seriously. Gouws & Kruger (1994:75) state that the adolescent or youth can participate in various activities that can sometimes be viewed as irresponsible and mischievous. The inner development of the affective personality development of the adolescent causes him to yearn for recognition and a wish to complete certain tasks.

Möller, Richards & Mthembu (1991:56) argue that adolescence is not a stage that can be crossed smoothly. Gouws & Kruger (1994:75) maintain that the intermediate phase between childhood and adulthood often causes tension and self-consciousness. The assertion accounts for the sensitivity of adolescents' becoming adults because the failure to give proper direction throws youth into the hands of mischief and delinquency.

Adolescence is a stage whereby careful parental care should take place. This is crucial because an adolescent is likely to achieve integration between his or her earlier identification abilities. He or she can plan for the future and for the opportunities offered by society. Social institutions such as schools, initiation schools and rituals support the adolescent in his or her search for identity (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:82).
In South Africa support for youth and adolescents has not always been possible. Everatt (1992:8) confirms that large numbers of youth had slipped through cracks in their transition period. Many marginalised youth are not in schools, neither in training institutions nor employment. They are frequently referred to dismissively as the "lost generation".

The Community Agency for Social Enquiry (CASE) youth survey of 1993 approximated about 11 million young people in South Africa aged from 16 to 30 (Jennings & Everatt. 1995:6). On the other hand the term "lost generation" is regarded by Everatt (1992:10) as negative, defeatist and fundamentally wrong. According to him the youth are not "lost" or "misplaced": they are increasingly marginalised from society, the very society which is supposed to support them in search for identity. He states that "marginalisation is not a necessary condition of youth; it is a problem of society".

Regarding "marginalised" and "lost" youth, Van Zyl Slabbert (1994:18) supports Everatt (1992) because he asserts that the youth are uneducated, radical and rebellious to authority and are also ignored. This youth has no say in community and national affairs and is regarded as marginalised. Both researchers therefore highlight the lack of opportunities for the youth and put the blame on the legacy of "apartheid".

Analysing the out-of-school youth phenomenon, Dekker & Lemmer (1993:195) acknowledge that adolescence is a stressful period. They state that the adolescent's conception of life is formed by his or her growing intellect, new opportunities, social freedom offered by society and a myriad of other influences which can either result in a positive or negative behaviour. Emotional tension can arise from the conflict between the attitudes, values and lifestyles of childhood which are left behind and the period of adulthood to which the adolescent aspires. Mwarnwenda (1995:71) notes that there are a number of developmental tasks that an adolescent has to accomplish before he or she can be referred to as an adult. They are social,
cognitive, moral and physical development. Because of problems embedded in educational institutions the youth find it hard to realise these developmental tasks.

Out-of-school youth numbers continue to grow because the country is facing a declining economy. Consequently out-of-school youth fail to find paid employment outside of school (Jennings & Everatt, 1995:40).

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In essence the questions to be investigated in this study centres around the following:

* Are out-of-school youth experiencing educational distress?
* What is the nature of the life-world of the out-of-school youth?

1.4 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

1.4.1 Youth

Van Zyl Slabbert (1994:12-13), Seekings (1993:1-2), Vrey (1986:1) and Everatt (1994:1) all agree that youth is a category only in general sense. It is a status which is positioned between childhood and adulthood and hence refers to South Africans of all population categories between 15 and 30 years of age.

Seekings (1993:1-2) states that "youth" comprise certain cohorts: "young people with particular attitudes and behaviour. Characteristics such as enthusiasm and inexperience are also included. Due to their experience and illusions bred of their psychological make-up, young people can be easily swayed into positions that are counter to their interests".
In this study, therefore, the above definitions will be taken as valid and therefore form the basis of this study.

1.4.2 Out-of-school youth

According to Jennings & Everatt (1995:6) the working definition for out-of-school youth was developed from the initial CASE youth survey. Out-of-school youth is defined as being between the ages 15 and 30 (inclusive), not currently being engaged in studies, having not studied as far as they wanted to in their education, and expressing the desire to return to some form of education and training.

Seekings (1993:3) and Van Zyl Slabbert (1994:13) concur that the following are characteristics of out-of-school youth:

* The great majority are unemployed.
* They are politicised.
* Most have grown up in a culture of violence and are no strangers to it.
* Many (in educational terms) have experienced a sense of failure.

Jennings & Everatt (1995:6) estimate that of the total youth population in South Africa, approximately 3.5 million (i.e. a third of all youth) can be termed out-of-school youth.

1.4.3 A psychopedagogical perspective

According to Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg (1988:186), psychopedagogics as a field of study involves behaviour and learning in the educational situation. Psychopedagogical perspective accumulates scientific information pertaining to the child in his unique situatedness in the world. Without this knowledge educational support and educational guidance cannot take place.
Psychopedagogics looks into the manner by which the child's becoming and development is realised within the educational situation.

Paulsen (1992:2) highlights the following principles:

* The child possesses abilities which make exposing thereof possible.

* By virtue of the child's freedom to make choices he plays an active role in personal exposure.

* In the process of exposure the child has to be guided normatively.

* The child has to be helped en route to adulthood through his or her own cultural and environmental experiences.

Sonnekus (1985:57) emphasises that "Psychopedagogics is the science which possesses unique dynamics in a child's life in terms of experience, life-experience, will, knowledge and behaviour as executed in the educational situation".

1.4.4 Adolescent

Gouws & Kruger (1994:3) aver that the term "adolescence" derives its meaning from the Latin verb "adolescere" which means "to grow up" or "to grow to adulthood". In South Africa adolescence ends when the adolescent is able to vote or no longer needs parental consent for his actions (around the age of 21).

Pombeni (1990:351) sees adolescence as a phase of developmental transition which is characterised by extensive changes within the individual and the social environment. While adolescence may be a challenging life-period for everyone, some people traverse it with more difficulties than others. This stage is crucial
because it is a stage during which a person reorganises himself or herself with all relationships of the social world. If economic considerations are taken as criteria, adolescence ends with the individual's ability to live by his or her own means and follow a successful occupation.

1.4.5 **Lost generation**

According to Vinassa (1993:42) the term "lost generation" is a term which is fast losing its popularity because it ensures that the youth remain written off, and that society has failed to do something better about the youth. Jennings & Everatt (1995:1) confirm that youth had traditionally been stereotyped in South Africa as the "lost generation" or as the "Young Lions".

Yet another view held by Everatt (1994:7) implies that since the 1980s youth had been alternatively presented as the "Young Lions" or the "Lost Generation". They acquired this term because they were unable to move back into the schooling system and were dismissed as militant. Those unable to find secure employment were given the cold shoulder when they sought assistance. The terms had often been paraded by the media.

1.4.6 **Formal Education**

In this study, the term "formal education" is used to refer to that type of educational provision which is institutional, chronological and hierarchically graded, and which covers everything from lower primary education up to the upper reaches of university education (Feketa. 1989:8).

The Educational Renewal Strategy (1992:20) defines it as education provided at or by a school, college, technikon, university or other education institution with a view to obtaining a degree, certificate or diploma instituted by or under law.
1.4.7 **Informal education**

Informal education is defined as that form of learning which results from situations where either the learner, or the source of information, has a conscious intent of promoting learning but not both. Examples of informal education are newspapers, radio messages, teaching someone to learn how to drive a car and exposing pupils to a practical situation before a theoretical lesson is given. Informal education can be transformed into non-formal education when it is organised and determined by the participants themselves (Feketa, 1989:9).

1.4.8 **Non-formal education**

Non-formal education, according to Feketa (1989:9) constitutes the realm of educational activity outside the formal education system which is frequently divided into continuing or vocational training, as well as cultural enrichment and training in survival areas. Non-formal education may generally be defined as organised educational programmes. However, it is not fully and formally institutionalised. Although systematic, it is not routinised and the content of delivery is basically out-of-school.

The Educational Renewal Strategy (1992:20) sees non-formal education as planned, structured education provided at or by any institution to obtain a qualification other than a degree, certificate or diploma instituted by or under any law or formal education.

1.4.9 **Life-world**

According to Van der Aardweg & Van der Aardweg (1988:141) every person lives in his or her own unique life-world. A person's life-world means everything that has meaning for him or her. Not only the person's geographical world, but all
relationships with objects, ideas, people, the self and God. Vrey (1986:15) says the *Gestalt* of meaningful relationships constitutes a person's life-world. These relationships may be interdependent and interactive; they are also dynamic and ever increasing and changing. A person's behaviour and actions should be interpreted with the context of his or her life-world — all to which a person has attributed significance and therefore understands.

The above theory forms the foundation on which this study is based.

1.5 AIMS OF THIS RESEARCH

The aims of this research are:

* To pursue a study of relevant literature of the life-world of out-of-school youth.

* To provide certain recommendations and guidelines so that accountable support can be rendered to out-of-school youth who may be experiencing educational distress.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

A literature study of relevant research material will be undertaken. In addition interviews with authoritative persons such as educators, principals and persons attending to out-of-school youth will be conducted.
1.7 FURTHER COURSE OF STUDY

Chapters in this research are structured as follows:

Chapter 2 shall cover a discussion of the educational distress of the youth.
Chapter 3 shall look into the life-world of out-of-school youth.
Chapter 4 shall discuss the accountable support for out-of-school youth.
Chapter 5 shall encompass the summary and recommendations.

1.8 SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the theme of the research, namely, "out-of-school youth: a psychopedagogical perspective". It presented the background, problems, purpose and proposed research procedure of the study.

The next chapter shall focus on the educational distress experienced by out-of-school youth.
CHAPTER 2

THE EDUCATIONAL DISTRESS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

2.1 INTRODUCTION

2.2 THE PEDAGOGIC RELATIONSHIP
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2.3 DYSFUNCTION WITHIN THE RELATIONSHIP
2.3.1 Inadequate participation by adult and child
2.3.2 Reason for inadequate education
2.3.3 Educational errors which cause distress

2.4 SUMMARY
CHAPTER 2

THE EDUCATIONAL DISTRESS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The importance of the interaction between an educator and educand is stressed by Sonnekus (Van Rensburg, 1994:25). He states that the child’s development is not automatic. It requires the purposeful involvement of the adult and the actualising of his or her potential by the child. A child actively reaches out to the world because he wishes to give meaning to it in order to discover its meaningfulness. He does this basically because he wishes to be somebody in his own right and eventually wants to become an adult himself.

Mathiane (1993: 10) observes that becoming for the out-of-school youth has not always been smooth. It has been dysfunctional. The attitude of the youth during the 1970s and 1980s caused a scarcity of responsible adults. Parents lost their educative role because children accused them of failing to challenge the apartheid system resulting in the lack of protective guidance which provides opportunities designed to rouse and inspire his charge to a realisation of his personal potential as well as his orientation towards the community.

This chapter will therefore pay attention to the educational distress of the youth, with the pedagogical situation of the child as the point of departure.

2.2 THE PEDAGOGIC RELATIONSHIP

2.2.1 The situatedness of man

A situation is defined as the totality of the relationships in terms of which action has to be taken. Because of the human attitude of openness, people continually
find themselves in changing situations. Through their involvement in these situations they are able to change them (Franzsen, Reeler, Steyn & Higgs, 1990:50).

According to Gouws and Kruger (1994:10-11) the education system can never fill a person’s whole life-world but always remains a segment of it. The education situation is the activity whereby an adult helps, supports and accompanies a child with a view to making him psychologically independent and therefore a worthy member of the society concerned.

Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg (1993:30) and Nel & Urbani (Van Rensburg, 1994:29) view becoming as the purposeful transition to adulthood commencing at birth. It includes the enrichment dialogue, the acceptance of responsibility and the assigning of meaning.

(1) Understanding

According to Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer (1987:93) for man to be able to live in the world he must constantly increase his knowledge of it. Franzsen et al. (1990:26) state that the "human world of meaning is a world of relationships in which the individual retains the initiative in attributing meaning and establishing relationships". Human beings are not born with these things, they have to be educated.

The significance of the ordering which has come to be accepted as man’s way of living, gradually transpires to the child. Man learns to understand and gives meaning to reality in a variety of ways, e.g. singing, playing, talking, working, etc. His culture is an indication of his way of understanding reality. This understanding comes about mainly through the experiencing of meaning by him which enables man to give meaning to his world.
The meaning of the world order in which the child finds himself is learnt through living together with others. The child becomes aware of human norms because he shares the experience of meaning with others. He learns to live in the world because he lives in it with others. Understanding other people — their behaviour, attitudes towards learning and so forth — implies a certain amount of self-analysis, self-evaluation and self-knowledge. In order to attain a proper grasp of children’s problems, educators must be able to relate the scope and significance of these problems to their own experience, feeling, attitudes, values, physical and spiritual maturity. Educators must ask themselves how they attained adulthood (Jansen, 1991:6).

According to Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer (1987:75) man must learn to know the world as his home. In order to help the child to live in the world one must help him gain a firm grip on reality. This grip should be strengthened by going forward thoughtfully, increasing his knowledge questioningly and workingly. This will give the child confidence in venturing further. The lack of this assistance to the out-of-school youth impairs his confidence and he becomes vulnerable. He does not experience the meaning of his world. Everatt (1992:37) states that the failure and inability of families to minister to the material and emotional needs of the youth explains the ease with which youth slide into a life of the streets. It is here that many receive their orientation into a life of violence and crime.

(2) Acceptance

According to Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer (1987:16) world acceptance implies acceptance of man’s own origin as inevitable in as far as the past is concerned. Acceptance of this irrevocability is not fatalism. The present offers another opportunity of assimilating the past meaningfully and of accepting the future as an opportunity for participating in an advancing world design which acquires its meaning through giving meaning to the present.
The world into which the child is born is a reality he did not choose. In this reality he must find his place and task: he must orientate himself to what it is and thus constitute what ought to be. It is the privilege of every man to have to determine for himself the limitations within which he constitutes the human world. This world is a multiform one on which man as an individual must acquire a grip.

The out-of-school youth with his obscure future perspective fails to give meaning to his being in the world. World acceptance implies world orientation.

(3) Orientation

Treurnicht (1987:16) states that the youth is a product of the education and guidance they receive as well as of the milieu in which they find themselves. In enlightening this, Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer (1987:77) state that in a multiform world where polyvalent values give rise to a plural way of living, severe demands are put on education. The educator, who has to assist the child to live in the world in which he finds himself, faces the multiformity of possibilities of giving meaning to occurrences and things.

Feketa (1989:45) confirms that the educator will remain the pivot of the educational enterprise. With the aura of authority vested in him, the educator exercises a considerable influence on the children he teaches at a particular impressionable age. The extent of this influence is, of course, related to the amount of time he spends with them. His role in the teaching-learning situation is that of helper, motivator, guide and innovator whose objective is essentially to provide guidance for the not-yet-adult pupil en route to adulthood. Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer (1987:77) amplify the above by stating that from the multiformity of possibilities, the educator must choose those that give meaning to him because human limitation restricts the actualising of all the open possibilities. Order must of necessity emanate from a disordered multiplicity of things. Man must therefore orientate himself and make responsible choices.
The out-of-school youth fails to make responsible choices because of insufficient world orientation. Seekings (1993:12) observed that many young people were not attending school. This resulted in educational distress. A child in educational distress fails to make responsible choices because of insufficient world orientation (Van Niekerk, 1990:7).

The educator as inhabitant of the world of adults must take into account the world of the educand. As a discoverer of what is yet unknown to him the educand must gradually become familiar with his heritage. He cannot be summarily released. Releasing man into the world imposes an educative task, a task that implies that the educand must learn to choose, must orientate himself in a polyvalent world. This implies that education that does not teach the child to distinguish and choose between what is approvable or not (dysfunctional education) does not help him to know his position and ultimately to assume his task in the world.

To venture into the unknown is hazardous and the child should not be left alone to face it too soon or for too long. The outcome would be cultural degeneration, demoralization and even derailment (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:78).

In confirmation Gage & Berliner (1991:12) emphasise that this outcome is clearly evident in the life-world of the out-of-school youth who does not accept his world but surrenders to it. Gouws & Kruger (1994:11) state that it is incumbent on the educator, who is independent, supportive and helpful, to make the educand aware of the task awaiting him and to assist the educand to perform this task competently. This assists the educand to constitute a meaningful life-world.

By forming relationships the child thus constitutes the life-world that forms his psychological space and reality to which he is orientated. Van Niekerk (1986:7) noted that through learning the child constantly raises the level upon which he communicates with life and gives meaning to his world. In learning the child will
also constantly form new relationships and improve the quality of existing ones. Education, therefore, must take into account the world in which the educand finds himself and the demands it makes on him. It must take into account that the child must participate in a world that is constantly changing.

Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer (1987:81) and Griessel, Louw & Swart (1986:68) acknowledge that a child lives in the world. Living-in-the-world implies understanding, accepting, orientating and constituting it. The child does this in the company of others.

Man is a co-initiator of every situation in which he finds himself and is responsible for its establishment and its penetration. Therefore the situation may also be seen as a mode of living in and through the life-world. This fact denotes a close connection between situation and relation.

2.2.2 Connection between situation and relation

According to Franzsen et al. (1990:4-5) man is an initiator of relationships in a world that he has chosen. Man's existence in the world is through relationships. Even when he shows reality he is by this act establishing a relationship with it.

Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer (1987:83) and Gouws & Kruger (1994:12-13) note that a situation implies a revelation of the way in which man experiences his world. In this sense relationship and situation denote the mutual involvement of man with reality. For education the essence of these relationships is given meaning within the pedagogic situation.

When the educational climate is disturbed (as in the case of out-of-school youth) amicable acceptance is compromised and mistrust and disingenuousness harm the prospects of effective education. The onset of adolescence in the life of a child
is often marked by disturbance of the educational climate, which results in conflict between educator and educand. Often this conflict is temporary so that eventually the relationship between educator and educand effectively becomes one between adults (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:13). For education the essence of these relationships is given meaning within the pedagogic situation.

2.2.3 **Nature of the pedagogic situation**

It is pointed out by Van Rensburg (1994:37) that the point of departure of psychopedagogics is the pedagogic relationship. The implication of this is that categories such as experiencing, cognition, feeling, perceiving and thinking only acquire psychopedagogical status within the pedagogic situation.

Franzsen *et al.* (1990:5) examined the nature of the pedagogic situation and came to the conclusion that it consists of the educator and the educand, who, on the basis of systematized selected subject matter, has to be guided to reach adulthood.

The matrix within which the pedagogic situation develops is the pedagogic relationship. The quality of the relationship has a direct influence on the success or failure otherwise of the education act. Conversely, the quality of the relationship is also influenced by the success or failure of the education act (Van Niekerk, 1986:9; Nel & Urbani, 1990:11).

2.2.4 **Educator and educand in pedagogic situation**

(1) **Constellation of relationships**

Every education relationship is unique and is expressed in on-recurring situation in which unique people are involved. It is not easy to discern their fundamental features for these characteristics do not lie close-packed in the education relationship (Van Rensburg, 1991:24).
The education relationship is one that signifies a gradual inequality between adults and adults-in-the-making. As a not-yet-adult the child is a fully-fledged human being who, depending on an adult, has to find his way towards adulthood. This means that his dignity as a person must be respected. The adult must ensure that in his involvement with the child he brings to fruition the child’s advancement in a permissible and approvable way. The educator is therefore intensely aware of his own responsibility. As educator and educand are in an unequal relationship, the call for responsibility in the former is particularly strong (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:98; Gouws & Kruger, 1994:11). It is incumbent on the educator, who is independent, self-reliant, supportive to make the educand aware of the task awaiting him and assist the educand to perform his task competently.

According to Fraser, Loubser & Van Rooy (1992:32) and Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer (1987:87) youth experience their life-world totally different to their younger counterparts. They also need an adult for support. Without co-existence with his fellow-men and without their example the human child is lost. This means that the education relationship can also be characterised as a dialogue, an appeal-hear-answer relationship. The child’s appeal to the adult raises the latter, as responder, to the status of an educator. The physical presence of the educator creates a sheltered space: the force of his words holds no threat to the person of the educand. From the intimate nearness established by the presence of the adult to whom he can communicate his need, the educand gains courage and confidence to carry on the dialogue with the world.

Gouws & Kruger (1994:12) note that the parent-child relationship is founded on love. The teacher as a secondary educator also displays love for the child, which is consistently recognisable as affection, rapport and self-sacrifice. For the child, love is the purest and most selfless expression of humanness. Youths do not expect mollycoddling love from educators, rather they want respect, and children who do not receive love and respect experience the world as harsh and
unforgiving, with the result that they display resentment against anything and everything from an early age.

In the educator-educand relationship we can distinguish two directions; the attitude of the child towards the adult and attitude of the adult towards the child. This makes it imperative that the educand’s attitude towards the adult is looked into.

(2) The educand’s attitude towards the adult

According to Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg (1993:28): "attitudes prepare people for action, are learned from experience and exert a motivating force on behaviour. They are cognitively and emotionally-toned dispositions acquired through maturation and experience and they influence a person’s approach-avoidance behaviour toward persons, objects, events and ideas".

At birth man is independent and has to rely on his fellow-humans for aid. But the child does not merely need help, he seeks it (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:66). The mother of a child is a person who can rouse the child’s possibilities for forming confident relationships with other people and with things. The cherishing care of the mother creates space in which the child feels at home (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:88). In this way the larger world becomes accessible to the child.

It is the home to which the child always returns after excursions bent on discovering and conquering the world out yonder. Both parents are important in the child’s development to adulthood. The child needs both mother and father to create the sphere of security that will give him the confidence he needs to undertake the discovery of the world, thus continually extending the horizons of his home (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:7).
Swart, Rossouw, Venter & Gericke (1995:19) emphasise the importance of the relationship between educand and educator. Swart et al. (1995:19) further state that it is because the child is not yet an adult, having so much ground to cover in his progress towards adulthood. For that he is dependent on education. The potential of either giving shape to his humanness or causing its degeneration lies in his incompleteness. The child is eminently equipped to destroy himself if no deliberate external intervention takes place to protect him.

Man cannot acquire knowledge of the world except through concrete human relationships. For the infant this progress starts with aid of a single loved person, and the other is usually the first educator who creates a sphere of security which eventually invites him to venture into the world and mix with others. She is at first the embodiment of the child's world and affords him full security. The healthy mother-child relationship is thus a prerequisite for healthy relationships with the world of things (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:92). Le Roux (1992:52) states that the child needs both parents for balance in his upbringing and attainment of emotional maturity. The child needs the fellow human being to teach him what the world is like and not what other people are like; a person on which he can rely, someone who is physically and spiritually prepared and also who can guarantee his overall safety. This is the special position of the father. He is the breadwinner and provider, the person who opens up the world to the child. He is the anchor, the model, someone with whom the child can identify.

The father often makes demands earlier and more objectively that the child must behave himself properly, must control himself, must not go too far, especially not without due consideration for other people and their rights. Through the father's example the son discovers what it means to be a man. In her interaction with her father the daughter also learns what the man is like and can assess her future role as a wife.
According to Van Schalkwyk (1988:76) the teacher supplements the task of the parent. The fact that the child is willing to entrust himself to the school and to the teacher is, in itself, an indication that parental education has provided sufficient security to promote the child's emancipation. Neither the parent nor the teacher, nor any other adult, whose aid the child needs if he is to make the adult world on his own, can give this educative aid if he is unable to rouse trust and a feeling of security in the educand. In the absence of such trust the child is completely at the mercy of the education situation which is his life-world. In this way the educator remains responsible for the education of the child but does not fulfil his duty completely. The outcome is that though the child does receive education, this education is not responsibly directed. It is haphazard and if it is a success it is so by chance (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:93; Le Roux, 1992:57).

(3) The educator's attitude towards the child

According to Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer (1987:91) mutual understanding, authority and trust are the basic conditions that must be present if education is to proceed in a proper way. The adult's lifestyle reflects the accepted norms and values of society, and they serve as an example to the child. Nurturing can only be affected and trust kindled in the child when the adult is capable of sympathetic, authoritative leadership and understands the essence of childhood and of what a child should become (Le Roux, 1992:164).

Van Schalkwyk's (1988:122) observation is that when one is entrusting a child with responsibility, one is making an indirect appeal to him to accept it. This demands sound comprehension on the part of the educator. The child's ability to carry out tasks entrusted to him has its limits and these must be taken into account without making a weakling of him. The educator's beliefs about the child reflect the degree of his trust in the child and impel him to act in accordance with that trust.
According to Griessel, Louw & Swart (1986:102) the role of the teacher is to guide and direct the becoming of children. The Greek term *paidogogos* was originally used to describe a slave who had to walk with the child to guide and protect him.

In essence genuine educative trust is not blind. It takes into account the incomplete self-realisation of childhood, as well as human frailty and limitations. There is always a possibility of failure, and confidence always involves an element of risking. **But the risk the educator takes is not merely a gamble. It is taken in a spirit of moral responsibility.** The educator must take risks if he is to help the educand become responsible, just as the child must be venturesome when he entrusts himself to the educator and lends himself to education. For this reason experimenting with children is depersonalising, immoral and is therefore to be condemned (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:108; Griessel, Louw & Swart, 1986:110-111).

This venturesome attitude of the educator stems from his faith in the possibility to educate the child; it is not a wild challenge to fate. The integrity of the educator who truly has faith arouses a venturesome attitude within the child. When the educator loses faith he can no longer be of any assistance to the child because all pedagogic intervention is directed towards the future. The educator’s faith bears witness to his understanding of the child and his possible destiny of independent and responsible self-realisation in terms of permanent values. It is also a sign of obedience towards authority of the values which appeal to the pedagogue and require him to assist the child on his way to the realisation of his own dignity (human worth). Finally it is a sign of trust (hope and expectation) in the future by both child and adult (Van Schalkwyk, 1988:112).

Gunter (1990:41) also sees the attitude of the educator towards the educand as very demanding. The educator’s task of instructing, controlling, helping and guiding the child on the way to self-reliance includes and demands that he should gradually
require of him a measure of independent action and work in due proportion to his progress and always to a degree that corresponds with his capabilities at a particular stage as of his progress to adulthood.

The educator cherishes expectations and, therefore, arouses expectations in the educand. These expectations should not be unrealistic, and the educator must therefore endeavour not to be impatient for quick responses. Thoroughness demands patience. This applies to the child’s physical skills, his intellectual ability, his moral conation and his affective security. It is particularly significant with regard to moral autonomy, the ability to make responsible choices (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1987:89).

A close examination of the pedagogic relationship soon reveals that its structure is complex. It is preferable to regard it as a constellation of relationships. This relationship structure consists of a number of unchanging relationships without which the education relationship ceases to exist. In the following pages three of the relationships within the structure of the education relationship will be explored. The three essential facets of the pedagogic relationship which are usually grouped under the term "pedagogic relationship structures" are the relationship of knowing or cognition (also known as the relationship of understanding), the relationship of trust and the relationship of authority.

2.2.5 Essential characteristics of the pedagogic relationship

(1) Pedagogic relationship of understanding

According to Vrey (1986:22-23) the relationship of knowing is a condition for creating and maintaining the education relation. The educator has to learn to know the child well. He should be able to understand the educand’s extent of educability, and who he actually is. On the other hand the educand should know
who his educator is and also what to expect of him. On the basis of their mutual knowledge they both establish the educationship which can be initiated from the educator or from the educand.

Van Niekerk (1986: 11) also notes that to understand pre-supposes that one must have knowledge of that which one wants to understand. Understanding implies thinking, in other words, the solving of a problem; this implies a phenomenological approach to that which one tries to understand. One will have to differentiate between essential and non-essential knowledge, then proceed to a refined analysis of that which is essential before one can arrive at an understanding of the nature of the relationship between the different essential characteristics of the situation with which one is confronted. In everyday life we rely heavily on intuition to understand situations. Intuition operates on the precognitive level. It is in essence sensing (Nel & Urbani, 1990: 11).

Commenting further about the pedagogic relationship of cognition, Vrey (1986: 23) says that in the various education situations a relationship of trust between the educator and the educand is implicit. They must of necessity attain a relationship of understanding, so that the venturing child can feel at home in the adult’s presence, confident that nothing could make him feel unsafe.

The relationship of trust and especially that of knowing should therefore contribute to the child’s growing into adulthood and also making the adult (the educator) superfluous as soon as the non-adult is acquainted with values and actualises them as norms of his conduct. According to Van Rensburg (1994: 58) no child enters the world as ready-equipped with knowledge, but he is certainly equipped with the ability to learn to know. He should therefore actively acquire knowledge from the educator, take it, adopt it and constitute it for his own purposes.

One question remains unanswered. What does the educator need to understand and know within the pedagogic situation?
(a) **Essential nature of man**

The educator ought to understand the essential nature of man. The knowledge and understanding of man rests on common sense. This common sense is an outcome of a well-balanced education and usually operates on the intuitive level (Nel & Urbani, 1990:12).

(b) **Cultural Society**

The educator needs to have knowledge and understanding of the cultural society in which he lives and in which he educates his children. Education means, *inter alia*, to lead a child into a cultural society.

Van Schalkwyk (1988:188) notes that there are numerous instances of blacks born into very poor families belonging to archaic cultural areas who are nevertheless educated by their parents to become highly successful people within modern societies. The parents neither know nor understand modern societies but have intuitive understanding of the essential characteristics of man. Once the essential characteristics of man have been actualised in the life of the educand, he will be able to orientate himself within any group where the characteristics are accepted as fundamental structures upon which society rests.

(c) **Functions of the school**

Parents as primary educators ought to have knowledge of understanding their children as school children. But this knowledge is mainly based on experience. Subsequently this places additional responsibilities on teachers. Schools, even those in remote rural areas, are centres representing modern scientific-technological society within the special cultural society which they serve.
The school performs the following tasks:

* To lead its pupils into modern society without separating them from their families.

* Teachers should help the parents to understand their children as school children (Nel & Urbani, 1990:13; Van Schalkwyk, 1988:176).

(2) Pedagogic relationship of trust

For a teacher (educator) to be effective in educating the educand and for the educand to feel safe and wanted in the classroom there should be a healthy mutual relationship between them. One such relationship is pedagogic trust (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1993:237). The key to the understanding of trust is faith. One can only trust a person if one has complete faith in him. Faith is lasting, firm and consistent. Faith forms a foundation for trust. It ensures security, consistency and safety to the person who trusts.

The child's form of existence is a venturing out to the future. But this needs the support and guidance of the teacher. According to Gunter (1990:38-39) the educand experiences confidence in the education situation only when he realises that the educator offers him assistance on his way towards adulthood, but especially when he fully accepts the educator as person in his extreme need, helplessness and weakness. The educator should accept the educand as person with human dignity and should have special regard for his dignity (Myburgh & Smith, 1990:157-158).

Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer (1987:96) further state that the fact of being an educator implies the acceptance of the non-adults’ dependence and need as co-subjects in the education situation. This acceptance implies regard for the form
of existence of the child, and for his form of existence as an adult. The assumption is also implicit that the educator will respond to entreaties and appeals of the child, and in this way affecting such close contact that he is able to listen to the child's conversation and, in this intimacy, gain some idea of the child's needs and desires.

With this knowledge the educator would be in a position to judge the child's capabilities and would therefore know what to expect of the child since the child's interests and needs have now become the educator's by transference. Gunter (1990:38-39) confirms that the educator always takes a genuine interest in the child, and the child's interests, development and future are truly his concern. He is always prepared to accompany, help, support and be of service to the child, entirely for the sake of the child's gradual conquest of full adulthood. He feels a real obligation in this respect, for the parent-educator accepts him as his own child whom he must and wants to bring up while the teacher-educator accepts him as his pupil in whose upbringing he must and wants to help. This is the essence of pedagogic love, as seen from the educator's point of view, without which the establishment of a genuine educational relation and situation is impossible and inconceivable (Gage & Berliner, 1991:13).

(3) Pedagogic relationship and authority

It is evident that more than a particular attitude towards the child is demanded of the educator. His work demands the taking of a definite stand, not the mere playing of the role. According to Gunter (1990:39) an educational situation is a situation of authority. It is a situation in which at least two persons are always involved: two persons, two free and active subjects who as leader and follower respectively within a situation of authority confront each other, limiting and setting conditions mutually. Each should respond freely to the claim of the other.
According to Nel & Urbani (1990:14) the educator himself must obey the norms set by his task as human being and as educator. He accepts responsibility for the educand and occupies a position of authority. He decides for the educand while the latter is incapable of bearing the responsibility of deciding for himself. To exercise the authority is based on his own recognition of authority. If the educator does not achieve his task in a responsible manner proving that he knows what he is doing, he will not gain the trust of the educand and will therefore not have complied with the basic condition for the pedagogic relationship which constitutes the pedagogic situation.

Swart, Rossouw, Venter & Gericke (1995:20) maintain that authority should be exercised in a spirit of love. This does not mean that the child should be permitted to do exactly as he likes. When authority is exercised in love, it means that the teacher should explain to the child why certain actions are acceptable and praiseworthy and why others are unacceptable and objectionable.

It can be said that the teacher's external authority compels his pupils to obey. However, the internal authority of the teacher impels them to obedience. In education, authority is never based exclusively on the teacher's position. Only the small child who is still unaware of norms and standards is required to render absolute obedience to the educator simply because it is demanded of him. The wise educator makes a conscious attempt to transform the child's respect for his personal authority into a voluntary acceptance of norms or demands of propriety as a higher source of authority. Other sources of authority include enduring spiritual values, human values and a philosophy of life (Gage & Berliner, 1991:20).

2.3 DYSFUNCTION WITHIN THE RELATIONSHIP

Van Niekerk (1986:4) gives the impression that the child always finds himself to be at a specific level of development which can be qualified as being the
pedagogically-attained level. The immediate objective is always to have this level coincide with the child's pedagogically attainable level. This means that the child should be supported in such a way that he will give proof within the context of his daily life of increasing responsibility, identification with norms and freedom according to his own talents.

The adult should, therefore, take special care in the course of his educative acts that the child will consciously know that he is able to learn and to achieve and that his personal worth is genuinely recognised. If this is not accomplished, the educational relationship is dysfunctional and this invariably has a negative influence on the child's progress towards adulthood.

2.3.1 Inadequate participation by adult and child

According to Van Niekerk (1986:9) educational distress occurs where the quality of the education offered is intrinsically bad. The participation of both parties is insufficient in that the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled because the child is not in an intimate relationship with an educator who focuses on adulthood.

Dysfunctional education occurs where there is communication breakdown between the educator and the educand. This state of affairs may give rise to educational distress. Whenever an educator and the child communicate inadequately, all the acts of upbringing (itself) are necessarily performed inadequately. The pedagogically inadequate actualization of the child's psychic life is the inevitable result. A child in educational distress often experiences feelings of extreme anxiety, loneliness, insecurity, helplessness and uncertainty. A dysfunction in the dynamics of upbringing is therefore clearly brought about by both the child's inadequately actualising his psychic life and the educator's inadequately supporting him.
This consequently impedes the child's progress towards adulthood. Dysfunctional education thus implies that the participation of both the adult and the child in the educational setting is inadequate (Van Niekerk, 1986:10).

(1) Underachievement of development potential

According to Van Rensburg (1994:70); Van Niekerk (1986:10); Van Rensburg (1991) and Sprinthall & Sprinthall (1990:66) educational distress occurs where the quality of education offered is intrinsically bad. The participation of both parties is insufficient in that the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled, because the child is not involved in an intimate relationship with an educator who focuses on adulthood. Lewis (1995:2) believes that all young people deserve the support of caring adults to help them grow to become independent and self-sufficient.

Van Niekerk (1986:10) notes that the inability of parents to help the child when matters have deteriorated this far, and the inability of the child to request the assistance of his parents, are most often the result of poor bonding between the educator and the educand. Behr, Vicherian, Mwamwenda, Ndaba, & Ramphal (1989:24-25) confirm that "the child is exposed to many dangers if he does not feel safe with his educators and if they cannot deliver him from a state of helplessness. This has an adverse effect on the child's development, especially because the meanings which he attaches to reality and also his behaviour become indecipherable to his educators. This obscures his own view of his future".

Lewis (1995:2) warns that all young people deserve an opportunity to learn the skills, behaviours and attitudes to equip and help them to become independent, responsible and self-sufficient adults and to feel proud of their accomplishments. Van Niekerk (1986:9) notes that this dream is sometimes disturbed. A distressful educational situation gives rise to experience fraught with unfavourable meanings for the child, e.g. feelings of extreme and uncalled-for anxiety, loneliness,
insecurity, helplessness and uncertainty. Lewis (1995:2) also states that young people deserve support when they make mistakes and assistance so that they may learn from their mistakes. When this does not occur dysfunctional education takes place.

Dysfunctional education implies that the participation of both the adult and the child in the educational setting is inadequate (Van Niekerk, 1986:10).

(2) Accountability of the adult

According to Van Niekerk (1986:11) both the adult and the child are to be held responsible for the success of the child’s education, but it is mainly the adult who should be called to account for any dysfunction in the dynamics of upbringing. When the adult, who is the more responsible person, does not take care that the conditions for adequate education are met, the child is usually affectively, intellectually and morally neglected. It is suggested that this neglect is always intentional. It may occur that the adult appeal to the child is not sufficiently clear, and is consequently misunderstood.

Siann & Ugwuegbu (1988:21) highlight the needs of children. Children need love and security, praise and recognition, and responsibility. Children also demonstrate the need to confirm to the norms laid down by the society - that each child should be cared for by both his natural parents. If any of the pedagogic relationships of trust, understanding and authority is absent from the pedagogic situation, a dysfunction in the dynamics of the education situation will result. The out-of-school youth thus finds himself in this situation of dysfunctional education.

2.3.2 Reasons for inadequate education

Mncayi (1995:4) mentions the following circumstances that might contribute to confusion and perplexity in the child in respect of his educational situatedness:
Lack of a father figure as a result of migrant labour practice has contributed to this situation.

Divorce.

Step parents (a boy who has decided to stay with his father would carry the insults from his step-mother; a boy staying with his mother would not be accepted by the step-father).

Hunger.

Alcoholic parents.

Over-strict parents.

Prostitute mother.

2.3.3 Educational errors which cause distress

The following factors are specific educational errors, which cause educational distress (Van Niekerk, 1986:14-21):

Lack of security.

Obscure future perspective.

Rejection of the child.

Over-protectiveness.

Affective or emotional neglect.

Unfavourable comparisons.

Inadequate exercise of authority.

Disregarding the child as a unique person.
These educational errors will be discussed as Van Niekerk (1986: 14-21) has elaborated:

(1) Lack of security

The educational needs of the child are neglected when the educator exposes the child to danger and offers the child no support. Such a child becomes afraid and his sense of initiative is impaired.

(2) Obscure future perspective

The child's whole existence is directed towards the future. The educator should hence guide the child towards the future. If in the child's view the future is obscure there is little to look forward to or expect and there are no plans or tasks to be fulfilled.

(3) Rejection of the child

When an educator does not spontaneously accept, but in fact rejects a child, the latter immediately feels that he is not accepted and is thought of as unwelcome. He then experiences insecurity and anxiety.

(4) Over-protectiveness

The over-protected child is not sufficiently exposed to activities that are a threat to his security. The over-protected child therefore fails to discover what it means to also cope with feelings of reluctance and to exert himself.
(5) **Emotional neglect**

Stable relationships between educators and children are at all times indispensable. A lack of mutual trust, understanding and sympathetic authoritative guidance always implies that the child must suffer neglect in respect of not only his affective but also his intellectual and moral development. He will consequently explore the educational contents inadequately, so that the educational encounter is likewise inadequately pre-formed by his pre-cognitive (intuitive) reconnaissance.

(6) **Unfavourable comparisons**

Every time a child’s efforts to prove or assert himself are negatively compared by an educator with those of another child, emphasis is always laid on the fact that he is less than the other.

(7) **Inadequate exercise of authority**

Problems arise in the child’s educational situation when authority is constantly wielded in an unsympathetic, inconsistent, loveless or dictatorial manner, but also when no authority is exercised at all. When the child is confronted with too many commands and / or demands, when too much is expected of him, he regards most of these restrictions to be devoid of meaning. The great number of impressions alone could give rise to uncertainty within him.

(8) **Disregarding the child as a unique person**

Every child is unique and singular. Each person is not only unique but also has a singular existence and is not interchangeable or repeatable. Each person experiences a happening of what constitutes his world in a unique way. It is therefore difficult for a child to form a truly objective judgement, as it were, from
a distance, because all the meanings which he ascribes to events spring from his being unique.

2.4 SUMMARY

In order to study the educational distress of out-of-school youth from a psychopedagogic perspective, it was important to give a detailed exposition of the pedagogic situation and the psychic life of the child in education.

Although both the adult and the child are to be held accountable for the success of the child’s education, the adult is the one who should mainly be called to account for any dysfunction in the dynamics of the upbringing. When the adult, who is the more responsible person, does not take care that the conditions for adequate education are met the child is usually affectively, intellectually and morally neglected. It is not suggested that this neglect is always intentional. It may happen that the adult’s appeal to the child is not sufficiently clear and is consequently misunderstood. This example does, however, imply that the pedagogic relationship of understanding is not being adequately constituted. If any of the relationships of trust, understanding and authority is absent from the pedagogic situation, it will result in a dysfunction in the dynamics of the education situation. The out-of-school youth thus finds himself in this situation of dysfunctional education. Without sufficient participation of an adult in the dynamics of the education situation, the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled because the out-of-school youth is not involved in an intimate relationship with an educator (parent) who focuses on the child’s adulthood. When an educator and a child communicate inadequately, all the acts of upbringing (itself) are necessarily performed inadequately. The pedagogically inadequate actualization of the child’s psychic life is the inevitable result.

In the following chapter attention will be given to the life-world of out-of-school youth.
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CHAPTER 3

THE LIFE-WORLD OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The way in which the child deals with relationships formed within his life-world differs from child to child. This means that no two people can have the same life-world. The importance of these relationships is emphasised by Vrey (1986:15-21) who noted that the child must form relationships with his world because he needs to orientate, survive and mature within this world.

According to Du Toit & Kruger (1991:15) the world, which includes other people, God, norms and ideas in which the child finds himself, is a world to which man has attributed meaning and to which the child must orientate himself with educational help. Van Niekerk (1986:7) noted that through learning the child constantly raises the level upon which he communicates with life and gives meaning to his world. In learning the child will constantly form new relationships and improve the quality of existing relationships. It is always difficult for out-of-school youth to have meaningful relationships because of the negative image society has portrayed of them. Everatt (1992:31) emphasises this fact and states that the out-of-school youth is already earmarked for failure because of his lack of education, employment and skills. These are viewed as icons by which a person is accepted in society. The out-of-school youth therefore is in a dysfunctional education situation. This causes him to under-actualise his psychic life. The level upon which he communicates with life and gives meaning to his world is inadequate and insufficient (Van Rensburg, 1994:112).
3.2 LIFE-WORLD

3.2.1 Experience

The fact that people experience things is self-evident because experiencing and being conscious for all practical purposes are the same thing.

All consciousness, all psychic life can be traced back to two basic forms, namely, feelings and thoughts. These concepts are ways of expressing a common experience of reality (Frazer, Loubser & Van Rooy, 1992:66; Vrey, 1986:39-42).

In studying the experience of out-of-school youth the researcher is involved specifically in looking for the state of this child’s affective world of experience, his cognitive world of experience which cannot be separated from the affective, and how he gives meaning to this experience. In other words we are concerned here with the relation between his affective and cognitive experiences or the stability, order and control in his cognitive and affective experiences (Sonnekus, 1985:60).

Experiencing things is a way of giving meaning to the world around us and this can be effected at three different levels (affective, cognitive, normative). In describing experience in the life-world of the out-of-school youth the following is meant: Experiencing things is a way of experiencing oneself through which something essential about one’s life-world becomes manifest (Van Rensburg, 1994:113).

Without experiencing, one’s life-world cannot be built up, cannot be comprehended, cannot be contemplated at all. It is through the child’s numerous experiences of reality and world of experience that his own unique life-world comes into being. A study of the out-of-school youth’s world of experience
implies learning about how he experiences his world and the meaning that he attaches to it (Van Rensburg, 1994:113).

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Since man is essentially a being related to other beings it stands to reason that one can only understand his experiences by studying him in his relationship with himself, others, the things around him and God.

All experiences of the out-of-school youth take place within relationships. According to Gouws & Kruger (1994:5) a distinction should be made between himself and relationships as follows:

* Experiences of the out-of-school youth that take place within his relationship to himself.
* Experiences within his relationship with others.
* Experiences within his relationships with things.
* Experiences within his relationship with God.

Experience culminates in orientation or is an act of orientating oneself. The out-of-school youth often finds himself in a precarious situation. Macleod (1991:37) observes that many youths lack orientation of how to live in a peaceful world. Black parents are frustrated at their inability to get their children to return to school. The out-of-school youth continually orientates himself in relation to his situation out of school to himself, to the social worker, to his peers, to things or ideas and to God.
It is important to have a closer look at the relationships of the out-of-school youth that are found within his life-world.

3.2.2 Life-world

Kusel (1990:11), Oliver (1989:324), Netshiombo (1994:4) and Macleod (1993:38) all cite the following characteristics of the life-world of the out-of-school youth:

* The black youth are angry, brutish, psychopathic, malicious and unforgiving.

* They are uneducated, jobless and without saleable skills or social credentials and unemployed.

* The exposure of children to outrages in the townships has resulted in adaptive behaviour patterns.

* They show signs of social, physical, spiritual, moral and mental experiences of brutalization.

* Many of those who have experienced and lived with violence are psychologically bruised and have come to accept violence as a way of life and an appropriate means of conflict resolution.

Glanz & Pretorius (1989:103) state that the family is considered to be the primary socialising agent in the preparation of the child for adulthood. It is within the confines of the family that morals, values and norms are transmitted from parent to child. The out-of-school youth's historical background reveals that the family was not always able to transmit values to him or her. The reasons are given by Everatt (1994:84-85) when he mentions that "black families often struggle to
survive under adverse, oppressive and discriminatory circumstances. They often experience hardships and tensions outside the home and these are expressed between family members in the home itself."

Everatt (1994:84) further notes that many black youths have experienced high levels of family stress during childhood, sometimes resulting in domestic violence. Marital discord, spouse-beating, discontinuity in parenting, physical or sexual abuse, neglect and witnessing alcohol abuse by a parent may relatively be common experiences that young people have lived through. The out-of-school youth’s relations to his parents and the home as a secure environment cannot be adequately realised under these conditions.

Malan, Van Zyl Slabbert, Marais, Olivier & Riordan (1995:13) confirm that the core family has been seriously affected by social upheavals. However, many youths are not experiencing stability of an enduring nature, and it emerges from surveys that many young people only receive fragmented care. The lack of control, supervision and attention is clearly linked to teenagers' negative behaviour patterns such as alcohol and drug abuse, crime, and indiscriminate and unprotected sexual activities. Malan et al. (1995:13) observe that the lack of emotional ties between youths and parents often result in an increase in teenage pregnancies and births out of wedlock. These are unacceptably high and the Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) is a frightening spectre.

From these introductory paragraphs it is clearly evident that the out-of-school youth cannot form a meaningful life-world because he fails to attribute adequate meaning. This in turn will influence the relationships he forms with himself, others, ideas, values and God. The quality of both meaning and involvement is determined by what the out-of-school youth subjectively experiences and since both are of inadequate quality, adequate self-actualization cannot be realised. The out-of-school youth’s relationships will therefore also be an expression of his particular
life-world, however inadequate his life-world may be. It is important to take a closer look at these relationships of the out-of-school youth.

3.3 THE OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH'S RELATION WITH HIMSELF

3.3.1 Physical self

According to Siann & Ugwuegbu (1988:212) the meaning of corporality in human existence in general is manifested by the following:

* Human existence in the world takes place through the body.

* The body is at the same time man's means of admission to the world (also to other people and things).

* The body is the mediator between man and the world.

* Through our bodies we actively establish our own world.

Mathiane (1993:10) observed the following regarding the out-of-school youth: "There was a time when they were heroes, a time when they were in the vanguard of the struggle, fearlessly taking on the South African government with nothing but stones. Those were the days when they were called the "Young Lions". Now they are called the "Lost Generation".

According to Everatt (1994:7) the out-of-school youth is facing adverse socio-economic realities. In contrast with white youth, school was not compulsory for black youth, and thousands of young people of all ages leave the school system annually. In addition, life for many blacks is marked by poverty, unemployment, homelessness and grossly inadequate health and welfare facilities. AIDS thrives
under these conditions. Negative socio-economic circumstances give rise to greater sexual activity, increased prostitution and teenage pregnancies.

3.3.2 **Psychic self**

(1) **Inadequate exploration**

According to Le Roux (1992:102-107) exploring implies a study of those aspects of reality which are relatively unknown to the child. He explores those aspects of reality which reflect both known and unknown characteristics.

Objectives of emancipation become more refined and the will to overcome his helplessness becomes a will to succeed. Exploring becomes more formal and organised and less subjective in wondering and anticipating.

The psychic life of the out-of-school youth is not adequately realised. Mathiane (1993:10) interviewed an Umlazi Township youth who said, "I feel like a used tissue", who at the tender age of 18 is not at school and, because he has no skills, cannot look for work. Asked about his daily activities, he mentioned that he sits at home and does nothing.

Mathiane (1993:10) also observes that this youth is not the only person who is disillusioned with political leaders. In almost all the South African townships there are young people who are not going to school, who are roaming the streets and drifting along from day to day.

The opportunities for the out-of-school youth to actualise his psychic life with reference to specific educational contents are not good because the youth is not attending school. Pretorius (Van Rensburg, 1994:122) observes that attitudes which the child assumes in exploring his world and which he fails to personally
integrate give rise to emotional lability. If then the undigested experienced increase in number, he is eventually driven into an affective no-man's land where he suffers from feelings of anxiety, insecurity, helplessness, uncertainty, dependence, loneliness and inferiority.

Meaning which is not emotionally, cognitively and normatively integrated by the child, leads to anxiety. Anxiety results in an impotence which, according to Van Niekerk (1990), virtually paralyses the child. There are many issues which can make the out-of-school youth anxious. The writer is of the opinion that these involve AIDS, unemployment, marginalisation, violence and hunger. Anxiety would thus make the out-of-school youth feel helpless because he or she is unable to resist it.

When education takes an unfavourable course, like in the life of out-of-school youth, it gives rise to anxiety (Le Roux, 1992:84). This in turn acts as an impediment to the child in his development. His feeling of insecurity is often revealed as a reluctance to explore, thus resulting in the inadequate actualising of his psychic life.

A child's reluctance to explore also gives proof of the fact that the volitional education, i.e. education directed at developing the child's will, has been neglected. Unwillingness to actively participate in the task of becoming an adult is rarely evidenced in an affectively stable child (Van Niekerk, 1986:128).

There are experiences that often lead to pathic unrest in the child. This often results in the child being labile, confused and disoriented concerning the gnostic import of experiences. Pretorius (Van Rensburg, 1994:125) cites the following examples (which do have particular reference to the youth out-of-school):
The child wishes to become someone in his own right but he is held in check and remains immature.

He is forced to adopt an expectant attitude despite the fact that as a person he is endowed with the initiative to create relationships.

He desires to be accepted, yet feels rejected.

He would like to feel worthy, but he feels inferior instead.

He desires stability, seeks understanding, but regards himself as misunderstood.

He craves support to realise his full potential but constantly seems to be dispossessed of his potentialities.

He wishes to submit to true authority but experiences a total absence of it.

(2) Inadequate emancipation

Van Niekerk (1986:22-23) describes "emancipating" as implying that the child is reaching or actualising the potential inherent in him as a person, as it relates to his various abilities. An under-actualising child with no proper guidance and who will not be able to discern his education, falters. He will find it quite difficult to accept adult decisions and judgements where he is concerned.

The writer is of the opinion that the relationship between educators and the out-of-school youth is not always conducive to purposeful support leading to emancipation. Meintjies (1996:9) reported that this relationship is worse nowadays. He observed that: "Disciplining a pupil in front of his friends is risky
because that pupil may feel, rightly or wrongly, that you have lowered his status among his peers. A pupil who feel humiliated by an educator is likely to exact a measure of revenge."

(3) Inadequate distantiation

A child failing to explore will minimise his mode of distantiation. This makes the out-of-school youth less able to adopt the proper attitude for truly involving himself with the things of this world which are outside of himself. He "finds it difficult to control his emotional life by means of reason. His insecurity prevents him from proceeding to the mode of sensing, to perceiving and onward thinking, imagining and memorising which are integral to the concept of experience and basic to establishing his life-world" (Mhlambo, 1993:101). This child's labile mode of sensing also frequently causes his attention to fluctuate when he tries to attend to something on a gnostic level.

(4) Inadequate differentiation

In a dysfunctional education setting a child becomes reluctant to fully actualise his potential and shows a reluctance to differentiate (Van Niekerk, 1986:24). If the educator discloses real facts inadequately, the child's chances to really actualise and practise his intellectual potential by way of differentiation are minimised. In terms of intellectual education, the child does not succeed in obtaining the necessary opportunity to differentiate his innate human potentialities in attaching real significance to the reality of living. Most out-of-school youth, according to Molefe (1995:13) were involved in "liberation now, education later", a situation which led to many dropping out of school. They are now regarded as the "lost generation", a description that is much detested. Many, because of a lack of skills, have resorted to a life of crime.
This, consequently, makes the out-of-school youth feel demotivated in the exercise of differentiation because of his historical mishaps.

(5) Inadequate objectification

According to Van Niekerk (Van Rensburg, 1994:129) a child is over-protected or rejected when too much is consistently expected of him. This makes him feel that he is not at total liberty to "let go of himself, his fellow-man and material things in order to view his parents, other people and the realities of life objectively. He is consequently unable to discover the factual nature of matters".

Van Rensburg (1994:130) further avers that if that which should be said, done and known is insufficiently modelled or instructed, the child is not receiving adequate and real support toward eventually taking an objective stance. For instance in the classroom or at home the educator must always endeavour to always answer the child's questions concerning reality as adequately as possible. If the child's questions are ignored or answered unsatisfactorily, this child who is busy actualising his personal potential achieves only an uncertain or wavering grasp on the content which he knows he does not fully know. It may also lead to lack of organisation and insufficient structuring in respect of his quest for knowledge.

Bester, Meillon, Ferreira & Jansen (1991:63) conclude that in his educational course he will not benefit from open exploring and emancipation, that would broaden his experiential horizons and induce him to grow out of himself. Such stagnation of his gnostic mobility would equally inhibit or impede his orientation. Later in life he would fail to determine his own position. Molefe (1996:13) maintains that this failure causes the out-of-school youth to be "lost" and without marketable skills.
3.3.3 Aspirations and expectations

According to Schulze & Mellet (1991:105-106) the educative dialogue is always a point where the subjective interpretations of an adult and a child intersect and where short circuits may occur. It is also evident that no child learns automatically. To be able to learn a child must actively direct himself to the content emotionally and intellectually.

Gouws & Kruger (1994:45) aver that the affective mode of learning is sensing, which is also qualified as an accompanying or concomitant mode of learning. It is in the initial stage of becoming involved with the content where the child actually becomes aware of it. When he subsequently opens up to the content in order to assimilate it into his own experiential world by means of his perceptions and thoughts he is being attentive to the content and learning it.

The child’s fund of experience reflects a hierarchy of values and significancies, which reflect the way in which things have been meaningfully experienced, e.g. stable or labile in the affective sense, or cognitively organised or disorganised. Those experiences which he has not meaningfully integrated (usually manifested in terms of anxiety, uncertainty, insecurity or ignorance) constantly force themselves to awareness. In his efforts to learn he experiences difficulties in breaking through these subjective moments of sensing in order to focus on the material to be learned in an organised way. This is the prerequisite to remaining involved with or paying attention to the contents by way of perceiving and thinking (Van Niekerk, 1986:28).

It follows that the possibility always exists for affective lability to occur, resulting in a destabilisation of the sensing mode of learning which initiates all learning and which should accompany the cognitive modes. The child in that instance also feels that he is unable to learn adequately. This in turn leads to an intensification of his
feelings of anxiety, insecurity and ignorance. Such a condition can be envisaged as a "wall" which has arisen between the child's learning potential and his affective learning, instead of the "bridge" which normally exists when he feels secure in his lived-experience of love, acceptance, encouragement and warmth which enables him to fully realise his learning potential (Van Niekerk, 1986:28).

The study carried out by Schmidt (1990:222) illustrates that a constellation or a hierarchy of violence-stress related factors can affect lability in the child's learning situation. The quality of the experience, or experiencing in the past history (childhood) of his learning continuum does determine how the child sees himself as a learner. The out-of-school youth experiences a sense of failure and fear of venturing into the unknown. Olivier (1989:324) states that the out-of-school youth feel that somewhere along the line they have failed as persons. This confirms that the out-of-school youth are uneducated, untrained and subsequently unemployed. The youth face a bleak future because they spent most of their time fighting the apartheid government. Many of the youths cannot go to normal schools because of their age or were dismissed from school as being militant (Everatt, 1994:2).

The following authors state the reasons why most of the youths did not receive adequate learning (Molefe, 1996; Van Zyl Slabbert, 1994:17; Everatt, 1994:1; Seekings, 1993:1). All cite the following reasons:

* The apartheid government's repressive tactics.
* Violence.
* Crime.
* Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS).
* Uprisings (1976).
* Apartheid education.
* Political conflicts.
Under these conditions the out-of-school youth was unable to learn according to his true potential.

3.4 THE OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH'S RELATION WITH OTHERS

3.4.1 Relations with parents

According to Schulze & Mellet (1991:96) a successful parent-child relationship is a powerful factor in helping a child to avoid anxiety and uncertainty about school work, and it may be viewed as the primary relationship - the basis or anchor for the child's other relations. That is why the relation between parent and child should be characterised by mutual love, respect, acceptance, trust and knowledge. This type of relationship provides the child with a secure and permanent basis for exploration and self-development.

According to Van Niekerk (1990:15) family disorganisation is a major contributory factor behind the out-of-school youth syndrome. It seems as though the traditional role of the parent in the black urban area in many ways has become unproductive due, *inter alia*, to the fact that values upheld by the family to the present are opposed by the children (Van Niekerk, 1986:16). These parents cannot fulfil the basic educational needs of their children and it becomes the task of the formal schooling system to help bring about the change.

Certain family settings become observable. These impact on the lives of out-of-school youth. Cemane (1990:2-5) states that family disorganisation contributes to the out-of-school youth phenomenon.

(1) Family

According to Van Zyl Slabbert (1994:78) the family is a major socialising agent in society, assisting individuals as they move from childhood into adolescence and
eventually adulthood. The breakdown in family structures has taken place in especially black communities of South Africa. It has resulted in the family not being able to perform the upbringing function.

(2) Sham families

Outwardly these families manifest most of the characteristics of an organised and well-ordered family. However, a closer look shows a family that suffers from a lack of communication between family members, a family of inmates, who are constantly involved in in-fighting. The emotional support in this family is minimal. Nobody cares whether the physical and emotional needs of children are satisfied. This situation induces children to leave their homes and head for the streets and shady city areas (Cemane, 1990:2-5).

(3) Families subjected to stress

A debilitating illness such as mental ill-health can influence the role functioning of the affected person within the family group (Cemane, 1990:2-5).

(4) Families overtaken by misfortunes

These may include incarceration in jail of one or both parents for long periods, being caught up in the midst of the ravages of riots, political unrest or wars, and being affected by long periods of adverse climatic conditions which sometimes result in severe food shortages and starvation. During difficult times families may in their despair neglect their children (Cemane, 1990:2-5).

(5) Families overtaken by tragedy

Here the focus is on the structural disruption of the nuclear family as a result of the death of one or both parents. In the case of divorce, the remaining parent may
enter into a relationship with a new partner who may neglect or abuse children from the original marriage. As a result of this the child experiences emotional trauma and becomes isolated and alienated from the rest of the family. The child may eventually run away from home and end up roaming the streets begging, scavenging food outlets or even selling his or her body to survive (Cemane, 1990:1-5).

3.4.2 Relationship with peers

As the child grows older, relations with peers become more and more important. A significant affective social phenomenon arises after the discovery of the inner self. He gradually becomes lonely as he moves out of family life and becomes independent. At puberty he develops his own opinions on various matters. He has a great yearning to be understood by others, especially if the parents are unsympathetic with his apparently turbulent feelings at puberty. The longing to be understood results in forming ties of friendship between the becoming child and other children of his age. The relationship is based on loving identification and the desire to share genuinely the joy and sorrow of life and gain support and assistance in his insecurity and semi-independence (Nel, 1974:238-239; Vrey, 1986:63; Biehler & Snowman, 1991:67-68).

Mhlambo (1993:115) relates that, for the impeded child, the meaning of seeking friendship or alignment with others is an escape mechanism from the torments of loneliness that he may experience even in a group. The person is not genuine because he is not tied by an emotional bond of intimacy, mutual concern and a true knowledge of the other person. The out-of-school youth's loneliness is still burdensome. Inability to establish true friendship deprives him of a chance of gaining a trustworthy confidante with whom he could communicate and air his inner views on parents, teachers, discipline, personal problems at school or relations with the opposite sex, etc.
The constellation of friendships provide him with a forum or platform to unburden or reveal his inner world, in terms of the life-world, as he progresses towards adulthood. True and good friendship embodies the criteria for the accepted code of conduct. But the impeded child may remain sceptical, untrusting and introverted, fixated on the impact of his experiences of the different facets of violence. He would forego these multi-faceted relations with his peers that are vital for self-actualization (Vrey, 1986:57). At times the impeded child's yearning for belonging or togetherness with someone or others may compel him to join and take part in morally discredited activities such as drinking and smoking. He would accede to this automation conformity just to gain popularity or group identification or affiliate with a view to obtain some "spiritual haven".

According to Gouws & Kruger (1994:126) it is maintained that the presence of the youth with members of his own sex eventually leads to forming of heterosexual relationships. These relationships can sometimes become more serious, intimate and permanent, leading eventually to a marriage partner.

3.4.3 Relationship with the welfare workers

Everatt (1994:2) states that a number of organisations began taking action over the plight of the "Young Lions". The youth at the forefront of the struggle for liberation in the 1980s had become a liability in the 1990s. Young people unable to move back into the schooling system were dismissed as militant. Those unable to find secure employment were given the cold shoulder when they sought assistance.

Everatt (1994:3) further avers that to counteract this alarming trend, the Joint Enrichment Project (JEP), a project of the South African council of Churches (SACC) and the Southern African Catholic Bishops' Conference (SACBC), convened the Inaugural National Conference on Marginalised Youth. This
gathering aimed to place the needs of young people on the national agenda, develop a critical understanding of the marginalisation of youth and propose a national strategy to prevent this marginalisation.

From a psychological point of view Feketa (1989:54) states that due to a desire to conceal the traumatic stigma of having dropped out of school, some out-of-school youths may exhibit undesirable characteristics such as being:

- Emotional.
- Hypersensitive.
- Aggressive.
- Withdrawn.
- Over-assertive.
- Susceptible to crime, alcoholism and sexual immorality.

According to Ndaba (1997:3) the out-of-school youth's relationship with welfare workers is not always a cordial one because their intervention often leads them to shelters and subsequently the returning the out-of-school youth to the same unchanged home environment or school that caused him to be out of school or in the street in the first place.

3.4.4 Relationship with employers

Rip (Feketa, 1989:54) sketched a pathetic profile of early school-leavers who in the employment situation may:

- Function below their potential due to the deficiency of their educational background.
- Have such a low self-esteem that they underestimate their ability to acquire or keep a job.
* Act impulsively.

* Have difficulty in getting along with workers and employers.

* Not understanding how to accept supervision and tolerate criticism.

* Be irresponsible and lacking in middle-class standards or reliability.

* Be late for work or stay away for several days because punctuality was neither expected nor practised in their homes and environment.

* Transfer their negative value-orientation in respect of school attendance and education to the work situation.

* Be work-shy due to the long period of unemployment.

Feketa (1989:59) also avers that instead of becoming of help, out-of-school youths become a serious liability since they are not only often dependent upon welfare but may become downright destructive due to the personality problems following a loss of self-esteem.

3.4.5 Relationship with teachers

According to Feketa (1989:45) the teacher will remain the pivot of the educational enterprise for a long time to come. With the aura of authority vested in him, the teacher exercises considerable influence on the children he teaches at a particularly impressionable age. The extent of this influence is, of course, related to the amount of time he spends with them. His role in the teaching-learning situation is that of helper, motivator, guide and innovator whose objective is essentially to provide guidance for the not-yet-adult en route to adulthood. The value of the
children's education is thus determined largely by the teacher's professional competence and, to an even greater extent, by his intellectual and moral qualities. Therefore an incompetent teacher may constitute an inevitable stumbling-block in the education system and render some pupils potential early school-leavers.

Being out-of-school will not have the same consequences as when a pupil is at school. Nkosi (1996:1) states that the relations between educators and the out-of-school youth are not always cordial. The out-of-school youth are always viewed negatively by teachers, and educators ascribe many problems occurring within schools to them. When being asked the sort of problems posed by them to educators, Nkosi (1996:2) clearly outlined the following:

* They like to visit schools occasionally to promote drugs, ill-discipline and flash stolen items like gold necklaces and cars.

* Incidents of murder, thefts, armed robberies, car hi-jackings that often take place on campuses or schools are ascribed to them.

* They often vandalise public institutions like schools and halls to vent their frustration.

This results in society being aggressive and insensitive to their cause as children. Therefore there is a serious lack of trust between educators and the out-of-school youth. Meintjies (1996:9) reported that two teachers had been murdered in KwaMashu on school premises. After the incident teachers felt threatened. When Nkosi (1996:3) was asked whether this criminal incident could be ascribed to the out-of-school youth, he did not hesitate to say: "Yes, very much so!".
3.4.6 **Relationship with the South African Police Services**

According to Blignaut (Van Rensburg, 1994:156) in 1988 the Durban City Police established a special unit to attend to the problem of out-of-school youth. Through intensive patrol duties and observation they identify out-of-school youth. Once identified the out-of-school youth are taken to the District Surgeon for a medical examination and are thereafter admitted to the Bayhead Place of Safety where social workers take over the responsibility for these children.

The South African Police Services are not directly involved in the identification and care for the out-of-school youth but render a supportive role. Out-of-school youth are therefore only arrested and detained in police cells when they have committed crimes which necessitate their detention and in circumstances where their parents or guardians cannot be traced.

According to Sosibo (1994:61) out-of-school youth sometimes involve themselves in criminal acts and this is where police actually involve themselves. The actual level of crimes committed by out-of-school youth in the Durban area needs to be examined.

Bhengu's (1997:1) experience of out-of-school youth is that they often start their criminal careers at an early age because of bad experiences and poor upbringing as children. Out-of-school youth often show signs of low self-esteem, lack of discipline, lack of conscience and lack of respect.

Expatiating on protection offered to out-of-school youth when convicted of crimes Bhengu (1997:2) stated that the youth of seventeen years and below are put in separate cells from adult prisoners. Out-of-school youth's relationship with the police has also been found not to be positive.
Figures released by the Department of Welfare probation officers show that from June 1996 to September 1997 about 3 353 children had been arrested by police in Durban. Of this 527 were the out-of-school youth (Challenor, 1997:1).

Figure 1: Arrests of children for major offences since June 1996 in Durban.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offence</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Murder</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug dealing</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempted murder</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession of drugs</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempted house-breaking</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery and assault</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession of an unlicensed firearm</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempted robbery</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malicious damage to property</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theft by snatching</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession of dagga</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theft of motor vehicle</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession of stolen property</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theft</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery</td>
<td>276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theft out of vehicle</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House-breaking</td>
<td>333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoplifting</td>
<td>1 009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempted theft out of vehicle</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempted theft of vehicle</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Challenor (1997:1).

It is also stated that most of the children arrested were from families with a single or no parents. Each child had a different reason of committing crime. Poverty was regarded as the major factor in juvenile crime: 87% of those arrested were boys (Challenor, 1997:1).

3.4.7 Relationship with the community

According to Van Zyl Slabbert (1994:72) the breakdown of family and community structures, aggravated by rapid and enforced social changes, has a negative influence on youth. Young people need to feel part of a family and community in order to develop a sense of self-worth. They should be "active participants in improving the social and political world in which they are living" (Bloom,
1993:2). It has been found that although youth often do not experience this sense of belonging, they still nevertheless try against the odds to maintain an illusion of control over their lives.

Amoateng & Kalule-Sabiti's (1993:1) view is that the extended kinship system among blacks and Asians seems to cushion the negative effects of disrupted nuclear family units. Many youths are not experiencing lasting stability and surveys reveal that a lot of young people are receiving only fragmented care.

The lack of control, supervision and attention is clearly linked to teenagers' negative behaviour such as alcohol and drug abuse, crime, indiscriminate and unprotected sexual activities.

Research shows that the community is often distressed by the militancy of out-of-school youth, with its implied threat to authority.

3.5 THE OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH'S RELATIONS WITH OBJECTS AND IDEAS

Vrey (Van Rensburg, 1994:159) states that in constituting his life-world the child is increasingly concerned with ideas. As with objects, people or the attitudes or people towards himself he becomes aware of the significance of ideas for him and their implications for his own identity. The out-of-school youth constitutes an inadequate life-world and this will eventually influence his relations to ideas. The absence of a secure home environment and other essential factors for his becoming inhibits the proper development of his cognitive powers. The life-world of the out-of-school youth will thus be inadequate because it focuses mainly on the essences of survival and the rejection of things and/or ideas that cannot be utilised for survival purposes.
3.5.1 **Environmental hazards**

Being out of school can expose the youth to serious environmental hazards. Nagoor & Meintjies (1996:17) interviewed a few child prostitutes and came to realise that most of them left homes where there was emotional support and went to the cities to sell their bodies because they were attracted by certain things like freedom to not go to school, to smoke, drink, eat burgers and chips whenever they feel like it and freedom from the traditional family, parents and rules.

It is the kind of life most children want but it comes at a very high price. Children who run away from their homes are lured into selling their bodies by the agents who get more money than them. Nagoor & Meintjies (1996:17) lament that the most striking aspect of these girls is their acceptance of the abnormal exploitative situation they find themselves in.

Everatt (1994:9) states that statistics indicate that those hardest hit by AIDS are aged between 20 and 49. Coyle (Everatt, 1994:110) reported that the brunt of the AIDS epidemic will be borne by South Africa's youth. Young women will account for 81% of all new AIDS infections among females; young men will comprise 62% of new infections among males.

3.5.2 **Formal education**

According to Van Niekerk (1986:5) the more strongly the situation at school is related to his fear of communicating, the more vehemently will the child reject the subject matter which is presented to him. His endeavour to escape by avoiding any measure of communication or involvement in school-work serves only to increase his anxiety yet again.
The Commonwealth Secretariat (Feketa, 1989:3) pointed out that "the evidence now seems to indicate that education has reached a point in many developing countries where it is making a negative contribution to their development. Already in many of these countries the products of the school system are finding it difficult to secure employment, giving rise to the growing phenomenon of the educated unemployed. In such circumstances there can be no incentive to entice pupils to stay at school longer".

According to Mpanya (1997:1) the reason for out-of-school youth is that some do not stay with their biological parents. They stay with their grandparents who fail to exercise discipline. Because of the lack of discipline in the home, they do not have someone who is effective in exercising discipline. He further states that within the home the children become the law unto themselves.

Some parents are poorly educated thus unable to assist the child with school-work or vocabulary. This results in the child not having the necessary tools to cope with learning tasks. The relationship of out-of-school youth and formal education is therefore negative (Mpanya, 1997:1).

3.5.3 Health care

According to Van Rensburg (1994:167) children who, through choice or circumstances, are destined to live a life of vagrancy invariably come from the most disadvantaged families in a community, hence they enter their ways of lifestyle with an appreciable health deficit. They are likely to have been poorly immunised and undernourished, to have lived in an unhygienic environment and have been exposed to a variety of serious infectious diseases. Life on the streets merely aggravates these conditions.

However, Everatt (1994:15) notes that there is very little documented evidence or analysis of the perceptions, attitudes and understanding of South African youth
regarding AIDS. What is very clear is that South Africa is only at the beginning of its AIDS epidemic, but already more than a thousand AIDS deaths have been reported and some 200 000 South Africans are estimated to carry the HIV (human immune deficiency virus - AIDS) virus. If this trend continues then in seven years time some 600 000 people will have died of AIDS in this country. This deadly disease will soon unfold here. The youth of South Africa will bear the brunt of the epidemic (Everatt, 1994:34).

3.5.4 Shelters

According to Ndaba (1997:1) the purpose of shelters is to try to help children develop cognitively, spiritually, physically and morally. The shelters also strive to have children rehabilitated and re-educated through systematic intervention. The children that are too old to go to school are given skills training where they are registered with the KwaZulu Training Trust.

Ndaba (1997:1) further states that the shelters try by all means to help out-of-school youth reach adulthood. Because all shelters have to be registered to a forum, the forum therefore arranges games and functions where these children interact and satisfy their psychological, social, physical and moral needs.

Masson (1996:2) expatiates that out-of-school youth cannot always easily provide social help to community problems because the community is not "out-of-school youth friendly". Although shelters try to educate these children to be better adults, not much can be done to change their lifestyle, particularly begging and stealing. Admission to shelters is voluntary.

Ndaba (1997:2) also notes the limited number of shelters in the country. Some shelters do exist but they are short-lived because of inadequate planning, funding and staffing. The Durban Child and Family Welfare has established about four shelters in the city but the government only partly contributes to their funding.
They rely heavily on international donors. What becomes evident is that shelters have proved to be expensive and cannot substitute for family life. Children living in shelters could quickly be relocated to their homes if they could be found. Van Rensburg (1994:16) notes that the educational intervention given by shelters for out-of-school youth is often haphazard, superficial and a duplication of both education and welfare services which drains existing manpower and renders it inadequate.

3.5.5 Violence

The out-of-school youth's involvement with violence creates serious psychological problems in the long term. A research conducted by Kvalsvig, Pillay & Krige (Van Zyl Slabbert, 1994:335) found that nearly 66% of the respondents had seen a corpse, 25% reported having been personally harassed, and over 40% had lost a friend through violence. Over 80% reported having been affected by one act of violence or other, with 30% having been affected four or more times. Personal experience of violence correlated significantly with pessimism, lack of trust, insecurity and lack of satisfaction.

Stavrou & Shongwe (1989:7) state that being involved in violence can be a terrifying experience. Within the family set-up there are increased reports of child abuse and husband-wife violence and murders. In actual fact South Africa is a violent society (Setiloane, 1991:59). There is also a relationship between experiencing violence as a child and later violent behaviour, anxiety and feelings of insecurity.

Setiloane (1991:61) emphasises that a young person who experiences violence during a crucial period of development, specifically childhood could learn to respond violently in any situation that may arise. Therefore the three-component model can thus be used to elucidate the psychological effects of violence on young people by outlining the process in terms of:
The youths' experiences or witnessing of a violent act becomes a cognitive imprint.

The youth forms an emotional response (this might be positive, negative or neutral) in trying to make sense of the act of violence.

The youth will have internalised an emotional responsibility to behave in the future.

This model shows how it is possible that a child who has been exposed to or been a victim of violence can develop a positive response to the violent act and become predisposed to respond in a similarly violent manner. This child will have experienced the potential stimuli to begin a social learning pattern of violence. Development of a positive response means that a child would perceive violence as the acceptable reaction in a social situation. A behavioural response is learned and internalised; logically this means that children who experience violence could possibly learn violence perhaps not in accordance with the societal norms but as the appropriate response to a given social situation.

According to Sitas (1991:8) most people killed in violence are young; they are the undoubted recipients of violence. Violence and crime have many destructive effects on youth. According to Netshiombo (1994:2), many of out-of-school youth who experienced violence and lived with it are psychologically bruised and have come to accept violence as a way of life and an appropriate means of conflict resolution. Blacks in particular experienced violence in many violent forms and it forms part of their personal histories. Hence out-of-school youth are often victims of this violence. In order to transform the lives of out-of-school youth psychological healing will have to take place. Khan (1997:14) estimates that there are three million children who are victims of political violence in KwaZulu-Natal.
When Straker (1992: 18) interviewed her subjects of young people aged between 14 and 25 who have all been "warriors", she discovered that most had been injured in political battles and had been detained and many have lost schooling and any job opportunities they may have had. She came to the conclusion that although all of her subjects had been permanently affected, not all were permanently psychologically disabled.

3.5.6 Socio-political factors

According to Lewis (1995: 3) young people have always suffered the most from apartheid. Out-of-school youth have been poorly fed, insufficiently clothed, indifferently educated and have lived with parents stressed by poverty, overcrowding, relocation and unemployment. They are not going to school. They had to ensure the success of the struggle, but their future seems bleak (Mathiane, 1993: 10).

Van Zyl Slabbert (1994: 51) avers that the involvement of black youth in politics was a sustained trend. When the United Democratic Front (UDF) was established in August 1983, 360 of the 565 affiliating organisations were student youth organisations. From the 1980s politics and activism became the arena of youth. The long-term effects of apartheid, such as authoritarianism and conformism, have affected the development of self-esteem and a positive self-identity in children.

3.5.7 Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS)

According to Ferguson & Friedman (1992), the AIDS epidemic is spreading. If it is to be contained, education and action among South Africa's youth are vitally necessary. International experience has shown that long-term control and prevention of a range of diseases lies not only in building hospitals or advances in pharmacology but in the behavioural choices made by people in their formative
adolescent years. This applies most obviously to tobacco, alcohol and drug abuse but also to diet and safer sex practices. This implicates the out-of-school youth seriously.

Everatt (1994:7) states that people with the greatest risk of contracting AIDS are those in the sexually most active phases of their lives, i.e. the youth. The out-of-school youths’ understanding of AIDS is crucial because to slow the AIDS epidemic "safer sex" practices have to become the norm. This must be inculcated into the South African youth while their values and behaviour patterns are still being formed. But many adverse socio-economic realities facing black youth make this difficult. This occurs because it is not always easy to reach black youth. Life for many blacks is marked by poverty, unemployment, homelessness and grossly inadequate health or welfare services. All this contributes to spreading the HIV virus.

Cameron (Everatt, 1994:15) elaborated that the youth is an important target for educational interventions. Puberty and adolescence are important stages during which values are formulated. It is during this time that many young people become sexually active and begin to establish sexual behaviour. Therefore they need information about AIDS, sexually transmitted diseases and decision-making at an appropriate age to enable them to make informed choices.

Khumalo (1996:1) confirmed that AIDS is likely to leave a generation of around 750 000 orphans by the year 2 000 in KwaZulu -Natal. Almost 2-million people were infected by the virus in South Africa by the end of 1995. The deaths will ultimately increase orphans who will be deprived of a normal societal and cultural upbringing while living in an environment hostile to the development of health value systems. This is a recipe for the further reproduction of out-of-school youth (Woods, 1989:15).
3.6 THE OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH'S RELATION WITH MORAL AND RELIGIOUS VALUES

According to Vrey (1986:96) one of the aims of education is to bring the child to a point where he supports the norms of his society from personal conviction. His culture contains moral, religious, social and other norms deriving from the corresponding values esteemed by the community. The totality of these values is subsumed in the way of life maintained by that community. The child's relations with religious and moral values develop to a point where he will conform to such religious and moral norms of his own free will.

Strijdom (1990:21) stated that a considerable number of black youth are genuinely interested in religion.

3.6.1 Moral development

According to Vrey (1986:101) moral development contains a clear cognitive element. As the child becomes emancipated he becomes increasingly capable of conceptualising and generalising moral norms and understands moral concepts. He thus achieves morality based on principles.

Gouws & Kruger (1994:174) state that conscience is a uniquely human inherent ability to distinguish between right and wrong, good and evil and proper and improper. It is influenced by teaching habits and education. The functioning of conscience can change and diminish in certain circumstances. For instance, adolescents' sense of guilt about using drugs may be eliminated as a result of their peer group's endorsement of the drug habit. Poor moral development gives rise to such problems as delinquency, sexual permissiveness and the use and abuse of alcohol and drugs. Sexually transmittable diseases are among the consequences of these problems.
Being out-of-school for the child means he is less able to adopt the proper attitude for truly involving himself with the things of this world which are outside of himself. This inability to experience matters and ascribe significance to them is in a sufficiently dissociated, controlled and well-ordered gnostic manner by means of his perceptions and thoughts brings about a further degree of pathic-affective lability. The insecure child finds it hard to risk proceeding from the mode of sensing to perceiving and onward to thinking, imagining and memorising as he is hampered by anxiety and emotional unrest. A labile mode of sensing also frequently causes the child's attention to fluctuate when he tries to attend to something on a gnostic level (Van Rensburg, 1994:175).

3.6.2 Religious development

Le Roux (1992:71) sees a personal religion as a means of faith and hope to which a child can cling during the uncertainties and vicissitudes of his development. Two authentic requirements would be authentic knowledge and practical demonstration of religious norms.

According to Gouws & Kruger (1994:178) age in itself cannot cause a change in moral judgement; rather a change in age is accompanied by a change in cognitive, affective, social and other kinds of development that affect moral development.

Children are highly credulous. They implicitly accept everything their educators tell them in unquestioning good faith (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:187). Even before they go to secondary school their perceptions of religion undergo a change. As a result of their intellectual development and increasing range of experience religion becomes more personal and acquires a deeper meaning for them as they pass into and through adolescence. Blacks in South Africa are becoming detached from their traditional environment and are being exposed to the vicissitudes of modern life, a context that is significantly qualified by Christianity and other
religious influences. Religious affiliation is by far the most important organisational activity in which black youths become involved, the most popular churches being the Methodist, Apostolic, Catholic and the Zion Christian Church (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:188-189).

Van Rensburg (1994:175) notes that a child in educational distress often experiences his religion in a different way. He states that a child in educational distress has no way of getting authentic knowledge or practical demonstration while he is out of school. The child is thus without this means of hope and faith which can supply some security to his life.

The out-of-school youth needs to understand that without personal faith, experience and knowledge he has no source of comfort or spiritual security (Bester et al. 1991:128).

3.7 SUMMARY

A meaningful life-world is formed when the child, by attributing meaning, forms relationships with objects, people, ideas, values, the self and God. To attribute meaning to a relationship implies much more than mere understanding. The quality of both meaning and involvement is determined by what the child subjectively experiences and both are components of self-actualization which, because of the need for educational assistance, is guided actualization. The child's relationships are therefore an expression of his life-world.

That the out-of-school youth cannot realise his potential adequately is evident from the very fact that his social circumstances are not conducive to this realisation. It is evident from the discussions in this chapter that the out-of-school youth cannot easily constitute a meaningful and adequate life-world. The lifestyle of out-of-school youth is an example of the outcome of the disharmonious educational
dynamics, i.e. educational distress. In many instances the out-of-school youth would like to conceal his basic situatedness but psychological symptoms of educational distress, like aggression, over-assertiveness and outbursts in emotions actually give the youth away.

When the out-of-school youth feels that he is unaccepted, rejected and unwelcome, he develops a feeling of inferiority. For youth that have lived in townships that are characterised by overcrowding, few street lights and often no electricity, a situation like this seems likely to occur. The out-of-school youths have no stable family units. Many come from single-parent homes or homes with no parents at all. They had been left to the care of relatives and neighbours, deprived of opportunities for decent schooling, and drenched in a culture of violence with no positive role models.

Because they have often become victims of their educational milieu the next chapter will deal with accountable support for out-of-school youth.
CHAPTER 4

ACCOUNTABLE SUPPORT FOR THE OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

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   (2) Nature of support required

4.2.2 Structures for implementing youth policy
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4.5 SUMMARY
CHAPTER 4

ACCOUNTABLE SUPPORT FOR THE OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The success of children in an educational milieu relies on the educational support that the child may receive from his environment but for the out-of-school youth this support has been found to be lacking. According to Jennings & Everatt (1995:41) accountable support for the out-of-school youth should therefore be viewed from his dependence on education. This means that the dysfunctional education situation in which the child finds himself should be rectified. This therefore implies that presently available legislation that provides for the welfare of the out-of-school youth and structures for accountable support for them should be investigated. It becomes imperative therefore to look at the proposed national youth policy.

4.2 THE PROPOSED SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL YOUTH POLICY

The National Youth Commission Discussion Paper (1997:7) states that the previous South African regime before 1994 had no coherent integrated National Youth Policy. Instead there was a policy of privilege aimed at white youth, segregation of structures and a deliberate policy of under-development with regard to black youth. The document lists the following structures that were in existence before 1994:

* Youth Affairs Departments in most bantustan administrations.

* Youth desks in the different segregated education departments.
Specific programmes in certain departments, e.g. the Cadet system in white schools administered by the South African Defence Force (SADF), or adolescent health sections in different department of health.

* Youth workers employed in Black Local Authorities.

4.2.1 **Principles and guidelines**

According to Van Zyl Slabben (1994:173) the National Youth Policy should be as follows:

* The Government of National Unity should as soon as possible adopt a national youth policy that will involve all relevant state and provincial departments and other authorities.

* All relevant state and provincial departments and other official structures should provide for youth issues in concrete ways such as budgeting, promotion, representation, infrastructure and facilities.

(1) **Areas to be covered**

Van Zyl Slabbert (1994:174-182) includes the following:

* Responsibilities of government, civil society (in particular Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and the churches) and the youth themselves.

* Responsibilities of various ministries and provincial and local authorities dealing with youth matters.
* Links with national education policy. Structures such as a cabinet committee and youth council should be considered for the management of the proposed youth policy.

* A youth policy and its administrative mechanism should specifically address the real or potential tension between the functions of the public and private sectors concerning recreation, between affordability of facilities and other priorities, and between constructive and socially undesirable recreational activities.

(2) **Nature of support required**

Although the policy is crucial in helping to plan for the delivery of projects, the policy ought to be informed about the nature of support required. According to Jennings & Everatt (1995:1) the out-of-school youth grew up in an environment that impacted heavily on their experiences.

Analysing the needs and attitudes of out-of-school youth, Jennings & Everatt (1995:3) observed that education was seen by all participants to be a very important asset. Not only would it ensure better job opportunities, but emerged as a major component of a positive self-image. Those with little education appear to have internalised the notion that they were of less value than those with more education. Very few participants had tried to re-engage themselves in any form of education and training since they first stopped studying. Youth in this situation are locked in a cycle of poverty: the need for money may force them out of school prematurely but having left school their employment and earning opportunities are limited.

According to Sepotokele (1997:3) the out-of-school youth need to re-enter education. Family pressures, as well as lack of opportunities in many areas, were
also reasons as to why some out-of-school youth had not re-engaged. Those who had tried to re-enter education of training had experienced problems of access to the institutions that offer courses they prefer. There appears to be a need for a wider range of courses to be offered, covering both technical and academic subjects as well as particular skills courses. Those that cannot be re-educated need special employment (also skills training) programmes (Van Zyl Slabbert, 1994:183).

Jennings & Everatt (1995:4) observed and came to the conclusion that there are four key points to be made about of-of-school youth. The widespread poverty is the root cause of youth ending their education prematurely. It is recommended that the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) should be able to rapidly transform the lives of South Africa's poorer citizens. Current proposals on education and training do not make specific provision for out-of-school youth. Although mention is made of some of the factors that cause the phenomenon, no solutions are proposed.

Bearing in mind the educational support needed by out-of-school youth, it is salient to look at structures that can best address the needs of children in dysfunctional education situation. The proposed National Youth Policy suggests those listed in sub-heading 4.2.2.

4.2.2 Structures for implementing youth policy

The range of problems regarding youth in South Africa indicate the need of a youth policy. The out-of-school stand to benefit from such a policy because although referred to as out-of-school youth they do form part of the South African youth in general. The following structures have been identified to be acceptable in implementing a youth policy (Van Zyl Slabbert, 1994:191-199):
Agents responsible for youth development

According to Franks & Glass (1994:23-25) the following agents are responsible for youth development:

* The state (government).
* Parents.
* Community.
* Political parties.
* The youth themselves.
* The private sector.
* The church.
* Voluntary workers.

The authors also state that the parents, community and the youth should be more responsible for youth development. The following agencies were identified as services which could address the youth needs:

* Recreational facilities.
* Initiation schools.
* Pre-school education.
* Youth leadership.
* Job opportunities.
* Health and welfare.
* Culture of learning and teaching.
* Educational facilities.

According to Franks & Glass (1994:25-26) youth do very little for themselves. Certainly and correctly, they blame the police and apartheid but they themselves do not know how to make development happen. There is an extremely large
expectation that the state can bring development and that it owes development to the people. The youth are largely demotivated and currently not involved in their own development or that of their own communities except for a crude sort of political consciousness. The greatest damage that the apartheid ideology has wreaked has been its negation of the self-confidence, self-reliance and initiative of the vast majority of South Africans (Franks & Glass, 1994:25).

Kusel (1990:13) states that education rests squarely in the hands of primary and secondary school authorities complemented by tertiary training at technical colleges, technikons and universities. Entry to these tertiary institutions though is restricted through stringent entry requirements. The education system is also designed to cater for entry at the lowest level with progress up to the highest. Its flaw is that it is a long-term solution for a new generation but cannot address present needs of out-of-school youth and also does not provide for any practical skills training. The industry and commerce within present schemes of apprenticeships are normally inaccessible to the illiterate. But training centres, which have had extensive experience in training the unemployed, are ideally placed and structured to provide this vital bridge. Currently there are nine regional training centres with various branches and supporting satellites that span the entire country under the Government Unemployed Training Scheme. These training centres have built up their whole infrastructure on training over the full range, from basic practical skills to specialised training up to senior management level. This is also mainly accessible to industry.

It is noted that youth development projects are not enough but it is important to take a look at those that are planned for an envisaged National Youth Policy.

(2) National Youth Commission (NYC)

According to Molefe (1996:14) the National Youth Commission was formally announced by President Nelson Mandela on June 16 (Youth Day) of 1996. The
aim was to empower the youth in all spheres of their lives. It was also aimed at developing a national youth policy and development plan that will be incorporated in the Reconstruction and Development Programme. The commission also aims at "founding" the out-of-school youth who are "lost" to the new political dispensation and are without marketable skills. The commission targets unemployment, poverty, illiteracy, crime, teenage pregnancies and AIDS as problems facing youth.

It is stated in the National Youth Commission Discussion Paper (1997:3) that the National Youth Commission was established through the National Youth Act (1996) as part of the government's plan to develop a comprehensive strategy to address the problems and challenges facing youth in South Africa.

The objectives of the National Youth Commission, as stipulated in the National Youth Act (19/1996) are:

* To co-ordinate and develop an integrated national youth policy.

* To develop an integrated national youth development plan that utilizes available resources and expertise for the development of the youth to be integrated with the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP).

* To develop principles and guidelines and make recommendations to the Government regarding such principles and guidelines for the implementation of an integrated national youth policy.

* To implement measures to redress the imbalances of the past relating to various forms of disadvantage suffered by youth as well as specific groups or categories of persons amongst young people.
To promote uniformity of approach by all organs of the state, including provincial governments, to matters relating to, or involving, youth.

To promote inclusivity and participation - mobilising the resources, energy and creativity of all parties involved in youth development, including government, business, youth servicing Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), voluntary youth structures, political youth structures, individuals and international partners.

Although the government cannot do the work, it takes responsibility to see to it that the needs of youth are addressed, including those of the out-of-school youth. Because the National Youth Commission was intended to have a plan that will be incorporated into the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), it is therefore important to pay attention to the RDP.

(3) The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

Van Zyl Slabbert (1994:166) lists the following as problems confronting youth:

* Family and community instability which leads to a wide range of other social problems.

* An education system that is not providing all youth with relevant and quality education.

* Economic stagnation and inadequate education, which have resulted in high levels of unemployment and poverty, especially among women.

The idea of the RDP also came from President Nelson Mandela (ANC, 1994:60). It was to look at the needs of youth because the youth "is the centre of the RDP".
Through the RDP the government will engage the representative organisations of the youth and other formations in order to form a National Youth Commission. Building on this base the Government and the Commission would then work together to ensure that the youth stands at the centre of the reconstruction and development, without being consigned to a meaningless ghetto of public life (Mandela, 1994:9).

According to the ANC (1994:60-74) regarding education and training the following is proposed:

* To develop an integrated system of education and training that provides equal education to all.

* To develop an integrated qualifications framework which integrates all elements of the education and training system to enable learners to progress to higher levels from any starting point. They must be able to obtain recognition and credits for qualifications and credits towards qualifications from one part of the system to another. The system must enable assessment and recognition of prior learning and skills acquired through experience. To this end, curricula should cut across traditional divisions of skill and knowledge.

* To provide adult basic education and training. The Adult Basic Education and Training programme (ABET) aims to provide adults with education and training programmes equivalent to exit level in the formal school system, with an emphasis on literacy and numeracy skills.

* The provision of ABET must be expanded by building a partnership of all employer, labour, local and provincial government, community and funding agencies. This will establish a process to provide funding support to a
national ABET programme, managed at provincial, sectoral, local, community and workplace levels and where possible using existing educational and training facilities where these are unutilized or under-utilised, such as at night, over weekends and during holidays.

ABET must be centrally included in all reconstruction projects and particularly programmes for the unemployed. Micro enterprises must also be given assistance with respect to ABET. Such provision should assist learners to seek related employment on completion of the specific project.

* To pay attention to special education. Under minority rule and apartheid the learning needs of children and adults with physical or other disabilities and impairments suffered massive neglect. The RDP must redress this situation by establishing appropriate institutional structures and inter-sectoral groups mounting a national advocacy campaign to raise awareness of the issue, ensuring that existing facilities are optimally used and developing new programmes as needed. The education needs of disabled and other marginalised groups should be catered for as part of a process of facilitating access to facilities and to the economy so that disadvantaged groups are seen as an asset by themselves and by society at large.

* Further education must provide schooling, training and adult education as an integrated system. A balanced and flexible curriculum leading to the National Higher Certificate must be developed for all learners in a variety of learning contexts, e.g. students learning within formal institutions, workers in industry, out-of-school youth, and adults learning in community learning centres. The curriculum must seek to open learning paths consistent with the goals of lifelong learning.
The RDP also aims to provide sporting and recreational facilities to all South African communities, the young and the elderly. Particular attention must be paid to the provision of facilities at schools and in communities where there are large concentrations of unemployed youth. Sport and recreation are an integral and important part of education and youth programmes.

The RDP's national youth service is already giving young people structured work experience while continuing their education and training.

Youth development must focus on education and training, job creation and enabling young people to realise their full potential and participate fully in society and their future. It must restore the hope of our youth in the future and their capacity to channel their resourcefulness and energy into reconstruction and development.

The national youth service must better educate, develop, train and empower youth and enable them to participate in the reconstruction of society through involvement in service projects in the community such as literacy, welfare and improving infrastructure. All development and job creation programmes such as a national public works programme must address the problem of youth alienation and unemployment.

Appropriate government departments must more forcefully represent youth interests, including allocation of resources to organisations involved in youth work. An autonomous National Youth Council should be given support in co-ordinating youth activities, lobbying for the rights of young people and representing South Africa internationally.

The democratic government must support the International Convention on the Rights of the Child and the supporting Plan of Action. It must work
to protect the lives of children, to promote the full development of their human potential and to make them aware of their needs, rights and opportunities. The needs of children must be paramount throughout all programmes aimed at meeting basic needs and socio-economic upliftment.

From a practical point of view the implementation of the RDP might be a problem because, according to Ratzow (1996:14), government funding of social services, including child protection, has been steadily declining in real terms over the years.

(4) National Qualifications Framework (NQF)

According to Milazi (1996:37) South Africa is trying hard to address a skills crisis attributed to policies of the past. This led to the number of contracted apprentices decreasing over the years. The situation was the result of the weak economic climate and the country’s poor commitment to training. As part of the programme to tackle the skills shortage issue, in 1995 Labour Minister Tito Mboweni and Education Minister Sbusiso Bengu jointly steered the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) through Parliament.

The South African Qualifications Authority Act (Act 58 1995) provided for the establishment of the South African Qualifications Authority responsible for the development and implementation of the NQF. The NQF aims at also recognising skills attained informally. NEPI (1993:9) states that the NQF would allow for people to move from formal to non-formal systems and *vice versa*. But Jennings & Everatt (1995:4-5) criticises the NQF in that it does not deal with outreach to all and seems most likely to benefit workers in the formal economy. There is a need for civil society to work for all citizens, including the unemployed, the un- and under-educated and others, including those that do not feel like they are worth of re-entering the education system. It also does not cater for the needs of out-of-school youth.
According to September (1997:13) the NQF aims to attain the following goals:

* To integrate the education and training system into one unified framework.

* To allow for flexibility in terms of career pathways, to ensure that learners' qualifications are recognised irrespective of where and how they were obtained.

* To recognise and promote prior learning. If learners exhibit the required specific outcome they can attain credit for the unit standard without having learnt the skill formally.

* To create flexibility in terms of time period. In the past courses, diplomas and degrees had to be completed within a set time frame but the NQF will allow learners to learn at their own pace.

(5) Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR)

According to Jennings and Everett (1995:4-6) the out-of-school youth phenomenon will continue into the foreseeable future. It is unlikely that there will ever be a time when there will be no out-of-school youth.

Ways of minimising the number of out-of-school youth should be sought. For most youth, financial difficulties not only forced them out of the education system in the first place but are also keeping them out of the system.

The Department of Education’s White Paper embraces a number of broad principles. It proposes extending access to the education system as a whole, acknowledging that there is a need to "... address the barriers that prevent some children from going to school. Distance and lack of transport, hunger, disability,
looking after younger siblings, herding, household tasks, lack of parental guidance, homelessness, having to find work and inability to pay for uniforms are all factors which may prevent children enrolling for school or remaining in school for the duration of the programme" (White Paper on Education and Training, 1995:73).

According to the Macro-Economic Strategy Document (1996:3) the trends established over the past two years suggest that the economy is on track for continued, if somewhat slower, growth in exports and investment. A growth of at least 3% per annum can be expected on average over the next few years. Reform initiatives aimed at improvements in the educational system include establishing a national qualifications framework and expanding further education. The spending on education is nearly 7% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and will make the government concentrate public resources on enhancing the educational opportunities of historically disadvantaged communities (Macro-Economic Strategy Document, 1996:14). It is believed that this will in turn address the plight of out-of-school youth. According to Jennings & Everatt (1995:36) in interviews with out-of-school youth, they argued that there should be more provision of education facilities that involve training onwards skills and be nearer to them. In South Africa education is meant to be accessible to all.

According to Irvine (1997:13) GEAR aims to create 400 000 new jobs by 2000. GEAR is not an attack on the RDP but will serve as a means for attaining RDP objectives in the longer term by redistributing opportunities. Out-of-school youth may indirectly benefit from GEAR in alleviating unemployment.

4.3 THE SOUTH AFRICAN WELFARE SYSTEM

The residential child and youth care system had historically been inaccessible to the majority of children and young people in the country. By the early 1990s a crisis situation had developed within the system. The system was linked to the lack of adequate facilities for African children, poor salaries for child and youth
care workers, the lack of adequately trained managers and staff in many facilities, the inadequate subsidisation of non-government facilities, and the high ratio of children to staff (Interim Policy Recommendations, 1996:8).

It is salient therefore to pay attention to legislation regarding the South African welfare system.

4.3.1 Legislation

In addition to the Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983, as amended, which enables welfare to be organised on a race group basis, three Acts of Parliament provide the framework for the Public's social welfare system (McKendrick, 1987:24-28):

* The Social and Associated Workers' Act, 1978, as amended, which provides for control over the profession of social and associated work (such as child care workers, for example).

* The National Welfare Act, 1978, which provides, among other things, for the registration of welfare organisations, the co-ordination and planning of welfare services at the local level, a South African Welfare council to advise the Minister on welfare matters, and for regional welfare boards for the various race groups.

* The Fund-raising Act, 1978, as amended, which provides for control of the collection or receipt of voluntary contributions from the public.

Within the context of these three Acts, social welfare organisations are influenced by the provisions of other Acts which regulate the social welfare response to persons who are disadvantaged or at risk. Principal among these Acts are:

* The Child Care Act, 1983, as amended.

* The Disability Grants Act, 1968, as amended.

* The Mental Health Act, 1973, as amended.

4.3.2 Structure

Uniracial welfare structures exist side-by-side. There are state and community-driven welfare structures across the entire South Africa. According to Ratzow (1996:14) the Government’s financial support for essential welfare services is not as it was before because the government intends to continue to curtail social service spending. Government funding of social services, including child protection, has been steadily declining in real terms over the years.

Van Zyl Slabbert (1994:83-84) states the following about the government on social welfare: "The state already contributes significantly to the well-being of youth in South Africa. That the contribution is nonetheless inadequate and often does not take the real needs of young people into consideration is indicated in many research reports. For example, young people as a separate and distinct social category have not as yet been officially recognised in state policy. This has negative implications for policy formulation in areas such as manpower, welfare, health services, culture, the arts and recreation, and affirmative action."

Many of the disadvantaged youth see the state as a major provider of new opportunities. The state has done little to improve their lot, causing the youth to become demoralised and demotivated.
While overall control of social welfare planning is retained by various state departments, four structures exist to facilitate co-ordination and co-operation between the state and the private sector on matters directly or indirectly related to welfare (McKendrick, 1987:26):

* Nationally and provincially-organised bodies liaise with the state on matters concerning the fields in which they function, while on matters of common interest they combine together into an ad hoc committee for dealing with the state.

* The National Welfare Act, 1978, as amended, provides for 24 regional welfare boards representing the state’s and community interests which have statutory powers to regulate, co-ordinate, promote and plan welfare activities within their regions. These boards are uniracial. At the national level, the multiracial South African Welfare Council advises the government on social welfare needs.

* A National Population Development Programme initiated in 1984 has the aim of stimulating community development at the local level in order to accelerate improvement in the quality of life of all communities.

* For the purposes of co-ordinating social, physical, economic and constitutional development, the Department of Constitutional Development and Planning has created multi-racial Regional Development Advisory Committees in each of the eight development regions of South Africa.

In addition to the four structures described above, other structures exist which have influence on the co-ordination and/or development of welfare facilities. One of these is the network of state-established Joint Management Committees which covers the whole country. The functioning of these committees is not open
to direct public scrutiny. The committees are reported to be primarily concerned with security and to this end co-ordinate the activities of all state departments, including security forces, at the local levels (McKendrick, 1987:29).

The Interim Policy Recommendations (1996:67-68) analyzed the whole welfare system in South Africa and came to the following conclusions:

* There are approximately 6 000 child and youth workers in South Africa.

* There are approximately 60 social workers in places of safety, schools of industry and reform schools in South Africa.

* No legislated requirements exist for residential care managers or child and youth care workers with regard to even the most basic of child and youth care qualifications. No national or provincial regulations are applied to qualifications of child and youth care workers within residential child care.

In addition the Interim Policy Recommendations (1996:70) observed that the South African child and youth care practice has focused on residential care. South African child and youth care workers are found in children’s homes, places of safety, schools of industry, reform schools, shelters for street children and special schools for children with disabilities.

4.3.3 Funding

According to the Macro-Economic Strategy Document (1996:14) it is stated that partnership between the state and voluntary organisations centred on developmental welfare services will focus attention on the vulnerable, especially in under-serviced areas, while freeing resources from expensive institutionally-based services. By far the greater part of welfare spending is devoted to social grants which assist
some 3-million elderly or disabled or needy children. Affordable alternatives to support families and children in need are being investigated.

According to the National Manpower Commission (1990:27) the finance for welfare services in South Africa is predominantly provided by the state from tax revenue. Income tax from individuals provides the state with its largest single source of revenue, i.e., R10-billion annually, compared with R9.5-billion tax collected from industry and R8-billion generated from value added tax (VAT).

There can be no doubt that the state is overwhelmingly the major source of finance for welfare services. Nevertheless, the private sector is not an insignificant source of funding for community welfare organisations. The financial figures released by the Interim Policy Recommendations (1996:90) analyzed the situation as follows:

* The average cost per child in a state residential facility is approximately R2 300 per month or R75 per day (this includes staffing, food and clothing).

* If the average length of stay for a child in a state facility is 3 years and the cost for one child for three years is approximately R83 172. If the length of stay is 10 years (which it is in many cases) the cost for one child is R277 234. The cost to run 60 state facilities (Education and Welfare Departments) each year is estimated at R165 000 000.

* The present *per capita* subsidy system, together with the monthly deficit to facilities, encourages residential facilities to fill beds without necessarily delivering effective services.

* The more effective residential care facilities tend to employ the appropriate staff, provide a range of programmes, provide for staff development and
return children to their communities and families in a relatively short period. Ironically, these facilities thus have the greatest financial deficits and many are presently on the brink of closure.

Concerning the financing of out-of-school youth development and education, Masson (1996:1) confirms that the state should be the major provider of all welfare services but should also be helped by other bodies like the church and business.

4.4 WELFARE SERVICES ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

4.4.1 State-initiated welfare services

Although currently there exists no legislation directly pertaining to the out-of-school youth or support for them, it is observed by the Interim Policy Recommendations (1996:8) that there exists the Inter-Ministerial Committees on Young People at Risk (IMC). During May 1995 at the initiative of the (then Deputy) Minister of Welfare and Population Development, the South African Cabinet with the full sanction of President Nelson Mandela resolved that an Inter-Ministerial committee on Young People at Risk be established to manage the process of crisis intervention and transformation of the Child and Youth Care system over a time limited period.

The IMC’s main goal is to design and enable the implementation of an integrated child and youth care system based on a developmental and ecological perspective. This imperatively also includes the out-of-school youth. The programme envisaged will also address the needs of these children (Interim Policy Recommendations, 1996:27).
According to Lewis (1995:2) all young people deserve an opportunity to live in a healthy environment where their physical and emotional needs are addressed and nurtured. People possess the following characteristics:

- They are unique.
- They deserve to be treated with respect and dignity.
- They can change and grow given the adequate support and resources.

(1) Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET)

Feketa (1989:105) notes that it has already been observed that the ever-increasing phenomenon of pupils leaving school too early is regarded as one of the variables that lead to educational wastage. The system of education does not succeed in retaining the pupils at school until their potential has been realised to the optimum.

In these circumstances youth education and employment have become two of three areas which have constantly preoccupied government for a long time. Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) is one of the state-initiated welfare services earmarked for addressing the needs of adult learners. A special address by Dr Sidney Shabalala, Acting Superintendent-General of Education in KwaZulu-Natal stated: "The KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture expresses its appreciation for the work that is being done by the inspectorate, tutors and principals of schools with adult education centres towards improving the standard of education of people who have left school" (Adult Classes, 1996:4).

ABET's objectives indicate that it is concerned with adult learners that have left school early and not just out-of-school youth. This, according to Jennings & Everatt (1995:6) also includes out-of-school youth which is sub-group youth between 15 and 30 (inclusive) not currently being engaged in studies, having not studied as far as they wanted to in their education and expressing the desire to return to some form of education and training.
The age category has also been lowered to include youth who are 15 (the earlier project began with those aged 16) because present legislation caters for nine years of formal schooling, commonly commencing at the age of 6. Therefore, in theory, there is no legislative provision for youth who are 15 and older. For the purpose of this study ABET will also help in alleviating the out-of-school youth problem. This imperatively makes ABET to be looked at as a support service for the out-of-school youth albeit with shortcomings.

According to NEPI (1993:3) it is very difficult to define adult basic education because of the confusion and profusion of the terms used to describe the totality of facilities and activities that exist to meet the needs of adult learners. Adult education encompasses the whole field of education provision outside the conventional formal system of initial education, including vocational education and training, human resources development and adult literacy and basic education.

Mecoamere (1997:2) states that Minister Professor Bengu's department target is to create 1 000 ABET centres countrywide in four years. He further elaborates that currently 11.1-million adults are illiterate while only 400 000 are currently being taught. It is estimated that there will be 14-million illiterate adults in the year 2000. These statistics implicate the out-of-school youth because youth comprises approximately 39% or 16-million of the total South African population (CASE, 1997:1).

Recently, Baloyi (1997:4) has stated that the government has doubled its national expenditure which initially was R13.1-billion on ABET in an effort to reach the 12-million people who have less than nine years of schooling through the assistance of international donors. The learner target groups will also include the out-of-school youth.
(a) **The social purposes of ABET**

NEPI's (1993:5) view is that these purposes are necessarily linked to the core beliefs that have been generally accepted by most ABET thinkers, namely that:

* Learning should continue throughout life.

* All adults should have access to the means of learning the things they need in order to function in society.

* Adults have as much right to education as children (in particular those adults deprived of education as children).

* Adults should be educated in a different way from children, not because their cognitive processes are dissimilar but because their education life context and background of experience is different.

(b) **Concepts**

According to NEPI (1993:6-9) there are many concepts of ABET, each with its own nuances. Generally four concepts are recognised:

* Adult education.

* Non-formal education.

* Continuing education.

* Life-long education.

Each has somewhat different aims, objectives, educational and political principles, visions, and claims about what ABET can do.
(i) **Adult Education**

Adult Education (AE) often has little connection with practical job-related work. It tends to be humanistic, radical and romantic rather than practical and technical. AE focuses on community education. It also includes social, recreational, cultural and educational activities organised outside the formal school system for people of all ages and intended to improve the quality of life for all ages.

(ii) **Non-formal education**

AE also includes non-formal education. Van Zyl Slabbert (1994:264) supports the importance of non-formal education. The scale of educational needs of most South Africans far exceeds the resources of the formal education sector. The nature of educational needs of most South Africans is such that many pupils will fail to benefit from formal education.

AE as a form of non-formal education is flexible, quick, cost-effective educational activities planned for all adults which take place outside the formal system of schools and tertiary education institutions and which do not lead to formal certification. But it could address job-related education needs.

Eventually AE should culminate in a planned structured education in order to obtain a qualification other than a degree certificate or diploma instituted by or under any law for formal education (Education Renewal Strategy, 1992:20).

(iii) **Continuing education**

According to Van Zyl Slabbert (1994:264) the poverty of many South Africans and life experience has not been conducive to the development of the necessary educational frame of reference required for success within the formal school.
primarily because it did not facilitate the development of the type of knowledge base that current institutions of formal education take for granted in terms of their curricula, pedagogical styles and expectations.

Continuing education is used most by, and is most useful to, the well-educated. This does not mean that as a concept it has no implications for the redistribution of education inequalities or social concern. It could be made genuinely accessible to the marginalised, poorly educated and unemployed. Continuing education aims to address the appalling statistics on the results of inadequate initial education, both in relation to school drop-out rates and in terms of the analysis of results at the Standard 10 level. Continuing education will help the unemployed (and often unemployable) to increase their chances of employment (NEPI, 1993:6).

(iv) Life-long education

Life-long education is a more comprehensive and visionary concept which includes formal, non-formal and informal learning extended through the lifespan of an individual to attain the fullest possible development in personal, social and professional life. It includes learning that occurs in the home, school, community and work-place, and through the mass media and other situations and structures for acquiring and enhancing enlightenment (NEPI, 1993:6).

Mecoamere (1997:2) states that Education Minister Professor Bengu's priority is to enrol one million adult learners and upgrade 10 000 teachers at 1 000 fully equipped ABET centres throughout South Africa in the next few years. The government have set aside R13.1-billion for ABET alone which is according to Mecoamere (1997:2) still inadequate.
(c) **Existing facilities for adult education**

It is noted that most people in South Africa of all ideological persuasions, and particularly those living in urban areas, attach most importance to formal schooling (NEPI, 1993:11).

Feketa (1989:109) argues that formal education, just as is the case with skills training, does not create jobs and although it cannot be separated from work it nevertheless, being chronologically hierarchical and highly academic in design, makes no provision for early school leavers and out-of-school youth.

No comparable attention is paid to adult and non-formal education, whether for adults or for young people not attending school. NEPI (1993:11) censures the facilities of ABET and states that there is a weak lobby for adult education and little intellectual expertise is directed at the adult education field. There is scant public recognition of the achievements of adult learners, while most non-formal courses do not in turn lead to more advanced courses.

The government has repeatedly committed itself to an education policy that will promote meaningful progress towards educational opportunities for all learners. Unfortunately, mainly because of severe limitations on expenditure by the State and the rapid growth of the population, progress in this regard has been slow (Educational Renewal Strategy, 1992:79). In support of this statement Adult Classes (1996:4) states that an ABET Council had been established in KwaZulu-Natal, Interim National Guidelines on ABET had been released and a KwaZulu-Natal programme was already in the process of being developed to implement the national approach.

The prospects of obtaining funds for education are not good because the value of the rand against foreign currency is not at all times good. The current levels
reveal an even worse scenario namely: $1 = R4,90 and £1 = RS,10 (Editorial Comment, 1996:10). This makes it imperative that the provision and training of ABET is looked at as NEPI (1993:16-19) states particularly regarding the following:

* Provision.
* Training of adult educators.

(i) Provision

There is a dearth of information about ABET. Providers and potential providers of non-formal education do not have a system of access to the experiences and findings of other providers and often start and maintain programmes with limited insight and information. This places the success of programmes at risk, detracts from their effectiveness and makes the task of adult and non-formal education more difficult than it need be. It is rare for adult and non-formal education agencies to co-operate with each other in providing information or services.

(ii) Training of adult educators

There is no typical adult educator in South Africa. They have had little if any formal training in AE and ABET. There are also very few educators, given the (potential) number of learners. The various education departments use school teachers in their night schools. This has not been very successful as the school teachers are paid on a part-time basis and hence have little commitment to or background in ABET. Morale among teachers and learners is often very low in the night-schools. It is still widely assumed that people trained to teach children are also competent to teach adults. School teachers receive very little if any further training before undertaking the education of the adults.
In essence very little scope is afforded out-of-school youth in ABET or AE because basically the ABET's priority is to provide basic school education to adults who would in most cases be adults and not youth.

(2) Compulsory education

Naidoo (1992:19) highlights the magnitude by which the problem of out-of-school youth has escalated. He notes that around 15 million black adults do not have basic schooling. Of these 9-million are wholly illiterate. Moledi (1995:20) confirms the number of out-of-school youth; out of the 10,7-million South Africans aged between 16 and 30, more than 3-million can be classified as marginalised. More than 2-million youth, according to Van Zyl Slabbert (1994:20) is referred to as the "Lost Generation".

According to Everatt (1992:64) compulsory education has long been envisaged as a solution for out-of-school youth. Until compulsory schooling begins to turn the situation round, the out-of-school youth will remain a problem.

To this end the ANC (1994:64-65) aims to support the out-of-school youth through compulsory education as follows:

* Education and training should meet the needs of all.

* The government must enable all children to go to school for at least 10 years.

* The 10-year compulsory general education cycle should proceed from a pre-school reception year to the present Standard 7.
* Education from the present Standard 8 up to the present Standard 10 must be re-designed and incorporated into an integrated post-compulsory phase of learning co-ordinated at national level and resulting in a Further Education Certificate (a National Higher Certificate). This will integrate post-compulsory schooling with training and should replace Matric with a Further Education Certificate or National Higher Certificate.

* The new programmes, curricula and teaching approaches for the first five years of school must take into account the language and developmental needs of young children.

* The need for school buildings must be addressed by vastly improved use of existing facilities and a school-building programme. To this end all schools and existing facilities are to be used to full capacity by the start of 1995 for both compulsory and non-compulsory learning and schools must be built in sufficient numbers to meet the real demand.

* The existing curriculum bears the mark of racism, sexism, authoritarianism and outmoded teaching practices. Transformation is essential.

* Black education in particular, suffered severe deficits in the areas of science, mathematics, technology, and arts and culture. Curriculum development must therefore pay special attention to these areas.

For South African children who were not white, education was not compulsory. In KwaZulu-Natal the situation was exacerbated by a combination of factors which have inhibited children in attending formal school. According to Zwane (1997:3) in the 1980s children were traumatised, exposed to stress and anxiety. Parents did not help because of the lack of skills. The KwaZulu-Natal youths testifying at the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) mentioned how they were attacked
and forced to flee their homes. Coupled with this, according to the National Youth Commission Strategy Document (1997:13), a lot of young people have not been able to access education, even at a basic level.

The main reason given by the out-of-school youth for having stopped studying earlier than they wanted to was a lack of financial resources. The intensity with which this was felt differed by race and class. Black youth, as indicated earlier, came from particularly impoverished backgrounds. The inability of their parents or caretakers to provide such things as uniforms and food preyed on their minds and directly led to a number of these youth leaving school (Jennings & Everatt, 1995:3).

Compulsory education is aimed at solving this problem. The Spokesman for the (National) Education Minister, Lincoln Mali, said, "No student or pupil will be turned away from a government school because of an inability to pay. The government will shift resources in the coming budget from schools that have been advantaged to those which have been disadvantaged" (Keeton, 1994:8).

In conclusion Olivier (1989:324) states that in the Republic of South Africa the popular notion exists that many of the "ills" of society, specifically youth problems, can be cured by providing equal educational opportunities to all, the general idea being that compulsory schooling should be provided to all up to the age of 16.

(3) Training for employment

Feketa's (1989:111) argument is that non-formal education programmes have been suggested, not because they are a panacea to cure all the limitations of formal education and the ills of society but because by design and outlook they constitute learning activities which are directed at meeting the learning needs of a particular selected clientele, particularly those of out-of-school youth.
According to Olivier (1989:324) the unemployed feel guilty for not being able to find a job. They feel that somehow along the line they have failed as persons. Being unemployed is regarded as a stigma. Everatt (1992:53) notes that a major indicator of present-day black youth is that they are unemployed youth because many are unemployable as a result of a lack of basic education skills and because there are not enough jobs.

Addressing the problem of unemployment for out-of-school youth Cawker & Whiteford (1993:70-71) state that this could be done through the education system. The following measures may be considered in a strategy to improve the educational levels of the labour force (Cawker & Whiteford, 1993:74-75):

* Ensuring that labour market conditions are taken into account when providing pupils with career guidance counselling.

* Ensuring that school curricula are career-focused and as relevant as possible to the employment opportunities available.

Since 1985 a Special Employment creation Programme (SEP) has been in operation under the auspices of the Department of Manpower to address the problem of unemployment. In recent years the programme has focused predominantly on the training of unemployed people. During the 1990 / 1991 financial year, an amount of R150-milion was set aside for SEP, of which R75-milion was earmarked for training. Since the adoption of the scheme in 1985 almost R500-milion has been invested in the training of 1 285 179 people (National Manpower Commission, 1990:32). The emphasis of the training has been on providing trainees with the skills required to build low cost housing and operate businesses within the informal sector.

According to the Guidance and Placement Act, 1981 (Act 62 of 1981) the registration of all work-seekers has to be regulated by the Department of
Manpower. The main objective is to suitably place individuals in employment who volunteer as work-seekers. This service is provided free of charge. Work-seekers should register at the nearest centre. Principals of schools ought to submit to the centre names of pupils who have left school prematurely, should they be requested by officers at the centre. Work-seekers should be persons over the age of 15 years.

In order to make the work of the Department of Manpower more understandable, Stewart (1997:1) states that the Careers Counselling Sub-Directorate of the Department of Labour provides a number of services free of charge to any member of the public about the school leaving age, i.e. 16 years and above. Since the advent of the Minister of labour's Five-Year Programme, the Department has endeavoured to focus more intensively on certain target groups, namely, the unemployed youth.

Stewart (1997:1) lists the following services:

* Career information.
* Life skills counselling.
* Training teachers and youth workers.
* Sponsored training to unemployed persons.
* Skills development strategy.
* Distribution of services in KwaZulu-Natal.

The National Manpower Commission (NMC) estimates that 30% of the people trained so far have been placed in employment and that most of the remainder have been able to generate an income through self-employment. Everatt (1992:58), however, states that neither employers nor trade unions, because of their particular interests, are able to articulate the needs of those who are neither in school nor in employment. To some extent, broad community and political
organisations have placed this issue on the table but have done so in very general terms. The educational training and employment needs of illiterate adults (also unorganised) such as those on white farms, unemployed youth, youth in squatter camps and settlement areas have received little attention.

4.4.2 **Volunteer welfare services**

(1) **The church welfare services**

According to Jennings & Everatt (1995:40) any provision for out-of-school youth must adopt a holistic approach. Skills training and formal schooling must be accompanied by access to health-care facilities dealing with physical as well as mental health.

The church welfare services do not provide any direct support for the out-of-school youth. One of the main reasons for this is the fact that churches which mainly cater for black people are not yet structures to provide support. According to Masson (1996:1) of the Ark Christian Ministries Church, it was found that the churches that cater for the white population groups do have specific welfare services but none as yet for out-of-school youth. Masson (1996:1) also confirmed that the church is mainly concerned with its own members. Due to the fact that the out-of-school youth phenomenon is almost totally a problem amongst black children, the need for accountable support for other racial groups like white, Indians and coloureds has not arisen. Churches do become involved indirectly if approached by volunteer welfare organisations. This involvement usually takes the form of cash donations in kind, e.g. services, clothing, blankets and food. These donations are usually made only when approached and not on a permanent basis.

The lack of co-ordination and control of volunteer welfare services is also made conspicuous by Rantsekeng (1997:2). She notes that in Magaliesburg the out-of-
school youths are catered for by a Youth for Christ self project. This organisation has been in existence for the past 52 years. It aims to:

* Empower youth to become financially independent.
* Support youth starting their own businesses.

Although recognised by the Department of labour, the organisation cannot easily be accessible, like all other volunteer organisations, because it lacks central or provincial control. It can also not be used as a basis of accountable support for the out-of-school youth. Although the Department of labour subsidises these organisations very little evaluation takes place. The Department cannot quantify the number of jobs created by trainees after receiving such training.

It is noted by Luthuli (Van Rensburg, 1994:211) that there are approximately 1 000 different denominations of religion which cater for black society in KwaZulu-Natal. As far as could be established, none of these church groups have a welfare support programme which caters for the black out-of-school youth.

Masson (1996:2) states that the Ark also harbours a minority of out-of-school youth because of many problems from their homes. The children do receive emotional, spiritual, physical, psychological, social and educational support but it should be remembered that all this accountable support is made in the name of God, the Almighty. It is believed that the understanding of the Word of God will help them reach adulthood.

(2) South African Committee for Higher Education (SACHED)

The South African Committee for Higher Education (SACHED) is an adult education and training development organisation which has A Secondary Education Curriculum for Adults (ASECA) as its wing. ASECA now offers new certificates and a new education for young adults who wish to complete their secondary
education. These certificates are aimed at helping adults to get jobs in order to continue studying at universities, technikons and colleges. The ASECA Handbook (1994:1) found that there are 5-million young adults in the country who studied primary education but do not have secondary education. ASECA therefore focuses on the latter.

The ASECA Handbook (1994:3) also states that education is a basic human right and should be provided to all on a democratic basis and should be extended to youth, including youth. One shortcoming observed for ASECA is that each course at each level costs R90,00. This would not be easily accessible to out-of-school youth who cited poverty as a reason for being out-of-school.

According to Jennings & Everatt (1995:29) despite the high level of enthusiasm for education very few of the individuals had actually tried to re-engage in any form of formal education or training since they stopped studying. Some out-of-school youth attempt correspondence courses but fail because of a shortage of money for fees. According to research by Jennings & Everatt (1995:34) they discovered that out-of-school youth do not appear to be people who expect anything but want opportunities to work their way to a better life.

(3) Business sector

Although in South Africa business is presently stronger and thus more able to provide resources for training, there is little evidence that it does. Where service is rendered it occurs through donations and advertising. This often lacks integration (Everatt, 1994:113). According to Masson (1996:3) business does not contribute sufficiently to out-of-school youth projects.

The Ark upliftment programme emphasises on the following (Ark Christian Ministries Church, 1996:1):
* Spiritual, psychological, physical and social welfare needs.
* Each activity to complement and support the other.
* Community development / involvement through consultation, self-help, training and participation in all phases.

Although the Ark contributes to all these needs for out-of-school youth it is not subsidised but depends solely upon donations and contributions from ordinary people and seldom from business.

According to Kusel (1990:11) when the term "Lost Generation" is mentioned commerce and industry do not understand its meaning. Industry and commerce need to fully understand the term before they can do something about it. This also supports the argument that business is either doing nothing or very little to address the needs of out-of-school youth.

Jennings & Everatt (1995:39) comment that for most youth financial difficulties not only forced them out of the education system in the first place but are also keeping them out of the system. The extension of access requires that people are not excluded on the basis of their financial situation. The provision of bursaries, loans and / or subsidies is vital to ensure that people are not turned away because of a lack of money. Government and private sector coffers should be tapped for this purpose.

4.5 SUMMARY

The government currently has put proposals on its youth policy. It aims to address the plight of youth in general. It is not only intended to address the needs of out-of-school youth per se. The educational support the out-of-school youth needs is based on the understanding that all children need education.
The proposals from government that are aimed at addressing the out-of-school youth problem need to be implemented. The NYC, RDP, NQF and GEAR directly or indirectly aim to put all the required structures in place to provide support for all youth. Out-of-school youth as category of youth will also benefit.

At present only a few state-initiated projects do provide support services for out-of-school youth as mentioned above. However, the out-of-school youth still remains a category that needs special educational support. The needs of out-of-school youth are not the same as those of youth in general. For instance ABET is aimed at addressing the needs of adult learners. Compulsory education aims to benefit all learners because it is more of a foundation which aims to prevent problems before they occur. It has also been noted that the needs of out-of-school youth receive very little attention as far as bodies like the National Manpower Commission is concerned.

Voluntary organisations are also faced with the dilemma that their philanthropic motivations are not supported by statute. The question of accountable support structure available to the out-of-school youth can be summarised as follows:

- No statutory provision exists at the moment that pertains directly to the out-of-school youths.

- Church involvement is restricted to a minimum by their responsibility of addressing other social problems amongst members within their own community. A small amount of indirect support is made by churches in the form of channelling funds as well as donation in kind, e.g. clothing, food and use of facilities towards other voluntary organisations. The Ark also makes such contributions.

Regarding the accountable support for the out-of-school youth it can thus be concluded that a number of voluntary organisations are involved in attempts to
render some kind of support. These support structures direct their attention to activities that often exclude the school and the family context, which are vital factors in the child’s becoming.

Chapter Five will contain a summary and a number of recommendations.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY

5.1.1 Statement of the problem

In essence this study investigated the problem surrounding possible educational distress experienced by out-of-school youth. It also addressed the nature of the life-world of the out-of-school youth.

5.1.2 The educational distress of out-of-school youth

When an adult accepts a child as his responsibility to support and guide him towards realisation of adulthood, he responds to the child's appeal for help because of the child's desire to become an adult. The child's involvement with becoming someone is characterised by his state of helplessness, his need for help and support. The adult's assumption of this task characterises his role in the pedagogic act or education of the child. The basic aim of all pedagogic support is the child's attainment of fully-fledged adulthood. Both the child and the adult are to be held responsible for the success of the child. Educational distress occurs where the quality of the education offered is intrinsically bad. The participation of both parties is insufficient in that the essential meaning of education is not fulfilled because the child is not involved in an intimate relationship with an educator who focuses on adulthood.

When the adult who is the more responsible person does not take care that the conditions for adequate education are satisfactory, the child is usually affectively, cognitively and normatively neglected. This state of affairs gives rise to
educational distress. A distressful educational situation gives rise to experiences fraught with unfavourable meanings for the child, e.g. feelings of extreme and uncalled-for anxiety, loneliness, insecurity, helplessness and uncertainty. The child’s level of development in this situation does not coincide with his attainable level. Guidance towards the actualization of his psychic life within the educational situation is then inadequate. A dysfunction in the dynamics of upbringing is therefore clearly brought about by both the child’s inadequate actualising of his psychic life and the educator’s inadequate support of him.

Under-actualization of the psychic life of the child will eventually result in inadequate:

* Exploration.
* Emancipation.
* Distantiation.
* Differentiation.
* Objectification.
* Learning.

In a psychopedagogical context such pedagogical discrepancies in the course of the child’s upbringing would imply an accumulation of unfulfilling relationships and devitalising contexts of experiences on the part of the child.

5.1.3 **The life-world of out-of-school youth**

A meaningful life-world is formed when the child, by attributing meaning, forms relationships with people, objects, ideas, values, himself and God. To attribute meaning to a relationship implies much more than mere understanding. The quality of both meaning and involvement is determined by what the child subjectively experiences and both are components of self-actualization which, because of the need for educational assistance, is guided actualization. The child’s
because of the need for educational assistance, is guided actualization. The child’s relationships are therefore an expression of his life-world.

The deviance of out-of-school youth is not necessarily irrational but could equally be seen as a rational response to particular social circumstances within the life-world of the child. This implies that the deviancy that exists is due to the out-of-school youth’s response to what he perceives regarding inadequate relationships formed within his life-world.

It is evident from the discussions in this chapter that the out-of-school youth cannot constitute a meaningful and adequate life-world. The lifestyle of out-of-school youth is an outcome of disharmonious educational dynamics, i.e. educational distress. It characterises inadequate personality development which, although it took place through the child’s own initiative, is mainly the result of educational misguiding by parents and other adults. The child’s initiative stems from the need of every human being to be somebody and to become somebody.

When the child feels unaccepted, rejected and unwelcome, he develops a feeling of inferiority. For these children to be aggressive and misbehaving represents a desire to take control of their lives themselves. They have become victims of intimidation in their primary educational milieu. When intimidated now, their response is frequently to attack and they show little respect for authority in a misguided attempt to improve their self-image. The relationships formed by the out-of-school youth are consequently inadequate for his spiritual independence.

### 5.1.4 Accountable support for the out-of-school youth

Although South African youth make up 29% of the population, there is no comprehensive youth policy to attend to their needs. The out-of-school youth as category of youth in general also fall within this shortcoming. Currently support
given to them is through a few social workers and voluntary organisations. Endeavours are made to rehabilitate the families and children. In spite of a lack of co-ordination social workers and voluntary organisations try to re-educate children who are still of school-going age and send those who are not to "vocational" training centres in an effort to assist these children in obtaining lawful and independent occupations.

Voluntary organisations are faced with the dilemma that their philanthropic motivations are not supported by the state. They subsequently support the out-of-school youth on humane grounds. The accountable support structures available to the out-of-school youth can be summarised as follows:

* No statutory provision exists at the moment that pertains to the out-of-school youth.

* There is no comprehensive youth policy to attend to the needs of all youth.

* The Children’s Act No 74 of 1983 (as amended) focuses on the inadequate parent rather than on the uncontrollable child. No provision is made in the Act to accommodate parents who, because of circumstances beyond their control (like poverty, urbanisation, unrest, illiteracy, etc), do not earn enough to provide for the needs of their families.

* Voluntary organisations are mainly involved in providing some support. Most of the child care organisations that came into existence for providing some measure of support are existing illegally under present statutory provisions, lack the services of suitable qualified personnel, are often haphazardly organised, cannot cope effectively with the present situation and duplicate certain services in the provision of support.
Church involvement is restricted to a minimum by their responsibility of addressing other social problems amongst members within their own community. A small percentage of indirect support is made by churches in the form of channelling funds as well as donations in kind (e.g. clothing, food and use of church facilities), towards voluntary organisations.

Proposals from government that are aimed at addressing problems confronting out-of-school youth need to be implemented. The NYC has also made particular proposals with an aim of making the government focus more on youth issues. The RDP, NQF and GEAR also propose structures to provide support for all youth. Out-of-school youth as a category of youth will also benefit. Currently only a few state-initiated projects provide support services for out-of-school youth.

The out-of-school youth's needs are special. They are not the same as those of ordinary youth. ABET, for instance, is aimed at addressing the needs of adult learners. Compulsory education also benefits all school-going age learners. Very little attention is given to out-of-school youth by all these above-named structures. It remains imperative therefore that the needs of out-of-school youth should receive specific attention.

The Department of labour also subsidises organisations who train unemployed persons without follow-up projects to verify whether training did make the trainee empowered with skills or not.

5.1.5 **Purpose of the study**

The researcher formulated specific aims (cf. 1.5) to determine the course of the study. The aims were realised through a literature study and unstructured interviews with principals, social workers, religious leaders and the police. On the basis of the aims and findings of the study, certain recommendations were formulated.
5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.2.1 Re-appraisal of the nuclear family

(1) Motivation

The education situation involving parents and children in the family must be seen as the original, primary or authentic education situation. It is the family's responsibility to adequately equip the child for responsible adulthood. The quality of the relationship between parent and child exerts a profound and lasting influence on the child's learning and becoming towards adulthood.

On the contrary out-of-school youth have been poorly fed, insufficiently clothed, indifferently educated and have lived with parents stressed by poverty, overcrowding, relocation and unemployment (cf. 3.5.6). This scenario impacted negatively on out-of-school youths' upbringing. After 1976 the pedagogic influence and discipline by parents towards children began to decline. The youth asserted that parents were supposed to be the ones to have challenged apartheid education. Youths perceived parents as having failed them (cf.3.4). The relationship between the parent and the out-of-school youth is, therefore, not based on mutual trust, understanding and authority (cf.2.2.5).

A large number of out-of-school youth come from broken families. As a consequence out-of-school youth left their homes to search for a better life in the city. The number of out-of-school youth has increased markedly (cf.1.1). This imperatively means that there should be family-planning. Where families have not been planned, parents cannot fulfil the basic education needs of their children and it becomes the task of the formal schooling system to help bring about the change.
(2) Recommendations

The recommendations are that parents, community, cultural, religious and educational leaders should jointly or individually do the following:

* Political, cultural and religious leaders must actively propagate the importance of nurturing the efficient functioning of the nuclear family. Families ought to be discouraged from reproducing children they cannot educationally, economically and emotionally support. Workshops and seminars should be implemented to extend this message.

* Parents must be entreated to re-establish a meaningful relationship of trust, understanding and authority with their children. Parents can work jointly with teachers and the church in this venture.

* Disciplinary breakdown demands that both parents and teachers should ensure that they educate children about right living. Children ought to be discouraged from pre-marital sex and ill-discipline.

5.2.2 Proliferation and extension of accountable support through multi-purpose educational centres

(1) Motivation

Many of the out-of-school youth have had very little or no formal schooling. The majority have run away from schooling due to their experiences of failure. Many marginalised youth are not in schools, neither in training institutions nor employment (cf.1.2). The out-of-school youth is a pedagogically neglected child in need of special care. Due to this neglect, both at home and at school, the out-of-school youth has built up a considerable backlog regarding the formation of an adequate life-world.
The out-of-school youth need life and job skills to address their needs. These learners cannot be subjected to the same system that failed them in the first place. A content-based education curriculum devoid of life skills and measurable outcomes was never going to address the needs of these children (cf.4.2.1). It is therefore imperative that some accountable support system which is initiated, supported, partly funded by the state together with the business sector be instituted for out-of-school youth.

The envisaged support which should be multi-pronged and will have to address the following:

- Improvement of self-image.
- Help out-of-school youth in the acquisition of life skills.
- Inculcation of discipline.
- Improvement of physical, psychological, mental and social development.

Currently there is not enough accountable support for out-of-school youth. They have little skills and cannot find work. They also sit at home and do nothing (cf.3.3.3). In almost all the South African townships there are young people who are not attending school, who are roaming the streets and drifting along from day-to-day.

(2) Recommendations

The recommendations are that:

- Multi-purpose centres such as the Ekuseni Youth Project in Newcastle for out-of-school youth should be created in all provinces. The centres will have to provide for holistic, development of out-of-school youth by providing basic, technical and employment skills and rehabilitation. They should also promote participation in sport and cultural activities.
* The centres should also be designed such that they provide industrial and agricultural practical training to prepare out-of-school youth for their own future outside the centre.

* The large number of educators who went on voluntary severance package and who may be retrenched should be investigated as a possible supply of manpower to such centres.

* The centres should be established in the major cities where the out-of-school youth phenomenon is rampant.

* The out-of-school youth may at certain intervals be made available to social functions, e.g. being security personnel during international events, crime-watch, cleaning and housekeeping. They may also provide emergency services during national disasters like floods, and peace-keeping.

* Where possible these centres should also have hostels, recreational facilities and workshops.

5.2.3 **Further research**

(1) **Motivation**

The out-of-school phenomenon in South Africa currently pertains mainly to the black society. As a result of cultural differences and the rapid changes in society there may be certain differences in the problems surrounding the educational distress of the pedagogically neglected child of the white, Indian and coloured population groups. In addition each of these population groups may have distinctive needs with regard, *inter alia*, to the care, re-education, therapy, placement and remedial education of the out-of-school youth. Research findings
covering all population groups will considerably facilitate responsible planning of accountable support for all South Africans.

(2) **Recommendation**

The recommendation is that:

- An in-depth research study concerning accountable support to address the educational distress of the out-of-school youth be conducted.

5.3 **FINAL REMARK**

It is trusted that this study will be of value particularly to the various educational departments, volunteer organisations and business sector regarding the needs of these young people. It is also hoped that this study will highlight the plight of out-of-school and out-of-work youth as children in distress who are indeed in need of innovative educational support.
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