



**PERCEPTIONS OF THE SOCIO ECONOMIC IMPACT OF THE SKILLS
SHORTAGE ON THE COMMUNITY OF KHAYELITSHA, WESTERN CAPE**

BY

ANTONIO DOMINGOS MATEUS

STUDENT NUMBER: 205118372

**Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
Magister of Technologiae: Human Resource Management**

In the Faculty of Business

At the Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Supervisor: Prof Charles OK Allen-Ile

Co- Supervisor: Dr. Chux G Iwu

27-05-2012

DECLARATION

I, Antonio Domingos Mateus, the undersigned, hereby declare that the contents of this thesis represent my own unaided work, and that the thesis has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Signed

Date

ABSTRACT

This research focused on investigating perceptions of the socio economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha, Western Cape. The objectives of this study were to critically investigate the causes of skills shortage in the community of Khayelitsha; to assess the perceived social impacts that it has on the community; and to critically investigate whether skills shortage is one of the causes of unemployment. The research also went as far as examining measures, which were taken by government and other stakeholders to address skills shortage.

Chapter One of the study provides information related to a background of the research under study. Chapter Two briefly considers skills shortage, globally, prior to looking thoroughly at the causes for skills shortage in Khayelitsha. It further presents evidence of skills shortage in South Africa by considering different sectors. Furthermore, the research details the social and the economic impact of skills shortage, the state of poverty and inequality, as well as the state of unemployment. Chapter Two also details the role of government and other stakeholders to address skill shortage. Chapter Three introduces the research design and methodologies that were used, while Chapter Four presents an analysis and assessment of data that was collected. Chapter Five concludes the research by making recommendations.

Two types of methodologies were employed by the researcher, namely qualitative and quantitative research methodology. The researcher employed two types of data analysis, namely content analysis and descriptive statistics. These techniques were helpful for the study because they explored perceptions and evidence of skills shortage in South Africa and Khayelitsha, in particular. The study further explores the impact of skills shortage on the economic development of the country, unemployment poverty and the society at large. Finally, the research shows that respondents perceive that skills shortage does indeed have a negative impact on South Africa by being one of the causes of unemployment and poverty, and hence economic growth. While socially, respondents believe that skills shortage is the main driver of issues such as crime, violence, teenage pregnancy, prostitution, HIV/AIDS poverty and other social issues, which are prevalent nationwide.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost I would like to thank God the Almighty the creator of the universe for his abundant mercy and love.

I wish to express my sincere appreciation and thanks to my supervisor, Professor Charles OK Allen Ile, for his constant guidance, motivation, inspiration and words of encouragement during this journey. I also want to thank him for being with me throughout this journey, whilst readily available for consultation, and criticism, which helped me to improve the quality of my work.

Dr. Chux Iwu, my co-supervisor, for being the first person to look at the actual draft of my work before anyone else did.

A special thanks to my parents, for being my driving force, and for their guidance, support and inspiration throughout my studies and career.

My sister Maria António Mateus Domingos, and my brother, João Mateus Domingos, thank you both for your financial support and my brother, in particular, for allowing me to stay at his house while I completed this incredible journey.

Mateus Vicente Justino, I will be forever grateful for the contribution you made in my life. You were there for me financially, emotionally and, most importantly, spiritually, during the hard times of my life, especially when I almost felt like giving up for reasons well known to you. You were there to remind me of where I come from, and encouraged me to complete my studies. I pray that God the Almighty rewards you for your efforts because I can never repay what you did for me.

To both families: Jõaquim Francisco Justino and João Bernado Bandola, thank you for being there for me financially, and spiritually may God reward you as a family.

A special thanks to CPUT's registered statistician, Mrs Uys Corrie, for her positive input during the construction of the questionnaire and data analysis, and Ms. Shamila Sulayman, for her assistance in proofreading my thesis.

To my special friends and loved ones, Pascõal Alfredo Baptista Sebastião, Hilario Marques, Gama Simão, Walinga Pinto, Ismael Kashiko, Silvio Diogo, Anacleto Gaspar Henda Domingos, Emmanuel Tchapechet, Marta Mbaza, Martha Kanyemba, Shange-Ndamona Mungoba and Zélia José Tavares, for their emotional support and for sharing the little that you had with me. I must admit that this work would not have been completed without the support I received from you. Thank you for the positive role that you all played and continue playing in my life.

Zélia José Tavares, I thank you for making sure that I had a hot meal every day, while I lived in this beautiful Mother City, Cape Town.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late father, Sr. António Francisco Domingos, who did not live to witness my accomplishment, and to my mother, Guiomar António Mateus, for her outstanding work, strength and ability to lay a good foundation for me, especially in the absence of my father.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
DEDICATION.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xi
LIST OF TABLES.....	xii
LIST OF ACRONYMS.....	xiii
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTER.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH.....	4
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM.....	6
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION AND SUB QUESTIONS.....	7
1.4.1 Research question.....	7
1.4.2 Sub-questions.....	7
1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY.....	8
1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....	8
1.6.1 Research design.....	8
1.6.2 Survey instrument.....	9
1.6.3 Population.....	9
1.6.4 The research sampling and size.....	10
1.6.5 Data analysis.....	10
1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....	10
1.8 CLARIFICATION OF KEY CONCEPTS.....	11
1.8.1 Skills shortage.....	11
1.8.2 Skills gap.....	11
1.8.3 Scarce skills.....	11
1.8.4 Critical skills.....	12
1.8.5 Learnership.....	12
1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION.....	12
1.10 LIMITATION OF STUDY.....	12
1.11 CHAPTER OUTLINE.....	13
1.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	14
CHAPTER TWO.....	15
OVERVIEW OF THE SOCIO ECONOMIC IMPACT OF SKILLS SHORTAGE IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	15
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	15
2.2 REASONS FOR SKILLS SHORTAGE IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	17
2.3 OTHER FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO SKILLS SHORTAGE IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	19
2.3.1 Internal /push factors.....	19
2.3.2 External /pull factors.....	19
2.4 EVIDENCE OF SKILLS SHORTAGE IN SOUTH AFRICA BY OCCUPATION.....	20
2.4.1 Sectoral trends on skills shortages.....	22
2.4.1.1 Artisans.....	22

2.4.1.2 Nurses.....	24
2.4.1.3 Doctors.....	28
2.4.1.4 Teachers	31
2.5 IMPACT OF SKILLS SHORTAGE IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	34
2.5.1 Societal.....	34
2.5.2 Economic.....	35
2.6 THE STATE OF POVERTY AND INEQUALITY IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	36
2.6.1 Two other policies that impacted severely on poverty and inequality in South Africa.....	39
2.6.1.2 Inequality in Education	39
2.6.1.2 Inequality in healthcare	41
2.6.2 Other causes of poverty and inequality identified in South Africa	42
2.7 THE STATE OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA	42
2.8 RESPONSE TO SKILLS SHORTAGE FROM TWO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES	45
2.8.1 New Zealand.....	45
2.8.2 Australia.....	47
2.9 SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT'S ROLE IN ADDRESSING SKILLS SHORTAGES.....	49
2.9.1 POLICIES ESTABLISHED TO ENABLE SKILLS DEVELOPMENT	50
2.9.1.1 Skills Development Act (SDA) of 1998.....	50
2.9.1.2 Skills Development Levies Act (SDLA) of 1999.....	51
2.9.1.3 Nationals Skills Fund (NSF)	51
2.9.1.4 National Skills Development Strategy	51
2.9.1.5 SETA.....	51
2.9.1.6 AsgiSA and JipSA	52
2.10 SOUTH AFRICAN ORGANISATIONS' ROLE AND / OR RESPONSE TO SKILLS SHORTAGE	52
2.11 ROLE OF FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN ADDRESSING SKILLS SHORTAGE.....	54
2.12 HOW EFFECTIVE HAS SETA AND ASGISA/JIPSA BEEN IN MEETING THEIR OBJECTIVES?	Error! Bookmark not defined.
2.12.1 Sector Education and Training Authorities (Seta)	57
2.12. 2 AsgiSA/JipSA.....	59
2.13 OTHER ALTERNATIVES TO ADDRESS SKILLS SHORTAGE	63
2.13.1 African foreigners as an alternative to bridge the gap of skills shortage	63
in South Africa	63
2.14. CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	67
 CHAPTER THREE	 68
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	68
3.1 INTRODUCTION.....	68
3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND PLAN.....	68
3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	69
3.4 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY USED	69
3.5 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY USED	70
3.6 MIXED METHOD APPROACH	71
3.7 RESEARCH POPULATION	71
3.8 SAMPLE PROCEDURE	72
3.8.1 Sampling technique	72

3.8.2	Sample frame and sample size.....	72
3.9	DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES.....	73
3.9.1	Research data collection procedure.....	73
3.9.2	Research instrument.....	74
3.9.2.1	Instrument administration.....	75
3.9.2.2	Instrument validity and reliability	75
3.10	PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED.....	76
3.11	ETHICAL CONSIDERATION	77
3.12	DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES.....	78
3.12.1	Quantitative analysis.....	78
3.12.2	Qualitative analysis	78
3.13	RESEARCH LOCATION.....	78
3.14	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	79
CHAPTER FOUR.....		80
DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS		80
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	80
4.2	CODING AND PRESENTATION OF DATA	80
4.3	RESEARCH QUESTIONS	82
4.4	DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION.....	83
4.4.1	Demographic representation of the participants	84
4.5	ANALYSING THE QUALITATIVE PART OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE USING CONTENT ANALYSIS	99
4.5.1	EMERGING THEMES AND TRENDS	99
4.6	CHAPTER SUMMARY	111
CHAPTER FIVE		112
DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION		112
5.1	INTRODUCTION.....	112
5.2	DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS.....	113
5.3	RECOMMENDATIONS	117
5.4	SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	121
5.5	CONCLUSION	122
LIST OF REFERENCES		123
APPENDIX.....		139
QUESTIONNAIRE.....		140

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: SANC Geographical Distribution 2008. Geographical distribution of the population of South Africa versus nursing human resources	27
Figure 2.2: Educational attainments of 21-30 year olds across cohorts	40
Figure 2.3: The structure of Joint Initiative Programme on Skills Acquisition	60
Figure 4.1: Representation of education level of respondents	85
Figure 4.2: Representing effects of a lack of skills on the economic status of people	101
Figure 4.3: Representing the effects of a lack of skills on unemployment.....	103
Figure 4.4: Representing the effects of a lack of skills on poverty.....	104
Figure 4.5: Representing respondents' perception of poverty	106
Figure 4.7: Representing government measures to skills shortage.....	110
Figure 4.6: Representing the effects of lack of skills to violence	108

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Gender representation of respondents.....	84
Table 4.2: Age representation of respondents	84
Table 4.3: Race representation of respondents	85
Table 4.4: Presentation of education level of respondents.....	86
Table 4.5: Representation of employment of respondents	86
Table 4.6: Representing the cause for skills shortage.....	87
Table 4.7: Representing the cause for skills shortage.....	87
Table 4.8: Representing the cause for skills shortage.....	88
Table 4.9: Representing the cause for skills shortage.....	89
Table 4.10: Representing the cause for skills shortage.....	90
Table 4.11: Representing the effects of lack of skills on economic status of people	90
Table 4.12: Representing the effects of skills shortage on poverty.	91
Table 4.13: Representing the effects of skills shortage to service delivery.	91
Table 4.14: Representing the effects of skills shortage on crime	92
Table 4.15: Representing the effects of skills shortage on violence.....	93
Table 4.16: Representing the effects of skills shortage on unemployment.....	93
Table 4.17: Representing the effects of skills shortage on the economic growth.	94
Table 4.18: Representing the effects of skills shortage on the creation of jobs.....	94
Table 4.19: Representing the effects skills shortage on unemployment.....	95
Table 4.20: Representing government measures to address skills shortage	95
Table 4.21: Representing government measures to address skills shortage	96
Table 4.22: Representing government measures to address skills shortage	96
Table 4.23: Representing government measures to address skills shortage	97
Table 4.24: Representing government measures to address skills shortage	98
Table 4. 25: Representing government measures to address skills shortage	98
Table 4. 26: Representing effects of lack of skills on the economic status of people	100
Table 4.27: Representing the effects of a lack of skills on unemployment	102
Table 4.28: Representing the effects of a lack of skills on poverty.....	103
Table 4. 29: Representing respondents' perceptions of poverty	105
Table 4.30: Representing the effects of a lack of skills on violence	107
Table 4.31: Representing government measures to skills shortage.....	109

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ASGISA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa
ASTD	American Society for Training and Development
CEE	Commission for Employment Equity
CDE	Centre for Development and Enterprise
COAG	Council of Australian Government
DIMA	Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs
DoE	Department of Education
DoL	Department of Labour
DPRU	Development Policy Research Unit
ETDP	Education Training and Development Practices
EU	European Union
FASSET	SETA for Finance, Accounting, Management, Consulting and other Financial Services
FET	Further Education and Training
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEAR	Growth Employment and Redistribution
HRD	Human Resource Development
HSRC	Human Science Research Council
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JIPSA	Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition
LMIU	Labour Market Information Unit
MQA	Mining Qualification Authority
MODL	Migrant Occupations in Demand List
NRF	National Research Foundation
NSDS	National Skills Development Strategy
NSF	Nationals Skills Fund
NRSET	National Resources Sector Employment Taskforce
NZDoL	New Zealand Department of Labour
NZIER	New Zealand Institute of Economic Research
PERSAL	Personal and Salary Information System
RDP	Reconstruction Development Programme
SRI	Solidarity Research Institute

SDA	Skills Development Act
SDLA	Skills Development Levies Act
SADTU	South African Democratic Teachers Union
SANC	South Africa Nurse Council
SERA	Survey of Employers who have Recently Advertised
SETA	Sector Education and Training Authorities
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STATS	Statistics South Africa
WHO	World Health Organization

CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTER

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Skills shortage is a key constraint within the South African economy. The Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE, 2010:9 and Rasool & Botha, 2011:1) argues that all stakeholders, along with government, agree that the widespread shortage of skilled people is one of the most important structural constraints for the economic growth and unemployment in the country.

This statement is supported by Thornton (2008), who states that 48% of privately held businesses that were surveyed in Grant Thornton's annual report believe that the availability of a skilled workforce is the greatest constraint to business growth in South Africa.

Lewis (2005:338) states that without an adequate pool of skilled people, South Africa will not be able to overcome the most pressing problem, which faces the country, namely sustaining economic growth, and job creation. This will help to reduce poverty and improve the living conditions of a majority of the country's population.

According to (CDE, 2007: 11), skills shortage in South Africa is felt in many different ways, including the anger of township residents who live in unsanitary conditions owing to a lack of engineers from the municipality; the frustration of employers who cannot find a qualified candidate to fill vacant positions, which become available in firms; young South Africans who recently discovered that their qualifications and skills are much more appreciated elsewhere and not in their own country; and the disappointment of those who are qualified, but who cannot find jobs.

All of the above is a result of South Africa's failure to develop, recruit, and retain skills and essential human capital, which are required for sustainable and shared growth.

Crush and McDonald (2002:1) argue that in South Africa various factors are listed to have contributed to skills shortage such as the country's Apartheid history, taking into account the political dispensation, the migration of skilled professionals to other parts of the world before and during 1994, and policies such as Affirmation Action that led to many leaving the country for fear that the policy would not be to their advantage.

The same view is shared by Alam and Hoque (2010:535) and Fourier (2006:44-45). Sebusi (2007:1) also shares the same sentiment by agreeing that the loss of South African skilled professionals through migration has hugely contributed to skills shortage in the country. According to Bhorat *et al* (2001:3), the unequal education system is also another area that is considered, since it was differentiated along racial lines and between gender groups, which added to the poor quality of education.

The above statement is supported by Luis (2000), cited in Domingos (2007:7) and Terreblanche (2005:25), who state that from its earlier days in the office in 1994, the new democratically elected government of South Africa recognised the legacy inherited from Apartheid in the field of discriminatory socio-economy systems, unsystematic politico-administrative structures, divided societies and the inequalities of "Bantu" education.

Furthermore, Levisohn (2007:1) argues that the transitional government of 1994 inherited an economy that had systematically disadvantaged most of the population. Levisohn (2007:1) states that Blacks were deliberately subjected to a second-class education; labour laws were established to impede their advancement; business policies prohibited them from owning a firm; and certain laws kept them from occupying places and living in many of the metropolitan areas that were the centre of trade.

According to Levisohn (2007:1), this has furthermore created an unequal distribution of wealth, a high rate of unemployment and poverty across the country, leaving those that struggled throughout the Apartheid era to excessively bear the price of unemployment and live below the poverty line.

Brier and Erasmus (2009:1) blame skills shortage on the schooling structure, which still fights to overcome decades of neglect and dysfunction under Apartheid when the education of Black people was of a poor quality. According to the same authors, as a result of this negligence and dysfunction, a small pool of matriculants have the necessary grades and subjects to access programmes such as Engineering, Medicine, and Accounting. This small pool of matriculants – a few Black and Coloured students create a severe limitation at a time when programmes like these are required to achieve a more representative student population, and their professions are required to meet the employment equity criteria.

Crush and McDonald (2002:1), Du Preez (2002) and Szlontai and Stern (2006) argue that brain drain is another phenomenon that has contributed to skills shortage in South Africa, and leads to depletion or loss of intellectual and technical personnel, with a negative outcome that impacts the economic and social growth of the country. Globalisation and the shift to a service economy have made the movement of skilled people from one country to another, easy. However, according to Crush and McDonald (2002:1), skills shortage in South Africa is also a result of the migration of professionals to other parts of the world. Furthermore, the same authors state that many South African skilled professionals left the country during the advent of the new political dispensation fearing the implementation of Affirmative Action policies, crime and violence.

Brier and Erasmus (2009:1) state that skills shortage in South Africa is also associated with poor working conditions, particularly in the health sector. Like in the education sector, the public health sector has been historically under-funded and neglected with rural facilities most affected, increasing the work load, but also placing at risk the health of health workers (Brier & Erasmus, 2009:1).

According to Crush and McDonald (2002:20), many South African doctors have attributed their emigration to many factors, including better working conditions and better salaries overseas, but also owing to a lack of safety and security, poor economic conditions, and poor social services, although it is by no means certain that these are key factors that actually force skilled people from the country. Crush and McDonald (2002:20) further argue that crime, the economy and service could

possibly be key grievances among all skilled South Africans.

Meanwhile, the CDE (2010:10) states that like many other developing countries, South Africa loses a significant proportion of its labour force annually. The losses already began in the 1970s, but the number has grown dramatically since 1994 with a shift in political powers (CDE, 2010:10). Furthermore, Myburgh (2004:22) states that during the late 1990s, emigration from South Africa increased dramatically, reaching a high point of 58, 000 in 1999, and by the late 1990s, and 8 percent of the country's highly skilled graduates had immigrated to four major destinations where South African skilled labourers are expected to be found in large numbers. The Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE, 2010:10) considers four countries namely Canada, Australia, the United States of America and the United Kingdom as the four major destinations for migration of South Africa skilled professionals.

According to the CDE (2007:4), government recognises that South Africa's skills crisis is much wider and deeper. The Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE, 2007:4 and Co & Mitchell, 2005:3) state that government recognises that the country is not only facing skills shortage in terms of lack of people to fill jobs, but it also lacks entrepreneurs to create jobs, and to improve the delivery of quality education, and other services that could equip people with skills to sustain the economy.

Skills shortage in the public sector has hindered government's ability to fight crime, as well as its ability to provide services, which range from healthcare and emergency fire services to education and electricity, and without an adequate number of people to replace them, the skills shortage in the public sector is likely to worsen (CDE, 2007:4).

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH

During the launch of the Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JipSA), the then deputy president of South Africa, Phumzile Mlambo- Ngcuka, acknowledged that one of the deepest scars of Apartheid was certainly the denial of acquisition of quality education and skills for Black people (JipSA, 2007:2). As a result, skills shortage has

been identified as one of the critical constraints to economic growth and employment creation by the South African government. In its commitment to address this problem, government established Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETA) in year 2000 with an aim to assist in fighting and eradicating poverty, boosting job creation and fulfilling equity employment targets (Akoojee & McGrath, 2007; and Mail & Guardian, 2007).

However, some have labelled the shortage of skills as an urban legend (Brier & Erasmus, 2009:9). Several sources confirm that skills shortage is not a figment of anti-transformation, but rather as something that has held back government's developmental initiative.

The Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA, 2006:16) argues that the greatest impediment to both public infrastructure and private investment rests with a shortage of skilled professionals, including professional skills such as artisans, IT technicians, engineers, managers, project managers and several others. This statement is supported by the Solidarity Research Institute (SRI), which confirms that skills shortage is a real problem in South Africa and a key constraint to economic growth (SRI, 2008:2).

Furthermore, recognising the phenomenon, the CDE (2007:3) and Fasset (2010:1) state that South Africa's skills shortage in all sectors of the economy is a key constraint to South Africa's economic growth and development, which hampers government's ability to provide services and developmental initiatives. The CDE (2007:3) also regards skills shortage as a major concern for government's prospect to achieve the kind of sustained economic growth that will reduce poverty and open the way for wider participation in the economy.

According to a report, which was released in 2007 by the accounting firm, Deloitte & Touché, 81% of companies struggle to find appropriate staff, with 76% attributing the problem to difficulties in finding employment equity candidates (SRI, 2008:2). This statement is supported by Fasset (2009:9) who argues that the lack of qualified Black employees has been a major problem, particularly in high ranking occupations and professional categories where employers find it difficult to meet their

employment equity targets because of the unavailability of suitably qualified Black people. Furthermore, the (SRI, 2008:4), states that the South African Institute of Architects argues that 80% of the country's architectural practices are experiencing shortages of up to 40%, while the National Research Foundation of South Africa was struggling with a lack of research capacity, while the country had to produce approximately 6 000 science and technology PhD graduates per year in order to ensure that the country remained competitive in the global knowledge economy.

In addition, JipSA (2007:13) argues that in spite of the fact that the economy produced approximately 5 000 artisans per year, South Africa is still experiencing a severe shortage of well-qualified, competent and experienced artisans, while the country needs at least 12 500 artisans over a period of four years to meet demand.

However, Akoojee and McGrath (2007:423); Knight and Kingdon (2004: 199); Klasen and Woolard (2008:2); and Magruder (2010:5)) emphasise that there is a great relation between poverty, discrimination, inequality and unemployment in South Africa, and that the country's level of inequality is amongst the worst in the world. Consequently, with the lack of skills shortage hampering the country, the situation is likely to become worse.

Akoojee and McGrath (2007:424) attribute this relationship to the Apartheid system where skills were profoundly racialised and gendered, leaving Black (especially female) South Africans in complete denial of access to skills development, while they received no certification or recognition for their levels of skills and knowledge learned on the job and, worse still, provider institutions were fragmented and dysfunctional. Richardson (2007:8), conversely, attributes the problem to a lack of investment in skills development, education, and rapid structural change combined with low levels of overall unemployment, as well as a cyclical surge in employment in parts of the economy and weaknesses in the training system.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Skills shortage is broadly regarded as a key constraint, which prevents government from achieving the country's targeted six percent growth rate (Brier and Erasmus,

2009:1; CDE, 2007:3 and Fasset, 2010:1). Brier and Erasmus (2009:1) argue that shortages of skilled people, particularly professionals and artisans, should be seen in relation to the country's Apartheid history, as well as post-Apartheid attempts from the newly-elected democratic government to rectify historical imbalances that were created by the old system, as well as the international shortage of skills and the global market that has room for South African skilled professionals to move easily from one place to another.

As a result of skills shortage, companies in South Africa place a strong emphasis on developing skills to deal with the inconsistency of the high unemployment rate and skills shortage (Hall & Sandelands, 2009:216).

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION AND SUB QUESTIONS

1.4.1 Research question

The main research question is:

What is the impact of skills shortage in Khayelitsha? Is it reflective of the general population of the Western Cape or Cape Town?

1.4.2 Sub-questions

The following are sub-questions that were formulated to provide answers that above would engender deeper insight to the subject of study.

- What are the causes of skills shortage in Khayelitsha?
- What is the perceived economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha?
- What is the perceived social impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha?
- What strategies can be implemented by government and all other stakeholders to improve the situation?

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study seeks to critically investigate the socio economic impact of skills shortage in Khayelitsha, under the following specific objectives:

- To critically investigate the causes of skills shortage in Khayelitsha;
- To assess the social impact of skills shortage in Khayelitsha;
- To critically investigate whether skills shortage is one of the causes of unemployment in Khayelitsha; and
- To examine measures taken by government and other stakeholders to address skills shortage.

1.6 RESEACH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In order to better understand what research is, Burns and Burns (2008:5) outline research as a process of systematic enquiry or investigation into a specific problem or issue that leads to new or improved knowledge.

Therefore, during this study the researcher employed both primary and secondary sources of information and other relevant material such as books, journal articles, universities libraries, academic papers, the Internet, official reports, and government publications.

1.6.1 Research design

In order to gain insight into socio economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha, the researcher made use of the mixed method approach, which is also known as qualitative and quantitative data techniques. A descriptive study in the form of a structured questionnaire, which uses both open and closed ended questions (quantitative), was used, as well as structured interviews (qualitative).

The quantitative method approach was used to determine or quantify the number of people that are affected directly and indirectly by the impact of skills shortage in Khayelitsha. The quantitative method approach was also considered so that a larger

number of the population of Khayelitsha is reached and represented in order to avoid prejudice of the study. The qualitative method was used to enable the researcher to explore, identify evidence, opinions, perceptions and the effects of skills shortage on residents who live in the township of Khayelitsha.

Strewig and Stead (2001:12) outline qualitative research as an inquiry process of understanding where a researcher develops a complex holistic picture, analysis of words, report detailed views of informants, and conduct the study in a natural setting. Quantitative research is conclusive research, which makes use of large samples and involves highly structured data collection procedures to ensure generalizability (Strewig & Stead, 2001:14).

1.6.2 Survey instrument

The researcher made use of a questionnaire as a survey instrument for this study, and a total of 80 questionnaires were distributed to all participants. This method was used because it is cheaper, more economical and enabled the researcher to collect data and gain an insight into the socio economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha. This method also provides causes and effects of skills shortages, and quantifies the number of people who are affected directly and indirectly by the impact of a shortage of skills in Khayelitsha in order to reach and represent a larger number of the population of Khayelitsha as means to avoid bias. Further reason to use the survey questionnaire as a research tool instead of interviews is because the latter is said to be time consuming, costly, biased and, at most times, can be difficult to analyse.

1.6.3 Population

The targeted population for this research consisted of high school educators who reside in the community of Khayelitsha. The researcher decided to target educators because he considers them to be well-informed regarding the problem under investigation. There are 18 secondary schools within the area of Khayelitsha and all are registered with the Department of Education, which is responsible for the curricula of schools. The information gathered from this research was regarded as confidential, and the required protocol of a questionnaire was employed. Khayelitsha

Township was the appropriate site where all questions were distributed, while all questions were designed in a way that prevented any prejudice or unethical conduct from the researcher and respondents during completion. Questions were also structured in a way that attempts to gain some insight into some of the issues that were part of the literature review. The questions were transcribed and analysed for recurring themes.

1.6.4 The research sampling and size

A sample is a proportion, which is drawn from the targeted population (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport, 2007: 192). The sample size that was used in this research comprised of 80 educators that were drawn from secondary schools in Khayelitsha, teaching subjects such as; Mathematics and Science, Business Economics and economics. The researcher decided to target educators who taught these subjects to obtain their perceptions of the skills situation in Khayelitsha, as the researcher considers them to be well-informed regarding the problem under investigation, especially when these are essential subjects, which are required for the critical skills lacking in the country. The researcher decided on this size as it was considered to be manageable and representative of the general population under study. As part of the sample the educators were selected amongst the 18 secondary schools that are located in the area. Hence, amongst the 80 sample population, 30 were drawn from the three high schools located in Makaza area, 15 came from the only secondary school in Site C, another 15 from the only secondary school in Mandalay, and the other 20 from the two existing schools in Site B.

1.6.5 Data analysis

The researcher made the use of two data analysis methods, namely content analysis and descriptive statistics. Both methods were used to the advantage of the study as it facilitated an understanding of the findings and explored the feelings of those who have been affected by the impact of skills shortage.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study sought to provide useful information regarding the socio economic impact

of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha. Moreover, the study may also help government and other stakeholders that are involved such as the Departments of Labour, and Education, universities and different SETAs, to combat the problem and find possible solutions.

Furthermore, the study may be of assistance by providing possible solutions and recommendations to deal with factors that contribute to skills shortage in the country in order to address various policies that have created significant imbalance and inequality in South Africa's education' system.

1.8 CLARIFICATION OF KEY CONCEPTS

1.8.1 Skills shortage

According to the Development Policy Research Unit (2007:2) and (Junankar, 2009:9), skills shortage exists when there is not enough skilled workers to meet employers' demands, or when employers are unable to fill, or have considerable difficulty in filling vacancies for an occupation.

1.8.2 Skills gap

A skills gap occurs when existing employees do not have the required qualifications, experience, or skills to meet the skills that are required in an occupation within the firm. It is when the workforce is inadequately trained, unqualified to perform tasks, or may not possess the upskill to emerging skills requirements (Junankar, 2009:9).

1.8.3 Scarce skills

Fasset (2009:4) and the Mining Qualification Authority (2010:3) define scarce skills as occupations in which there is a scarcity of qualified people, currently or anticipated in future, either (a) because such skilled people are not available; or (b) because they are available, but do not meet employment criteria.

1.8.4 Critical skills

The Mining Qualification Authority (2008: 25) refers to critical skills as specific, key or generic and “top up” skills within an occupation. According to the MQA (2008:5), there are two groups of critical skills within the South African context:

- Generic skills, including (in SAQA-NQF terminology) critical cross-field outcomes, which would include skills such as problem solving, learning to learn, language and literacy skills, mathematical skills, ICT skills and working in teams; and
- Demanding occupationally specific “top-up” skills that are required for performance within that occupation to fill a “skills gap” that might have arisen as a result of changing technology or new forms of work organisation.

1.8.5 Learnership

According to Dale (2010:71), learnership is outlined as a training programme, which is combined and available to both employed and unemployed candidates and provides both the theoretical knowledge component, as well as practical experience that a candidate requires to achieve a complete and nationally recognised qualification.

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Due to the nature of the study, confidentiality of all participants was considered and the researcher obtained permission to conduct this study from each individual from the identified communities. Further input was voluntary and all participants were informed about the nature of the study.

1.10 LIMITATION OF STUDY

This study was conducted in the community of Khayelitsha, in the Western Cape.

1.11 CHAPTER OUTLINE

This research focuses on the socio economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha, Western Cape, and seeks to understand various reasons, as well as contributing factors for such problems in the country. Therefore, the researcher has structured the thesis in five different chapters, which are outlined below.

Chapter One: Overview of the research

This chapter presented an introduction and background to the study. It provided a statement of the research problem, the research question and its objectives. The chapter also included the significance of the study, and provided clarification of key terms and concepts which are used in the research. Lastly, it ended with ethical considerations and outlined the research study's limitations.

Chapter Two: Overview of the socio economic impact of skills shortage in South Africa

The second chapter of this research focuses on the literature review concerning skills shortage in South Africa. It begins with an introduction, which sketches a global context and proceeds with identifying reasons and factors that contribute to the problem. Impact on the South African economy is also considered in this chapter.

Chapter Three: Research design and methodology

This chapter discusses in detail the methods of research, and research design, which were used for this researcher study.

Chapter Four: Presentation and analysis of data

This chapter presents an analysis and assessment of data that was collected. It also assesses factors and impacts of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha. The chapter also covers the impact of skills shortage on the broader economy.

Chapter Five: Discussion, conclusions and recommendations

This chapter suggests a set of conclusions and recommendations, including a brief summary of the findings, as well as consideration for future action research that may be conducted.

1.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined the scope of the study and its significance, as well as its background regarding skills shortage in South Africa, in general. In addition, various views were given concerning reasons and factors that contribute to skills shortage in South Africa. This view is further extended in Chapter Two, which forms part of the existing body knowledge on the socio economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha, Western Cape.

CHAPTER TWO

OVERVIEW OF THE SOCIO ECONOMIC IMPACT OF SKILLS SHORTAGE IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 INTRODUCTION

International trends suggest that skills shortage is a global phenomenon. Countries, employers and organisations worldwide continuously express their experiences regarding a shortage of skilled professionals in various sectors of their economic activities. This shortage of skilled professionals is not only felt by individual organisations or sectors. It is also felt by communities, states, regions, and provinces, and as a result, entire nations pay a heavy price when they cannot find or equip workers with the right skills for critical jobs that would contribute to more productivity in the workplace and economic growth overall.

Malcolm, Cohen and Mahmood (2002:25) support the above argument, citing the Australia Department of Employment in its 1998 report, which affirms that Australia has been facing skills shortage in three broad occupational areas, namely professional occupations; skilled trades; and service occupation, which represent a large number of professions or sectors. Such issues in Australia emanate from the supply, unavailability, skills provision and demand facet of the labour market.

Like Australia, several new Central European members of the European Union (EU) such as Hungary, Poland, Slovak Republic and the Czech Republic are also reported to be in the same situation. Yousef, Li and Brixiova (2008:46) state that in spite of GDP recoveries and large private sector shares in output and employment, these countries have low employment rates, especially among unskilled workers. Evidence of skills shortage in Central Europe is pointed out to faster labour relocation and convergence to EU- 15 employment structures.

In the United States of America alone, the America Society for Training and Development (ASTD) (2009:8) found that of 1,179 organisations, 79 percent

confirmed skill shortages within their organisations. Reasons given are that the current workforce does not match organisations' strategies; there is a lack of bench strength in the company's leadership ranks; effects of mergers or acquisitions; and decreases in training investments. The ASTD (2009:8) further cites other reasons that contribute to the labour shortage in the United States of America to include baby boomers nearing retirement age; and the birth rate that is continuously dropping, coupled with the booming economy.

Narrowing the problem to Africa, Nkomo (2010) states that Southern Africa, as a region within the African continent, also faces a massive skills shortage in all sectors of the economy. Unlike in Europe and America where the shortage is attributed to baby boomers nearing retirement age, and a continuous drop in the birth rate, coupled with the booming economy (ASTD, 2009:8) in Southern Africa, HIV/Aids is considered as one of the main reasons for the shortage of skilled professionals in the region.

According to Coombe (2002:14) and Nkomo (2010), HIV/AIDS poses immense challenges in the region in terms of achieving social and economic development by sinking the accumulation of skilled professionals, contributing to a decline in productivity in all sectors because of illness on the job, absenteeism owing to personal or family illness and funeral attendance. Furthermore, the International Hospital Federation (IHF, 2008:27) and Nkomo (2010) argue that the disease is also weakening the educational system in the region, as it prevents children of affected areas from attending, while it also affects the equal opportunity of schooling, scarcity of teachers, an increase in absenteeism and lower productivity. Such factors have a long-lasting effect on the region, particularly in terms of goals that are set for meeting Millennium Development Goals, which aim to eradicate poverty and achieve sustainable development growth.

In South Africa (Mail & Guardian, 2008) it is suggested that skills shortage is a result of the HIV/AIDS pandemic that the country is experiencing. It is estimated that half of the deaths in South Africa and 71% of the deaths among those between the ages of 15 and 49, are caused by Aids, hence the devastation among the young and middle-aged populations who should be filling the skills gaps.

2.2 REASONS FOR SKILLS SHORTAGE IN SOUTH AFRICA

The most powerful contribution that any government can make is investing in its own people. Educating the country's workforce is the most powerful and significant contribution to the country's economic growth and social development. Hence, the Gauteng Provincial Government (2009:6) argues that an educated society has the potential and ability to cope with global technological progress that leads to increased production, decreased poverty, economic growth, and job creation in a given region, state and/or country.

However, expressions of concern about South Africa's skills shortage is not something new, but has become more apparent in recent years. The CDE (2007:19) argues that skills shortage in South Africa is entirely because of increasing demand, which is driven by more rapid growth coincided with continuing supply pressures. These are caused and attributed by pull factors of the global skills market and the country's inability to develop, utilize, and retain enough human capital from its own resources.

In this regard Bohlmann (2010:1) and Crush and McDonald (2002:1) believe that South Africa is no different from the rest of the world where the migration of skilled professionals has generated considerable public attention during and since the fall of Apartheid. Richardson (2007:8) describes the shortage of skills as a source of aggravation to firms and, when severe, it is likely to hamper the quality and quantity of industrial development outputs.

Richardson (2007:8) also argues that skills shortage in South Africa comes from many origins, namely a lack of investment in skills development; education; and rapid structural change, which is combined with low levels of overall unemployment; a cyclical surge in employment in parts of the economy; and because of a weakness in the training system.

During the launch of the Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JipSA), it was acknowledged that one of the deepest scars of Apartheid was certainly the denial of acquisition of quality education and skills for Black people (JipSA, 2007:2). As a

result, skills shortage has been identified as one of the critical constraints to economic growth and employment creation by the South African government. Thus, in its efforts to address the problem, the government created a new institution known as Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETA) in 2000 with an aim to assist in the fight against poverty, creating employment and fulfilling equity employment targets (Akoojee & McGrath, 2007; and Mail & Guardian, 2007).

Akoojee and McGrath (2007:424) provide additional reasons for skills shortage in South Africa, namely the Apartheid system, where skills were profoundly racialised and gendered, which left Black, particularly female Black South Africans in complete denial of access to skills development, or they received no certification or recognition for their levels of skills and knowledge, which were acquired on the job and, even worse, provider institutions were fragmented and dysfunctional.

Brier and Erasmus (2009:1) support the argument by blaming skills shortage on the education system that still suffers from decades of neglect and dysfunction from Apartheid when Black people were educationally underprivileged, and on the insufficient education system that does not generate the necessary skills needed for the country's economy. Brier and Erasmus (2009:1) also link skills shortage to the quality and quantity of education, which was provided to a majority of South Africans, particularly in the past, reflecting the type of education that was available to the masses, namely quality education for the few, and a lack of access to education for the majority.

The immigration of South African skilled professionals to other parts of the world such as the USA, the UK, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada is also mentioned as a contributing factor. Crush and McDonald (2002:1) confirm that many South African skilled professionals migrated to other parts of the world during the advent of the new political dispensation, as they feared the effects of Affirmative Action policies, crime and violence, and other policies that have also worked against the country's skills shortage.

2.3 OTHER FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO SKILLS SHORTAGE IN SOUTH AFRICA

Various studies (Alam & Hoque, 2010:535; Crush & McDonald, 2002:1; and Fourier, 2006:44-45) relate skills shortage in South Africa to the rise of migration of skilled professionals and other forces. Some of these forces include internal and external factors. However, Kline (2003:108) classifies these forces as push and pulls factors. According to Garbayo and Maben (2009:1), push factors are generally present in giving countries, while pull factors pertain to receiving countries. Therefore, Alam and Hoque (2010:535) and Fourier (2006:44-45) describe the following as major factors, which contribute to skills shortage:

2.3.1 Internal /push factors

- Crime;
- Fear of the Aids epidemic;
- High unemployment rate;
- Unequal levels of education;
- Low eroding wages and salaries; and
- Racial differentiation (Rasool, et al., 2012: 12).

2.3.2 External /pull factors

- Wage differentials;
- Differences in quality of life;
- Educational opportunities for children;
- Intellectual freedom;
- Political stability; and
- Job security (Rasool, et al., 2012: 12).

Alam and Hoque (2010:535) and Fourier (2006:44-45) argue that these forces have somehow contributed to a reduction of skills in South Africa owing to the fact that many skilled professionals are lured by better working conditions and career development opportunities, which are presented to them in developed nations. Furthermore, Crush and McDonald (2002:1); Du Preez (2002); and Szlontai and Stern (2006) argue that both push and pull factors also lead to depletion or loss of

intellectual and technical personnel, with a negative outcome that impacts the economic and social growth of a country.

2.4 EVIDENCE OF SKILLS SHORTAGE IN SOUTH AFRICA BY OCCUPATION

Various research papers (CDE, 2007:3; and the SETA for Finance, Accounting, Management, Consulting and other Financial Services Fasset, (2010:1) have shown evidence that South Africa faces a shortage of skilled professionals in almost every sector of its economy, and if the problem is not paid immediate attention and addressed properly, it may impede economic growth, and the fight against poverty, which has been part of the newly- elected government's agenda since its inception to power in 1994.

Furthermore, Brier and Erasmus (2009:1) argues that skills shortage across all sectors of the economy is a major constraint to South Africa's economic growth, and an impediment to the country's pursuit of sustained economic growth that will reduce poverty and open doors for much wider participation in the economy.

The Solidarity Research Institute (2008:2) argues that the 2007 report, which was released by accounting firm, Deloitte & Touché, indicated that 81% of South African companies struggle to find appropriate staff, with 76% having difficulty finding employment equity candidates, in particular. There was a particular shortage of chartered accountants, IT specialists, sales and marketing personnel, and scientists. In addition, SRI (2008:3) states that the South African Institute of Architects argue that 80% of the country's architectural practices experiences shortages of up to 40%, whilst the South African Institute of Draughting is also experiencing a shortage because the country only produces 1 000 draughts persons per year, yet South Africa needs 5 000 qualified ones to meet the demands of the country.

Furthermore, according to (SRI, 2008:4) South Africa is struggling with a lack of research capacity. The country needed to produce approximately 6 000 science and technology PhD graduates per year in order to ensure that it stays competitive in the global knowledge economy, but the country produced approximately one-fifth of that

number. In the meantime, the Human Sciences Research Council found that there is a shortage of between 350 000 and 500 000 qualified people to fill managerial and technical positions (SRI, 2008:5).

Furthermore, Polity.org (2011) argues that the human capital group, Adcorp, released the latest findings of its employment index by stating that there are as many as 829 800 unoccupied positions in high-skilled occupations in South Africa. According to Polity.org (2011), Adcorp calculated and found that the economy faces a shortage of 432 100 technicians, 216 200 managers and 178 400 professionals. This is in contrast to the 967 600 elementary workers and 247 400 domestic workers that are in surplus of the country's needs.

An extreme shortage of skilled people were found to exist in senior management; professionals in the medicine; engineering; accounting and law fields; technical occupations that required artisans and technicians; and occupations in the agricultural industry.

Evidence of skills shortages are also in relation to the country's immigration of its skilled force. Myburgh (2004:22) argues that during the late 1990s immigration from South Africa increased dramatically, reaching a historical high of 58, 000 in 1999 and by the late 1990s, eight percent of South Africa's highly skilled graduates had immigrated to other parts of the world, particularly to countries such as the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand and the United States.

The CDE (2010:10) states that the country's loss of skilled workforce is not something new, as losses began in the 1970s already, but the growth has accelerated since the inauguration of the new democratically- elected government in 1994. Although it is difficult to give the exact number, given the complexity of the subject, the CDE (2010:10) estimates that more than 520 000 South Africans have immigrated between 1989 and 2003 with numbers growing about 9 percent a year. The CDE (2010:10) also shows that 120 000 of those immigrants that left South Africa had professional qualifications, amounting to about 7 per cent of the total pool of professionals employed in South Africa, and more than eight times the number of professional immigrants in the same period.

2.4.1 Sectoral trends on skills shortages

2.4.1.1 Artisans

In order to understand the nature of artisans in South Africa, it is important to consider what artisans' skills are, and the sectors in which they engage. According to Brier and Erasmus (2009:251), the term is derived from the Latin word 'artire', which means to instruct through arts. These were formerly applied to workers with skills who could make things by hand, and this practice continued until the end of the Middle Ages with the introduction of apprenticeships. Despite the fact that it is crucial to have sufficient artisans in South Africa to enable infrastructure development, economic growth and wealth creation, many research papers continue to show evidence that the country faces a severe shortage of artisans, which hinders government's ability to sustain the kind of development and economic growth that is needed for the eradication of poverty, and this is a major fight that it faces (Van Rooyen *et al.* 2010:1; Brier and Erasmus, 2009:1; and Engineering News, 2005).

The Service Publication (2010) argues that at present South Africa produces less than 45% of the number of artisans that required in the economy, and less than half the number that it produced a quarter of a century ago. This has hindered municipalities from utilizing their multi-billion rand infrastructure grants, and has placed them in a battle to render proper services. In addition, another research study, which was conducted by The Mobilite Witness (2010) estimates that South Africa produces about 5 600 qualified artisans annually, compared to a target of 12 500, which was set by the Department of Higher Education and Training. Furthermore, the Service Publication (2010) states that it is estimated that the country's artisan needs range from 50 000 to 80 000.

The shortage of artisans is not only evident in government, where their work is visible and required from maintaining and keeping the lights on, water accessibility to all, and roads and bridges being maintained. In contrast, the private sector is also feeling the same scarcity; a lack of artisans is evident in manufacturing, mining and other heavy duty industries. Artisans are also critical for the operation and maintenance of municipal infrastructure and equipment.

However, the Solidarity Research Institute (2008:3) and Service Publication (2010) conclude that South Africa only had 10% of the artisans that it had 20 years ago, and estimations are that the country has a 40% shortage of artisans. As a result, according to Service Publication (2010), entities such as construction company giant, Grinaker-LTA, had to import artisan skills from Malaysia, Ireland and India. Petrochemical company, Sasol, imported 1 300 Thailand artisans to fill the gap of skills that were not found available in South Africa at the time when they needed them to work as welders and to perform maintenance work at the company's Secunda synthetic fuel plant (Solidarity Research Institute, 2008:3).

The main reason for a shortage of artisans in South Africa, according to John Botha, general manager of the Production Management Institute, cited in Service Publication (2010), is a lack of suitably qualified candidates with qualifications in Science and Mathematics, which is the foundation of many artisan trades.

Contrary to the above statement, Van Rooyen *et al.* (2010:2) blame the shortage of artisans on organisations' failure of recognition and a lack of attention given to retain them by satisfying their needs. Furthermore, according to Barry and Jordaan (2009:174), reasons for this are attributed to globalisation, where international organisations are also recruiting artisans in South Africa, as past learnership programmes are recognised as world class, not to mention the high salaries that are offered by these international organisations, in conjunction with the social issues of high crime rates, and violence in the country.

In opposition to both statements above, Brier and Erasmus (2009:220) blame the massive shortage of artisans largely on a decline of apprenticeship systems and the failure of substitute interventions, which include training via learnerships and further education and training colleges to eliminate the backlog. Another major concern is that a majority of young people who have received some form of artisan training do not find jobs after graduation because they have not had sufficient or appropriate work experience, or their course was not aligned with industry requirements.

According to the Service Publication (2010), another major setback came as a result of two major companies, namely Eskom and Telkom. These two companies were

responsible for training a large segment of artisans through apprenticeships, but they ended their practice owing to commercialisation of their operations.

2.4.1.2 Nurses

The shortage of nurses is a chronic problem in South Africa. Many hospitals in the rural areas and small towns do not have adequate health personnel. Yet there are many South African nurses who work overseas. Garbayo and Maben (2009:2) and Kuehn (2007:1853) note that a global shortage of healthcare workers has become a major concern for both developing and developed countries, especially since we want to eliminate mortality among children during birth, rising vaccine exposure, and battling epidemics such as HIV/AIDS.

Buchan and Aiken (2008:2); Kuehn (2007:1853); and Naicker, Rhule, Tutt and Eastwood (2009:60) state that the World Health Organisation estimates the presence of 2.4 million health personnel that provide essential health care intervention worldwide. Conversely to the latter, Egerdahl (2009:6) states that the WHO (2006:11) estimates a shortage of 4, 3 million healthcare personnel globally, together with physicians, nurses, midwives and other key personnel.

However, regardless of the number of available health professionals, the WHO (2006) states that various factors have contributed to the existing global shortage of nurses internationally, namely the growing aging population in developed countries, predominantly in the northern hemisphere, the increasing number of high-tech health care workers are exacerbating the demand for healthcare workers and poor planning and under-investment in health workers' education, has left developed nations with too few domestic health workers to meet demands.

According to Garbayo and Maben (2009:2), in Africa the health systems of sub-Saharan countries have been badly damaged owing to migration of its health professionals to more developed countries, leaving a great vacuum in the sector and the region as a whole. As a consequence of these migration patterns, Africa has 2.3 health personnel per 1000 inhabitants, compared to the Americas, where there are 24.8 healthcare workers per 1000 inhabitants (Naicker *et al.* and Eastwood 2009:60).

Ethiopia is an example of the many African nations that face a devastating shortage of health professionals. According to Dorman *et al.* (2009:622), during 2006 there were only 0.03 doctors per 1000 people with an even lower ratio in surgery.

In South Africa, the system comprises a dual health system, namely the public sector, which comprises government health institutions with a mandate to predominantly serve the impoverished population of the country. The private sector comprises individual businesses that serve for profit, and provide healthcare services to the insured with economic standards.

Pillay (2009:1) states that in spite of the fact that the public sector is responsible for the well-being of 82% of the population, it accounts for only 40% of total health expenditure in South Africa, whilst the private segment consumes 60% of the health expenditure, and is responsible for less than 20% of the population. Pillay (2009:1) also notes that the public sector is often characterised as inefficient and ineffective in terms of meeting its mandate of accessibility, affordability and providing appropriate health care, as it is under resourced and overused, while the private sector is more apparent for its world-class facilities and care provision.

The above statement argues that the public health sector in South Africa is characterised as inefficient, ineffective, and under- resourced for reasons pointed out by Naicker *et al.* (2009:60). Naicker *et al.* (2009:60) argue that since 1996, the country has lost 7% of its skilled health care professionals owing to migration to various parts of the world, with an excessive number of 10,000 South African nurses practicing in the United Kingdom alone, and large numbers in New Zealand, Australia, Canada and the United States. The earlier argument is also supported by Breier and Erasmus (2009:119), who state that the South African public and private health sector could not fill the many nursing vacant positions available, as many of the country's nurses were living and working abroad, and about 4 844 qualified nurses were scattered in 8 different countries such as United Kingdom, New Zealand, Australia, Canada, Portugal, France and the United States of America.

A Solidarity Research Institute publication in 2008 pointed out that the Health Department and Net Care estimated that between 28 000 and 30 000 vacancies for

nurses were available in the public sector, and 5 000 in the private sector (SRI,2008:5). Furthermore, the Solidarity Institute argues that the nursing shortage in South Africa is twofold. One is that the country is unable to train an adequate number of nurses to meet local demand, while many South African nurses practice in the Middle East and the Europe, where they are attracted to better salaries and better working conditions. Consequently, private hospital group, Medi-Clinic, is importing nurses from India to fill vacancies across the country, especially in the Western Cape where the shortage is dire (SRI, 2008:5).

Furthermore, Brierier and Erasmus (2009:141) concede that the greatest demand for nursing exists within the public sector where an advertised vacancy during April 2006 to March 2007 was 97 per cent for the public sector, while the private sector has only 3 per cent of nursing vacancies. Relating to the 28 000 to 30 000 vacancies mentioned by the Solidarity Research Institute, Egerdahl (2009:6) and Shezi (2005) agree with the findings of research, which was conducted by the University of Johannesburg, which estimate that the nursing shortage is 52 500 nurses. Egerdahl (2009:6) further indicates that the South African Health Review (2003/04) confirmed a decrease in nurses from 120 per 100 000 in 2000 to 107 nurses per 100 000 in 2004, while the training of nurses had not matched population growth.

Various reasons seemed to have contributed to the shortage of nurses, which includes HIV/Aids that affects many health workers, as well as poor working conditions, crime, a fragile economy, uncertainty of childrens' future, discriminatory laws, lack of personal and professional development, and higher pay rates abroad. Bezuidenhout *et al.* (2009:2013); Fourier (2006:44-45) and Lewinsohn and Arnold (2010:289) state that the primary reason for professionals leaving South Africa is associated with pull and push factors. Meanwhile, the WHO (2006) states that factors such as economic policies, limited investment in public sector healthcare and reduced funds for health personnel education are core contributors to the shortage of nurses in various less-developed countries, and without proper policies in place, the situation is likely to worsen. Below is an illustration of the South African Nurse Council's distribution for 2008.

Figure 2.1: SANC Geographical Distribution 2008. Geographical distribution of the population of South Africa versus nursing human resources

Province	Population	Nursing Human Resource as at 2008/12/31			In Training as at 2008/12/31			Pupil N/A
	2008	Registered	Enrolled	Auxiliaries	Total	Students	Pupils	
Limpopo								
- Females	2 768 100	7537	2836	6823	17196	1277	267	332
- Males	2 506 700	835	363	853	2051	476	37	92
- Total	5 274 800	8372	3199	7676	19247	1753	304	424
North West								
- Females	1 756 200	6342	1996	4048	12386	1094	21	130
- Males	1 668 800	705	191	538	1434	335	7	24
- Total	3 425 000	7047	2187	4586	13820	1429	28	154
Mpumalanga								
- Females	1 859 100	4903	1630	3063	9596	286	195	85
- Males	1 730 900	400	144	292	836	140	26	31
- Total	3 590 000	5303	1774	3355	10432	426	221	116
Gauteng								
- Females	5 248 600	26874	10379	15042	52295	3299	3894	2330
- Males	5 198 500	1312	682	1068	3062	701	361	134
- Total	10 447 100	28186	11061	16110	55357	4000	4255	2464
Free State								
- Females	1 506 800	6506	1278	2674	10458	751	186	133
- Males	1 370 900	783	228	339	1350	245	47	40
- Total	2 877 700	7289	1506	3013	11808	996	233	173
KwaZulu Natal								
- Females	5 321 100	21188	14307	10305	45800	2187	4242	970
- Males	4 784 400	1280	1517	1075	3872	614	469	95
- Total	10 105 500	22468	15824	11380	49672	2801	4711	1065
Northern Cape								
- Females	580 500	1915	405	1195	3515	232	--	92
- Males	545 400	156	30	119	305	58	--	51
- Total	1 125 900	2071	435	1314	3820	290	--	143
Western Cape								
- Females	2 760 400	13421	4710	7527	25658	1437	717	365
- Males	2 501 600	594	244	512	1350	321	66	27
- Total	5 262 000	14015	4954	8039	27008	1758	783	392
Eastern Cape								
- Females	3 441 500	12400	2575	4998	19973	2296	498	104
- Males	3 137 800	827	171	671	1669	708	146	23
- Total	6 579 300	13227	2746	5669	21642	3004	644	127
TOTAL								
- Females	25 242 300	101086	40116	55675	196877	12859	10020	4541

- Males	23 445 000	6892	3570	5467	15929	3598	1159	517
- Total	48 687 300	107978	43686	61142	212806	16457	11179	5058

Source: SANC Geographical Distribution 2008. South African Nursing Council – <http://www.sanc.co.za/stats/stat2008/Distribution%202008xls.htm>

The figures of The South African Nursing Council's figures of nursing human resource tabled above indicates that South Africa has 437 nurses for every 100 000 people. This includes nurses in the "enrolled" and "auxiliary" categories as well. When only registered nurses (those who have completed a four year course) are considered, the ratio drops to 222 registered nurses for every 100 000 people. This translates to a ratio of 451 people for every registered nurse.

2.4.1.3 Doctors

The migration of doctors from their home countries is not a new phenomenon. According to Garbayo and Maben (2009:2) and Kuehn (2007:1854), many medically qualified doctors, especially from the "South", the new term used for developing countries, are actively recruited to go and work in most developed countries. This migration is not something new, but rather it has been evident for a few decades ago, and has become a global concern, while South Africa has become part of it.

The above statement is supported by Lewinsohn and Arnold (2010:288) who state that healthcare in nations such as the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada and Australia, is heavily dependent on doctors from developing countries. Consequently, developing nations bear the cost of educating their citizens, but do not reap the fruits of their education, as many of these professionals are later attracted to go work in developed countries that offer better working conditions, better salaries and more opportunities to advance their careers.

Fourier (2006:44-45) supports the argument that attributes the migration of these professionals to factors such as the push-pull theory. It has, however, been reported extensively that push factors usually play a much greater role in doctors' decisions to migrate from their native land, when compared to pull factors.

Bezuidenhout, Joubert, Hiemstra and Struwing (2009:2012) note that 23% of America's more than 770,000 doctors that were licensed in 2002 were trained outside the USA, and from this figure, 5,334 hailed from sub-Saharan Africa. Nearly 86% of 5 334 of these doctors originated from Nigeria, Ghana and South Africa. Bezuidenhout *et al.* (2009:12) further state that 79.4% (4,234/5,334) of them were products of 10 from 87 medical schools in Africa. Five of the top-ten medical schools are in Nigeria, three in South Africa and one each in Ghana and Ethiopia. But with regard to a number of qualified doctors from these medical schools, the University of the Witwatersrand is top of the list (1 053 graduates), with the University of Cape Town second (655) and the University of Pretoria tenth (132).

Bateman (2006); Benjamin (2006); Siqoko (2005), cited in Breier, (2008:11), point out that evidence of a doctor shortage in South Africa is clear from the amount of media exposure in the rural public service over a period of time. The argument is also supported by Reid and de Vries (2003:789) when they point out the evidence of doctor shortages present at rural areas. For example, Mount Frère district is one of the many rural areas where one doctor serves a population ratio of 30 000.

Couper, Tumbo and Hugo (2009:54) also support the above argument by indicating that 46% and 46.3% of South Africans lived in rural areas between 1996 and 2001, respectively, but doctors were not equally distributed. In 1993 the poorest districts in the country had 5.5 doctors per 100 000 persons. In wealthier districts the figure is estimated at an average of 35.6. In the Eastern Cape and North West province, for example, there are between 12.7 and 11.5 doctors per 100 000 persons. In the Western Cape and Gauteng the figure is between 31.9 and 25.4 doctors per 100 000 patients (Couper, 2009:54).

Furthermore, the Times Live (2010) points out that the most recent statistics that were revealed in parliament argued that the country needs an additional 46 000 nurses and 12 500 doctors. In 2007, R45 million was spent on bursaries for 473 students, and increased to R98m in 2008. However, 89 of the 473 students that benefited did not fulfil their promise. Some are working in other parts of the country, while others migrated abroad (Times Live (2010)).

Naicker *et al.* (2009:60) indicates that since 1996, 37% of South African doctors had immigrated to places such as Australia, Canada, Finland, France, Germany, Portugal, the United Kingdom and the United States. Naicker *et al.* (2009:60) also state that an estimated 23,407 South African doctors are in Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the United Kingdom and United States (8,999 in the United Kingdom alone). Bezuidenhout *et al.* (2009:211) state that the number of South African doctors who work in Canada increased by more than 60% between 1996 and 2006, and have been particularly poached because of the high quality standard of medical training that they received in South Africa.

The World Health Organization's statistics for 2010 place the ratio of doctors to patients at 8 doctors to 10 000 patients. Regardless of the ration indicated by the World Health Organisation, Zimbabwe has two doctors to 10 000 patients, and when these figures were compared to Spain and the United States, it stood at 38 doctors to 10 000 patients in Spain and 27 doctors to every 10 000 patients in the United States (Dell, 2011). Breier and Erasmus (2009:114) support the argument by stating that 'South Africa is better supplied with doctors than its immediate neighbours, but grossly under-supplied when compared to developed states'. Furthermore, Breier and Erasmus (2009:116) state that Government's personal and salary information system (PERSAL) revealed that 5 103 public sector vacancies for medical practitioners were available in 2006 alone. This figure was supported by Breier's (2008:30) publication when he quoted the Department of Labour's (DoL) Labour Market Information Unit (LMIU), which states that between 2004 and 2007 a large number of job vacancies that were advertised in the Sunday Times Career supplement, were not filled.

Half of these vacancies were meant for health professionals. Breier (2008:31) indicates that from April 2004 to March 2007 the analysis showed that there were 112 828 vacant position adverts during this period; 50.37% of job vacancy adverts were for professionals; and 30.52% for managers; 17 479 vacancies were for health professionals; which accounted for 30.76% of all professional vacancies over the three year period (2004 to 2007). The largest share of job vacancy adverts in the health professional category were for midwives and nursing staff at 43.59%, followed by vacancies for medical practitioners at 35.87%, and for health diagnostic and

promotion professionals at 16.04%. Health therapy professionals accounted for 4.50% of the advertised vacancies.

However, Breier (2008: 31) states that from April 2004 to March 2007 the analysis showed that:

- There was a total of 112 828 vacant position adverts during this period;
- The leading share of job vacancy adverts was placed in search of professionals (50, 37 per cent) and managers (30, 52 percent);
- A total of 17 479 vacancies were for health professionals, which accounted for 30, 76 per cent of all professional vacancies over the three years under review; and
- Across the three year period, the largest share of job vacancy adverts in the health professionals category was placed in search of midwifery and nursing professionals (43,59 per cent), followed by vacancies for medical practitioners (35,87 per cent) and for health diagnostic and promotion professionals (16,04 per cent). Health therapy professionals accounted for 4, 50 per cent of the advertised vacancies.

Breier and Erasmus (2009:113) argue that the reason for the shortage of doctors in South Africa has to do with both internal and external dimensions. This statement is welcomed by Lewinsohn and Arnold (2010:289), as well as Bezuidenhout *et al.* (2009:213) who also attribute the shortage of these health professionals to push and pull factors, in addition to other factors.

According to Lewinsohn and Arnold (2010:289), the primary reasons for skilled professionals leaving South Africa before 1990 are owed the Apartheid system, uncertainties about the future, and safety and professional development. Further reasons for leaving the country from 1990 onwards are attributed to crime, uncertainty of childrens' future, political situation, discriminatory laws, and higher rates paid abroad (Bezuidenhout *et al.*, 2009:2013).

2.4.1.4 Teachers

Teacher shortage in South Africa is a controversial subject. And if we should consider whether there is in fact a shortage of teachers, it is critical that one examines perceptions versus reality, and interrogates the interpretation of 'scarcity' and 'shortage'. Breier and Erasmus (2009:200) state that there is an extensive body of articles and documentation that reveal skills shortages in education in rural schools and disadvantaged communities. Whether these statements are true or not does somehow reflect the passion and great concern of the general public regarding the state of education in South Africa. Breier and Erasmus (2009:200) state that the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) has consistently declared that the country faces a shortage of teachers based on teachers' experiences of overcrowded classrooms. Furthermore, the system is short of Mathematics and Science teachers, which is a result of the inferior education system that was offered at Black schools.

The Solidarity Research Institute (2008:4) and Villiers (2007:69) argue that South Africa is experiencing a great shortage of staff in the education sector. Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka, former deputy president of the Republic of South Africa, highlighted teacher shortages and promised that Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition (JipSA) would support poor schools to increase the number of teachers who teach Mathematics, Science and Language skills (JipSA, 2006).

In addition, according to Democratic Alliance (2008) George Boinamo, the spokesperson on education for Democratic Alliance stated that South African children receive the worst quality of education in the developing world. Furthermore, Democratic Alliance, (2008) argues that government has done nothing to solve the problem of teacher shortages. George Boinamo also argues that then Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor, insisted that there was no crises or shortage of teachers even though the report, which was released by the Education Training and Development Practices (ETDP) SETA stated that the Western Cape alone had to find more than 2 500 Mathematics teachers, 2 500 Natural Science teachers, and 1 500 Language teachers by 2010, or else it would face a shortage, and the same applies to other provinces that faced equally large shortages (Democratic Alliance,

2008). According to Silva (2008) of the West Cape News, the Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshekga, stated that more than 1700 South African teachers are unqualified to teach at secondary schools.

Contrary to all statements above, Breier and Erasmus (2009:200) state that the Department of Education (DoE) and the Department of Labour (DoL) consistently argue that there is no shortage of teachers, but nonetheless agrees that there are skills issues that should be addressed. The latter may be in agreement with the statement made by Silva (2008) who stated that there is a serious shortage of skills in Mathematics and Science teaching, nationally, although the Western Cape is in a better position compared to other provinces.

However, when critically analysing both sources of information, it seems that the latter statement is more substantial than the former. Evidence from research and various data bases suggest that South Africa is not facing teacher shortages, but rather a shortage of teachers in certain subjects such as Mathematics and Science. This is supported by Rademeyer (2005), cited in Villiers (2007:69), who states that the South African Director-General in the Department of Education has argued that South Africa is not facing a general shortage of teachers given the fact that there were 11 000 teachers without posts in the Department of Education's data base.

Furthermore, Breier and Erasmus (2009: 202) argue that, numerically, there might be an adequate number of teachers in the country, but the problem is related to distribution according to geographical location, grade levels, subjects, qualifications, skills, quality, race and language.

Villiers (2007:69) states that as a result of a shortage of Mathematics and Science teachers in both urban and rural public schools in South Africa, the Council of Education Ministers has opted to recruit qualified and trained teachers from Zimbabwe and India to fill some vacant posts in these scarce skills subjects as a short term solution.

Breier and Erasmus (2009: 200), citing the DoE (2006), argue that the shortage of Mathematics and Science teachers in South Africa's rural areas goes back to the

quality and quantity of education, which was provided to a majority of citizens, especially in the past. It also reflects the type of education that was received or made available to the majority, the exclusivity of quality education of the few, and the general lack of access to education for many.

Breier and Erasmus (2009:2009) and Fiske and Ladd (2005) argue that during the Apartheid regime, the provision of education was racially intended to the point that resources were lavished on schools that served White students, while schools that served Blacks were systematically deprived, not only of quality and qualified teachers, but also of physical resources and teaching aids such as text books and stationery. Consequently, the quality of teachers has always been uneven across racial groups, while Blacks received poor education, which kept them out of the modern sector of the economy to ensure a steady supply of cheap labour, particularly for the agricultural, mining, and domestic service sectors (Fiske & Ladd, 2005).

2.5 IMPACT OF SKILLS SHORTAGE IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.5.1 Societal

Koep *et al.* (2010: 4) state that skills shortage in South Africa builds social ills, particularly in townships and squatter camps, while it also contributes to high levels of unemployment and disperses families. The authors additionally recognise that it impacts negatively on levels of service, both in the private and public sector, which hinders government's ability to accelerate levels of service to the people that it serves, slows down economic activities of the country, and contributes largely to crime and violence, which is the effect of poverty and income disparity.

The above argument is supported by Wallis (2002:1) who suggests that skills shortage affects work performance widely owing to open vacancies that are available in firms; deteriorates the quality of customer service satisfaction; increases costs; and impedes or delays companies from developing new products. Moser (1999:1) disputes that poverty and inequality are the two main social problems brought about by skills shortage in the country, along with an alarming increase of unemployment

among the youth, crime and violence in society. Furthermore, the author echoes the importance of recognizing that skills shortage affects social developments nationwide, while it also worsens peoples' poverty and violence, which together are the most complex forces that deteriorates the wellbeing, livelihood, security, physical safety, survival and self respect of people.

According to CDE (2007: 11), the social effects of skills shortage in South Africa is felt in many different ways, including the anger of township and rural area residents who live in unsanitary conditions owing to a lack of engineers from the municipality, the erratic malfunctioning of public telephones, and frequently overflowing sewage systems caused by blockages and sudden cut offs of water and electricity, and the frustrations of employers who cannot find a qualified candidate to fill vacant positions in their firms.

Various studies (CDE, 2007: 11; Ploch, 2011:13; Wallis, 2002:1 and Weatherburn, 2001:5) also relate the lack of skills and the high level of wealth disparity to be major contributors of poverty, crime and violence in South Africa. The above argument is supported by Babarinde (2009: 356) and Landman, Bhorat, van der Berg and van Aardt (2003:1) who state that most economists and political analysts agree that approximately 40% of South Africans, mainly Blacks who live in townships and in squatter camps across the country, live in precarious and impoverished conditions and have restricted access to basic services such as electricity, water, sanitation and other social services that would make them feel like human beings in a country that is somewhat well-off, while 15% of the poorest are involved in a desperate fight for survival owing to a lack of skills in the country.

2.5.2 Economic

Bohlmann (2010:1) and Ploch (2011:1) state that South Africa is considered as one of the most unequal societies in the world in terms of income sharing in spite of its strength economically, and is considered the might economy of the African continent. According to the authors, a majority of the population, mostly Blacks, live in poverty, while the major cities are surrounded by informal settlements.

The Centre for Development and Enterprise (2010:9); Richardson (2007:8); and Rasool and Botha (2011:1) argue that economically, a lack of skills limits South Africa's economy from growing and contributes to high levels of unemployment. When the economy of the country is not growing, or creating jobs, it contributes to large volumes of unemployment and poverty, and prevents the country from being competitive in the global market.

The latter is further supported by Bohlmann (2010:1); Moser (1999:4) and Thornton (2008) who argue that the unavailability of a skilled workforce is a curb to business growth, productivity, contributes to large volumes of unemployment, poverty, and prevents the country from being competitive in the global market. Bohlmann (2010:1) also argues that skills shortages also affect the country's social and economic development through investors being unwilling to invest, given the fragility of the country's economy.

2.6 THE STATE OF POVERTY AND INEQUALITY IN SOUTH AFRICA

According to Akoojee, HSRC and McGrath (2005:1), poverty, unemployment and inequality in South Africa are a result of its history of colonialism and Apartheid. The country has been rated as one of the most unequal societies in the world (Akoojee, HSRC and McGrath, 2005:1; Borat, van der Westhuizen and Jacobs, 2009:1 and Woolard, 2002:1).

According to May (1998:1), the first investigation on poverty was conducted in 1922 and focused exclusively on the 'poor White' problem, which fed into the subsequent policy structure for the eradication of poverty among Whites. Much later, the Second Carnegie Conference, which was held in 1983 examined poverty amongst South Africa's Black population and highlighted conditions in the rural areas and townships of South Africa.

Poverty and inequality in South Africa are inextricably linked to the labour market. However, May (1998:3) defines poverty as an inability to obtain sufficient resources to satisfy a socially accepted minimum standard of living.

Koep *et al.* (2010:6) state that there has been a major change in South Africa's economy since the fall of Apartheid and the first elected democratic government. Aron, Kahn and Kingdon (2008), cited in Koep *et al.* (2010:6) argue that economic growth during the Apartheid era was stagnated owing to the sanctions imposed on international trade and investment, weakness and uncompetitive local industries, severe trade controls, limited skills growth, and high levels of poverty and inequality. After the new dawn of the first democratic election, economic sanctions were lifted, labour restrictions were dropped and policies were established to advance the interests of Black workers who had been the most affected and marginalized for many decades.

However, in contrast, Koep *et al.* (2010:6) state that in spite of the advancement in the economy and policies that were established, the economic growth of the country has not been fairly distributed throughout the population, making the per capita figure an inaccurate reflection of the change in well-being for the poorest segment of the population. The authors acknowledge that there have been some improvements in measured poverty over the post-Apartheid period, but inequality has worsened.

In their research, Frye (2006:1) and Woolard, Leibbrandt, and Woolard (2007:1) argue that although South Africa is an upper-middle income country, most households experience absolute poverty or vulnerability to being poor. And as a consequence, the country is considered as one of the most unequal societies in the world (Woolard, 2002:1). In addition, the author states that poverty is multi-faceted, which can be connected to starvation, unemployment, abuse, exploration, and no access to clean water, sanitation, and healthcare or schools. This is evident from the extreme inequality and poverty that faces the country in terms of its destitution, hunger and overcrowding, alongside affluence (Woolard, 2002:2).

Furthermore, Triegaardt (2007:3) states that unemployment, alongside poverty and inequality, has been the face of South Africa for many decades as a result of exclusion and marginalization with respect to certain decisions that were made in the past by the Apartheid regime. Pauw, Bhorat, Goga, Ncube and van der Westhuizen (2006:1) blame the problem on the lack of skills, which is aggravated by a poor educational system.

This position is supported by Woolard (2002:6) who states that poverty and inequality in South Africa exist as a result of segregation and discrimination policies that left a legacy by the Apartheid regime, while in more current years has been attributed to low income growth. The author argues that the system was deeply biased and denied access and opportunities to the wealth of the country for a majority of the population, namely Blacks and provided the best services and opportunities such as education, health, and housing services to a minority of the population, namely Whites. Furthermore, it is evident that Apartheid also unequally distributed resources, thereby marginalizing a large sector of the population and poorly paid sectors of the labour market, if granting access at all (Woolard, 2002:6).

Triegaardt (2007:2) argues that since its inception to power, the newly elected democratic government of South Africa has paid a tremendous amount of time and attention to poverty alleviation in a way that it has increased its budget for social assistance. In 2006 alone more than 10 million South Africans received social grants from government, but still half of the population continue to live below the poverty line. Despite all the pro poor-policies that have been drafted and implemented by government, the country still remains one the most unequal societies in the world (Triegaardt, 2007:2).

After 18 years of democracy, Blacks are still the most affected as far as poverty is concerned and more so than Coloureds who, in turn, are a lot higher than the Indians/ Asians and, lastly, Whites (Koep *et al.* 2010:21). The racial exploitation of Africans during the Apartheid years, together with the economic programme of post-1994, namely GEAR, perpetuated the impoverishment of a majority of the population (Triegaardt, 2007:2). Policies such as the Reconstruction Development Programme (RDP) and Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) came with many critiques as it failed the government.

This statement is supported by Triegaardt (2007:3) who argues that the first priority of the ANC government when it first entered into power was to eradicate poverty by improving the quality of life of the poorest and most marginalized people. Hence result programmes such as RDP and GEAR were launched in 1996; however, both policies did not meet its targets.

The Reconstruction Development Programme (RDP) represented a vision and framework for democratic change for South Africa and the economy of the country. But critiques of RDP suggest that the programme attempted to combine the ANC's old social and democratic values with new neoliberal tactics (trade and financial liberalization) together with (centrist) institutions and accords in which all social partners would be represented (Padayachee, 2005: 555).

Conversely, Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR), being an accepted micro-economic policy, focused more on the improvement of economic growth, debt diminution, job creation, and liberalising trade and industry. However, Padayachee (2005: 558) states that throughout the duration of the GEAR period, economic growth was characterised as low, as employment rates decreased in certain sectors of the economy. The same view is shared by Domingos (2007:116) who states that GEAR did not meet its target of creating jobs and eradicating poverty. Frye (2006:1) also argues that the only two indicators of success under GEAR included a reduction of budget deficit and a reduction in inflation.

2.6.1 Two other policies that impacted severely on poverty and inequality in South Africa

The Apartheid regime created many policies that impacted on poverty and inequality in South Africa along racial lines. Thus, two of these are discussed, namely inequality in education, and healthcare.

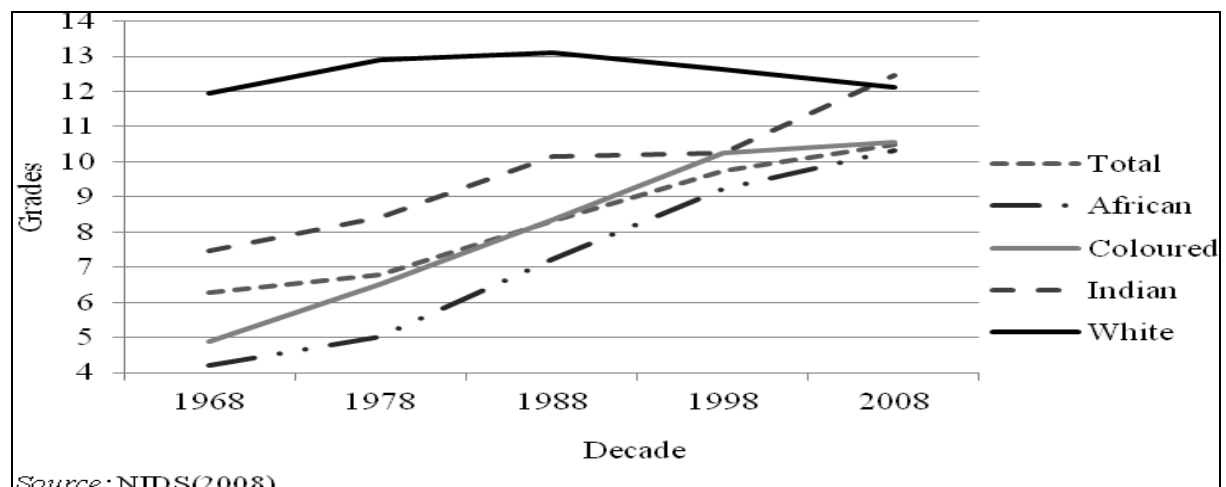
2.6.1.2 Inequality in Education

According to Fiske and Ladd (2005) and Koep *et al.* (2010:39), education under Apartheid was severely unjust in the way that people were treated. Thus, race became the order-of-the-day and a majority of state resources were extremely diverted to schools in White areas, while a vast majority of the population who lived in Black areas were subjected to low quality education. Consequently, South Africa developed a high quality education system that only benefited a White minority.

Educational attainment has changed over time for each race and in spite of the efforts made by the post-1994 government, educational inequality still exists; with

White and Indians now having equal years of schooling, while Africans and Coloureds still achieved 1.5 grades less on average in 2008 (Koep *et al.* 2010:39).

Figure 2.2: Educational attainments of 21-30 years old across cohorts



Adapted from: Koep *et al* (2010)

Although the African National Congress (ANC) government that won South Africa's first fully democratic election that was held in 1994 came with a mandate to reverse racial inequality and policies, which were previously instituted by the old regime, the above graph shows that 18 years after democracy there is still a large difference in the quality of education between formerly White schools and formerly Black schools, and that a majority of South African learners still attend poor quality schools.

Fiske and Ladd (2005) argue that large differences were common because education, under Apartheid, was completely race blind and advantaged the White minority. According to Fiske and Ladd (2005), during Apartheid, there were 15 distinct Departments of Education, which each served different racially distinct groups of students and separate departments that operated schools for each of the main racial groups that lived in urban areas, while additional departments operated schools for Africans in each of the ten homelands.

Consequently, not only was the education system entirely racially segregated, but they were also funded differently. According to Fiske and Ladd (2005), at the crest of Apartheid, institutions that provided services to White students had more than ten times the funding per pupil, than schools that served African students, and this occurred even as late as 1994 and during the fading years of Apartheid. After the

national government had significantly increased spending on Black students, the amount of money spent per pupil in White schools was more than two and half times more than that spent on Black students in urban townships and three- and half times the spending on Africans in the homelands. This is besides the privileges that they had enjoyed and the superiority of having better teachers and facilities, while the education of most Blacks was extremely impoverished (Breier & Erasmus, 2009 and Fiske & Ladd, 2005).

2.6.1.2 Inequality in healthcare

The newly elected democratic government, led by the ANC, inherited a health system that was divided in terms of access and quality, taking into account its cultural, racial, geographical and socio-economic outline. According to Myburgh, Solanki, Smith and Lalloo (2005), the legacy of Apartheid presented itself with huge inequalities in terms of health status and health care conditions, which was evident in the racial, socioeconomic, and urban/rural limits.

The legacy of Apartheid presented huge inequalities in access to quality healthcare. The Centre for Health Policy (2007:1) argues that the Apartheid regime encouraged the growth of the private sector in order to reduce demand for public health services through various measures such as deregulating and promoting private medical schemes. This was merely to keep the poor majority out of world-class healthcare services, which were only obtained from the private sector.

Despite attempts made by government to encourage fairness, particularly in the area of accessing health care services, results continue to suggest that South Africa's healthcare system is twofold in nature. Since 1994, divisions within the health sector have been between the rich and the poor, namely with medical aid/cash and those without medical aid and poor (Centre for Health Policy, 2007:1). On the one hand, there is public health care, which is cheap and of a poor quality, and on the other, there is private health care, which is unaffordable to a vast majority of the population, yet of a high quality, and this results in large volumes of inequality from those who are at the receiving end and cannot afford the best services, which are only found in private health care (Koep *et al.*, 2010:46).

Furthermore, as a consequence, medical practitioners render their services in private hospitals where they are more remunerated, and working conditions are better, which creates a shortage of staff in the public sector owing to better salaries, and excellent working conditions that are offered in the private sector.

2.6.2 Other causes of poverty and inequality identified in South Africa

According to May (1998:4), a number of specific issues have also been identified as causes of poverty and inequality in South Africa, namely:

- The force of Apartheid, which stripped people of their belongings, particularly land, unclear economic markets and social institutions through racial prejudice, which resulted in violence and destabilisation;
- Undermining the asset base of individuals, households and communities through ill health, over-crowding, environmental degradation, the mismatch of resources and opportunities, race and gender discrimination and social isolation; and
- The impact of a disabling state, which included the behaviour and attitudes of government officials, the nonexistence of information concerning rights, roles and responsibilities, and the lack of accountability by all levels of government.

These triggers have shaped the nature of poverty in South Africa, and are a result of Apartheid. Importantly, they have the potential to ensure the persistence of poverty, even though many other aspects related to the South African political economy are being transformed.

2.7 THE STATE OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

Poverty and income inequality are the two most persistent socio and economic issues that trouble South Africa (National Treasury, 2011:9). Two definitions of unemployment are frequently used, both broadly and narrowly. The earlier defines the unemployed as those who are currently not employed, but who look for work for

a period of a week or four weeks. The broadly defined unemployed are the narrow employed, including those who say that they want to work, but have not worked in the past week (past four weeks) (Knight & Kingdon, 2004:199).

However, Knight and Kingdon (2004: 199); Klasen and Woolard (2008:2) and Magruder (2010:5) state that unemployment levels in South Africa are extremely high, and are considered to be one of the highest in the world, particularly amongst non-Whites. Knight and Kingdon (2004:199) state that unemployment in South Africa increased from 31.5% in 1993 to 41.8% in 2002 and 42% in 2003. Although the percentage dropped slightly in years, the unemployment rate is still extremely high.

Banerjee, Galiani, Levinsohn, McLaren, and Woolard (2007:2) state that at present there are many South Africans without jobs. Just how many are unemployed depends on how one defines unemployment, but even by a narrow definition, about 26 percent of the labour force is unemployed. The same view is shared by StatsSA (2009b), cited in Bohlmann (2010:1), who states that unemployment in South Africa is so high that until 2010, the overall unemployment rate was above 30%, resulting in widespread poverty and inequality, consequently, causing great disparities in the frequency of unemployment in terms of race, gender, age, education and religion.

The National Treasury (2011:13) argues that at present there are 4.1 million unemployed workers; one in four of those available to work do not have a job. From the above number of unemployed, about 2.8 million comprise long-term unemployed people and a further 2.2 million are unenthusiastic, making South Africa's unemployment rate of 24 per cent among the highest in the world and rises to 32.4 per cent if discouraged workers are included.

There are various reasons for unemployment in South Africa. Hoogeveen and Özler (2005:2) and Luiz (2000), cited in Domingos (2007:1), argue that the new South African government of 1994 had inherited an economic system and a disorganized politico-administrative framework that has disadvantaged a majority of its citizens. Terreblanche (2005:25) agrees by stating that the government, led by the (ANC), came into power in 1994 and inherited a conflicting legacy: first being the economic power house of the African continent and second facing major socio economic issues in the country. Problems such as high rates of unemployment; hopeless

poverty amongst its populace; inequality in areas such as income distribution; education; health and other social levels of life; and high levels of crime and violence were and still are amongst the most pressing issues that government has encountered (Terreblanche, 2005:25).

According to Levinsohn (2007:1), concerning the above issues, Blacks were also deliberately subjected to a second-class education; labour laws were established to impede their advancement; business policies prohibited them from owning a firm; and laws that kept them from occupying places and living in many of the metropolitan areas that were centres of trade. Therefore, a huge task lay ahead of the new government to dismantle all these policies and create an environment that would see the advancement of all citizens without making distinction between any of them.

However, Hodge (2009:488) also states that although the first non-racial democratic government inherited an inactive economy with high levels of unemployment, a fiscal deficit of more than 7% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and a tirelessly high inflation rate of above 10% per annum, there has been a tremendous advancement economically, since it came into power. But, Hodge (2009:490) argues that in spite of positive activities in growth and other economic basics since the mid-1990s, unemployment continues to rise significantly from pre-existing figures.

Levinsohn (2007:1) states that part of the country's unemployment increase is owing to the fact that the country has been subject to the same skill-based technological change as in many parts of the world, particularly in the mining and agricultural sector-precisely where many unskilled Blacks worked; the other being the huge influx of mostly under-educated Black women into the labour market just as the demand for less skilled workers declined.

This is evident from the fact that a majority of unemployed individuals are poorly educated and possess limited skills or no skills at all. Van der Westhuizen, Pauw and Oosthuizen (2008:45) argue that the nature of the unemployment problem in South Africa is structural in the sense that there is a mismatch between the types of workers that are supplied and those demanded in the labour market. Hodge

(2009:490) agrees with the latter remarks, concluding that reasons for the prolonged rise in unemployment and the extended decline of employment in South Africa are the results of changes in both the demand and supply side of the economy, particularly when the labour force is growing faster than growth in employment. Consequently, the labour market becomes unable to receive new entrants in spite of the fact that the economy is growing.

Furthermore, Triegaardt (2007:3) argues that one cannot separate poverty and unemployment. Hence, rising unemployment, alongside poverty and inequality that South Africa is experiencing, comes as a consequence of all forms of exclusion and marginalization with respect to decision-making, ownership of land and access to basic services. Sebusi (2007:1), citing the IMF (2007), attributes the problem to the legacy of Apartheid, the shortage of skilled labour, increases in capital intensity, trade liberalisation, high labour costs and HIV/AIDS. Levinsohn (2007:2) states that a lack of unemployment is a major contributor to social ills, together with a loss of hope, which includes crime, violence, disconnection from the political process, and a lack of investment in one's potential well-being.

2.8 RESPONSE TO SKILLS SHORTAGE FROM TWO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

2.8.1 New Zealand

LaRocque (2007:1) states that the issues of skills shortage in New Zealand have been at the forefront of discussion in the business sector, national press and in government policy for some time now. Several sources such as the New Zealand Institute of Economic Research (NZIER), the Department of Labour (DoL), Business New Zealand and Grant Thornton, have highlighted that New Zealand have experienced, and continue to experience, severe skills shortage in almost every sector of their economic activity.

However, in an attempt response to emerging skills shortages all over the country, the New Zealand Department of Labour (NZDoL, 2006:1) states that the government launched the Skills Action Plan in 2002 to help manage the situation. One of the

initiatives from this plan was the creation of the Job Vacancy Monitoring Programme within the Department of Labour. According to Business New Zealand (2006:1), this programme aimed to improve the information on skills shortages throughout the country. The New Zealand Department of Labour further argues that this programme comprised of a monthly monitor of job vacancies, which were advertised in newspapers and Internet job boards, an annual Survey of Employers who have Recently Advertised or else known as (SERA), and in-depth reports on selected skilled occupations for which there were indications of shortages.

Business New Zealand (2005:5) also argues that a combination of short and long-term measures across a range of areas and co-operation between business, employees and employee representative groups, education and training providers and the government, was critical for the best outcomes towards the response.

Further response to skills shortage, according to LaRocque (2007:19), includes wage increase in profession with shortage of skills, increased human capital investment in the profession with shortage of skills, inflows of migrants who seek jobs in shortage occupations, and an improvement in the 'status' of trades and vocationally oriented courses, though by nature, these responses occur with some delay.

Furthermore, Business New Zealand (2005:5) adds that an improved migration policy; closure alignment of training; increased numbers in training and apprenticeships; ensuring an adequate amount of training and number of teachers; changes of employment law; more flexible provision of training; new attitudes to trade training; improved literacy and numeracy; increased use of technology; review occupational regulation; and retention strategies have all been part of government's response strategies to manage skills shortages in New Zealand.

Business New Zealand (2005:6) states that such policies will not be applied to all sectors, but rather it will differ according to occupations. Some occupations will require increasing training rates, while others will require importing skilled professionals from elsewhere to fill positions that could either result in permanent or

temporary migration, while in some cases both or multiple responses may be required.

2.8.2 Australia

Like New Zealand, Australia also suffers from a severe shortage of skilled labour. Thus, the Australian government at both state and national level has put together different strategies to respond to the problem. Hence, the Australian Government (2006:35) states that a number of strategies such as immigration policies were established to address the problem, while more policies were likely to emerge.

The Australian Government (2006:35) and Quirk and Mitchell (2005:13) argue that the government of Australia has embraced skills migration as a significant part of their skills shortage solution. This came as a result of Australia being a net importer of skills from other countries, which has always had a positive impact on the country's skills shortage. However, a number of visa sub classes, which allow skilled migrants to live and work in Australia, were established. Since many of these sub classes are regionally or state sponsored, applicants are required to render services in selected regional areas for a minimum period of two years (Australian Government, 2006:35).

Lawyers (2008) points out that Senator Chris Evans, the Australian Minister for Immigration and Citizenship, announced an additional measure of the Skilled Migration Program to address the labour skills shortage that Australia has been facing. According to Lawyer (2008), the Skilled Migration Program allows visa applicants to use their education, training, skills, know-how, work experience and language ability to satisfy Australian immigration requirements. This program also caters for applicants who are not sponsored by an employer, and who have skills that Australia requires to fill labour shortages. Furthermore, Lawyers (2008) states that other initiatives in place with regard to the Skilled Migration Program to address the current shortage include:

1. The extension of the Working Holiday visa program for young people with reciprocal countries. As a result, the number of people on Working Holiday

visas has increased compared to previous years, which was 85,200 in 2001-2002 to 126,600 in 2006-2007;

2. Additional changes to the Working Holiday visa to enable people who undertake at least three months' work in the construction sector in regional Australia to extend their twelve month holiday visa by another year;
3. A review of the temporary work visa system, which is also known as the subclass 457 visa program, to ensure efficiency in the supply of experienced professionals. This structure gives businesses a capability to skilled labour. This system allows businesses an ability to recruit skilled labour from overseas for temporary entry into Australia for periods of between three months and four years; and
4. The existence of an External Reference Group made up of industry experts to examine how selected temporary skilled migration measures can help to ease labour shortages in the medium to long term.

The Australian Forum (2011) argues that another positive response, which was implemented by the Australian government to address the country's shortage and, which has been welcomed by industry as part of the nationwide effort, is the National Resources Sector Employment Taskforce, also known as (NRSET). This strategy recognises that Australia requires more skilled workers if their economy should grow. Therefore, this strategy argues that while the country should improve training and boost apprenticeships, it is also essential to have programmes such as immigration programs, which are essential to deliver skilled workers when and where the country needs them.

For the reasons mentioned above, the Australian government has supported the National Resources Sector Employment Taskforce with the Critical Skills Investment Fund, injecting \$200 million, which is an important step to expand the funding of skill-based training, on a co-funded basis, according to the needs of the economy (Australian Forum, 2011).

The Australia Government's (2006:36) further response to the problem has been the flexibility of training and apprenticeships by allowing apprentices to demonstrate competencies without having to wait out a set time. School-based apprenticeships are now available nationally, and all skilled migrant applicants receive bonus points for skills or occupations that are listed in the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs (DIMA) Migrant Occupations in Demand List (MODL). This list is compiled and updated by the Australian Government on a 6- monthly basis.

Furthermore, at the meeting of the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) in 2006, a number of initiatives to help alleviate skills shortages included the encouragement of immigration. Therefore, the Australia Government (2006:37) created a number of subsidies available for employers who take on trainees or apprentices. Employers receive a subsidy of up to \$1250 to employ a new apprentice, and if the employer is in a regional area and the training is in an identified skill in a demand area, the employer then receives an additional \$1000 when the apprentice moves from certificate II to certificate III/IV training.

2.9 SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT'S ROLE IN ADDRESSING SKILLS SHORTAGES

From its legacy of an unfair socio-economic system, unsystematic politico-administrative structure, divided society, inconsistency in poverty and inequalities from health to education, one cannot simply look, but suggest that a lot was ahead of the new government before it started to deliver on promises that were made to the people. The newly elected government was fully aware that skills development was critical to bridge the gap, whilst taking into account the imbalances of the past and the need to grow an economy that would create jobs.

Therefore, the Gauteng Provincial Government (2009:7) argues that since its inception to government, the African National Congress (ANC) government, through its National Education Policy Act No 27 of 1996 and the Skills Development Act (SDA) of 1998, has always maintained that the right to education as well as skills development to ameliorate skills shortage that faces the country is a basic human right,. Therefore, this matter has been addressed through partnerships involving all

stakeholders, namely employers, public education institutions such as FET colleges, universities of technology and universities, private training providers and Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAS).

Further, the Gauteng Provincial Government (2009:7) argues that in order to address the skills shortage in South Africa, the government has embarked on a number of initiatives to help address the problem. One of these initiatives is the formation of institutions such as the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETA), which is mainly funded by skills development levies from employers that pay 1% of their workers' pay and the Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA). The latter aims to concentrate on developing skills that are most immediately needed in the country, while the education and training authorities (SETAs) provide sector-specific training programmes. These two institutions are further explored in terms of whether they have achieved their objectives, as outlined further in this study.

In addition, as part of government's role in addressing skills shortage, the Business Report (2011) states that in 2009 the new government administration under the command of President Jacob Zuma, divided the education portfolio into two separate departments: basic education and higher/post secondary education. Basic education comprises primary and secondary education, while higher/post secondary education includes education and training, as well as universities. According to the Business Report (2011), the minister of Higher Education, Dr Blade Nzimande argues that this separation gives departments' sufficient room to work with responsive issues such as a lack of access to higher education by the poor and the working class.

2.9.1 POLICIES ESTABLISHED TO ENABLE SKILLS DEVELOPMENT

2.9.1.1 Skills Development Act (SDA) of 1998

The Skills Development Act was created to provide institutional support to plan and implement national, sector and workplace strategies to develop and improve the skills of the South African workforce; to integrate those strategies within the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) contemplated in the South African Qualifications Authority Act (SAQA), 1995; to provide for learnerships that lead to recognised occupational qualifications; to provide the financing of skills development by means

of a levy-grant scheme and a National Skills Fund; to provide for and regulate employment services; and to provide for related matters.

2.9.1.2 Skills Development Levies Act (SDLA) of 1999

The above Act makes provision for the payment of a one per cent levy by employers (private sector) on total company pay roll. For the duration of the first five years, companies with an annual turnover of R 250 000 were required and registered for Pay as You Earn (PAYE), and were required to pay the levy. However, in 2005 this threshold was later increased by the former Minister of Finance, Trevor Manuel, to R 500 000. This act also stipulates how the funds will be utilised.

2.9.1.3 National Skills Fund (NSF)

The National Skills Fund was established after the promulgation of the Skills Development Act of 1999. The primary purpose of the NSF is to fund projects identified in the NSDS as national priorities, as well as other projects linked to the achievements of the Skills Development Act, as determined by the Director General of Labour.

2.9.1.4 National Skills Development Strategy

The SDA makes provision for the drafting of an NSDS, which will assess overall progress in meeting its objectives. The NSDS is supposed to provide a broader national framework within which skills development should take place- cutting across SETA and other institutional structures such as the National Skills Fund.

2.9.1.5 SETA

The Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA) was established in March 2000 in terms of the SDA. The authority is responsible for the payment of training levies, which are payable by all employers who are registered with the SETA. SETA ensures that the skills requirements of specific sectors are identified and that adequate and appropriate skills are readily available. SETA contributes to the improvement of sector skills through achieving a more favourable balance between demand and supply, ensuring that education and training is provided, and that people who have disabilities are taken into consideration.

2.9.1.6 AsgiSA and JipSA

AsgiSA was born with the aim of halving poverty and unemployment by 2014, and to promote an annual growth of at least 4.5% from 2005 to 2009, rising to at least 6% from 2010 to 2014. It was also conceived to overcome the salient 'six binding constraints' upon faster growth, which include a shortage of required skills, a volatile and over-valued rand, infrastructure backlogs, a lack of competition in various sectors, a heavy regulatory burden on small businesses, and deficiency in state capacity and leadership.

The establishment of Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition (JipSA) complemented AsgiSA, and was mandated to identify the most urgent skills needed by the economy to find a quick fix and effective solutions to skills shortage. Its activities would include coordination of special training programmes, bring back those that retired, encourage South Africans who work abroad to return, drawing in immigrants, and mentoring trainees to fast track their development. JipSA was billed to work for 18 months, after which its future would be reviewed.

2.10 SOUTH AFRICAN ORGANISATIONS' ROLE AND / OR RESPONSE TO SKILLS SHORTAGE

Like the government, South African organisations do have a huge role to play in addressing the skills problem affecting the country. It is the role of South African organisations to establish contacts in the form of partnerships with educational institutions to produce the type of skills that are required in the labour market. However, these cannot be done in isolation, but rather with the involvement of all stakeholders that are affected by these.

Nkosi (2008:38), citing the Department of Education (DoE, 2004), supports the argument by stating that it is important that organisations go into partnership with training providers and relevant institutions to produce qualitative technical education, which is important to boost competitiveness in the world of business. Nkosi (2008:38) states that these partnerships are important because this is the only way that learners will be prepared for what awaits them in the industry. Without the

involvement of industries, learners will not receive the type of education that is needed in the labour market.

Whilst it is understood that government has established a number of initiatives to help address education and skills issues, many organisations have also focused on developing their people through learnership programmes and bursaries in order to build capable, and highly skilled labour, which is required to capitalise on opportunities that are available for growth.

According to Hall and Sandelands (2009:217), one of South African organisations' roles is to conduct a skills survey within their own companies to establish education levels and potential for development amongst their employees, as well as establish skills development plans to help tackle areas where skills should be transformed. The money that organisations pay into the Skills Levy (to the Receiver of Revenue) can be claimed back once suitable training has been implemented.

Hall and Sandelands (2009:217), citing Murray and Roberts (2009:23), state that like many other companies, Murray and Roberts, one of the leading companies in the construction industry in South Africa and a responsible employer, has taken the initiative to address the shortage of skills through comprehensive collaboration with various institutions such as universities, colleges, and schools that promote the development of Mathematics skills. The company has also set aside bursaries to pay for students who are taking courses and subjects that are most needed, or where there is a scarcity of skilled labour force, including learnership programmes.

Hall and Sandelands (2009:217) state that learnership programmes are aimed at those on the job, as well as graduates who come into the industry. Graduates who complete their studies are immediately placed on learnership programmes where a combination of theory with practice are in place, focusing directly on learning outcomes, which ensure that these graduates receive enough exposure to receive skills, which are required by the company. At Murray & Roberts, learnership programmes are not only aimed at young and energetic people, but also at people from 16-60 years of age who are encouraged to join the programmes.

According to the Skills Portal (2007), Mweb, the leading Internet service provider in South Africa, is also another company that has stepped to respond to skills shortage. The CEO of the company, Rudi Jansen, states that their role in addressing skills shortage in the country has been well outlined; hence their response has been positive through implementation of learnership programmes. The Skills Portal (2007) argues that Mweb provides learnership programmes, which combine both theory and workplace experience, while participants are developed for specific places throughout the company functioning in a range of departments during the course of the year programme. The three levels for which Mweb recruits learnerships are: NQF level 2 for entry-level call centre operators; NQF level 4 for technical operations agents; and NQF level 5 for systems developers, programmers and website developers.

In addition, South Africa Good News, (2008) states that further response to the critical shortage of skilled professionals has been in ICT (Information and Communication Technology). South Africa's new telecommunication services provider, Neotel, has launched a training academy, which provides courses, equipment and internship opportunities. The course is accredited by the ICT sector education and training authority.

2.11 ROLE OF FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN ADDRESSING SKILLS SHORTAGE

In South Africa, Further Education and Training (FET) colleges include an extensive range of providers, namely colleges, secondary schools, private providers, NGOs, community organisations and employers. Former technical colleges are the main constituency of the public Further Education and Training sector, even though Colleges of Education, Manpower and Skills centres and some former community colleges were also merged during the restructuring process, with technical colleges forming the new FET colleges.

Further Education and Training Colleges have an important and critical role towards addressing the social and economic challenges, which face South Africa. These institutions are major contributors to the reduction of intermediate skills shortage in

the medium to long term, as well as the foundation for increased levels of economic growth and wealth creation, which is good for the country's steady reduction of unemployment and alleviation of poverty.

Nkosi (2008:2) argues that during post-1994, FET institutions were seen as the promoters of Apartheid policies where White colleges were more wealthy and prosperous, and Black colleges in the rural areas were less developed and under-resourced.

But over a decade later, Akoojee (2008:298); Daniels (2007:23) and Nkosi (2008:2) argue that FET colleges have been transformed and have a role to provide intermediate level skills, which are necessary to meet the country's national development challenges, as well as to reach masses of illiterate, semi-literate and unskilled people in diverse communities across South Africa. Akoojee (2008:301) and Daniels (2007:23) state that these institutions also play a role in equipping the nation, in particular those who come from previously disadvantaged backgrounds to acquire the necessary skills to enable them to participate in the social development and economic growth of the country. Furthermore, Daniels (2007:23) states that besides the above mentioned, FET colleges also play a central role in decentralizing learning programmes that are important to the industries and for the self-employed, since they are the frontrunners in the field of vocational teaching, catering for out-of-school youth and adults.

Daniels (2007:23) argues that Further Education and Training has gained more strengths, since the sector was transformed by government in 2002/3 when the existing 152 technical colleges were merged to form 50 'multisite-campuses' of FET colleges. Since then new programmes of study were introduced from 2007, which were intended to support the skills development policies of government in the new democratic society, and to address priority skills that are demanded by the local economy, with the National Certificate (vocational) geared to give students both theoretical and practical experience in a specific field. The production of more quality artisans became part of their core objectives, as well as addressing skills shortage and mismatch that exists to help young and less skilled workers to access jobs.

Universities play a central role in educating, equipping and preparing the country's workforce for the labour market. According to du Pré (2009:14), universities are academic institutions where research is conducted and teaching and learning is offered within an organised cadre of contact between lecturer and student, and support by network, cooperation and collaboration with external academic partners to create, develop and transmit new knowledge.

From the latter statement one understands that universities have the capacity to educate, empower people with skills and develop a society that is capable of tackling issues, which face them. In support of all the above statements, Iwu and Xesha (2011:87) argue that tertiary institutions in South Africa are seen as centres for skills acquisition, and learning and development that support government's duty to advance the socio-economic development of the nation through the enhancement of the skills of its citizens.

Co and Mitchell (2005:3) argue that South Africa is not only in shortage of skilled professionals to fill vacant positions; but also lack entrepreneurs to create jobs for the masses under critical conditions of poverty and unemployment. Consequently, the above author states that higher education institutions can also play a positive role in creating more entrepreneurial dispositions among young people by instilling a clear understanding of risks and rewards, teaching opportunities that seek and recognise skills, as well as create enterprises. Badat (2009:5) and Walker (2009:3) believe that these institutions have a considerable role to play in addressing social and economic issues, which face the country and engage with communities to tackle issues such as poverty, employment, and the large disproportion of inequality. Furthermore, Botman (2011:3) argues that higher institutions in South Africa can be used to redress past inequalities and imbalances, as well as become involved in activities that will ensure service delivery to the poorest of the poor in society.

2.12 HOW EFFECTIVE HAS SETA AND ASGISA/JIPSA BEEN IN MEETING THEIR OBJECTIVES?

2.12.1 Sector Education and Training Authorities (Seta)

The Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETA) were established in March 2000 in terms of the Skills Development Act with the authority for payment of training levies payable by all employers who are registered with the SETA. The sector also ensures that the skills requirements of specific sectors are identified and that adequate and appropriate skills are readily available. SETA contributes to the improvement of sector skills through achieving a more favourable balance between demand and supply, ensuring that education and training is provided and people with disabilities are taken into consideration.

Since its establishment, SETA has been expected to perform according to its mandate, but the sector has received lots of criticism from the media, in general, and organizations, in particular, stating that the sector has been underperforming ever since and lacks direction. The argument is supported by the American Society for Training and Development (2011) and Grawitzky (2007) who state that SETA came under a lot of criticism from the media, and organizations, including government, arguing that the sector has been weighed down by corruption, uneven governance, poor performance administration and financial inefficiencies, merely one month after its establishment.

The above argument is supported by Daniels (2007:2) and Grawitzky (2007:17) who argue that the Sector for Education and Training Authority found itself swamped with levy payments and expectations of immediate delivery just one month after being officially constituted. In addition, the authors argue that administratively, a majority of SETAs did not have the appropriate systems and procedures in place to deal with their responsibilities and core functions, as stipulated in the Skill Development Act (Parker & Walters, 2008: 73). CDE (2007:28) concluded in their research that SETAs' role is complex and comprised mixed success, arguing that certain SETAs managed to meet their expectations through their own creativity and innovation, but other SETAs have failed, and are not in a position to either administer learnership

programmes or monitor the performance of learners during the skills development phase.

Media Monitor (2011) and SabinetLaw (2010) point out that the Minister of Higher Education, Dr Blade Nzimande, expressed concern and signs of unhappiness regarding SETAs' underperformance. The Minister believes that SETA is not doing enough for the youth and is failing to ensure a smooth transition from tertiary education to the labour market. Furthermore, the Minister also argues that SETA had been given a budget of R8 billion and more than 80 per cent of the revenue was spent on short courses when it should have been spent on professional education where it is needed.

Similar arguments also come from Marock, Harrison-Train, Soobrayan and Gunthorpe (2008:11) who primarily acknowledge the significant progress achieved by SETA and the Skills Development system since 2000, but the same authors argue that significant challenges remain ahead with regard to the level of development of SETA. According to Marock *et al.* (2008:11), numerous complexities persist in respect of implementation; effectiveness and efficiency; shortcomings in the functioning of the training market; the underdeveloped capacity and functioning of monitoring and evaluation systems; the lack of effective management information systems; hence the effectiveness of quality assurance mechanisms in the system all combine to suggest that the SETAs and the Skills Development system are still at a critical stage of institutionalization.

The current statement supports all of the above, namely that SETA is a source of great concern and that much should be done to improve its efficiency and effectiveness (SabinetLaw, 2010). As a result, the Minister of Higher Education, Dr Blade Nzimande, has announced a new SETA landscape to address the many challenges that SETA faces, amongst others, diffused focus and multiple objectives; uneven governance management; administration; financial management and inefficiencies; planning and service delivery across the SETAs; difficulties in addressing cross-sectoral skills development and training requirements; negative public perceptions, including clarity on the role of SETAs eliminating corruption from the SETA's system; and aligning SETAs to the public university and college system.

2.12. 2 AsgiSA/JipSA

In its report, AsgiSA (2007:2) states that the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa was launched in 2006 by former Deputy President, Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka, as a result of discussions with various stakeholders. Government identified six “binding constraints that prevented the country from economic growth and that needed to be dealt with so that South Africa could achieve the desired target of halving unemployment and poverty between 2004 and 2014”. This ambition could be achieved if the economy of the country grew at an average rate of at least 4.5% in the period 2004 to 2009, and by an average of 6% in the period 2010 to 2014. Nevertheless, these binding constraints were identified as the following:

- Lack in government’s capacity;
- The instability of the currency;
- Low levels of investment infrastructure and infrastructure services;
- Shortages of suitably skilled graduates, technicians and artisans;
- Inadequately competitive industrial and services sectors and weak sector strategies; and
- Inequality and marginalisation, resulting in many economically marginalised people being unable to contribute to and/or share in the benefits of growth and development (the Second Economy).

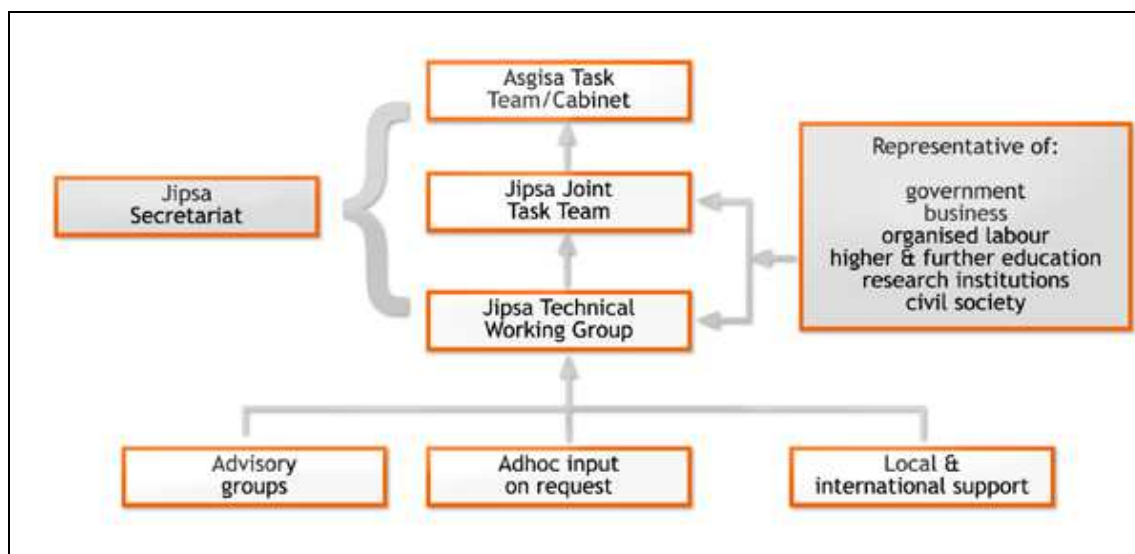
In order to address the identified constraints, the Joint Initiative Programme on Skills Acquisition was formed. According to JipSA (2008:7), the Joint Initiative Programme on Skills Acquisition came in existence two years after the establishment of AsgiSA. JipSA was launched and established by Cabinet to support AsgiSA objectives, whose central focus is to reduce the unemployment rate from 30% to 15% by 2014; reduce poverty from one-third to one-sixth of the population by 2014; and increase the annual GDP growth rate from an average of 3% to 4, 5% per annum for the period 2005 to 2009 and to 6% for the period 2010 to 2014.

The Centre for Development and Enterprise (2007:55) states that JipSA is a multi— stakeholder entity that has joint ventures with governments, business, labour, academics, research institutions, and civil society to accelerate the provision of

priority skills that are required to support accelerated and shared growth initiatives. Thus, JipSA was formed with the following mandate:

- Lead the implementation of a joint initiative of government, business and organised labour to accelerate the provision of priority skills to meet AsgiSA's objectives;
- Give momentum and support to the implementation of AsgiSA;
- Prioritise key skills and develop appropriate human resource development (HRD) strategies to address these in the short to medium term;
- Mobilise senior leadership in business, government, organised labour and institutions that are concerned with education and training and science and technology to address national priorities in a more co-ordinated and targeted way;
- Promote greater relevance and responsiveness in the education and training system and strengthen the employability of graduates;
- Lay the foundations for more co-ordinated and effective HRD strategies;
- Report to the AsgiSA Task Team and Cabinet on progress made towards agreed objectives; and
- Identify blockages and obstacles within the system of education and training that stand in the way of the achievement of Jipsa's objectives and lead an effective programme to communicate Jipsa's objectives and consult with stakeholders.

Figure 2.3: The structure of Joint Initiative Programme on Skills Acquisition



Source: Joint Initiative Programme on Skills Acquisition 2006. JipSA structure

From the above arguments, one can clearly understand that JipSA is not a delivery structure, but rather a short term intervention structure, which is designed to push people along where required. The latter is supported by CDE (2007:55), stating that JipSA is not a delivery structure or a new institution created in the delivery architecture for skills delivery, neither is it an institution that came to rectify and repair the entire education and training system, but rather a structure, which is concerned with priority skills whose availability immediately in large numbers is deemed crucial for faster growth. Therefore, CDE (2007:55) states that JipSA was created to identify and address the immediate blockages in the skills pipeline.

According to CDE (2007:55) the question should not be whether JipSA has produced enough artisans or engineers; conversely, it should be whether it has engaged adequately with those institutions to ensure that targets are met. However, should this be the appropriate question, then it is tricky to determine whether JipSA has succeeded or not, simply because there are too many relevant issues to take into consideration (CDE, 2007:57). However, Professor Haroon Borhat argues that for issues such as skills and skills development, 18 months is a short period, although he believes that JipSA was successful (CDE, 2007:58).

A similar statement was given by Joint Initiative Programme on Skills Acquisition. In their 2008 report, JipSA states that this structure managed to overcome the challenge put ahead of them in its nine months in mandate, and significant progress was made in defining challenges, aligning stakeholders, and identifying suitable resources to respond to the critical skills that face the country. All this was necessary for the success of JipSA is not only in isolation on the budget allocated by government, but on the strength of partnership and collaboration among all stakeholders that come from different levels of society.

At the end of its first mandate, which was 18 months, JipSA was able to state that immense advancement had been made in areas of engineering and artisan development, but more time was needed before complete results or advancement was effective. Hence CDE (2007:56) and JipSA (2008) argue that JipSA made significant progress and as a result, has gained and retained the confidence of government and all stakeholders at the highest level to continue in power with the

same mandate in order to remain an important vehicle to drive skills and education programmes for a few years more.

CDE (2007:59) and JipSA (2008) argue that within a short period of time JipSA made enormous progress in respect of the following:

- JipSA has created a platform to elevate the skills debate into the national agenda;
- JipSA created a culture of commitment among all social partners who have worked together to find joint solutions towards skills shortages; and
- JipSA has given rise to a model of identifying and unblocking impediments towards the acquisition of scarce skills. Some of these interventions have resulted in amendments to legislation, which previously impacted negatively on skills acquisition. There has also been an increase in funding some priority areas.

Moreover, the CDE (2007:58) states that successful results of this intervention is also seen as a result of businesses coming together to form a business skills partnership in order to contemplate how they could train the above equilibrium.

According to CDE, (2007:59) Jipsa's legacy would be to have identified what the blockages were, why they existed, and what deep analysis behind these were, and some suggestions of what government needed to do to change the public sector.

Although it was difficult to measure Jipsa's performance, progress could be seen in the fact that the DoE and DoL had done work on the scarce skills, and that many others in the bureaucracy were working on the issues. A concrete example existed in the DoE, which offered the University of Cape Town money to train more engineers based on a business plan, which was produced by JipSA.

2.13 OTHER ALTERNATIVES TO ADDRESS SKILLS SHORTAGE

2.13.1 African foreigners as an alternative to bridge the gap of skills shortage in South Africa

The shortage of critical skills has been part of the skills development debate in South Africa for some time, with serious concerns being raised concerning why the country finds itself in a dire and precarious situation when graduates are produced yearly from different fields. Maharaj (2004:2) argues that in spite of the vast disparity in poverty, unemployment and inequality in South Africa, the country is still home for many African immigrants who come from various parts of the continent. Many of these immigrants perceive South Africa as the land of hope, filled with enormous economic opportunities.

Furthermore, Maharaj (2004:2) states the importance of acknowledging that even though South Africa is perceived as being plagued with a massive disproportion of poverty and unemployment, the country is still in a better position when compared to other African countries, and is still the driving force and economic power house of the continent. For this reason, as long as widespread poverty and high levels of inequality prevail on the continent, South Africa will continue to attract migrants.

For the reasons stated above, it is arguable that South Africa finds itself in a fortunate position by being home to many, amongst them highly skilled professionals, semi-skilled and unskilled who all come from different parts of the world, particularly Africans from the African continent. Thus, if well utilised, this force can play a significant role in the South African economy and its human development.

In fact, Murray (1995:374) argues that from its earlier days, South Africa was heavily dependent on migrant labour. Many southern African country immigrants were always welcomed and attracted to work in the mining and agriculture sector in South Africa and it never seemed to be a problem. Many of these migrants entered the country illegally, while many others entered the country legitimately to escape poverty, unemployment and destitution in their own countries, as well as civil war and political instability.

Recently, there has been a lot of argument in South Africa regarding the area under discussion in terms of whether African immigrants contribute to the country's economic progress. The following authors, namely CDE (2000); Mattes, Taylor, McDonald, Poore and Richmond (1999:7); Mattes, Crush, Richmond (2000:1) and Walker Ellis and Barf (1992:235) argue that immigrants in South Africa are often considered to be a threat to the social and economic interest of South Africa in the sense that many employers see them as a source of cheap labour, repeatedly accused by locals of stealing their jobs, whilst others argue that skilled immigrants invest and add entrepreneurial talent to the economy. Despite the fact that this may not be the perception in South Africa, CDE (2007:31) and Mattes, Crush, and Richmond (2000:1) argue that international experience suggests that skilled immigrants more often contribute meaningfully to the advancement and economic growth of host countries through their entrepreneurial skills and hard work. Furthermore, Mattes, Crush and Richmond, (2000:1) argue that these same people can fill the gaps created by immigrants or the lack of the country's education and economy through new ideas and skills. Therefore, there should be a greater awareness of the profile and contribution of South Africa's current stock of skilled immigrants.

All the assertions made above are supported by CDE (2000), which states that developed nations have long understood the benefits that skilled immigrants bring to the host country; as a result, they have taken the opportunity to develop and attract highly skilled professionals to the advancement of economic activity in their countries. Countries such as Singapore, Germany, Ireland, South Korea, the United States and the United Kingdom have all sent poaching expeditions to India to try and recruit information technology engineers to bridge the alarming shortage that exists in information technology skills back home. The United Kingdom is also another nation that has developed a special programme to attract South African nurses. Above and beyond, CDE (2000) argues that many immigrants have entrepreneurial talents and ambition; and are to a certain extent prepared to take risks and above all possess the necessary drive to survive and succeed in a foreign country.

The Centre for Development and Enterprise (2007:31) states that South Africa has already witnessed benefits that it can get if it decides to recruit African foreign skilled

professionals. One way of looking at the benefits and contributions gained from using this force is by observing the positive impact brought from people of Malay extraction, India and Pakistan, Eastern Europe, the Middle East (Lebanon) and the Far East, as they have all contributed significantly to South Africa's skills base. Furthermore, CDE's (2007:31) recent gains and benefits have also been from the African continent where many highly skilled and qualified personnel have been appointed to various academic positions in the country's top universities, while many of them even become public figures.

Coming back from the argument regarding the use of African foreigners existing in the country to bridge the skills shortage, especially critical skills in the country, the CDE (2007:32) points out that many South African leaders have acknowledged the potential that immigrants have in contributing to the skills that are in dire need in respect of South Africa's economic growth. The former president of the country, Thabo Mbeki, expressed his view publicly concerning the need to improve migration laws and procedures to enable the country to attract foreign skills into the country. The former chairperson of the Home Affairs Portfolio Committee argued that South Africa needs a manageable immigration system that can contribute to stimulation of economic growth, development and create jobs for South Africa (CDE, 2007:32).

CDE (2007:46) states that South Africans should not see the importation or recruitment of skilled professionals from abroad or immigrants who reside in the country as a threat to them, but rather as something that will improve the education and training system that is currently failing them; manage development projects that will improve the lives of many; and create business that will in turn benefit and expand opportunities for employment.

Nevertheless, Wa Kabwe-Segatti and Landau (2008:126) state that South Africa's skills shortage is not something that can be solved overnight, especially at a time when the country's education system appears to be scantily adapted to generate the kind of graduates that are needed in the labour market. Therefore, until South Africa improves the educational system and change peoples' attitude towards education, alternative means should be considered, taking into account that skills acquisition and entrepreneurship are hardly aspects that can be achieved in a short period,

considering that South Africans are perceived or rather often described as lacking entrepreneurial skills.

According to CDE (2008:22), should South Africa take the ethical stance of refusing to strip a neighbouring country of its human resources, it could be self-defeating and could in fact encourage them to enter the global Diaspora instead. Coetzee and Keevy (2006:1) believe that foreign recruitment could be a short term solution to South Africa's skills shortages, particularly in the area of critical skills, though this has implications and challenges for the source country.

Several sources such as CDE (2007:46) and Maharaj (2004:14) have shown that immigrants are, in fact, net contributors, and not parasites, which South Africans have at times used to describe them. This is proven by Meintjies (1998:20) who argues that immigrants are, on average, healthier, more energetic and better educated than people in the host population. Subsequently, they draw comparatively less on social welfare and other social services. Many pay tax and, through their entrepreneurship, make a positive injection into local economic development.

Maharaj (2004:14), citing Rogerson (1997), states that in South Africa, immigrants own businesses that employ local residents and have become a central part of the small, medium and micro enterprise sector, changing the socio-economic structure of the inner cities. Despite the lack of sympathy from locals, these immigrant entrepreneurs are steadily encouraged to expand their enterprises, creating significant impacts in the lives of many South Africans regarding job creation and poverty alleviation.

Maharaj (2004:14) points out further that should the stigma of illegality be removed, it is likely that such migrants could contribute notably to the local economy through the creation of employment opportunities, as well as the training of local people, and leave a majority of them compelled to pay taxes that could increase the resource base of the government for reconstruction and development.

For reasons stated above, Coetzee and Keevy (2006:1) argue that if a well manageable system is established to manage migration, and immigrants regarding

their qualifications, South Africa will benefit a lot as it keeps a tab on the statistics and calibre of people who enter the country. Furthermore, this will allow for planned use of skills that are available, even if these people are of foreign origin. It is also imperative to understand that some of these foreigners have impeccable skills and credentials that were acquired over a long period.

2.14. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the socio economic impact of skills shortage in South Africa, and Khayelitsha, in particular. Reasons for skills shortage, contributing factors, as well as evidences of this phenomenon in the country were critically investigated. Furthermore, an in-depth review of issues caused as a result of skills shortage, namely unemployment, poverty and inequality, were also critically explored. The chapter considered certain occupations that face skills shortage in the country, and identified certain mechanisms used by countries such as New Zealand and Australia, which face the same problems as South Africa and analysed if the same mechanisms can be applied to South Africa's situation.

However, the chapter concluded with an investigation of the role that certain institutions, including government, should play in addressing the problem, and the question or rather the argument about the use of African skilled foreigners who are in the country to bridge the gap of critical skills shortage that face the country, since the problem at hand does not have an immediate solution, but rather requires proper strategies, policies and the involvement of various stakeholders to address the problem . The next chapter describes the research methods that were used to collect the required data for the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter details the research methods that were used for this study. It provides details of the research design, which is necessary to gain better insight of the underlying methodological theories. It further discusses the targeted population, sampling size, research ethics and techniques that were employed to analyse the data.

However, for the completion of this study several pieces of literature were examined, which discussed the impact of skills shortage in various contexts. In order to achieve this, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was adopted as an integrated approach of gathering information.

Structured survey questionnaire methodologies with closed and open-ended questions were employed as a strategy for structured interviews. A survey questionnaire was also designed in this study as another research tool for this study in order to obtain objective and fair views.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND PLAN

In order to provide a framework for an empirical study, a mixed methods strategy was adopted, as this approach was believed to best serve the objectives of the study. Maree (2007:70) describes research design as a plan or strategy, which moves from the primary philosophical assumptions to specifying the selection of respondents, the data gathering techniques to be used and the data analysis to be done. Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:52) and De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2009:159) consider research design as a plan, or blueprint that provides guidelines for what the researcher is going to do to reach conclusions about the research problem.

3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research method is the way in which ideas and evidence are organised and scattered. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:12), research methodology or methods are sets of procedures that enable researchers to collect data that should be carefully planned, structured and executed in order to produce unquestionable and high quality research results.

Pekeur (2002:14) states that research methodology aims at testing the nature of the scope dealing with the purpose and objectives of the study. Hence, the research methodology used in this study is both qualitative and quantitative.

According to Domingos (2007:61), research methodology is aimed at a thorough demonstration, connection and scientifically systematic chronology of investigation, by giving its hypothesis a true meaning in application and achieving the expected end results of the entire study.

For a study that deals with a social context such as this one, the alternative was the use of qualitative and quantitative methods of collecting data from the field by using a survey questionnaire that was both open and close ended.

3.4 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY USED

The quantitative research approach investigates things that can be observed and measured in some way. Maree (2007:145) defines quantitative research as a process that is systematic and objective in its ways of using numerical data from only a selected subgroup of the universe or population to generalise the findings to the universe that is being studied. When conducting a study that makes use of quantitative research, the numerical measurement of specific aspects of phenomena is imperative and should be precise. This is important when a researcher is interested in establishing facts that can be generalised across the population, as this will enable one to generalise any characteristic that is discovered in a particular location, across other similar communities.

According to Creswell (2012:113), quantitative methodology is one in which the investigator primarily uses post positivist claims to develop knowledge of cause and effect, to specify variables, hypotheses and questions, use of measurement and test of theory, employs strategies of inquiry such as surveys, questionnaire data collection of close-ended and predetermined instruments that yield statistical data.

The quantitative methodology applied in this study was used to determine the number of people that are perceived to be affected directly or indirectly by the impact of skills shortage. The method was also considered so that a larger number of population members could be reached and represented in order to avoid bias of the study. This was achieved by using a questionnaire as the instrument of collecting data. The questionnaire was designed with structured questions to gain information, and also to reach as many participants as possible. The results that were obtained from the questionnaire were later analysed with the help of a statistician by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programme version 19. Further reason to use the survey questionnaire as a research tool instead of interviews is because the latter is said to be time consuming, costly, perceived to be biased and, at most times, can be difficult to analyse.

3.5 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY USED

In order to gain more in-depth knowledge about perceptions of skills shortage in Khayelitsha, the study was further complemented with qualitative data collection by way of open-ended questions.

The qualitative research approach is concerned with developing explanations of social phenomena. Burns and Burns (2008:19) ascribe the qualitative research approach as one, which enables the researcher to gather and analyse information conveyed through language and behavioural exhibits in a natural settings.

Maree (2007:50) defines qualitative research as research that attempts to collect rich descriptive data in respect of a particular phenomenon or context with the intention of developing an understanding of what is being observed or studied. The researcher collected open-ended, emerging data with the primary intent of developing themes from the data. The qualitative methodology was applied to enable the researcher to

explore, and identify evidence, opinions, perceptions and effects of skills shortages on residents who live in the township of Khayelitsha.

3.6 MIXED METHOD APPROACH

In order to attain the objectives of this study, a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches, namely the mixed method was adopted. Mixed method research is described by Maree (2007:261) as a procedure for collecting, analysing and “mixing” both quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study to understand a research problem more completely. According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delpont (2009:357), this approach of combining different research methods in a single research provides a rich understanding of a research topic, which could lead to more reliable research results. De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delpont (2011:436) argue that the strength of this method, however, lies in the diversity of the methods, and has the potential to provide stronger inference, eliminate different kinds of bias, explain the true nature of a phenomenon under investigation and improve various forms of validity.

However, the use of triangulation in the study was based on the assumption that any bias inherent in a particular data source and method would be neutralised when combined with other data sources. Therefore, by using or adopting a single method, a researcher is likely to gain a limited view of a particular research situation and, therefore, this argument was a good motivation to consider utilising a multi-method approach in this research, which helped to correct respective shortcomings, and hence provided a greater confidence in terms of what was being targeted being accurately captured.

3.7 RESEARCH POPULATION

The targeted population for this research consisted of high school educators residing in the community of Khayelitsha. The researcher decided to target educators because he considers them to be well-informed regarding the problem under investigation. There are 18 secondary schools located within the area of Khayelitsha

and all are registered with the Department of Education, which is responsible for the curricula of the schools, and the sample was drawn from the schools in the area. Khayelitsha Township was an appropriate site where all questions were distributed, while all questions were designed in a way that prevents any prejudice or unethical conduct from the researcher and respondents during completion of the questionnaire.

3.8 SAMPLE PROCEDURE

The following sampling procedures were applied for the quantitative and consequent qualitative collection of data.

3.8.1 Sampling technique

The techniques used in drawing the sample could either be by probability or non-probability. De Vos *et al.* (2011:31) claim that probability sampling is based on randomisation, while non-probability sample is done without randomisation. However, for this study the researcher made the use of non-probability sampling, *Purposive sampling* was adopted to make the best representation of the entire population regarding their perceptions of the socio economic impact of skills shortage in the area. However, the researcher decided to use this sampling technique following De Vos *et al.* (2011:31) statement that this type of sample (purposive sampling) is based entirely on the judgment of the researcher; as a result, the sample is composed of elements that contain the most characteristics, representative of typical attributes of the population that best serves the purpose of the study. The target population of the study were high school teachers in the community of Khayelitsha, and the questionnaire was only handed to those that met the criteria.

3.8.2 Sample frame and sample size

According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2009: 193), sampling is the process of taking any portion of a population or universe as a representative of that population or universe. Burns and Burns (2008: 181) define sample as a proportion

drawn from the targeted population. In other words, some, but not all, elements of the population would form part of the sample.

The sample size for this research consisted of 80 educators drawn from the secondary schools in Khayelitsha, teaching subjects such as Mathematics and Science, Business Economics and Economics. The researcher decided to target educators who teach the subjects mentioned above to get their perceptions of the skills situation in Khayelitsha because the researcher considers them to be well informed regarding the problem under investigation, particularly when these are essential subjects, which are required for the critical skills lacking in the country.

The researcher decided on this size as he considered the size to be manageable taking into consideration that the collection of data took place at the time when high schools learners were writing their final exams and educators were vigilating learners. As part of the sample the educators were selected from the 18 secondary schools located in the area. From the 80 population sample, 30 were drawn from the three high schools located in Makaza area, 15 were drawn from the only secondary school in Site C and another 15 from the only secondary school in Mandalay, while the other 20 were drawn from the two existing schools in Site B.

3.9 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The procedures that were applied for both the quantitative and qualitative collection of data are described below.

3.9.1 Research data collection procedure

According to Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006:51), data is the basic material with which researchers work. And its aim is to obtain information to keep on record; to make decisions about important issues; and to pass information on to others. Furthermore, Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006:51) state that data come from observation, and can take the form of numbers (numeric or quantitative data) or narrative/language (qualitative data).

However, in this study the researcher used the quantitative method approach. The research method of a survey questionnaire was the first option used as the technique to collect data. The reason to use the survey questionnaire as a research method instead of interviews is because the researcher wanted to reach a larger population and also because the latter is considered by De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2009:167) to be time consuming, costly, perceived to be biased and, at most times, difficult to analyse.

Various issues were addressed in the questionnaire: participants were asked questions relating to skills shortages and the impact that it has on the community of Khayelitsha, its causes and origins, and the impact that it has on poverty, unemployment, crime, violence and on the social development of residents in the area. Apart from the common issues, respondents were also asked questions that are typically related to government strategies to address the problem, and the use of African foreigners as an alternative to the problem.

3.9.2 Research instrument

The data collection instruments used in this study was the survey questionnaire. This was designed before going into the field. The questionnaire was designed to enable the researcher to collect information relating the perceptions of the socio economic impact of skills shortage in the community of Khayelitsha. The needs required the design and administration of the questionnaires. Furthermore, it was important because the researcher felt that there was a need to reach a large number of participants in order to evaluate the socio economic impact of skills shortage in the area.

In order to gain the confidence of respondents and for ethical reasons, a confidential statement was made on the first page of the questionnaire. The statement unmistakably mentions that responses will strictly be used for the purpose of this research and that the identities of the respondents will remain anonymous. During the event of this study, the researcher used the questionnaire as a form of data collection. The questionnaire was distributed across selected high schools in the area of Khayelitsha, with the assistance of two university students, both of them members of the community of Khayelitsha.

3.9.2.1 Instrument Administration

The questionnaire was hand-delivered by the researcher to the targeted high schools with the assistance of two community members who were employed as research assistants. The questionnaires were administered on the spot by the researcher and a team of assistants.

Before distributing the questionnaire to participants, permission was sought from the school principals of all targeted schools, and the subsequent administration of the questionnaires was done with the assistance of the two research assistants at the different schools; this meant that the researcher had a session with the targeted teachers explaining the procedure before completing the questionnaire.

The researcher's assistants were helpful in assisting the teachers to complete the survey questionnaires. A total of 80 questionnaires were administered. However, only sixty returned, and the questionnaire was not administered in the entire Western Cape owing to the specification of the study.

3.9.2.2 Instrument validity and reliability

The questionnaires were designed and developed by the researcher, with guidance from a statistician and the approval of the researcher's supervisor. After compiling the survey items, a pilot test was conducted in one high school, where twenty (20) questionnaires were administered. According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2009:205), pilot study is one way in which the prospective researcher can orientate him/herself to the project that he/she has in mind. Pilot studies are conducted with either a sub-sample of the proposed sample or a small representative of the proposed sample. De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2009: 205) state that the purpose of conducting a pilot study is to find, guide and orientate the researcher in the completion of his research and, further, to find out if there are questions, which respondents might find difficult to understand; to rephrase certain questions in a way to make them easily understandable in a way that extract

the necessary response; to establish the acceptance of the questionnaire in use; and to establish the probability of favourable reception and return of it.

The questions in the questionnaire were semi-structured, and combined the elements of closed-ended and open-ended questions. Welman *et al.*, (2005:174) state that an open-ended question is one in which the researcher asks a question without any prompting with regards to the range of answers expected. The larger part of the questionnaire, which asked questions that provided the respondent with a selection of responses to choose from, was important because with the pilot study it was discovered that certain questions were difficult to answer as a result of language and literacy barriers.

The questionnaire allowed for a collection of perceptions from respondents and also helped to simplify the complexity in collecting subjective data. However, in order to capture the feelings of the inhabitants of Khayelitsha regarding the impact of skills shortage in the area, open-ended questions were asked at the end of the section. Stead and Struwig (2001:92) regard this as useful when further clarifications are required. However, these types of questions influence the respondent less than multiple-choice questions and allow for a considerable degree of bias.

3.10 PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED

Firstly, the researcher had difficulties financially, since no financial support was made available from any institution, hence, the availability of limited funds was a major setback to the study, resulting in constraints in reaching a larger number of respondents owing to cost implications to print the questionnaires, transportation, and compensation for the researcher administrators. Secondly, Khayelitsha, as a community, is not too familiar with research processes and regarded the exercise as having little practical value, and would not make any difference to their living conditions. Few research studies have been conducted in the community of Khayelitsha relating to the study.

Furthermore, the fact that the researcher is of foreign nationality could not be avoided, but played a significant role in the difficulty experienced in getting sufficient respondents to participate in the research; reasons for this are attributed to the recent widespread and unsettled situation of xenophobic attacks that took place in most of the country's townships. Furthermore, some residents were unwilling to complete the questionnaire because they believe that foreigners cannot solve South Africa's problems, only, South Africans can.

Many also showed unwillingness to participate because they believe that nothing will be done to change their life as much research has been conducted in the area before and change has never occurred in the area. Further residents also argued that research has been conducted in the area but they have never received any feedback.

Language barriers also had a negative impact on the actual completion and subsequent collection of the questionnaires. The time and resources available to conduct this study were not sufficient, and this has implications for recommendations for future research.

Another major setback encountered during this research was that the data collection was conducted at a time when high school students were writing their final examinations hence teachers could not make themselves available, as they were busy preparing for examinations, marking the papers and observing their students' final exams.

3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Due to the nature of the study, confidentiality of participants was considered and the researcher obtained permission to conduct this study from each individual from the communities that were identified. Further, input was voluntary and all participants were informed about the nature of the study.

3.12 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

Data was analysed in both quantitative and qualitative methods, and is explained below.

3.12.1 Quantitative analysis

To analyse the quantitative data, the researcher made use of a statistician to assist with the end results of the appropriate statistical analysis. This approach was used to determine the number of people that are perceived to be affected directly or indirectly by the impact of skills shortage. The method was also considered so that a larger number of the population could be reached and represented. The analysis was conducted with the use of the software programme, Statistical Package for Social Sciences SPSS version 19, and descriptive statistics were generated. SPSS is a resourceful package that allows for different types of analysis, data transformations, and forms of output. It also provides for greater security and efficiency in the processes and gives a higher quality of results. According to De Vos *et al.* (2011: 251), descriptive statistics are procedures that describe numerical data, since they assist in organising, summarising and interpreting sample data.

3.12.2 Qualitative analysis

To analyse the qualitative data, the researcher made use of content analysis to analyse data, which was obtained from open-ended questions. This approach was used to enable the researcher to explore, identify evidences, opinions, perceptions and the effects of skills shortage on residents who live in Khayelitsha. Content analysis is outlined by De Vos *et al.* (2011:380) as the method of transforming the symbolic content of a document such as words or other images from a qualitative, unsystematic form into a quantitative, systematic form. The findings from the questionnaire were later summarised and themes were identified.

3.13 RESEARCH LOCATION

The location for this research was the area of Khayelitsha, which is situated within Cape Town in the Western Cape Province, while the high school teachers that were

targeted are located in schools in areas such as Makhaza, Site C, Mandalay and Site B.

3.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

A thorough study of all research methods was conducted and this concludes Chapter Three, which dealt with the empirical study in order to achieve the objectives of this study. The next chapter presents an in-depth analysis and discussion of the results and findings of the research.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Four provides an analysis regarding the kind of study conducted during this research. In order to obtain the results desired for this research a set of survey questionnaires and other documents were re-assessed. This chapter also provides information on how the data was collected, interpreted, processed, and analysed. Therefore, the evidence was analysed and interpreted in relation to the key objectives, which was to investigate perceptions of the socio economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha. Data was analysed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) method. The chapter further delineates an analysis of the variables that were investigated.

4.2 CODING AND PRESENTATION OF DATA

A total of 80 questionnaires were distributed across different high schools within the area of Khayelitsha, but only 60 were returned. The information in these questionnaires was later captured in the form of statistics. The researcher used the SPSS programme to analyse data and reduce the bulk of raw data into workable, ordered information. SPSS was chosen because of its popularity in both academic and business circles. According to Chinedu and Wilson (2009:17), SPSS is a resourceful package that allows different types of analysis, data transformations, and forms of output. It provides greater security and efficiency in the processes and gives higher quality of results. It also provides sample management features and streamlines multi-modal data collection, as well as the storage, coding, analysis and presentation of data. Descriptive statistics and content analyses were the two techniques, which were employed to analyse the data. These descriptive statistical and content analysis methods were used to systematize data into simpler ways and to emphasise features, which were most relevant to this research study. The data was represented in different categories, numerically, as outlined below.

Under the gender and employment categories data was presented as `1` for Male and `2` for Female ,and `1` presenting Full time job and `2` for Part- time job as the table indicates below.

Code

Male	1
Female	2

Code

Full time (permanent)	1
Part time (temporary)	2

In the age category data was presented in the manner in which the table indicates below.

Code

Under 21	1
21-30	2
31-40	3
41-50	4
51-60	5
61- over	6

Under the race category data was presented in the following sequence order:

Code

Black	1
White	2
Coloured	3
Indian/Asian	4

When it came to the level of education, data was displayed in the following manner:

Code

Primary (grades 1-7)	1
High school (grade 8 -12)	2
Vocational profession	3
Diploma	4
Degree	5
Master's Degree	6
Doctoral Degree	7
Others	8

However, the Likert scale was used in the table below to describe the core research items such as the example below.

Code

Strongly agree	1
Agree	2
Unsure	3
Disagree	4
Strongly disagree	5

Questions numbering in sequential order Q.8, Q.9, Q.10, Q.12, Q, 14, Q.15, and Q.16 were presented in as `1` for Yes, `2` for No and `3` for I do not know, as portrayed in the table below.

1	2	3
Yes	No	I do not know

Meanwhile, questions Q.11 and Q.13 were presented in the questionnaire as the tables below display.

1	2	3
Low	Moderate	High

1	2	3
High	Low	I do not know

The researcher also made use of open ended questions to identify more descriptive perceptions of skills shortage amongst respondents. However, the relevant questions are Q. 6 and Q.18.

4.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions were considered while drafting the questions for respondents. The research questions are as follows:

What is the impact of skills shortage in Khayelitsha? Is it reflective of the general population of the Western Cape and/or Cape Town?

The following were sub-questions derived from the above:

- What are the causes of skills shortage in Khayelitsha?
- What is the perceived economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha?

- What is the perceived social impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha?
- What strategies can be implemented by government and all other stakeholders to improve the situation?

Various issues were addressed in the questionnaire; participants were asked questions relating to skills shortages and the impact that it has on the community of Khayelitsha, its causes, origins and the impact that it has on poverty, unemployment, crime, violence and on the social development of residents in the area. Apart from the common issues, respondents were also asked questions typically relating to government strategies to address the problem, and the use of African foreigners as an alternative to the problem. The questions were divided into sections (see appendices A). Section A dealt with biographic information, while section B dealt with a survey on skills shortage in Khayelitsha. In order for the researcher to arrive at this, questions were drawn from the research's main questions and sub questions as well as from the research objectives.

4.4 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

To analyse the data, the researcher made use of two data analysis techniques, namely content analysis and descriptive statistics. Both were used to the advantage of the study, to provide a clear understanding of the findings and feelings of those who have been affected by the impact of skills shortage. Section A of the questionnaire, which is the demographic data, was collected to identify the number of respondents, gender, age, race, qualifications, and whether they were full time or part-time employees. Section B was designed so that the researcher could tackle perceptions of the socio economic impact of skills shortage at the research area, by considering the views, expressions, and perceptions of each respondent. The following presents the results of the questionnaire with regard to demographic data.

4.4.1 Demographic representation of the participants

4.1: Gender representation of respondents

		Gender			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	19	31.7	31.7	31.7
	Female	41	68.3	68.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

The gender of respondents was taken into account to know the different genders that participated in the research. The above table shows that 31.7% of participants are males, while 68.3% of respondent are females. However, this shows that female respondents were more than their male counterparts, giving us the perception that there are more female educators in the targeted population in the area where the research was conducted.

Table 4.2: Age representation of respondents

		Age category			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	21-30	12	20.0	20.7	20.7
	31-40	24	40.0	41.4	62.1
	41-50	12	20.0	20.7	82.8
	51-60	10	16.7	17.2	100.0
	Total	58	96.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	3.3		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

The reason for this information was to determine the ages of respondents. And the table above shows that 20.7% of respondents were between the ages of 21-30; 41.4% were between the ages of 21-40; 20.7% were between the ages of 41-50; 17.2% were between the ages of 51-60 and 3.3% of respondents refused to divulge their age. Thus, most of respondents were between the ages of 21-40 since this range has the highest frequency and percentage in the table.

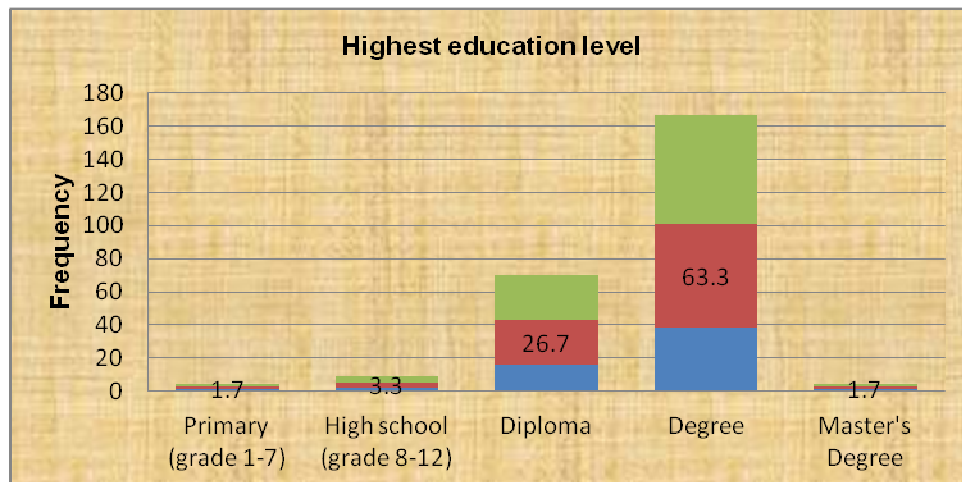
Table 4.3: Race representation of respondents

		Race			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Black	59	98.3	98.3	98.3
	Coloured	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

The essence of checking the different races was to establish perceptions of the socio economic impact of skills shortage along racial lines taking into account that it was not been long that South Africa came out from the Apartheid system. The above table shows that from a total of 60 participants, 98.3% are Blacks, outweighing the number of Coloureds at 1.7%, while there were no whites in the target population.

Figure 4.1: Representation of education level of respondents



Education levels were taken into account given the fact that all respondents were high school teachers, and their educational level would help the research in terms of providing useful information regarding the status of skills shortage in the area, its impact and positive recommendations. It is illustrated in the above graph and the table below that most respondents have completed their degree studies. A total of 27.6% of respondents have a Diploma and 65.5% have completed Degree studies, while 1.7% of respondents has a Masters Degree as the highest qualification obtained.

Table 4.4: Presentation of education level of respondents

		Highest education level			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Primary (grade 1-7)	1	1.7	1.7	1.7
	High school (grade 8-12)	2	3.3	3.4	5.2
	Diploma	16	26.7	27.6	32.8
	Degree	38	63.3	65.5	98.3
	Master's Degree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	58	96.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	3.3		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

The table further illustrates that of these respondents, 1.7% has primary school qualification 1-7, and 3.4% possess Grade 8 to Grade 12. Although many of the participants possess Diploma or Degrees, the figures in the table somehow support the argument by Brier and Erasmus (2009:1) who argue that South Africa has a dysfunctional educational system. However, this is suggested as a result of the figures in Table 4.4, where 5.1% of teachers possess less than a Diploma, yet find themselves teaching in high schools.

Table 4.5: Representation of employment of respondents

		Employment			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Full time	51	85.0	86.4	86.4
	Part time	8	13.3	13.6	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

Employment type was noted, among others, to determine the different types of employment that are held in the education sector, and to know the employment type

of respondents as well. However, the above table indicates that 86.4% of respondents were full-time employees, and 13.6% were part-time employees

Table 4.6: Representing the cause for skills shortage

Skills shortage in my area is a result of a lack of education.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	30	50.0	51.7	51.7
	Agree	16	26.7	27.6	79.3
	Unsure	5	8.3	8.6	87.9
	Disagree	6	10.0	10.3	98.3
	Strongly Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	58	96.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	3.3		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

Results in the table above reveal that from a total of 60 respondents, 51.7% strongly agreed that skills shortage in Khayelitsha is a result of a lack of education, and 27.6% agreed with the same statement, which totals 79.3% (51.7% plus 27.6%). Conversely, 8.6% were unsure and 10.3% said that they disagreed, while 1.7% strongly disagreed. A total of 3.3% of respondents did not comment. The results that were obtained give an indication that Richardson (2007:8) and JipSA's (2007:2) arguments should be considered.

Table 4.7: Representing the cause for skills shortage

Skills shortage can be ascribed to a lack of resources in schools as a result of unequal education prior to 1994.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	20	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Agree	23	38.3	38.3	71.7
	Unsure	11	18.3	18.3	90.0
	Disagree	5	8.3	8.3	98.3
	Strongly Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

The underlying principle for this question was to determine whether a lack of resources in schools was the reason for skills shortage in Khayelitsha. The study shows that of the 60 respondents, 33.3% strongly agreed that skills shortage is caused by a lack of resources in schools and 38.3 agreed, which totals 71.6% (33.3% plus 38.3%). However, a total of 18.3% were unsure and 8.3% disagreed while 1.7% strongly disagreed. The figures illustrated in the table support the finding in the literature, which was reviewed where Brier and Erasmus (2009:1) which blamed a lack of resources in schools as a contributing factor to skills shortage in the area.

Table 4.8: Representing the cause for skills shortage

Skills shortage in my neighbourhood is a result of the HIV/ Aids pandemic throughout the country.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	2	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Agree	25	41.7	41.7	45.0
	Unsure	13	21.7	21.7	66.7
	Disagree	14	23.3	23.3	90.0
	Strongly Disagree	6	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

The table above illustrates that of the 60 respondents, 3.3% strongly believed that HIV/Aids is the cause of skills shortage in Khayelitsha, and 41.7% agreed, which totals 45% (3.3% plus 41.7%). However, 21.7% were unsure and 23.3% disagreed, while 10.0% strongly disagreed with the statement. The figures above are straight forward. A majority of respondents agreed that HIV/Aids has an impact regarding skills shortage in the area and the researcher's findings correspond with the literature that was reviewed.

Table 4.9: Representing the cause for skills shortage

Skills shortage in South Africa is owing to the migration of South African skilled professionals to other parts of the world.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	6	10.0	10.2	10.2
	Agree	26	43.3	44.1	54.2
	Unsure	16	26.7	27.1	81.4
	Disagree	9	15.0	15.3	96.6
	Strongly Disagree	2	3.3	3.4	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

The primary reason of this statement was to determine whether the migration of skilled South Africans to other parts of the world had an impact on the country's skills shortage. Of the 60 respondents 10.2% strongly agreed with the statement, and 44.1% of respondent agreed, which totals 54.3% (10.2% plus 44.1%). However, 27.1% were unsure and 15.3% disagreed, while 3.3% strongly disagreed with the statement. A total of 1.7% respondents did not comment. However, the data illustrated in the table shows that a majority of respondents support the argument that the migration of skilled South Africans to other parts of the world contributes to skills shortage in the country, which was seen from the literature, that was reviewed, where different authors Alam and Hoque (2010:535); Crush and McDonald (2002:1) and Fourier (2006:44-45) also supported the recent findings.

Table 4.10: Representing the cause for skills shortage

Skills shortage exists in my area as a result of the learning structure that should still overcome decades of neglect and dysfunction under Apartheid.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	15	25.0	25.4	25.4
	Agree	31	51.7	52.5	78.0
	Unsure	9	15.0	15.3	93.2
	Disagree	4	6.7	6.8	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

The results of the above table illustrate the causes for skills shortage in Khayelitsha. Of the 60 respondents, 25.4% strongly agreed that skills shortage exists as a result of learning structures that should recover from decades of neglect and dysfunction under the Apartheid regime, and 52.5% agreed, which totals 77.9 (25.4% plus 52.5%). Conversely, 15.3% were unsure, 6.8% disagreed while 1.7% did not respond.

Table 4.11: Representing the effects of lack of skills on economic status of people

Does the lack of skills affect the economic status of people in your area?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	48	80.0	81.4	81.4
	No	2	3.3	3.4	84.7
	I do not know	9	15.0	15.3	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

The statement in the above table was to understand whether the lack of skills affect the economic status of residents of Khayelitsha. And the table above demonstrates that of the 60 respondents, 81.4% said yes and 3.4% said no, while the remaining 15.3% did not know whether the lack of skills affected the economic status of people

in the area. The findings give us an indication that a majority of respondents (81.4%) perceive a lack of skills as a phenomenon, which affects the economic status of the target population.

Table 4.12: Representing the effects of skills shortage on poverty.

Please indicate whether skills shortage contributes to poverty in your area.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	52	86.7	86.7	86.7
	No	1	1.7	1.7	88.3
	I do not Know	7	11.7	11.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

From a total of 60 respondents, when asked whether skills shortage contributes to poverty in the area, 86.7% said that it does and 1.7 said that it does not. Conversely, a total of 11.7% did not know whether skills shortage contributes or to poverty in the area or not.

Table 4.13: Representing the effects of skills shortage to service delivery.

Skills shortage worsens the quality of service in my community.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	30	50.0	50.8	50.8
	Agree	22	36.7	37.3	88.1
	Unsure	6	10.0	10.2	98.3
	Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
	Total	60	100.0		

(n=60)

The reason for this statement was to determine whether skills shortage affects service delivery and worsens the quality of service in the community. The finding illustrated in the table above reveals that of the 60 respondents, 50.8% of respondents strongly agreed that skills shortage affects and worsens the quality of service in the area, and 37.3% agreed, which totals 88.1 (50.8% plus 37.3%). Conversely, 10.2% were unsure and 1.7% disagreed. However, the finding in the

table gives us a perception that a majority of respondents perceive skills shortage as having major implications for service delivery and quality of service in the area. The findings can be supported from the literature review, since CDE (2007: 11), argues that skills shortage in South Africa is felt in many different ways, including the anger of township residents who live in unsanitary conditions due to a lack of engineers from the municipality to do the job.

Table 4.14: Representing the effects of skills shortage on crime

Skills shortage contributes to crime in my community.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	38	63.3	64.4	64.4
	Agree	17	28.3	28.8	93.2
	Unsure	3	5.0	5.1	98.3
	Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

One of the objectives of this research was to establish the social impacts of skills shortage. The above table indicates that of the 60 respondents, 64.4% strongly agreed that, socially, skills shortage contributes to crime in the community and 28.8% agreed, which totals 93.2% (64.4% plus 28.8%). However, a total of 5.1% were unsure while 1.7% disagreed. The table above shows that a majority of respondents perceive the absence of skills amongst the target population as a major impact on crime.

Table 4.15: Representing the effects of skills shortage on violence

Skills shortage contributes to violence in my community.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	35	58.3	58.3	58.3
	Agree	19	31.7	31.7	90.0
	Unsure	5	8.3	8.3	98.3
	Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

When asked whether skills shortage contributes to violence in the community, respondents' perception was in the affirmative. Out of 60 respondents, 58.3% strongly agreed that skills shortage contributes to violence in the area, and 31.7% agreed, which totals 90% (58.3% plus 31.7%). However, 8.3% of respondents were unsure and 1.7 % disagreed with the statement.

Table 4.16: Representing the effects of skills shortage on unemployment

Does the shortage of skills contribute to unemployment in your area?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	52	86.7	86.7	86.7
	I do not know	8	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

With regard to the statement above, a total of 86.7% agreed that the shortage of skills contribute to unemployment the area, and 13.3% disagreed with the statement. However, the finding in the table is supported by different authors in the literature that was reviewed. Rasool and Botha (2011:1); CDE (2010:9) and Richardson (2007:8) argue that, a lack of skills limits economic growth and contributes to high levels of unemployment.

Table 4.17: Representing the effects of skills shortage on the economic growth.

Skills shortage slows down economic growth.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	34	56.7	57.6	57.6
	Agree	20	33.3	33.9	91.5
	Unsure	5	8.3	8.5	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

In terms of skills shortage slowing down economic growth, the data in Table 4.17 indicates that 57.6% strongly agreed that skills shortage slows down economic growth and 33.9% agreed, which totals 91.5% (57.6% plus 33.9%). However, 8.5% of respondents were unsure and 1.7% did not respond to the statement.

Table 4.18: Representing the effects of skills shortage on the creation of jobs

Skills shortage limits the creation of jobs.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	36	60.0	60.0	60.0
	Agree	19	31.7	31.7	91.7
	Unsure	5	8.3	8.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

Skills shortage is often regarded as a phenomenon that limits the creation of jobs in South Africa. However, the data in Table 4.18 shows that of the 60 respondents, 91.7% (60% plus 31.7%) of respondents agreed that skills shortage limits the creation of jobs, while 8.3% were unsure. The findings in the table clearly indicate that a majority of respondents of the target population perceive skills shortage as a constraint of job creation.

Table 4.19: Representing the effects skills shortage on unemployment

Does the shortage of skills contribute to unemployment in your area?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	52	86.7	86.7	86.7
	I do not know	8	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

When asked about whether skills shortage contributes to unemployment in the area, mixed responses were drawn from respondents. The data in Table 19 indicates that of the 60 respondents, 86.7% of respondents agreed, that to that while 13.3% did not know. However, the result illustrated in the table indicates that a majority of respondents perceive skills shortage as a driving force, which contributing to unemployment in the area.

Table 4.20: Representing government measures to address skills shortage

Government should build more training centres to address critical skills that exist in the country.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	42	70.0	73.7	73.7
	Agree	15	25.0	26.3	100.0
	Total	57	95.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	5.0		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

In relation to government having to build more training centres to address the critical skills that exist in the country, the data in the table above indicates that of the 60 participants, a total of 100% respondents agreed that the building of more training centres is the best practical way to address the shortage of critical skills existing in the country. However, the finding is a straightforward one, which needs no further explanation.

Table 4.21: Representing government measures to address skills shortage

There should be an inter-link between private, public and academic institutions.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	37	61.7	62.7	62.7
	Agree	19	31.7	32.2	94.9
	Unsure	3	5.0	5.1	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

When asked whether there should be an inter-link between all parties, namely private, public and academic institutions to look at ways of tackling skills shortage, results in the table above shows that of the 60 respondents, 62.7% strongly agreed to that and 32.2% agreed, which totals 94.9% (62.7% plus 32.2%). However, a total of 5.1% were unsure and 1.7% decided not to respond to the statement. The findings in the table also give us an indication that respondents support the call for government to engage with different institutions to find solutions to skills shortage.

Table 4.22: Representing government measures to address skills shortage

Government should upgrade the education system of the country.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	37	61.7	62.7	62.7
	Agree	21	35.0	35.6	98.3
	Unsure	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

In order to best address skills shortages in the country respondents believe that upgrading the country's educational system is a starting point to a long term solution. This is seen in the table above, where of the 60 respondents, 98.3% (62.7% plus 35.6%) agreed that government should upgrade the education system, and only one respondent was unsure. The finding illustrated in the table is also supported by Brier

and Erasmus (2009:1) who blame skills shortage on the schooling structure, which is still struggling to overcome decades of neglect and dysfunction under Apartheid when the education of Black people was of a poor quality.

Table 4.23: Representing government measures to address skills shortage

Government should train more Maths and Science teachers to teach critical subjects.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	43	71.7	72.9	72.9
	Agree	14	23.3	23.7	96.6
	Unsure	1	1.7	1.7	98.3
	Strongly disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

Concerning the training of Mathematics and Science teachers to teach critical skills, the results in the table above indicates that of the 60 respondents, 96.6% (71.7% plus 23.7%) perceive it as a prominent issue, which should be seriously in considered while 1.7% was unsure. However, 1.7% strongly disagreed and 1.7% refused to comment. From the results above one can see that respondents regard it important to train more qualified Mathematics and Science teachers, especially if the country is intends to invest more in programme such as engineering, medicine and accounting.

Table 4.24: Representing government measures to address skills shortage

Government should talk about skills shortage more often on television channels and radio programmes.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	36	60.0	61.0	61.0
	Agree	22	36.7	37.3	98.3
	Unsure	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

Results in the table above reveals that of the 60 respondents, 98.3% (61% plus 37.3%) of respondents agreed that government should talk about skills shortage more often on television channels and radio programmes. However, 1.7% of respondents were unsure, while another 1.7% refused to comment. Respondents believe that government should make citizens aware of the problems by various means so that it becomes a national preoccupation.

Table 4. 25: Representing government measures to address skills shortage

Government should welcome the use of skilled foreign immigrants in the country who seek jobs in critical skills occupations.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	16	26.7	27.1	27.1
	Agree	19	31.7	32.2	59.3
	Unsure	15	25.0	25.4	84.7
	Disagree	6	10.0	10.2	94.9
	Strongly Disagree	3	5.0	5.1	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

Mixed views were seen amongst respondents when asked whether skilled foreigners should be used to occupy positions in critical skills, since South Africans lack these skills. The illustrations from the table above is that of the 60 respondents, 26.7% strongly agreed that skilled foreigners should be used to occupy such positions and

32.2% agreed which totals 59.3% (26.7% plus 32.2%). Conversely, 25.4% were unsure and 15.3% disagreed (10.2% plus 5.1%), while 1.7% did not comment.

4.5 ANALYSING THE QUALITATIVE PART OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE USING CONTENT ANALYSIS

4.5.1 EMERGING THEMES AND TRENDS

Themes 1

Respondents' perceptions of skills shortage in the area

When asked their perceptions of skills shortage in Khayelitsha, a majority of them said they perceive skills shortage as a prevalent issue. And they attribute it to a lack of education, high levels of illiteracy amongst residents, a lack of investment and scarcity of training institutions in the area to equip residents with necessary skills to contribute to economic development of the area.

Another interesting comment that emerged from respondents is that they are of the perception that skills shortage hinders members of the community from participating fully in the economic advancement of their area, thus creating a negative impact on their lives, which does not make the area and the residents economically viable. Furthermore, respondents view skills shortage as a contributing factor to high levels of unemployment in the area, since community members are unskilled, particularly the youth, as it deprives them from getting suitable jobs and thinking constructively, hence resorting to crime and violence, since there is little to do.

Interpretation

The results from this statement or theme advocate that skills shortage is a serious issue in the area and that government should not take this issue lightly, but rather it should focus on creating more training institutions and invest more in education before this phenomenon sinks the area. The study also suggests that the country needs a pool of skilled workforce to facilitate economic growth, and better living standards within the community. The results are also in relation to various authors

that were cited in the literature review of the study. CDE (2010:9) and Rasool and Botha (2011:1) have long argued that skills shortage is a national crisis, which causes major constraints on economic growth and unemployment in the country.

Theme 2

The effect of a lack of skills on the economic status of people in the area

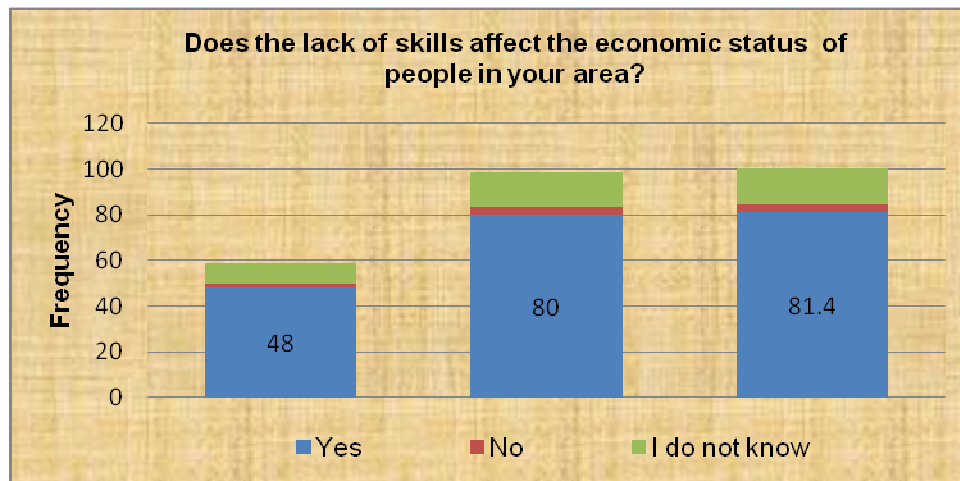
Table 4. 26: Representing effects of lack of skills on the economic status of people

Does the lack of skills affect the economic status of people in your area?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	48	80.0	81.4	81.4
	No	2	3.3	3.4	84.7
	I do not know	9	15.0	15.3	100.0
	Total	59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

The responses emerging from respondents regarding this statement give us the perception that a majority of respondents perceive lack of skills as major constraints on an individual's economic status, simply because it makes it difficult for unskilled people to find jobs. In addition, respondents believe that there is no way that the economy will grow without jobs being created and sustained. Therefore, a lack of skills does not only affect the economic status of individuals, but it also contributes negatively to high levels of unemployment and poverty. Most respondents believe that a lack of skills decrease chances of employment and raises levels of poverty. The same statement was used as a question in quantitative format and resulted in the following answer: Of the 60 participants, a majority of respondents (81.4%) believed that a lack of skills affect the economic status of the residents of Khayelitsha, and 3.4% did not believe this, while the remaining 15.3% did not know whether this has an impact on the economic status of people in the area.

Figure 4.2: Representing effects of a lack of skills on the economic status of people



Interpretation

The responses of this statement are easy to follow because both results in qualitative and quantitative structures correlate. Result shows that respondents came out strongly with a dominating statement that of lack of skills affect the economic status of an individual in the area negatively, contributing to high levels of unemployment and poverty. However, the end result is also in relation with the literature review, where different authors, namely CDE (2010:9); Richardson (2007:8); and Rasool and Botha (2011:1) support the findings that a lack of skills limits the country's economic growth and contributes to high levels of unemployment, poverty and, above all, prevents the country from being competitive in the global market. The results also prove that a lack of skills limits individuals from acquiring or entering the job market, and prevents them from having a source of income, resulting in economic difficulty, which is a major contributing factor of poverty.

Theme 3

The effect of a lack of skills on unemployment in the area

Table 4.27: Representing the effects of a lack of skills on unemployment

Does the shortage of skills contribute to unemployment in your area?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	52	86.7	86.7	86.7
	I do not know	8	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

A majority of respondents referred back to Table 26 when commenting on the effect of a lack of skills on unemployment in the area. A majority of respondents perceive a lack of skills as a contributing factor to high levels of unemployment in the area, given the fact that if one possesses no skills or no education, then they are unlikely to be hired or find jobs in the labour market. The same statement was also used as a question in quantitative form and resulted in the following answer: Of the 60 participants a majority of respondents (86.7%) believe that a lack of skills have a negative effect on unemployment on the residents of Khayelitsha, while 13.3% did not know whether this has an impact on unemployment in the area.

However, an interesting view emerged from respondents. Respondents believe that companies also contribute to lack of skills in the area to some extent, given the fact that some people are graduates or have attended university, but cannot find jobs in the corporate world, because they have no work experience, and in order to get experience, they need to be employed. But companies make it difficult for these people by already asking for years of experience, and if one does not have years of experience, is not given an opportunity, individuals remain jobless with their degrees because companies only hire people with experience.

Figure 4.3: Representing the effects of a lack of skills on unemployment



Interpretation

According to the respondents, it is clear that a lack of skills contributes highly to a rise in unemployment in the area. This can be seen from responses in both Table 26 and Table 27, where respondents strongly agreed that a lack of skills contribute negatively to both economic status and unemployment in the area. Once again this receives the support of the literature review, where different authors, namely CDE (2010:9); Richardson (2007:8); and Rasool and Botha (2011:1) argue that a lack of skills limits the country’s economic growth and contributes to high levels of unemployment, poverty and, above all, prevents the country from being competitive in the global market.

Theme 4

The effect of skills shortage to poverty in your area

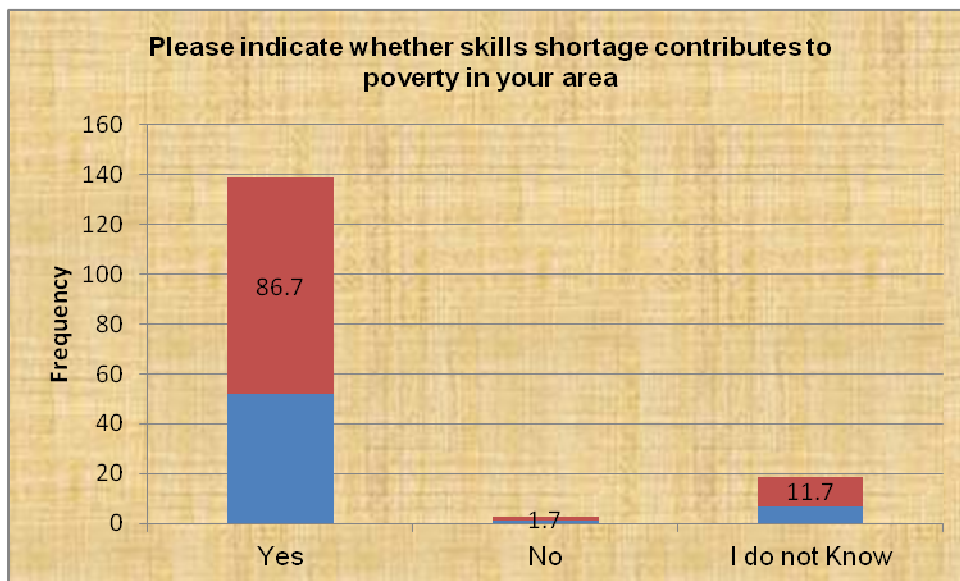
Table 4.28: Representing the effects of a lack of skills on poverty

Please indicate whether skills shortage contributes to poverty in your area.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	52	86.7	86.7	86.7
	No	1	1.7	1.7	88.3
	I do not Know	7	11.7	11.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

From the qualitative responses, of the 60 respondents only four (4) respondents responded, while a majority chose not to respond to this statement. From those that did respond, all believe that skills shortage contributes to poverty in the area to a certain extent. The same statement received the support of the quantitative question, where of the 60 respondents, 86.7% agreed that skills shortage contributes to poverty in the area and 1.7% disagreed. Conversely, a total of 11.7% did not know whether skills shortage contributes to poverty in the area or not.

Figure 4.4: Representing the effects of a lack of skills on poverty



Interpretation

Responses from respondents and the illustration in the Table 28 show that a majority of respondents believe that a lack of skills or skills shortages has negative implications on the lives of residents in Khayelitsha. It is clear that skills shortage increases levels of poverty on residents by preventing them from acquiring jobs or from being hired in companies to sustain themselves economically, whilst impeding them from having to perform activities that would allow them self sustenance such as entrepreneurial activities.

Theme 5

Respondents' perception of poverty in Khayelitsha

Table 4. 29: Representing respondents' perceptions of poverty

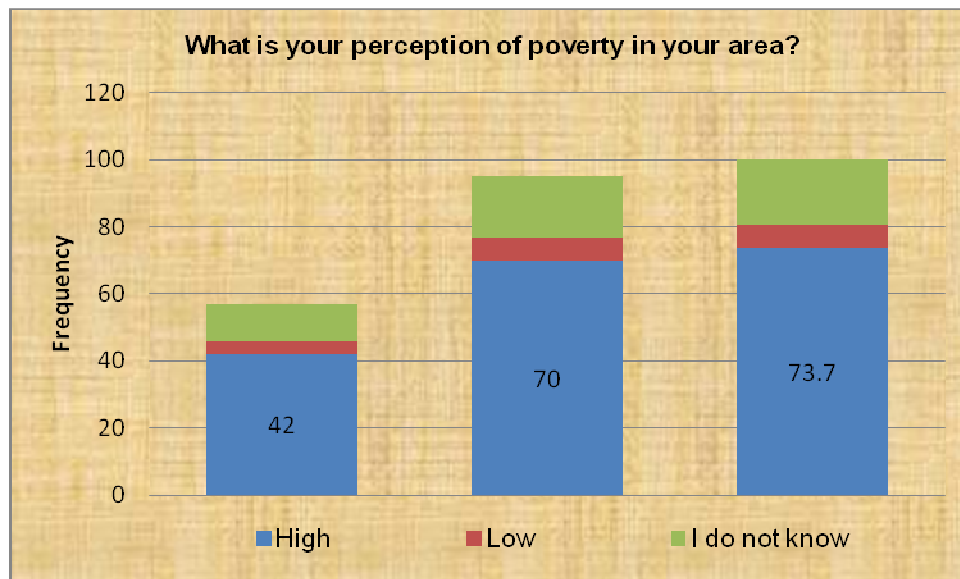
What is your perception of poverty in your area?					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High	42	70.0	73.7	73.7
	Low	4	6.7	7.0	80.7
	I do not know	11	18.3	19.3	100.0
	Total	57	95.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	5.0		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

In relation to the theme concerning respondents' perceptions of poverty in the area, a majority said it was extremely high. One respondent stated that poverty in Khayelitsha is characterised by the number of shacks and RDP houses present in the area. A majority of respondents also believed that poverty and unemployment go hand in hand in this community, hence one cannot exclude one from the other, because this is what causes residents to keep living in shacks and unable to afford basic services. The results of the theme in the qualitative study are in accordance with the quantitative findings. Of the 60 participants, 73.7% respondents believe that poverty in Khayelitsha is widespread, and 7% see it as being low, while 19.3% do not know whether poverty in Khayelitsha is high or low. However, a total of 5% of respondents refused to comment.

A subject of concern is that according to respondents, as a result of poverty and unemployment, which cannot be separated, issues such as a high birth rate, high levels of crime, robbery, violence, alcoholism and prostitution, are prevalent in the area. One respondent also said that, socially, HIV/aids is an issue of concern because young girls are forced into prostitution to become the bread winner of the house to support family members who have no means of income; many depend on government grants and welfare.

Figure 4.5: Representing respondents' perception of poverty



Interpretation

Respondents' responses clearly indicate that poverty is widespread, and is a major concern in Khayelitsha. Causes of poverty are ascribed to a lack of skills and education. Based on respondents' responses to this issue, it must be taken seriously before it deteriorates the lives of residents in Khayelitsha. Support taken from the literature review, comes from Koep *et al.* (2010: 4) who strongly agree that skills shortage builds social ills, particularly in townships and squatter camps, and contributes to high levels of unemployment, poverty and disperses families. Moser (1999:1) also asserts that poverty and inequality are the two main social problems brought about by skills shortage in the country, along with an alarming increase in unemployment among the youth, crime and violence in society.

Theme 6

The effects of a lack of skills on violence in the area

Table 4.30: Representing the effects of a lack of skills on violence

Skills shortage contributes to violence in my community.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	35	58.3	58.3	58.3
	Agree	19	31.7	31.7	90.0
	Unsure	5	8.3	8.3	98.3
	Disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

(n=60)

Much like a lack of skills contributes to crime, a majority of respondents also perceive the same regarding to violence. Respondents believe that a lack of skills is a major contributor to violent behavioural activities within the community of Khayelitsha. Respondents believe that when people have no skills, chances are that they will not be employed. Thus, leaving them with nothing to do and no source of income may result in them resorting to other activities to survive.

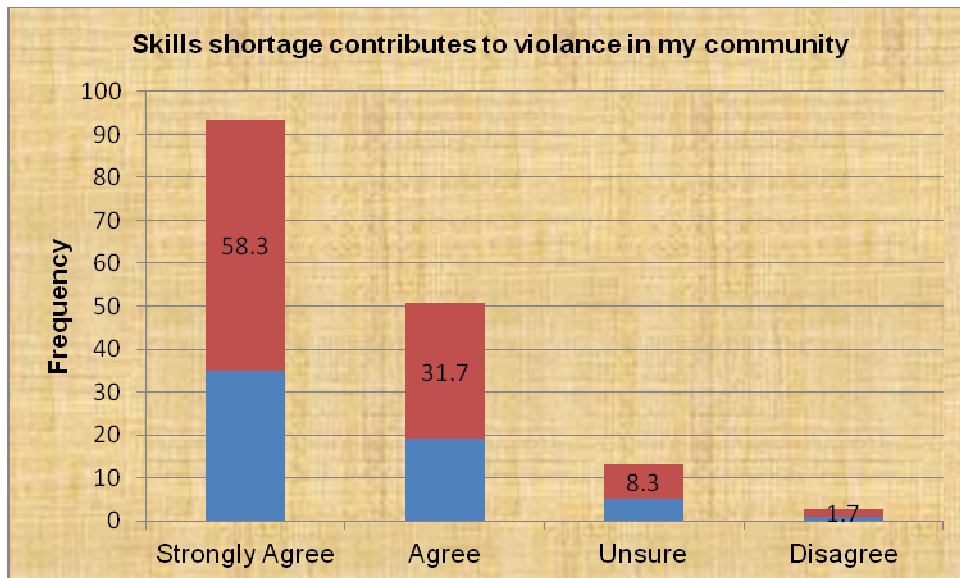
One respondent said the following: *“As I am filling this questionnaire, three of our learners will not be able to write their final exam because they are lying down in hospital stabbed by gangsters”*. This act is a reflection and awareness of the high rate of crime and violence that the area faces.

Another respondent believes that the absence of skills leads to unemployment, and unemployment leads to poverty, subsequently crime and violence and other bad behaviour is born within an individual who resides in the community. Another stated: *“Lack of skills lead to high rate of unemployment, which leads to poverty and high rate of crime, drug abuse, house breaking, hijackings and violence i.e. out of psychological effects of poverty, some people may develop violent behaviour”*.

The same results were found in the quantitative question, where 90% (58.3% plus 31.7%) of respondents believe that skills shortage contributes to violence in the

community, while a minority of 8.3% respondents were unsure and 1.7% disagreed with the statement.

Figure 4.6: Representing the effects of lack of skills to violence



Interpretation

The result of the theme clearly indicates how people view and perceive the effects of a lack of skills. Skills shortage negatively affects the lives of residents and the area, in particular. However, respondents' perceptions are caused by the results emanating from the results indicated above from the qualitative review as well as from Table 4.26.

Theme 7

The utilization of African foreign skills in the absence of local ones

Table 4.31: Representing government measures to skills shortage

Government should welcome the use of skilled foreign immigrants in the country who seek jobs in critical skills occupations.					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	16	26.7	27.1	27.1
	Agree	19	31.7	32.2	59.3
	Unsure	15	25.0	25.4	84.7
	Disagree	6	10.0	10.2	94.9
	Strongly Disagree	3	5.0	5.1	100.0
Total		59	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.7		
Total		60	100.0		

(n=60)

Results obtained from the utilization of African foreign skills in the absence of local ones are a mixed one, although a majority of respondents believe that foreigners should be used in the absence of local ones. A majority of respondents agreed that foreigners should be used as a temporary alternative, whilst government embarks on training programmes to equip South Africans with skills that are needed to boost the economy of the country. One respondent said: *“Skills shortage is not something that can be fixed over-night, therefore, foreigners can be used while government is mapping the way to equip our own people”*.

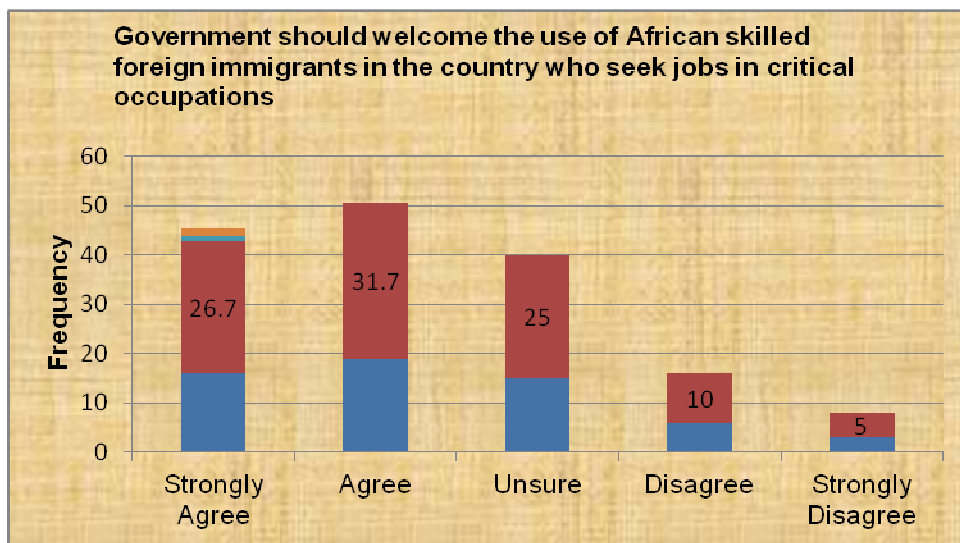
However, others stated that since many African immigrants are more skilled, educated and experienced than fellow South African citizens, they should be given a chance to use their skills for the benefit of the country, provided that there are no South African who have the same skills.

Conversely, some respondents believe that government should not in any way use this approach because by so doing, the country will always face the same problem. According to these respondents, the right approach should be to educate and train people without skills on-the-job. These respondents also believe that employing

foreigners instead of locals will always lead to conflict and xenophobic attacks. Apart from this, people will feel that their own government has neglected them.

The same views were seen in the quantitative question. The illustrations from Table 4.30 above are that of the 60 respondents, 59.3% (26.7% plus 32.2%) agreed that skilled foreigner immigrants should be used to occupy critical skills occupations. However, 25.4% were unsure and 15.3% disagreed (10.2% plus 5.1%), while 1.7% did not comment on the statement

Figure 4.7: Representing government measures to skills shortage



Interpretation

The end results obtained from both the qualitative and quantitative questions indicate that respondents have different views and perceptions regarding the use of African foreign skills. Yet, a majority of both the qualitative and quantitative question agree to the use of foreigners as a short-term solution to the country’s skills shortage, while government prepares its own skilled citizens to take over once they are capable of doing so.

However, results indicate that if South Africa follows this approach it could be beneficial to the country, because like in other parts of the world, if well utilised, this force can play a significant role in the South African economy and its human development. In fact, Murray (1995:374) points out that South Africa has always

benefited from African foreign skills. Many southern African countries' immigrants were always welcomed and attracted to work in the mining and agriculture sectors in South Africa and it never seemed to be a problem. Many of these foreign skilled immigrants have also contributed meaningfully to the advancement of the economic growth of South Africa through their entrepreneurial skills and hard work.

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter attempted to analyse data that was collected by outlining perceptions of respondents concerning issues related to socio economic impacts of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha. The data was processed and analysed to enable the researcher to answer both the questionnaire items and the research questions. It concludes with an interpretation and articulation of the research findings. This is followed by Chapter Five, the final chapter, which summarizes the research discussion, recommendations and concluding remarks.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings and brings them in line with the aim of the study and offers different views that are related to current literature and findings on the topic. It also sets out recommendations and conclusions and clarifies issues highlighted in the problem statement, research questions and research objectives. Furthermore, it interprets information, which was obtained from the survey questionnaire and semi-structured open-ended questionnaire questions. The reasons for skills shortage and its perceived social and economic impacts are interpreted, while strategies that could help to ameliorate skills shortage are discussed.

In order to answer the main research question, the following sub-questions were investigated:

- What are the causes of skills shortage in Khayelitsha?
- What is the perceived economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha?
- What is the perceived social impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha?
- What strategies can be implemented by government and all other stakeholders to improve the situation?

Due to the mixed methods approach of data collection and analysis, the discussion presents both quantitative and qualitative findings for these objectives. This allowed for a clear and unmistakable understanding of the discussion and findings for each construct.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Results obtained from both the literature review and the survey questionnaire indicated that skills shortage in Khayelitsha is perceived to be the result of a lack of education; high levels of illiteracy amongst residents; migration of skilled professionals to other parts of the world; a lack of resources in schools; and a scarcity of training institutions in the area to equip residents with necessary skills to contribute to the economic development of the area. However, amongst the perceived reasons for skills shortage in Khayelitsha, the findings suggest that a lack of investment in education ranks the highest at 84.7%, while HIV/aids ranks the lowest at 45%. However, it is clear that the findings emanating from the studies suggest that government and all other stakeholders have a huge task ahead to consider the problem and to find ways to solve it.

Perceived social impact of skills shortage in Khayelitsha

Both the literature review and the findings suggest that skills shortage contributes largely to social ills in the community of Khayelitsha. The literature suggests that in a social context, skills shortage impacts negatively contributing to high levels of unemployment, and poverty. As a result, crime, violence and other anti-social behaviours are often frequent in the area. Meanwhile, the findings from the survey questionnaire also complement the literature. The findings obtained from the survey questionnaire indicate that in a social context; skills shortage contributes to residents living in an impoverished condition, starting from poor service delivery, poor sanitary conditions, as well as to poor health facilities. Participants strongly believe that a lack of skills contributes to high levels of poverty by decreasing residents' chances of getting jobs that would help them to sustain and maintain their households.

When asked about whether skills shortage contributes to unemployment, from the 60 respondents, 86.7% said yes and 13.3% said that they did not know. Whereas, when they were asked whether skills shortage contribute to poverty, 86.7% said yes, 1.7% said no and 11.7% said that they did not know. From the above responses one can clearly see that poverty and unemployment are extremely high in Khayelitsha based on the fact that a majority of respondents live in shacks and cannot afford basic

services. Another interesting topic emerged from the finding although not part of the objective is that somehow, a majority of respondents also perceive that a lack of skills contributes to practises such as prostitution, which is perceptible amongst young girls in the area; the increase of birth rate amongst young girls; high levels of crime; drugs; alcohol; and other negative and social behaviour, which is prevalent in the area. They attribute it to a lack of skills because respondents believe that when an individual does not have a job to acquire the necessary means to satisfy their needs, they end up at home doing nothing and consequently, are likely to opt for alternative means to satisfy their needs. Therefore, it is critical that all stakeholders step in before the problem reaches a point that it becomes unbearable.

Skills shortage being perceived as one of the causes of unemployment in Khayelitsha

The literature advocates that South Africa has been rated as one of the most unequal societies in the world (Akoojee, HSRC and McGrath, 2005:1; Borat, van der Westhuizen and Jacobs, 2009:1; and Woolard, 2002:1). And that can be seen from the existence of its socio and economic problems (high levels of poverty, unemployment and inequality), which is evident in the country.

However, it is perceived from the findings obtained from the survey questionnaire and the literature that skills shortage is certainly one of the causes of unemployment and economic growth in the area where the research was conducted. This can be seen in relation to the following findings outlined below.

When participants were asked whether skills shortage affects the economic status of residents in the area, of the 60 respondents, 81.4% percent said yes it does and 3.4% said no, while 15.3% of respondents did not know whether skills shortage had an effect on them. When asked whether skills shortage contributes to unemployment, of the 60 respondent 86.7% said yes it does and 13.3% did not know. Further, when respondents were asked whether skills shortage contribute to crime in Khayelitsha, of the 60 respondents 88.1% said that it does and 1.7% said that it does not.

The responses obtained above made the researcher arrive at the conclusion that skills shortage contributes severely to high levels of unemployment. Thus, the higher the unemployment, the higher the level of poverty, which means that more people are supported or are dependent on social grants. Also, as mentioned earlier, a majority of respondents associate a lack of skills as the driving force behind drug abuse, and teenage pregnancy, which is prevalent in the area. This is because when people have no skills they are likely to be unemployed and without jobs they will have little to do but engage in all sort of unlawful activities.

Skills shortage does not only contribute to unemployment, but also hinders economic development. When the economy of the country is not growing, or creating jobs, it contributes to large volumes of unemployment and poverty, and averts the country from being globally competitive. Further, a lack of skills also prevents business growth and productivity and prevents socio economic development through investors being unwilling to invest, given the fragility of the country's economy. The findings indicate that measures should be adopted by government and other stakeholders to avoid negative situations from worsening.

Measures taken by government and stakeholders to address skills shortage

The African National Congress (ANC) government, through its National Education Policy Act No 27 of 1996 and the Skills Development Act (SDA) of 1998, has always maintained that the right to education as well as skills development to improve the skills shortage that the country faces is a basic human right. Consequently, some measures taken by government has been through partnerships involving all stakeholders, namely employers, public education institutions such as FET colleges, universities of technology and traditional universities, private training providers and the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs).

One of these initiatives is the formation of institutions such as the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETA), which is mainly funded by skills development levies from employers that pay 1% of their workers' pay and the Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA), which aims to concentrate on developing skills that are

most immediately needed in the country, while the Sector for Education and Training Authorities (SETA) provide sector-specific training programmes.

Furthermore, as part of government's channel to addressing skills shortage, is the recent division of the education portfolio into two separate departments: basic education and higher/post secondary education. Basic education comprises primary and secondary education, while higher/post secondary education includes education and training, as well as universities. This separation gives the departments' sufficient room to work with responsive issues such as a lack of access to higher education by the poor and the working class.

The birth of AsgiSA, which aims to halve poverty and unemployment by 2014, and to promote an annual growth of at least 4.5% from 2005 to 2009, rising to at least 6% from 2010 to 2014, was another initiative to promote skills development.

However, it is demonstrated from the literature Business Report (2011) and Gauteng Provincial Government (2009:7) that government has taken tremendous measures to address and improve skills shortage in the country, but this cannot be limited to address through television channels and radio programmes as the findings detail. It is confirmed that 98.3% of respondents from the 60 participants agreed that skills shortage should be talked about more often on radio and television channels so that it becomes a national issue and not only one that government should deal with.

However, the use of African skilled foreigners should not be neglected by government, because if well utilised, this resource can play a significant role in the South African economy and its human development. This is seen from other countries' experience where foreigners have contributed positively to the host country (CDE, 2007:3 and Mattes, *et al*, 2000:1).

Although only 59% of respondents agreed to the use of foreigners as an alternative to improve skills shortage, 25.4% were unsure, 15.3% disagreed (10.2% plus 5.1%), and 1.7% did not comment, this does not mean that government cannot follow this approach. The literature indicates that (Murray, 1995:374) states that South Africa

has been heavily dependent on migrants' labours who have contributed a lot to South Africa's economy from its earlier days. Many of these labours were immigrants' labours who came from the southern Africa region of the African continent and were always welcomed and attracted to work in the mining and agriculture sectors.

CDE (2000); Mattes, Taylor, McDonald, Poore and Richmond (1999:7); Mattes, Crush, Richmond (2000:1) and Walker Ellis and Barf (1992:235); asserts that while in South Africa immigrants are often considered to be a threat to social and economic interests, in developed countries, this same group of people are considered to be people who invest and add entrepreneurial talent to the economy. International experience suggests that skilled immigrants more often contribute meaningfully to the advancement and economic growth of the host countries through their entrepreneurial skills, new ideas, new skills and hard work.

South Africa has already witnessed benefits that it can get if it decides to recruit African foreign skilled professionals. One way of looking at the benefits and contributions gained from using this force is by observing the positive impact brought from people of Malay extraction, Indian and Pakistan, Eastern Europe, Middle Eastern (Lebanon) and from the Far East, as they have all contributed significantly to South Africa's skills base. The findings obtained from secondary sources Maharaj (2004:14) and Meintjies (1998:20) indicates that immigrants have entrepreneurial talents and ambitions; and are to a certain extent, prepared to take risks and above all possess the necessary drive to survive and succeed in a foreign country.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

South Africa's government cannot combat the skills crisis that exists in the country in isolation. However, it requires a national unity from all stakeholders, to be precise; government, employers, employees, public and private institutions, FET colleges, universities of technology and traditional universities. Through engagement with these institutions, short and long term problems can be identified and addressed. However, the following are the major recommendations, which emanated from the

research study. Thus, this should be considered by government as it could alleviate the skills shortage problem, as well as government's need for economic growth, poverty reduction, and the creation of employment.

Recommendation one:

Perceptions of the socio economic impact of skills shortage in Khayelitsha, Western Cape

The availability of skills is central for South Africa's social and economic development plans. Conversely, the country has been daunted by severe skills shortage in almost every sector of its economic activity, resulting in high levels of unemployment, poverty and other social issues. Nevertheless, Chapter Two of this study presented the causes and/or reasons for skills shortage in South Africa, in general, and Khayelitsha, in particular, as well as its social and economic impact and an alternative that may be adopted by government and other stakeholders to address skills shortage in the country. The recommendations set below may be helpful for government and other stakeholders in relation to formulating policies and strategies to help improve the situation.

- a) Government should make skills shortage a national problem, which requires a national solution. By so doing, the crises should be discussed more often on television channels and radio programmes and in all other sorts of media where citizens are allowed to leave their comments relating to the matter.
- b) Government and its partners should by all means improve the education system, which is still trying to overcome neglect and dysfunction suffered under Apartheid. Hence learners will be enabled at a young age through education and lifelong learning, to elevate their chances of being aptly employed. This can be done by equipping learners with basic employability skills such as literacy and numeracy and other important related life-skills for confidence building and self esteem.

- c) Government should create a programme which is aimed at improving the information on skills shortages throughout the country as such programme would help to monitor the monthly job vacancies that are advertised in newspapers, Internet, job boards, and all other forms of media where employers advertise for selected skilled occupations where there are shortages.
- d) Government and its partners should be more rigid with learnership programmes in place, which is complied by employers. In cases where employers do not comply with requirements, they should be penalised or fined for not obliging with the regulations. If organisations follow vividly, learnership programmes can be helpful not only for those already in the labour market, but also for new entrants, particularly university graduates.
- e) Stakeholders should ensure that curriculum planning and coordination become a priority in learnership programme management. In particular, registration of learnership programmes and coordination of programmes should be assessed and audited according to rules laid down by both the Departments of Labour and Education. It is important to ensure quality when teaching and learning imperatives are required. Offering qualifications for the sake of fulfilling quotas is not a good way of doing things, as soon or later it reflects in the tangible expression that learners will demonstrate in the actual workplace.
- f) A discussion with stakeholders, namely business partners, employees and employee representative groups, education and training providers where government coalesce short and long-term measures regarding skills shortage, is also critical for best outcomes.
- g) Government should invest more in education by building more training centres and facilities across the country, especially in previously and more disadvantaged areas, which would be vital point because learners would emerge, qualified with critical skills such as artisan and other programmes that will enable them to be self-reliant or even obtain a place in the labour

market. This will help to eliminate high levels of unemployment, anti-social behaviours as well as eradicate levels of poverty, which is so prevalent in this community.

- h) It is critical that SETA meets its mandates, which is to identify specific skills needed in the labour market; to meet the demands in the market; and help the economy grow. It is important that this takes place because the sector was formed with a mandate, but instead the sector has been heavily criticised for underperformance, since its establishment. It should also engage with issues relating to corruption, uneven governance, poor performance administration and financial inefficiencies, because not doing enough for the youth will result in failure for smooth transition of graduates from tertiary education to the labour market.
- i) The use of the already existent pool of African foreign skilled immigrants seeking jobs in scarcity occupations should be welcomed by government and all other stakeholders as short term solution to skills shortage, while the country is training and developing its own workforce as a long term solution. If well utilised, this force of skilled immigrants will not take South African jobs away, but help to put the economy of the country in good shape; reduce levels of unemployment with their technical and entrepreneurial skills; and help government fight poverty by creating more jobs and reducing many social problems that exist in Khayelitsha.
- j) Besides the use of African skilled foreigners who are already in the country, an improved migration policy from the Department of Home Affairs, in conjunction with the Department of Labour, would help bring a team of expertise that South Africa needs to help design policies, and training programmes that would help the country improve its literacy and numeracy programmes.
- k) South Africa has experienced a brain drain during the global recession. The research recommends that the South African government should look at ways to implement positive recommendations to enhance skills

development and retain South Africa skilled professionals in South Africa to fill the gap and not to leave South Africa for well paid jobs overseas, or for jobs in neighbouring countries such as Botswana, Namibia and Angola.

- l) Lastly, the progress of measures/recommendations made should be monitored regularly and evaluated to obtain best results. Further, a monitoring team or system of constant revision and monitoring of the plan's progress should be part of the entire plan effectively monitor progress made regarding skills shortage.

5.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This research focused on perceptions of the socio economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha, Western Cape. Skills shortage poses unique challenges for South Africa, which if it is to sustain high levels of economic growth, the eradication of poverty and unemployment. Therefore, this study recommends that advanced research should be conducted over a period of time in order to establish whether the availability of skills has an impact on economic growth, job creation or employment, reduction of poverty and consequently improved living standards.

Future research could be broadened in areas such as:

- What policies or strategies would be suitable for South Africa's skills shortages, taking into account the number of strategies already in place;
- Further recommendations should also be in relation to skills shortage and its impact on crime and HIV/Aids;
- The absence of skills and its effect on poverty, teenage pregnancy and prostitution, which is prevalent amongst young females; and
- An in-depth study should also be conducted on the benefits of the availability of skills in the economy's growth.

Finally, the effect of skills shortage is often seen through high levels of unemployment, which in turn, causes poverty, crime, inequality and other social deviances. One way to eliminate such effects is to motivate people to become self-sustainable and employed through skills development and entrepreneurial empowerment.

5.5. CONCLUSION

The results emanated from the study outlines that participants perceive the area of Khayelitsha to lack skills, which resulted from reasons indicated in the literature review and from the findings highlighted in Chapter Four. However, skills shortage impacts negatively on poverty and the living standards of South African citizens, in general, and Khayelitsha, in particular. Skills shortage also hinders government ability from meeting its unemployment objectives, job creation and economic growth. While conversely, it also hampers South African business from being productive and more competitive, globally. Therefore, government and other stakeholders should take immediate measures to engage the problem.

Although skills development strategy and its consequential learnership programmes have experienced a huge amount of criticism, skills development is and will remain a dynamic and evolving process for addressing skills shortage as a long term strategy, while the use of African skilled foreigners already present in the country could be used for short term solution. Therefore, the researcher concludes that government and other stakeholders and policy makers are fully aware with regard to labour market demands, while specific occupational shortfalls can be identified and prioritised, and partnerships can be established to focus on developing curricula and implementing programmes to combat skills problems.

LIST OF REFERENCES

Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA). 2006. *Annual report*. www.info.gov.za/asigsa/asigsaannualreport.pdf [Accessed on 7th December 2010].

Akoojee, S. HSRC. & McGrath, S. 2005. *The South African Development State, Poverty and Post- Basic Education and Training*. UKFIET Oxford Conference on Education and Development. University of Nottingham.

Akoojee, S. & McGrath, S. 2007. *Education and skills for development in South Africa: reflections on the accelerated and shared growth initiative for South Africa*. International Journal of Educational Development. 27:421-434

Akoojee, S. 2008. FET college lecturers: the 'devolving' link in the South African skills development equation, *Journal of Vocational Education & Training*, 60:3, 297-31.

Alam, G.M. & Hoque, K.E. 2010. Who gains from "brain and body drain" business-developing/developed worlds or individuals: A comparative study between skilled and semi/unskilled emigrants. University of Malaysia.

America Society for Training and Development (ASTD) 2011. Global network South Africa: SETA'S in the news. <http://astd.co.za/may-2011> [Accessed online August 11th 2011].

AsgiSA. 2007. *Annual Report 2007*. Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa.

Australian Forum. 2011. Australian government praised for efforts to increase skilled workforce. <http://www.australiaforum.com/information/jobs/australian-government-praised-for-efforts-to-increase-skilled-workforce.html> [Accessed on 28th June 2011]

Australian Government. 2006. Skills shortages in Australia's regions. *Working paper n0 68. Department of Transport and Regional Services*. Bureau of Transport and Regional Economics.

Babarinde, O. 2009. *Bridging the economic divide in the Republic of South Africa: A corporation social responsibility perspective*. Volume 51, Issue 4, page, 356, June.

Babbie, E. Mouton, J. 2001. *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford

Badat, S. & HERS-SA. 2009. The role of higher education in society: Valuing higher education.

Bain, L. & Mortimer, D. 2004. Where are our Tradies? A Study of Skilled Trades Shortages in the Penrith Local Government Region. *Journal of Economic and Social Policy*, Volume 9. Issue 1 Article 4. University of Western Sydney.

Banerjee, A. Galiani, S. Levinsohn, J. McLaren, Z. and Woolard, I. 2007. Why has unemployment risen in the new South Africa. NBER working paper series. Working paper 13167. *National Bureau of Economic Research*.

Barry, M.L & Jordann, N. 2009. Investigating the reasons for lack of skilled artisans in South Africa: The perspective of artisans. Graduate school of Technology Management. University of Pretoria, South Africa. *South African Journal of Industrial engineering*, Vol (20) issue 1, 173-184 May.

Bezuidenhout, MM. Joubert, G. Hiemstra, LA. And Struwing, MC. 2009. Reasons for doctor migration from South Africa. *SA Fam Pract* Vol 51 No 3.

Bhorat, H. *et al.*, 2001. *Fighting Poverty labour markets and inequality in South Africa*. UCT: South Africa.

Bhorat, H. van der Westhuizen, C. and Jacobs. 2009. Income and Non-Income Inequality in Post- Apartheid South Africa: What are the Drivers and Possible Policy

Interventions? Development Policy Research Unit DPRU Working Paper 09/138
ISBN Number: 978-1-920055-74-5.

Bohlmann, H R. 2010. The Macroeconomic Impact of Skilled Emigration from South Africa: A CGE Analysis. Working Paper Number 166 Centre of Policy Studies, Monash University.

Botman, R. 2011. The role of universities in times of political transition, particularly in the context of democratisation. Talloires Network Leaders Conference. Madrid, Spain.

Breier, M. 2008. The shortage of medical doctors in South Africa. HSRC.

Brier, M & Erasmus, J. 2009. *Skills shortages in South Africa case study of key professions*. HSRC. Cape Town: South Africa.

Brynard, P. A and Hanekom, S. X. 1997. *Introduction to Research in Public Administration and Related Discipline*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Buchan, J & Aiken, L. 2008. Solving nursing shortages: A common priority. NIH-PA. J Clin Nurs.

Business NZ. 2005. Skill shortages are now the single biggest issue facing business and are likely to remain one of the big issues for the foreseeable future.

Business Report. 2011. New strategy for skills shortage.

<http://www.iol.co.za/business/business-news/new-strategy-for-skills-shortage-1.1011634>[Accessed on July 04th 2011].

Burns, BR. & Burns, AR. 2008. *Business Research Methods and Statistics Using SPSS*. Sage publications. Oliver's Yard, London.

Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE). 2000. Why is South Africa afraid of skilled immigrants when they are essential for enhancing economic growth? http://www.cde.org.za/article.php?a_id=202 [Accessed online 22 August 2011].

Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE). 2007. The skills revolution: Are we making progress? Proceedings of a workshop on addressing skills shortage in the South Africa economy. Centre for Development and Enterprise informing South African policy. CDE in depth n0.6.

Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE). 2007. Skills, Growth, and Migration Policy. Overcoming the Fatal Constraints. www.cde.org.za [Accessed online on 3rd November 2010].

Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE). 2008 Migration from Zimbabwe numbers, needs, and policy options. The Centre for Development Enterprise. ISBN: 978-0-9802628-5-8.

Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE). 2010. Skills, Growth and Borders, Managing Migration in South Africa Interest. www.cde.org.za [Accessed online on 3rd November 2010].

Centre for Health Policy. 2007. Commercialization and Extreme inequality in the South African Health System. *Health Policy Unity Equity Building*

Chinedu, EA. & Wilson, M.D. 2009. Qualitative-Quantitative Research Data Interface in Export Marketing Performance Domain of Nigerian Non- Oil Sector: The coding Conversion Approach. *Research Journal of International Studies*. Issue 11, 16-17, July.

Co, M.J & Mitchell, B. 2005. Entrepreneurship Education in South Africa: A Nationwide Survey. Greenwich London.

Coetzee, N. & Keevy, J. 2006. Is foreign recruitment an answer to the shortage of critical skills in South Africa? A qualifications perspective. Paper presented at the bridging the Skills Gap 2006 Conference, Sandton.

Coombe, C. 2002. Keeping the Education System Healthy: Managing the Impact of HIV/AIDS on Education in South Africa. Independent Education Advisor.

Couper, J. M. Tumbo, I D. Hugo, J. F. M. 2009, *Rural-origin health science students at South African Universities*. Vol. 99, No. 1 SAMJ, vol.99, N01.

Creswell, J.W. 2012. *Educational Research. Planning, conducting, and evaluating qualitative, quantitative research*. 4th Ed. California: Pearson Publications.

Crush, J. & McDonald, D. A. 2002. *Destination to the Unknown Perspectives of Brain Drain in Southern Africa*. Pretoria: South Africa.

Dale, G.J. 2010. Predicting learner performance in the clothing industry. Doctor of Technologiae thesis. Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Daniels, R, C. 2007. Skills Shortages in South Africa: A Literature Review. Development Policy Research Unit. DPRU Working Paper 07/121 ISBN: 978-1-920055-44-8. University of Cape Town.

De Vos, A.S. Strydom, H. Fouché, CB and Delpont, CSL. 2009. *Research at grass roots. For the social sciences and human services professions*. 3rd Ed.. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Dell, S. 2011. Cuba helps to train rural doctors.

http://education.ukzn.ac.za/News/11-05-16/Cuba_helps_to_train_rural_doctors

[Accessed online on 23rd May 2011].

Democratic Alliance. 2008. Teacher shortages: DA calls on minister to take up DA proposals. <http://www.da.org.za/newsroom.htm?action=view-news-item&id=6108>

[Accessible online on 20th May 2011].

Department of Labour. 2005. Overview of the findings from ten professional occupation skill shortage assessment reports.

Domingos, J, M. 2007. Privatization as a tenet GEAR and its socio-economic impact on the poor in the Western Cape with specific reference to the Township of Kayelitsha. Master's thesis. Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Dorman, K. et al., 2009. Addressing the severe shortage of health care providers in Ethiopia: bench model teaching of technical skills.

DPRU. 2007. Skills Shortages in South Africa: Key Issues. DPRU Policy Brief Series. Development Policy Research Unit. PB 07-14. ISBN No: 978-1-920055-55-4. University of Cape Town.

Du Preez, J. 2002. The depletion of the human resource pool in South Africa. *Acta Commercii*, 2, 80-84.

Du Pré, R. 2009. The place and role of universities of technology in South Africa. Durban University of Technology.

Egerdahl, K. 2009. Economic job factors affecting nurse emigration from South Africa: A cross-country comparative analysis of working conditions among nurses. Master's thesis. University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Engineeringnews.2005. South Africa faces critical artisan shortage.
<http://www.engineeringnews.co.za/article/sa-faces-critical-artisan-shortage-2005-12-16> [Accessed online April 2011].

Fasset. 2009. Scarce Skills in the Fasset Sector. www.fasset.org.za [Accessed online 23rd August 2010].

Fasset. 2010. Skills shortage indicators.
<http://www.achieveronline.co.za/articles/setas-manpower-employment/163-skills-shortage-indicators> [Accessed online 23rd May 2011].

Fiske, E.B & Ladd, H.F. 2005. Racial equality in education: How far has South Africa come? Terry Sanford Institute of Public Policy. Working papers series SA05-03.

Fourier, A. 2006. Brain Drain and brain Circulation: A study of South Africans in the United Arab Emirates. M.Phil Thesis. Stellenbosch University.

Frye, I. 2006. The “Second Economy; short hand, underhand or sleigh of hand?” Unpublished paper. Prepared for Colloquium on ‘Economic Society and Nature’. UKZN Centre for Civil Society. Harold Wolpe Memorial Trust. Open Society on Southern Africa. 28 February.

Garbayo, A.A & Maben, J. 2009. Internationally recruited nurses from India and the Philippines in the United Kingdom: the decision to emigrate. Human Resources for Health. Bio Med Central. <http://www.human-resources-health.com/content/7/1/37> [Accessed online March 7th 2011].

Gauteng Provincial Government. 2009. A Shortage of Skills in Gauteng: How is it being addressed? Economic Analysis Directorate. Gauteng Treasury.

Grawitzky, R. 2007. Setas – A Vehicle for the Skills Revolution? Development Policy Research Unit, DPRU Working Paper 07/125. ISBN Number: 978-1-920055-49-3.

Hall, J & Sandelands, E. 2009. Addressing South Africa’s engineering skills gaps. Murray Roberts, Bedfordview: South Africa. www.emeraldinsight.com/0040-0912.htm [Accessed on 3rd March 2011].

Health System Trust. (2007). South African Health review.2007. Durban: Health System Trust. [Accessed on May 20th 2011].

Hodge, D. 2009. Growth, Employment and Unemployment in South Africa. *South African Journal of Economics*. Vol 77:4. ESSA.

Hoogeveen, JG and Özler, K. 2005. Not Separate, Not Equal: Poverty and Inequality in Post-Apartheid South Africa. *William Davidson Institute Working Paper Number 739*. The William Davidson institute at the University of Michigan Business School.

International Health Federation. 2008. World Hospitals and Health Services. *The Official Journal of the International Health Federation*. Vol 44. Number 2.

Iwu, C., G and Xesha, D. 2011. Used Bookstore as a Vehicle for Improved Learning and Development: The Case of a South African Tertiary Institution. *Journal of Education and Vocational Research*. Vol. 1, No. 3, pp. 87-95. Department of Entrepreneurship and Business Management, Faculty of Business, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, South Africa.

Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition. 2007.

<http://www.info.gov.za/otherdocs/2007/jipsarep.pdf> [Accessed online 14th April 2011].

Junankar, R, P.N. 2009. Was there a Skills Shortage in Australia? *Discussion paper series*. IZA DP N0. 4651. University of Western Sydney and IZA.

Kline, DS. 2003. Push and Pull factors in international nurse migration. *World Health. Journal of Nursing Scholarship*.

Klasen, S and Woolard, I. 2008. Surviving unemployment without state support: Unemployment and Household Formation in South Africa. *Journal of African Economies*, Vol no 8, Number 1, PP. 1–51.

Knight, J. & Kingdon, G.G. 2004. Race and the Incidence of Unemployment in South Africa. *Review of Development Economics*, 8(2), 198-222.

Koep, C. *et al*, 2010. Employment and Inequality Outcomes in South Africa. Southern Africa and Development Research Unit (SALDRU) and School of Economics, University of Cape Town.

Kuehn, B.M. 2007. Global Shortage of Health Workers, Brain Drain Stress Developing Countries. Vol. 298.N.16 *JAMA*. www.jama.ama-assn.org.

Landman, J.P. *et al*, 2003. Breaking the grip of Poverty and Inequality in South Africa 2004-2014. Current trends, issues and future policy options. Unisa Pretoria

LaRocque, N. 2007. Skill Development and Skill Shortages in New Zealand. Education Forum. National library of New Zealand.

Lawyers, C.M.N. 2008. Government addresses Australia's skills and labour shortages
<http://www.craddock.com.au/Document/Government+addresses+Australia's+skills+and+labour+shortages.aspx>[Accessed online 28 June 2011].

Levinsohn, J. 2007. Two policies to alleviate unemployment in South Africa. Ford School of Public Policy. University of Michigan and NBER.

Lewis, J D. 2005. Promoting growth and unemployment in South Africa. *South Africa journal of economics*, vol. 70. Wiley online library.

Lewinsohn, DE. & Arnold, PC. 2010. Motives for migration of South African doctors to Australia since 1948. *MJA* 2010; 192: 288–290.

Magruder, J. R. 2010. High Unemployment yet Few Small Firms: The Role of Centralized Bargaining in South Africa.
<http://www.econ.yale.edu/seminars/develop/tdw10/magruder-100913.pdf>[Accessed online on 10th November 2011].

Maharaj, B. 2004. Immigration to post-apartheid South Africa. Global Migration Perspectives. University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa
http://www.queensu.ca/samp/migrationresources/Documents/Maharaj_immigration.pdf.

Mail & Guardian online, 2007. Mismanagement of funds plagues many SA's Setas. www.mg.co.za/article/2007-04-24-mismangemnet-of-fundsplagies-many-sa-setas [Accessed online December 2010].

Malcolm.S, Choen and Mahmood A. Zaidi. 2002. *Global Skills Shortages*. Edward Elgar. Cheltenham.

Mattes, R. Taylor, DM. McDonald, DA. Poore, A. and Richmond, W. 1999. Still waiting for the barbarians: SA attitudes to immigrants & immigration. Migration policy series NO. 14 SAMP, Idasa. Cape Town, South Africa 1999.

Mattes, R. Crush, J. Richmond, W. 2000. The brain gain: skilled migrants and immigration policy in post apartheid South Africa: Migration policy series NO 20 SAMP. Idasa. Cape Town, South Africa.

Marock, C. Harrison-Train, C. Soobrayan, B. and Gunthorpe, J. 2008. SETA review. Development Policy Research Unit, *DPRU Working Paper 08/132*. ISBN Number: 978-1-920055-61-5.

Maree, K. 2007. *First steps in Research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Martin, J.G.2005. Synergizing the balanced scorecard and the value chain to reduce wastage within the Western Cape Education Department. PhD thesis CPUT.

May, J. 1998. Poverty and Inequality in South Africa. Centre for Social and Development Studies, University of Natal.

Media Monitor. 2011. Seta failing the youth. COSATU daily news. http://groups.google.com/group/cosatudailynews/browse_thread/thread/5d9fb7c9011e8b24/d4cf1fe2a117a127?q= [Accessed online 10th August 2011].

Meintjies, F. 1998. Immigrants are people like us. Sunday Times Business Times, 20 September 1998, p. 20.

Mining Qualification Authority, 2008. A guide for identifying and addressing critical skills in the Mining and Mineral sector

<http://www.mqa.org.za/siteimgs/mqa%20scarce%20&%20critical%20skills%20guide-final.pdf> [Accessed online 2nd March 2011].

Moser, C. 1999. South Africa: Poverty and Inequality. Violence and Poverty in South Africa: Their Impact on household relations and social capital. Informal discussion paper series 19891. World bank country department 1 Africa region.

Myburgh, A. 2004. Explaining Emigration from South Africa. *The South African Journal of Economics*, Volume.72:1.

Murray, J.M. 1995. 'Blackbirding' at 'Crooks' Corner': Illicit Labour Recruiting in the North eastern Transvaal, 1910-1940. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 21:373-397.

Myburgh, N.G. Solanki, G.C. Smith. M. J and Lalloo, R.2005. Patient satisfaction with health care providers in South Africa: the influences of race and socioeconomic status. *International Journal for Quality in Health Care Vol17, no 6: pp. 473–477*. Oxford University Press on behalf of International Society for Quality in Health Care.

Naicker. S. Rhule, J.P. Tutt, R.C and Eastwood, J. B. 2009. Shortage of Healthcare workers in developing countries - Africa. *Ethnicity & disease*, volume 19.

National Treasury. 2011. Confronting youth unemployment: *Policy options for South Africa*. Discussion paper for public comment.

New Zealand Department of Labour. 2006. Indicators of skills shortage. <http://www.dol.govt.nz/pdfs/skill-shortage-indicator-report.pdf> [Accessed online 17th November, 2011]

Nkomo, JC. 2010. Development and Health: The case of HIV/AIDS in Southern Africa. *Estearn and Social Science Research Review*, Volume 26, Number 1, January 2010, pp. 111-126.

Nkosi, A.E., 2008. The role of the further education and training colleges in skills development in Mpumalanga province as perceived by the local industries. Doctor of Philosophy in Education. Stellenbosch University.

Padayachee, V. 2005. The South African Economy. 1994-2004. *Social Research*. 72 (3). Fall: 549-580.

Parker, B & Walters, S. 2008. Competency Based Training and National Qualifications Frameworks: Insights from South Africa. *Asia Pacific Education Review Copyright 2008 by Education Research Institute 2008*, Vol. 9, No.1, 70-79.

Pauw, K., Bhorat, H., Goga, S. Ncube, S. van der Westhuizen, C. and Development Policy Research Unit, UCT. 2006. Graduate Unemployment in the Context of Skills Shortages, Education and Training; Findings from a Firm Survey.

Pekeur, S.W. 2002. *Assessing diversity awareness of local government managers*. Doctor of Technologiae Thesis, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, Cape Town.

Pillay, R. 2009. Work satisfaction of professional nurses in South Africa: A comparative analysis of the public and private sectors. *Human Resources for Health*. BioMed Central.

Ploch, L. 2011. South Africa: Current Issues and U.S. relations. Congressional Research Service Relations. Prepared for Members and Committees of Congress. <http://www.fas.org/sgp/crs/row/RL31697.pdf> [Accessed online 5th October 2011].

Polity.org. 2011. Immigration laws contribute to skills shortage, 829 800 high-skilled posts vacant – survey. <http://www.polity.org.za/article/immigration-laws-contribute-to-skills-shortage-829-800-high-skilled-posts-vacant-survey-2011-05-10> [Accessed on May 10th 2011].

Quirk, V. & Mitchell, W. 2005. Skills shortages in Australia: Concepts and reality. Centre of Full Employment and Equity. Working Paper no.05-16.

Rasool, F. & Botha, C.J. 2011. The nature, extent and effect of skills shortages on skills migration in South Africa. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management/SA Tydskrif vir Menslikehulpbronbestuur*, 9(1), Art. #287, 12 pages doi:10.4102/sajhrm.v9i1.287.

Rasool, F. Botha, C.J & Bisschoff, C.A.2012. Push and Pull Factors in Relation to Skills Shortages in South Africa. North-West University, Potchefstroom, South Africa.

Reid, S. de Vries, E. 2003. Do South African medical students of rural origin return to rural practice? *SAMJ*, vol. 93. NO.10.

Richardson, S. 2007. What is skills shortage? NCVET. Adelaide, Australia.

SabinetLaw. 2010. Minister Confirms Need for “Drastic Changes” to SETAs. Department of Higher Education and Training.

<http://www.sabinetlaw.co.za/education/articles/minister-confirms-need-%E2%80%9Cdrastic-changes%E2%80%9D-setas> [Accessed online 11th August 2011].

SabinetLaw. 2010. Government Concerned About Functioning of SETAs. Department of Higher Education and Training.

<http://www.sabinetlaw.co.za/education/articles/government-concerned-about-functioning-setas> [Accessed online 11 August 2011].

Sebusi, I.E. 2007. An economic analysis of the skills shortage problem in South Africa. Master’s Thesis University of Johannesburg.

Service publication. 2010. Lack of skills hampers service delivery.

<http://www.servicepublication.co.za/index.php/magazine/skills/292-lack-of-skills-hampers-service-delivery> [Accessed online May 19th 2011].

Silva, B. 2010. Over 1700 unqualified teachers in South Africa.

<http://westcapenews.com/?p=1431> [Accessed online on May 19th 2011].

Solidarity Research Institute, 2008. Skills shortage in South Africa: summary of facts

per sectors regarding this issue

www.solidarityresearch.co.za/wp.content/uploads/2010/07/16.skills-shortaginsouthafricasummary-fjc-et.pdf [Accessed on 5th November 2010].

South Africa News. 2008. Neotel Academy to address skills shortages. http://www.sagoodnews.co.za/science_technology/neotel_academy_to_address_skills_shortage.html [Accessed on 26th October 2012]

Southern Africa Labour & Development Research Unit. 2007 University of Cape Town, South Africa. Prepared for the IPC- DRCLAS workshop.

Strewig, FW. & Stead, G.B. 2001. *Planning, designing and reporting research*. Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.

Szlontai, G. & Stern, M. 2006. Immigration policy in South Africa: Does it make economic sense? *Development Southern Africa*, Volume, 23, NO. 1.

Terre Blanche, M. Durrheim. K and Painter, D. 2006. *Research in Practice. Applied Methods for the Social Sciences: 2 Ed.* University of Cape Town Press (Pty) Ltd. Cape Town.

Terreblanche, S. 2005. *A history of inequality in South Africa 1652- 2002*. University of Natal Press. South Africa.

The Mobilite witness. 2010. Shortage of Artisans reason for poor municipal service delivery. <http://news.mobilite.co.za/shortage-of-artisans-reason-for-poor-municipal-service-delivery/>[Accessed online April 25th 2011].

The skills portal. 2007. Learnership key to addressing skills shortage in IT industry. <http://www.skillsportal.co.za/page/skills-development/843927-Learnerships-key-to-addressing-skills-shortage-in-IT-industry> [Accessed on July 13th 2011]

Times live. 2010. Shortage of rural doctors critical. <http://www.timeslive.co.za/local/article589189.ece/Shortage-of-rural-doctors-critical> [Accessed on 23rd May 2011].

Trigaardt, J. 2007. Poverty and inequality in South Africa: Policy options and consequences for planning in an emerging democracy. Prepared for the living on the Margins Conference, Stellenbosch. 26-28 March.

Thornton, G. 2008. Lack of skills remains greatest constraints to business growth in South Africa. <http://www.gt.co.za/News/Press-releases/International-business-report/2008/skills.asp>. [Accessed on 2nd December 2010].

Van der westhuizen, C. Pauw, K and Oosthuizen, M. 2008. Graduate unemployment in the face of skills shortages: a labour market paradox. *South Africa Journal of Economics*, Vol, 76:1.

Van Rooyen, L. du Toit, D, H. E. and Rothmann, S. 2010. Artisan retention in an organisation in South Africa. *South Africa journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 8 No. 1 Page 1 of 8. <http://www.sajhrm.co.za> [Accessed online April 17th 2011]

Villiers, R. 2007. Migration from developing countries: the case of South African teachers in the United Kingdom. Vol 25(2).

Wa Kabwe-Segatti, A. and Landau, L. 2008. Migration in post apartheid South Africa: Challenges and questions to policy-makers. Agence Française de Développement.

Walker, R. Ellis, M. and Barff, R. 1992. Linked Migration Systems: Immigration and Internal Labour Flows in the United States. Department of Geography.

Walker, M. 2009. Development Discourses: Higher Education and Poverty Reduction in South Africa. ESRC award number RES-167-25-0302. The contribution of the human development and capabilities approach to the professional education at South Africa universities. University of Nottingham and the University of the Western Cape.

Wallis, G. 2002. The Effect of Skill Shortages on Unemployment and Real Wage Growth: A Simultaneous Equation Approach. Office for National Statistics.UK.

Weatherburn, D. 2001. What Causes Crime? Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research. *Contemporary Issues in Crime and Justice* number 54. Crime and justice bulletin

Welman, C. Kruger, F. & Mitchell, B. 2005. *Research Methodology*. 3rd Ed. Cape Town: OUP Southern Africa.

Woolard, I. 2002. An overview of poverty and inequality in South Africa. *Working paper prepared for DFID (SA)*.

Woolard, C. Leibbrandt, M Woolard, I. 2007. Poverty and Inequality Dynamics in South Africa: Post-apartheid Developments in the Light of the Long-Run Legacy.

World Health Organization. 2006. World health Report.
[www.who.int/whr/2006/en/and fact on migration of health workers](http://www.who.int/whr/2006/en/and_fact_on_migration_of_health_workers).
www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheet/fs301/en/index.html.

Yousef, T. Li, W. and Brixiova. Z. 2009. Skills shortages and labor market outcomes in Central Europe. *Economic system*, 33 (2009) 45-59

APPENDIX



QUESTIONNAIRE

Perceptions of the socio economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha, Western Cape

This questionnaire is designed to reveal perceptions of the socio economic impact of skills shortage on the community of Khayelitsha, as well as its causes and effects. The outcome of this research should assist and guide government to draft new related policies, amend existing ones and seek alternatives, which will help to minimise skills shortage, and eradicate poverty, unemployment and inequality.

Note: Please be assured that results of this questionnaire will be dealt with in complete confidence. **The data obtained from this study is strictly confidential and will be used for academic purposes only.** Your participation in the completion of this survey is completely **voluntary**.

Please complete the questionnaire by placing an **X** in the chosen column as you attempt to answer all questions.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Antonio Domingos Mateus (Mr.)

Researcher

Contact: 078 222 9590

Date: _____

Questionnaire

Section A: Biographical information

Q.1 Please indicate your gender.

Tick one box from the options below

Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
Female	<input type="checkbox"/>	(2)

Q.2 What is your age?

Tick one box from the options below.

Under 21	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
21-30	<input type="checkbox"/>	(2)
31-40	<input type="checkbox"/>	(3)
41-50	<input type="checkbox"/>	(4)
51-60	<input type="checkbox"/>	(5)
61- over	<input type="checkbox"/>	(6)

Q.3 What is your race?

Tick one box from the options below.

Black	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
White	<input type="checkbox"/>	(2)
Coloured	<input type="checkbox"/>	(3)
Indian/Asian	<input type="checkbox"/>	(4)

Q.4 Please indicate your highest level of education.

Tick one box from the options below.

Primary (grades 1-7)	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
High school (grade 8 - 12)	<input type="checkbox"/>	(2)
Vocational profession	<input type="checkbox"/>	(3)
Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>	(4)
Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	(5)
Master's Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	(6)
Doctoral Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	(7)
Others	<input type="checkbox"/>	(8)

Q. 5 Please indicate whether your employment is:

Tick one box from the option below.

Full time (permanent)	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
Part time (temporary)	<input type="checkbox"/>	(2)

Section B: Survey on skills shortage in Khayelitsha

Q.6 What is your perception of the skills shortage in the area?
(Comment freely)

Q.7 Please read each of the following statements regarding the causes of skills shortage, and rate your agreement by marking an X in the appropriate block.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7.1 Skills shortage in my area is a result of a lack of education.					
7.2 Skills shortage in my area is a result of a lack of investment in skills development.					
7.3 Skills shortage in my area can be ascribed to a lack of facilities to acquire necessary skills.					
7.4 Skills shortage can be ascribed to a lack of resources in schools as a result of unequal education prior to 1994.					
7.5 Skills shortage in my neighbourhood is a result of the HIV/ Aids pandemic throughout the country.					
7.6 Skills shortage in South Africa is owing to the migration of South African skilled professionals to other parts of the world.					
7.7 Skills shortage exists in my area as a result of the learning structure that should still overcome decades of neglect and dysfunction under Apartheid.					
7.8 Skills shortage in my community is a result of decreases in training investments.					
7.9 Skills shortage in South Africa is a result of experienced professionals nearing retirement.					
7.10 Skills shortage in South Africa exists as a result of the current workforce not matching organisations' strategies.					
7.11 Skills shortage in South Africa exists as a result of technological change.					

Q 8 Do you possess any skills? If so, please specify.
(Comment freely)

Yes	No
-----	----

Q 9 Does the lack of skills affect the economic status of people in your area? If yes, how? (*Comment freely*)

Yes	No	I do not know
-----	----	---------------

Q. 10 Does the lack of skills affect the social status of people in your area? If yes, how? (*Comment freely*)

Yes	No	I do not know
-----	----	---------------

Q. 11 What is your view of unemployment in your area? If high, please elaborate (*Comment freely*)

Low	Moderate	High
-----	----------	------

Q. 12 Please indicate whether skills shortage contributes to poverty in your area.

Yes	No	I do not know
-----	----	---------------

Q. 13 What is your perception of poverty in your area? If high, please elaborate (*Comment freely*)

High	Low	I do not know
------	-----	---------------

Q.14 Does skills shortage have an effect on the economic development of your area? Tick one box from the option below.

Yes	
No	
Maybe	
Do not know	

Q. 15 Does a lack of skills contribute to crime in your area?

Yes	No	I do not know
-----	----	---------------

Q. 16 Does a lack of skills contribute to violence in your area?

Yes	No	I do not know
-----	----	---------------

(Comment freely)

Q.17 Please read each of the following statements regarding government's role in addressing skills shortage and rate your agreement by marking an X in the appropriate block.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
17.1 Government should build more training centres to address critical skills that exist in the country.					
17.2 There should be an interlink between private, public and academic institutions.					
17.3 Government should upgrade the education system of the country.					
17.4 More bursaries should be made available for scarce skills.					
17.5 Government should train more Maths and Science teachers to teach critical subjects.					
17.6 Learners should be encouraged to engage with critical subjects.					
17.7 Government, through the private sector, should train more artisans and critical skills, which are needed for the country's development.					
17.8 Government should talk about skills shortage more often on television channels and radio programmes to inform people.					
17.9 Government should welcome the use of skilled foreign immigrants in the country who seek jobs in critical skills occupations.					

Q.17 Please read each of the following statements regarding government's role in addressing skills shortage and rate your agreement by marking an X in the appropriate block.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
17.10 Government, in partnership with the private sector, should improve learnership/ internship programmes that have already been established.					
17.11 Government should improve and encourage the use of technology.					

Q. 18 Is the use of African skilled foreigners an alternative to bridge the skills shortage in South Africa? If yes, how? *(Comment freely)*

Q.19 Please read each of the following statements and rate your agreement by marking an X in the appropriate block.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
19.1 Skills shortage contributes to unemployment in my area.					
19.2 Skills shortage increases the level of poverty in the community.					
19.3 Skills shortage limits the creation of jobs.					
19.4 Skills shortage slows down economic growth.					
19.5 Skills shortage contributes to crime in my community.					
19.6 Skills shortage contributes to violence in my community.					
19.7 Skills shortage worsens the quality of service in my community.					
19.8 Skills shortage affects service delivery in my community.					
19.9 Skills shortage prevents the country from competing in the global market.					

19.10 Skills shortage impedes companies from investing in the country.					
19.11 Skills shortage hinders the country's infrastructural development.					