



Exploring BRICS Contribution in Addressing Youth Unemployment in South Africa

**A Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
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Sciences, College of Humanities, University of KwaZulu-Natal**

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DECLARATION

I, **Jody Penniston**, declare that:

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Signature

24-08-2021

Date

Name of Supervisor



DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the late Marie Penniston, who I believe is my very own guardian angel.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Firstly, I would like to thank God for giving me the strength to complete this dissertation. His mercies are indeed new each morning. All glory belongs to Him for its successful completion.

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ACRONYMS

ADF	African Development Fund
AFDB	African Development Bank
BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa
CRA	Contingent Reserve Arrangement
CWP	Community Work Programme
DRC	Democratic Republic Of Congo
DST	Department of Science & Technology
EEAA	Employment Equity Amendment Act
EPWP	Expanded Public Works Programme
EU	European Union
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MENA	Middle East and Northern Africa
MICT SETA	Media Information Communication Technologies Sector Education & Training
MOU	Memorandum Of Understanding
NDB	New Development Bank
PAYE	Pay As You Earn
QLFS	Quarterly Labour Force Survey
S4YE	Solutions For Youth Employment
SA	South Africa
SACU	Southern African Customs Unit
SAPS	South Africa Police Service
SAHRC	South African Human Rights Commission
SMME	Small Medium and Micro Enterprises
RUB	Russian Ruble
UBPL	Upper Bound Poverty Line
UN	United Nations
YEI	Youth Employment Initiative

ABSTRACT

Youth unemployment is a global issue and is significantly worse in developing countries. South Africa has one of the world's highest youth unemployment rates, with almost half of its youth population (between the ages of 15 and 34) unemployed (52,18%), as recorded in the final quarter of 2019. This study explores BRICS contribution in addressing youth unemployment in South Africa. Made up of Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa, BRICS is a coalition of emerging economies that support the economic growth and development of its members. Liberal institutionalism theory is used in this study to understand the relevance and contribution of coalitions like BRICS in increasing aid and cooperation among member states to address various socioeconomic challenges. Classical growth theory is used to understand and unpack the economic aspects of youth unemployment.

This study employs a qualitative research method and data is collected from books, articles, scholarly journals, and official reports such as South Africa's Quarterly Labour Surveys, BRICS Labour and Employment Minister Declarations, BRICS Summit Declarations 2015-2019, and Trade reports from the Department of Trade, Industry and Cooperation. The data gathered from the existing literature was analysed using the content analysis method. The findings show a strong correlation between youth unemployment, the South African education system and lack of skills development. The study explores multilateralism as it places an important role in economic growth and development through increased trade and partnerships which allow member states to pursue common interests. The study also examines the various contributions BRICS has made in addressing youth unemployment in South Africa. The findings show that BRICS countries have dedicated programmes to addressing youth unemployment within member states, specifically by addressing its underlying issues. The study concludes that through BRICS initiatives, South Africa has benefited through investments in education, intra-BRICS exchange programs, job creation, foreign investment, and increased trade relations.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of study

Youth unemployment is a global issue and is relatively higher on the African continent with 31% of the 420 million African youth being unemployed (African Development Bank, 2016). The effect of high levels of unemployment in Africa are significant, these include poorer living conditions, increased rate of migration out of Africa, and higher levels of conflict and political unrest on the continent itself. Furthermore, youth unemployment has hindered Africa's ability to fully utilise one of the largest youth populations in history for economic growth and development (African Development Bank, 2016).

High levels of unemployment in South Africa is often believed to be a post-apartheid issue (1994 –to date), however this is not necessarily true, as during the apartheid era unemployment affected South Africans particularly the black population. In 1970, the unemployment rate among the black population was 12.2%, this number increased to 20.9% in 1980 (Bell, 1984). The South African black population were not the only people to feel the pinch of unemployment, but other races as well. The total unemployment rate in 1970 was 17.5% which increased to 20.8% by the year 1980 (Bell, 1984). More than 20 years ago, during the apartheid era laws that encouraged unequal job reservation for the white South African population were in place, at that time non-white population of South Africa were excluded from the mainstream economy and were commonly used for cheap labour (Department of Government and Communications, 2015). The patterns of employment during the apartheid era created gaps in unemployment; as a result South Africa has a rather large number of low-skilled and unskilled job seekers, influenced by labour restrictions during apartheid, and historically very limited investment in education (Department of Government and Communications, 2015).

South Africa experienced an increase in unemployment specifically among young unskilled workers between 1970 and 1980 as a result of several issues, during this particular period employment within the agriculture sector drastically declined (Greyling, 2012). Employment within the agriculture, forestry and fishing declined with at an average rate of 2.68% annually from 1970 till the 1980's, this was as a result of an increased use of fertilizers, herbicides and machinery (Department of Forestry and Fisheries, 2011). Although, this increased production

within the agricultural sector from approximately 0.65% annual growth to 2.15% annual growth in 1980 (Department of Forestry and Fisheries, 2011). The black population experienced the consequences of this first-hand because they were no longer used for labour on farms. Between 1970 and the late 1980s South Africa received a great amount of international attention as a result of political unrest, opposition to the apartheid government and violence (Levy, 1999). This forced foreign investors to withdraw from South Africa, Chase Manhattan Bank for instance in 1985 declared that it would be withdrawing its business from South Africa (Levy, 1999).

In 1994 the unemployment rate was 20.5%, the South African unemployment rate increased by 3.5 million individuals between 1994 and 2014 (StatsSA, 1998). High levels of unemployment of South Africa has been steadily increasing since 1995, unemployment rate trends were significantly higher in the black population as compared to the other races (StatsSA, 1998). In 1995 (post-apartheid era) the official unemployment rate among the black population was 29.3%, Indian 10.2%, coloured 16.0% and white with 4.4% (StatsSA, 1998). The labour participation rate reduced from 40% in 1994 to 39% and 36% in 1995 and 1996 respectively, thus resulting in the gradual increase in unemployment (StatsSA, 1998). As discussed above the apartheid system intentionally neglected the Bantu education system, the education system under the apartheid government provided education which ensured that they would be unskilled worker such as gardeners and seamstresses (Ranchhod, 2019). The poor education system provided to non-white students, influenced unemployment trends, in 1994 the unemployment rate was much higher among individuals with less than matric with 40% (StatsSA, 1998). In 2000 South Africa's unemployment rate was significantly higher and was ranked 5th globally, the total unemployment rate was 26.7% and has steadily increased since (International Labour Organisation, 2019).

Youth unemployment in South Africa, continues to be a main crutch to its economy and development efforts. This study therefore will explore initiatives and programmes launched by BRICS to address youth unemployment in South Africa and how these programmes have been successful. BRICS countries have dedicated programmes towards the youth and addressing unemployment within member states. "The programmes are divided into three categories which include workforce, technical or professional training and access to funding to promote

self-employment and entrepreneurship” (United Nations Development Programme, 2014:6). Based on the above, the BRICS coalition is positioned to potentially contribute to youth unemployment together with the assistance of the South African government and other states which include Brazil, Russia, India and China.

The South African youth population is 20.3 million aged 15-35 years old, which equates to 35.1 % of the population which roughly equates to a third of the total population (StatsSA, 2019). In 2015 there were 3.6 million unemployed individuals between the ages of 15-34 years old this number has significantly increased to 9.4 million in 2018 with more than half of the youth population unemployed (Quarterly Labour Survey, 2018). Table 1.1 shows reports from the StatsSA Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) of 2018 and 2019 and presents the percentages of South African youth population who are currently unemployed or not enrolled in any education or training institution.

2017	2018	2019
53.62% unemployed	53.79% unemployed	55.97% unemployed

Table 1.1: Percentage of unemployed youth in South Africa (2017 – 2019)
Source: StatsSA Quarterly Labour Force Survey (2017 and 2019)

In the first quarter of 2019, the total unemployment rate increased by 344 000 which brings the number 7.1 million people. The drastic increase in the total youth unemployment is as a result of seasonal work ending which usually begins in November/December, on the other hand a large amount is contributed by new entrant graduates (StatsSA, 2019). During the first quarter of 2019 unemployment among graduates equated to 31% as compared to 19.5% in the fourth quarter of 2018 (Quarterly Labour Survey, 2018). In the 4th quarter of 2019, youth unemployment was 55.97% which accounted for 63.4% of the total number of unemployed South Africans (StatsSA, 2019). During this period, four out of every 10 people between the ages of 15 and 35 years were unemployed or not in any education or training programme (Quarterly Labour Survey, 2019).

The global outbreak of COVID-19 has had detrimental consequences on the health care of millions of people and the worldwide economy. South Africa is no exception to this. With

President Cyril Ramaphosa's declaration of a nationwide lockdown from the 27th of March 2020, all borders were closed, all major companies were shut down, and import and exports were at a standstill. The government implemented the lockdown to stop the spread of the virus. Due to this, the country's economy has slipped into a recession (Mahlakoana, 2020). The nationwide lockdown decreased the economic growth, putting pressure on a weak economy that put many companies on the verge of bankruptcy. Hundreds of individuals working in various sectors have been left unemployed or temporarily unemployed as companies are under pressure due to the national lockdown to stop the spread of COVID-19 (Mahlakoana, 2020). For example, two magazine publishers retrenched over 300 media workers when they shut down; however, individuals who work for smaller, independent and local print publications mainly were affected, with approximately 700 people without jobs (Mahlakoana, 2020). Even though the demand for reliable news sources led millions of South Africans back to mainstream media platforms, this was insufficient in preventing many individuals' retrenchment due to COVID-19 (Mahlakoana, 2020).

1.2 Research problem

The increase in youth unemployment during the 1st quarter of 2019 is a result of new entrants into the labour market, among these being new graduates (Lindwa, 2019). One of the leading causes of youth unemployment in South Africa is the low level of education and literacy. A large number of the South African youth drop out of school, according to the Department of Education in 2016 "only 52% of the appropriate age population remain enrolled in school" (Weybright et. al, 2017:2). Another issue that South Africa is currently facing is the lack of available jobs, which is essentially influenced by the shutdown of major factories and companies. This leads to a decrease in available job opportunities, as well as the mass retrenchment of workers. There has been a great amount of imports entering South Africa, which surpasses the exports, leading to the shutdown of companies such as Evowood, formerly known as Masonite. The hardboard manufacturer was one of the town of Estcourt's biggest employer with over 1000 employees and a major economic engine of the Estcourt town (Arde, 2019). The company shutdown resulted in the loss of employment for the entire workforce of the hardboard manufacturing company (Arde, 2019). Subsequently, some South African youth do not have the necessary resources to access available job opportunities. Many young people lack social capital and strong networks that would help them source a job (Rankin and Roberts, 2011). A large number of the youth currently do not have enough financial resources available.

This restricts mobility to areas where there is a high demand in the labour market (Cassim and Oosthuizen, 2014). The remaining population that are still financially supported by family or sufficiently sustained through networks, often have extremely high expectations of wages which results in extended periods of unemployment (Cassim and Oosthuizen, 2014).

High levels of youth unemployment have various impacts on the country. One of the greatest negative implications of high levels of youth unemployment in a country is high levels of poverty. In 2015, approximately half of the adult population (49.2%) were living below the upper bound poverty line (UBPL) which is R 1 183 per month (StatsSA, 2019). Surveys on living conditions has not been conducted since 2015, however the poverty statistics gathered in that year indicate an increase from 45.5% in 2011 (StatsSA, 2014). High levels of crime in South Africa as a result of high levels of unemployment is common. The opportunity to make a choice between legitimate work and crime is low. In the first quarter of 2020, South Africa was ranked as the fifth most dangerous country out of 144 countries worldwide, with a score of 57% (South African Police Services, 2019). In 2019, a total of 2.01 million crimes were reported, a slight decrease from 2.09 million in 2018 (South African Police Services, 2019).

1.3 Research objectives and research questions

This study will focus on the following objectives:

- a. Examine how youth unemployment has affected the South African economy.
- b. Examine how South Africa's membership in the BRICS coalition will affect the country's youth unemployment
- c. Explore the role of BRICS in addressing the issue of youth unemployment in South Africa

The following research questions will be addressed in this study:

- a. How has youth unemployment affected the South African economy?
- b. How will South Africa's membership in the BRICS coalition affect its youth unemployment?

- c. What role is BRICS playing in addressing the issue of youth unemployment in South Africa?

1.4. Research Methodology

1.4.1. Research Approach

This research study will explore the research topic by comparing and analysing data, which will be interpreted using a qualitative approach. A qualitative research approach is associated with the interpretation of an individual's ideas, opinions and behaviour. The qualitative research approach is often characterized with naturalistic, social and real-life aspects of research (Ritchie et al., 2014). The qualitative research aims to answer questions like 'what?' or 'how?' instead of 'how many?' Qualitative research involves the collection, analysis and interpretation of non-numerical data in order to understand concepts and opinions.

Qualitative research is defined as a study that seeks in-depth understanding of social phenomena through emulating real life or nature (Silverman, 2011). Qualitative research is characterized as flexible, political and subjective through the use of case studies, and is usually speculative. Qualitative research involves the "systematic collection, organisation, description and interpretation of textual data from reports or books, interviews or visual data" (Silverman, 2011: 5). Qualitative research is a research method used in collecting data and answering questions that cannot be measured and is concerned with subjective valuation of attitudes, opinions and behaviour (Ritchie et.al, 2014).

The qualitative research method can be used to provide answers to questions such as how youth unemployment affects the economy of the country, how South Africa's membership in BRICS affects youth unemployment and what role BRICS has played in addressing youth unemployment in South Africa. The nature of qualitative research is deeply rooted in social science and is therefore most appropriate for the conduction of research on youth unemployment in South Africa and the role of BRICS in addressing the issue (Ritchie et al., 2014).

This research study will utilize mainly a desktop approach, through the use of existing information and data to discuss and address the research questions. Desktop research is also referred to as secondary data and is conducted without fieldwork. The data is collected from

sources such as the internet, libraries, published reports and trade association reports (Travis, 2016). Desktop research has various advantages such as being cost efficient to conduct (Wasko, 2019). Desktop research data is also readily available. The data will be gathered from secondary sources that provide past and current information on youth unemployment in South Africa and BRICS role in addressing these issues. This will be explored using existing data and statistics gathered from journals, books, Trade Reports from the Department of Trade, Industry and Cooperation, the agreements between BRICS member states, and articles and data released on the BRICS research centre site. The study will also utilize BRICS Annual Summit Reports of 2010 - 2018, the Declaration of BRICS Communication Ministers Meetings, the United Nations Development reports, and data captured from the Annual BRICS Ministers of Foreign Affairs/International Relations Reports.

1.4.2. Research design

This study is conducted using a case study design. The case study design can be explained as a research approach that facilitates exploration of a specific phenomenon within its context, usually using various data sources (Baxter and Jack, 2008). The case study design uses multiple data sources which is a strategy that enhances the credibility of the research study. The data sources may include documents, archival records, interviews, physical artifacts, direct observations and participant-observations (Baxter and Jack, 2008).

A case study design could either employ a single study or multiple case studies. A single study involves an in-depth, intensive analysis of a single instance or phenomenon within a specific time (Mzizi, 2017). A multiple case study involves conducting a research study through the use of several case studies, the researcher aims to explore the differences within and between cases. This research study will be conducted through the use of a single case study due to the fact that it focuses on a particular country (South Africa) and particular coalition (BRICS). In applying the case study method, an in-depth analysis and examination of youth unemployment in South Africa will be undertaken and the role of BRICS in addressing this issue will be explored.

1.4.3. Data collection

The secondary data collected for this research study was obtained from literature libraries by searching through various databases. The research material utilized in this research study was obtained in the form of journals, books, articles and government reports which include the Brazil 2019 Summit, South African Department of Trade, Industry and Competition Trade

Reports, Quarterly Labour Surveys 2015-2019, Statistics South Africa Poverty and Unemployment Report 2015-2019, Annual BRICS Ministers of Foreign Affairs/International Relations Report and the United Nations Development Report. Various forms of secondary data on youth unemployment programmes, data reports, declarations, organisational structure and foreign policy declarations from BRICS and members of the coalition are also utilised in this study.

1.4.4. Data Analysis

Data analysis is the “process of bringing order and meaning to the extensive data collected and a process of reading data in order to reveal a deeper meaning” (Mzizi, 2018: 60). There are several different ways to analyse secondary data, however the most appropriate form of data analysis for this specific research study is qualitative content analysis. Content analysis is used to analyse documented information in the form of texts, media and even physical items (Zhang and Wildermuth, 2005). Qualitative content analysis explores specific themes that provide a variety of meanings of the phenomenon instead of the statistical significance of particular texts and concepts (Zhang and Wildermuth, 2005). Qualitative content analysis is useful in analysing large amounts of data collected from existing textual sources and primarily focuses on deep underlying meanings of a phenomena (Baxter, 2009). By using content analysis, conclusions are drawn from certain data in an inductive or deductive process (Krippendorff, 2004).

Secondary data was gathered using a inductive content analysis method. The inductive content analysis method refers to a research method where a researcher develops theory and identifies themes, patterns and relationships by studying existing documents (Zhang and Wildermuth, 2005). Patterns, themes and concepts gathered from the data were placed under three categories which include the economic impacts of youth unemployment in South Africa, the effects of BRICS membership on the youth of South Africa and BRICS efforts in addressing youth unemployment. Relationships between themes and youth unemployment and BRICS were examined and placed within the three research questions, wherein conclusions can be drawn and deeper understandings of research concepts are explored.

Themes and phrases such as poverty, crime, low economic growth and the youth are identified. By using content analysis, the research finds correlations between the themes that continuously appear throughout the data gathered and are categorised into different groups based on the research questions. Themes and concepts identified through the government reports such as

BRICS Summit Declarations, Quarterly Labour Surveys and BRICS Minister Speeches and Reports are placed in categories that answer each research question. This is used to find patterns and draw conclusions in response to the research questions.

1.5. Significance of Study

Since the 2008 financial crisis, the global unemployment rate reached its highest in 2019 with 5.4% compared to 5.39% in 2018 (The World Bank, 2020). Despite the significant decrease in the global unemployment rate, many countries are still affected by high unemployment levels. Unemployment rates are higher in countries with developing economies such as BRICS member states (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa). In 2016, four of the five BRICS member states experienced an increase in unemployment from the previous year. Brazil's unemployment rate increased by 3.17%, India by 0.24%, while Russia and South Africa increased by 0.34% and 3.34%, respectively. (BRICS Joint Statistical Publication, 2018).

Unemployment is a term referring to persons who are available for employment and actively seeking employment and do not have appropriate employment. Unemployment is used as an indicator of the country's economic status (African Development Bank, 2016). The term unemployment is also defined as individuals who are out of work and have been looking for employment for more than a month (4 weeks), or been temporarily put off work and waiting to be called back. (Amaded, 2020). High levels of unemployment has been associated with various problems. High levels of unemployment specifically among the youth has negative impacts on the economy, political stability and social life of citizens. Organisations such as BRICS have played a significant role in facilitating cooperation and resolving global issues such as unemployment, poverty and security issues. Therefore, the main objective of this study is to shed light on the magnitude of youth unemployment in South Africa, the impact of it on the economy and the role BRICS has played in addressing the issue, as well as the implications South Africa's membership with BRICS has had on alleviating youth unemployment.

This study contributes to ongoing research on the role of BRICS in South Africa and other members of the coalition and how its involvement in the coalition has and can alleviate youth unemployment. It does so by unpacking BRICS as a coalition and the concept of youth unemployment and examining the correlation between youth unemployment and the economy of South Africa. This research study explores the role of BRICS membership in youth unemployment alleviation, through its investments and funded programmes Through the three

main objectives, this study identifies avenues and approaches by which government officials and various departments can provide key solutions to the high levels of unemployment and determine whether the membership with BRICS is beneficial.

1.6 Unemployment

The African Development Bank (2016) defines unemployment as people who do not have a job and are unenrolled in any school or training. It also includes people that are available for employment but do not have appropriate work. Unemployment in South Africa has impacts on society, the economy and politics. The causes of unemployment vary from limited resources to lack of skilled workers, limited job opportunities, low literacy and education levels.

The term unemployment also refers to individuals who want to work but cannot because of unavailable jobs, restricted mobility, discrimination, or cultural, social or structural barriers (African Development Bank, 2016). High levels of unemployment point to economic distress and are a critical economic indicator because they show that workers cannot contribute to the country's economy through unemployment (Choppelow, 2020). Economists have categorised unemployment into two sub-groups which is voluntary and involuntary unemployment. When unemployment is voluntary, it means that an individual resigned from their place of employment willingly in search of other job opportunities (Choppelow, 2020). Involuntary unemployment is when employers fire or lay off their employees. For example, the coronavirus 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic has increased involuntary unemployment levels globally. Researchers have categorised voluntary and involuntary unemployment into four main types: frictional unemployment, cyclical unemployment, structural unemployment, and institutional unemployment.

1.6.1 Types of unemployment

Frictional unemployment

Frictional unemployment is one of the four main types of unemployment in South Africa. This type of unemployment occurs when there is a delay in finding new employment in the labour market and is therefore referred to as the 'search unemployment' (Garcia and Sorolla, 2013:9). Frictional unemployment occurs when individuals alternate between jobs because former employers have dismissed them; they search for employment that pays better wages or less

working hours; or reject particular job offers based on what they believe is appropriate and fitting for them (Garcia and Sorolla, 2013).

Frictional unemployment is an outcome of information mismatch. Individuals are searching for a vacancy or employer that suits their needs and have no information or means to find such; therefore, they are unemployed (Garcia and Sorolla, 2013). Newly graduated individuals are most commonly affected by frictional unemployment between their graduation and job search. Many graduates lack the means to search for appropriate job opportunities which suit their skills and qualification. Graduates do not have enough financial resources available, which will enable mobility to areas with high demand in the labour market (Cassim and Oosthuizen, 2014). Some graduates do not have the financial means to attend interviews or print documents needed for job applications. With only half (roughly 51%) of the South African population having internet access, this limits graduates accessibility to job vacancy adverts (Cassim and Oosthuizen, 2014). Many young people lack social capital and robust networks to source a job (Rankin and Roberts, 2011).

Cyclical unemployment

Cyclical unemployment is related to recurring trends in the industry or labour market (Triegaardt, 1990:75). When there is economic growth in a country, cyclical unemployment will be at its lowest. Still, if the country's economy is not experiencing growth or is in recession, cyclical unemployment will be high. Cyclical unemployment occurs when employees are retrenched from their jobs during an economic downturn and find employment once the economy improves (Triegaardt, 1990:75). Cyclical unemployment is part of the natural incline and decline of the economy that occurs over time. Cyclical unemployment is the most common form of unemployment. A decrease in business output resulting from a decline in demand for goods and services, which results in many retrenchments and job cuts to cut costs, is referred to as cyclical unemployment (Amaded, 2020). Cyclical unemployment leads to more unemployment and further declines in demand due to unemployed workers having less money to buy the goods and services they need (Amaded, 2020).

Structural unemployment

Structural unemployment occurs when there is an incompatibility between job seekers skills and knowledge and the industry's needs. This form of unemployment emerges when there is a considerable mismatch between job seekers' skills and what employers require due to changes in the economy (Donisi, 2017). In other words, structural unemployment occurs when job seekers' skills do not match skills demanded by available employment or if the job seekers cannot reach a job's geographical location (Corporate Finance Institute, 2016). A recession contributes to structural unemployment because workers stay unemployed for extended periods and their skills become outdated (Corporate Finance Institute, 2016). Structural unemployment is a longer-lasting form of unemployment caused by changes in economic trends; it is commonly influenced by technology, competition, and government policies (Kenton, 2020). Structural unemployment is referred to as a longer-lasting form of unemployment caused by changes in economic trends. It is commonly influenced by technology, competition, and government policies (Kenton, 2020). Structural unemployment is the most severe form of unemployment due to the poverty that arises from it (Triegaardt, 1993).

Structural unemployment is often caused by technological advances in an industry like the manufacturing sector, as machinery and robots have replaced unskilled workers. Workers are even expected to get additional computer training if they intend on keeping their jobs (Amaded, 2020). According to the World Bank Data, in 2018, 12% of the unemployed were graduates. South Africa's workforce skills are ranked 101st out of 141 countries which means that graduates' skills do not match the skills required by businesses (Comins, 2020). On average, South Africa's labour force is growing by approximately 101 000 individuals per quarter. In contrast, the economy creates jobs on an average of 53 000 jobs per quarter (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019). Job creation and employment rate directly translate to one in every two potential employees absorbed into the economy (52,5%) (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019).

The digital era, also known as the 4th industrial revolution, signifies new ways society utilises technology. These examples include new systems/methods of machine intelligence, genome editing and "breakthrough materials and approaches to governance that rely on cryptographic methods" (Davis, 2016:1). The increased use of technology such as remote banking, self-service facilities and internet banking has resulted in the downsizing and large scale

retrenchment in the banking sector of South Africa (Institute For Global Dialogue). In March of 2019, one of South Africa's biggest banks, Standard Bank, announced the shutdown of 91 branches. By June 2019, the number was 104 branches nationwide (Institute For Global Dialogue, 2019). In the annual report taken in December 2019, Standard bank reported 44 996 employees, a decline from 47 419 the previous year- which equates to 2 423 jobs lost (Institute For Global Dialogue, 2019).

The long period of unemployment among South African youth is an example of structural unemployment. One of the leading causes of structural unemployment is an economic recession. In 2010, following the 2008/2009 global financial crisis, the unemployment rate among South African youth (15-35 years old) amounted to approximately 35.7%, which increased from 33.7% in the previous year. After one million jobs were lost in South Africa, there was a clear indication that most people did not find suitable employment; thus, unemployment increased. The 2008/2009 global financial collapse played a significant role in youth unemployment in South Africa. The South African economic recession is a principal contributor to unemployment. Over 18 months, about 34 million people lost their jobs worldwide; one million of those were in South Africa (Brothwell, 2020). During the 2008/2009 global recession, there was retrenchment in the manufacturing industry, as many companies could not afford to compensate their workforce and reduce their numbers (Brothwell, 2020).

Institutional unemployment

Institutional unemployment “results from long-term or permanent institutional factors and incentives in the economy” (Chappelow and Barnier, 2020:3). Government policies such as high minimum wage, sizeable social benefit programs, and restrictions on occupational laws, labour market occurrences, such as efficiency wages, unionization and discrimination in hiring processes are key contributors to institutional unemployment (Chappelow and Barnier, 2020).

The term unionization, which refers to the functions of unions, is essential. Unions function by negotiating with companies/ managers to provide collective benefits that apply to all members and generally lasts for a specific period. Unions are a representative body of employees who speak and represent them on various matters such as equal work pay, working hours and working environments free of discrimination and harassment. When unions argue for higher wages of already employed individuals, employers have no other choice but to reduce staff or

employees. Unionization only benefits individuals who are already employed, and in return, reduces job creation to little or nothing (Chappelow and Barnier, 2020). The South African government policies are a contribution to the relatively high youth unemployment. South African policymakers are driven by a set of employment ideas, including higher minimum wages and considerable legal protection from dismissal. These concepts are unfortunately not suited for the current challenges of youth unemployment (Mare, 2018).

The South African labour market policy argues for a stipulated minimum wage which has prevented employment creation that is the first entry point for many unskilled workers into the labour market (Maziya, 1999). Many newly graduated individuals who fall into the age bracket of youth (15-35 years old) are in this predicament. Several companies have inefficient hiring and firing practices; they have little cooperation between employees and employers and poor relationships between pay and productivity (Mare, 2018). These factors often make employers reduce labour, specifically those that are less skilled and less experienced, which eventually discourages employers from hiring new employees, especially the youth that is particularly most vulnerable (Mare, 2018).

1.7. Structure of dissertation

Chapter 1: Introduction - The first chapter of this research study provides a brief background of the topic. It discusses the research objectives and questions of the study, and the research methodology and research design utilised in the research study. The data collection and data analysis methods are explained.

Chapter 2: BRICS - This chapter explores BRICS as a coalition, its history the mandate of the coalition and its systems and structures. The Chapter examines and provides a brief overview of each member state (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa). It briefly examines the population, contribution and influence each member state has on the coalition.

Chapter 3: Literature Review - A wide range of available literature on youth unemployment, focusing on the conceptualisation of youth and youth unemployment in Africa, South Africa and globally is presented. This section reviews journal articles, books, and key institutional reports to provide key arguments, concepts, ideas and gaps in literature. The literature review

explored multilateralism and its implications for member states like South Africa as a member of BRICS.

Chapter 4: Theoretical Framework - This chapter explains and discusses the theory of liberal institutionalism and explores its key ideas and themes in understanding the role of BRICS. This pertains to BRICS supporting efforts to address the national crisis of youth unemployment in South Africa and the contributions made thus far in addressing the issue. This Chapter briefly examines and discusses the theory of classical economic growth, as youth unemployment has a major effect on the economy of South Africa.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis and Findings - The findings from the data is analysed and discussed in order to identify key solutions to South Africa's youth unemployment crisis. The research questions serve as a guide in presenting the data gathered from secondary sources. This includes an in-depth discussion on the findings and implications of these findings.

Chapter 6: Summary, Recommendations and Conclusion - This chapter is a brief summary of each chapter and presentation of key ideas discussed in the study. This chapter presents conclusions based on the findings from Chapter 1-4 and provides evidence-based recommendations for stakeholders. The chapter provides recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO: BRICS

2.1 History of BRICS

The organization known as BRICS was first launched in 1998 by former Russian Prime minister Yevgny Primakov (BRICS Information Centre, 2012). The coalition members were emerging economies - Brazil, Russia, India, and China. The organization did not include South Africa until late 2010, after the second Brasilia summit held in Brazil (Petropoulos, 2013:39). South Africa's inclusion in BRICS would provide other member countries improved access to natural resources such as gold, coal and platinum (Pinto, 2012). Furthermore, its diverse population is a reason for its addition as a member of the coalition. These factors are valuable to BRICS countries because they can access a diverse consumer base and economic pool, helping them achieve their collective goals and interests (Petropoulos, 2013:39). The coalition comprises countries regarded as the world's emerging economies and characterized by rapid industrialization and development (Pedro et al., 2012:7). BRICS objectives are to promote a legitimate international system and provide a South-South framework for cooperation. It acts as a communicator between the developed and developing world, specifically the United Nations and World Trade Organization (Kahn, 2011).

BRICS was formed as an alternative institution that provides financial aid to developing countries. The organization also has the aim of "providing self-governance that will be tasked with carrying out developmental and economic goals in member states without relying on any foreign agency such as the World Bank" (Kahn, 2011: 40). The basic principles of the BRICS coalition are respect for the sovereignty of member states, an obligation to existing international laws and acknowledgement of the role of the United Nations in peace, security and development. BRICS has basic principles of their partnership. This includes full respect for member state' sovereignty, commitment to international laws and recognition of the United Nations responsibility to peace, security and development. Its principles are based on the priorities, growth and development of each member state, commitment to mutually beneficial cooperation with other countries, and a commitment to the rules and guidelines of the multilateral trading system according to The World Trade Organization (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). BRICS recognizes the multiple actors at play in the global economic and financial system and emphasizes openness, information-sharing and

agreement in decision making among coalition members (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015).

2.2 BRICS mandate

BRICS areas for cooperation include trade and investment promotion, manufacturing and minerals processing, sustainable energy, agricultural sector, science, technology and innovation (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). Together, the member states have 30% of the global land, 45% of agricultural production worldwide and 43% of global production. BRICS contribution over the last decade has reached 50%, making the coalition the prominent bloc in global economic development. It comprises 21% of the world's gross domestic product (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015).

BRICS objective is to encourage peace, security and economic development in an interconnected and globalised world. Its member states represent Asia, Europe, Africa and Latin America and have a transnational dimension and expanded potential consumer markets (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). The coalition aims to “complement and support existing bilateral and multilateral relations among member states, improve market access and allow market inter-linkages, promote trade and investment, and create a business friendly environment for investors and entrepreneurs in member states” (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015:10). BRICS aims for an inclusive economy to reduce poverty, address high levels of unemployment within their member states and promote social inclusion globally. It aims to strengthen macroeconomic policy coordination (Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015).

BRICS member states play a vital role in the global agriculture market and agricultural production; they, therefore, are top contributors to food, nutrition and security. BRICS member states are the largest sugar, cereals and wheat producers in the world. China is the first largest buckwheat producer accounting for 21.09% of the world's wheat production, followed by the Russian Federation (Kumar, 2018). In 2019-2020 2020, Brazil was the largest sugar producer, valued at 29.93 million metric tons and accounted for 42% of global exports (Walton, 2020). In 2018/2019, China was the largest rice producer globally and accounted for 30% of global production (Kumar, 2018). Agricultural cooperation among member states aims to strengthen food security globally through increasing agricultural production, improving investment

conditions and transparency of markets (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015).

In 2006 an agricultural experiment was launched. It is a Chinese investment programme aimed at funding 20 agrotechnology research, training and demonstration centres in Africa, each at the value of US \$6-9 million (Hinne, 2013). The South African Agricultural demonstration centre is located in Gariep Dam in the Free State province. The centre officially entered the technical cooperation stage in 2014 (Jaing et al., 2016). The centre specializes in research areas chosen by the host country. For example, Ethiopia's centre is focused on the value chain for horticulture exports (Hinne, 2013). The agricultural sector provides employment primarily for unskilled workers. The increase in agricultural production can lead to poverty and unemployment alleviation. When agricultural productivity increases, farmers can employ more people. In 2018, South Africa's agricultural sector increased by 7% to US \$10.6 billion, which resulted in employment gains of 7000 in the 3rd quarter of 2018 (Quarterly Labour Survey, 2018). Financial cooperation among members of the coalition is imperative in improving their economic and social conditions. The areas of cooperation include establishing the New Development Bank to mobilize resources for infrastructure and development projects in emerging economies and developing countries (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). The member states' financial cooperation involves advancing the reforms of international financial institutions, particularly in the International Monetary Fund and World Bank Group (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). Among the various projects the New Development Bank is involved in, South Africa has received a loan valued at approximately \$400million for a battery energy storage project to provide South Africa with a cleaner energy option (New Development Bank, 2020).

BRICS is committed to sponsoring sustainable energy production and consumption, which is vital for coalition members' economic development. Coalition members have the following priority areas related to energy planning: develop energy infrastructure, provide mutual support for different energy supplies, encourages renewable sources of energy, promote universal access to energy and introduce ecologically friendly technologies of energy production and use (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015).

BRICS aims to endeavour for an inclusive economy to reduce poverty, address high levels of unemployment within their member states and promote social inclusion globally. BRICS aims

to strengthen macroeconomic policy coordination (Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). BRICS is home to 40% of the world's population. The advancement of education has had a growing influence on the distribution of skilled and talented individuals globally (BRICS: Building Education for the Future, 2014). BRICS member states are dedicated to improving education and literacy among adults and children and improving the overall quality of education, and developing skills required to advance economically (BRICS: Building Education for the Future, 2014). India's had success in increasing education access by creating the world's largest primary school system and provided secondary education for 42.7 million pupils (BRICS: Building Education for the Future, 2014). India also has the second-largest higher education system globally. The BRICS member state has approximately 28.56 million students, 35 540 colleges and 700 universities (Varghese, 2015). BRICS member states account for over one in three of higher education students globally. In 2003, China had the world's largest tertiary population, with almost 18 million higher education students (BRICS: Building Education for the Future, 2014).

2.3 BRICS Systems and Structures

Structures that exist with BRICS include the New Development Bank and the Contingent Reserve Arrangement (CRA). The New Development Bank was launched in 2014, during the sixth BRICS summit in Fortaleza (BRICS Information Centre, 2019). The financial condition has an equal shareholding structure, with 20% per member. The headquarters of the New Development Bank is in Shanghai (BRICS Information Centre, 2019). The financial institution's main aim is to promote projects of infrastructure and sustainable development within BRICS members states and other emerging economies (BRICS Information Centre, 2019). CRA was established in 2015, and the financial structure "is a framework for the provision of support through liquidity instruments in response to the actual or potential short-term balance of repayment pressure" (BRICS Information Centre, 2019: 18). CRA is aimed at helping countries cope with short-term balances of repayment pressure. The decision-making council of the CRA is based on consensus by the committee. The leadership of BRICS structures is a presidential term of five years, and presidents are elected on a rotating basis between members (New Development Bank, 2020). BRICS leader is Marcos Prado Troyjo from Brazil, and the Vice-President is Anil-Kishora. Leadership is appointed by a board of governors per the article of agreement of NDB procedures (New Development Bank, 2020).

BRICS Business Council is a structure within BRICS that was launched at the fifth BRICS summit held in South Africa, Durban, in 2013. The Council's objective is to constitute a platform that promotes and strengthens business, trade and investment relations between the five BRICS member states (BRICS Business Council, 2019). The BRICS Business council ensures regular communication and negotiation between the business community. The council identifies problems that would hinder economic growth, trade and investment and recommend solutions accordingly (BRICS Business Council, 2019). The Council's objectives include advocating the value of BRICS to all stakeholders. The Council fosters regular communication between BRICS business communities, the government of BRICS member states and other stakeholders (BRICS Business Council, 2019). The BRICS Business Council is responsible for fostering relationships with BRICS member governments that create a regulatory environment. This environment is conducive to strengthening and promoting economic, trade and investment (BRICS Business Council, 2019).

BRICS ministers and BRICS officials meet every year at formal summits since 2009. The agenda of the summits have prioritized development and macroeconomics until 2014. The summit's agenda expanded into social concerns such as health, poverty, education and political security (Kirton, 2015). BRICS Ministers of Trade always meet annually on their own. This is to review the state of BRICS Trade and Economic Cooperation and to exchange ideas on further joint steps to be made in critical areas of mutual interest (10th BRICS Ministers of Trade Communique, 2020). All BRICS declarations, speeches, announcements, statements and reports are publicly released. Minutes from ministers meetings are compiled into Annual Reports. Declarations and speeches by officials and ministers are documented and uploaded onto the BRICS Information Centre website (BRICS Information Centre, 2019).

2.4 Overview of BRICS member states

BRICS is an acronym of a coalition consisting of five major developing countries. The coalition includes Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. The five mentioned countries are regarded as the world's fastest-growing emerging economies due to their low labour costs, favourable demographics, and a variety of natural resources (Chen and Boyar, 2020). In 1990, before the inclusion of South Africa, the four founding member states, Brazil, Russia, India and China (BRIC), accounted for 11% of the global gross domestic product (GDP). The Gross

Domestic Product figure rose by almost 30% by 2014, despite the global financial crisis in 2008 (World Bank, 2015).

Country	Population
Brazil	211.05 million
China	1.397, 72 billion
Russia	144, 37 million
India	1, 366.42 billion
South Africa	58, 775 million

Table 2.3: BRICS member states population (Million)

Source: (World Bank, 2019).

Reports from the World Bank reveal that a total of 3.18 billion people live in BRICS member countries. These figures include South Africa and contribute to 41.425 of the global population, with China and India contributing to the world's largest populations (See Table 2.3).

2.4.1 Federative Republic of Brazil

BRICS member states have made significant improvement economically and politically over the past few years, with the coalition's help. Through its membership in BRICS, Brazil has boosted its international standing by strengthening international ties with other international actors (BRICS, 2012). BRICS serves three purposes: reinforcing Brazil's identity as a rising power economically and politically; and improving trade relations with developing economies, specifically with Russia and India (Casaroes, 2018). Brazil has also received substantial support from the New Development Bank by creating a regional headquarters branch in Sao Paulo in 2018 (Xing, 2019).

2.4.2 Federation of Russia

Russia's membership in BRICS has helped facilitate consistent contact with South Africa and Brazil. The New Development Bank has approved loans worth \$840 million in 2018. These loans included allocating funds for environmental protection, urban infrastructure, water, sanitation and flood protection within Russia (Kapoor, 2020). A large amount of the Russian economy is created by the export and sale of oil. Russia has 87 billion barrels of oil and approximately 1163 trillion cubic feet of natural gas reserves (World Bank, 2015). Seventy per cent of all export value, 30% of the country's federal budget and a quarter of the GDP is

contributed by oil (World Bank, 2015). Russia is one of the world's largest natural gas exporter and, due to its position as a world energy power, it is central to energy cooperation within BRICS countries. Russia plays a key role in the cooperation between BRICS members states. Examples of such ties within the coalition include the Russia-China energy dialogue and the Brazil project of exploring and developing hydrocarbons at licensed areas (BRICS Energy Report, 2020).

2.4.3 Republic of India

India, like the other BRICS member states, has experienced growth and development. It has the second largest population and the second-largest middle-class population in the world. BRICS has provided stronger trade relations between India and the other four member states. In the final quarter of 2019, 44% of India's total imports were from Brazil, China, Russia and South Africa (United Nations Comtrade Database, 2019). Between 2013 and 2014, India's trade with other BRICS member states had reached the US \$95 billion (World Bank, 2015). India's contribution to BRICS includes the New Development Bank proposal, which was put on the BRICS agenda of the 4th annual summit held in India in 2012 (BRICS Information Centre, 2012).

2.4.4 People's Republic of China

China is currently the most densely inhabited country globally, with a population of over one billion people. China currently has the second-largest economy globally and is gradually surpassing the United States of America (Reidy, 2019). China is currently BRICS principal investor. The coalition plays a significant role in Beijing's geopolitical and economic influence (Reidy, 2019). China's investment in BRICS accounts for approximately 41% and is currently the largest exporter in the world. In 2012, its manufacturing sector accounted for 31% of the total export (Reidy, 2019). Through BRICS, China has strengthened bilateral exchanges with Africa. It is the largest importer in Africa and accounts for approximately \$93 billion (World Bank, 2018).

2.5 BRICS and South Africa

The coalition did not include South Africa until late 2010, after the second Brasilia summit held in Brazil (Petropoulos, 2013:39). South Africa has one of the most diverse populations globally, with most of the population below the age of 45 years old (80%). This plays a vital role in the economic market research and policy development within BRICS (Modi and Pinto,

2019). South Africa's demographic resources are beneficial to BRICS because they provide members states access to a diverse consumer base and economic pool, which is essential in economic growth and development (Petropoulos, 2013).

South Africa was invited to join BRICS due to the availability of precious minerals, gold, platinum and diamonds in the country; it's well-established corporate footprint, stable micro and macro-financial climate; and advanced banking system that has received several foreign investments from countries such as Germany and China (BRICS Information Centre, 2016). It's well-developed business, and banking systems also created a gateway for investment for many other African and BRICS countries (Pinto, 2012).

According to the South African government, its membership with BRICS will provide economic benefits such as "increased trade and investment opportunities; increasing its voice in the international sphere, in global issues and forums and institutions. This is specifically a representative body for the sub-Saharan region" (Besada et al., 2013: 11). South Africa's membership in BRICS allows SA to benefit from employment opportunities and infrastructure development. Through BRICS, South Africa is given an international platform to globally promote foreign policy and achieve national policy objectives (BRICS Information Centre, 2012). South Africa's membership in BRICS is influenced by its ability to advance its national interests through the coalition.

Additionally, it would have the ability to cooperate with important role players of the South on issues of global governance reforms (BRICS Information centre, 2012). South Africa benefits from the various concrete projects in areas such as science, agriculture, security and justice, which allow for economic development, unemployment alleviation and growth (BRICS Information Centre, 2012). South Africa's inclusion in BRICS has been beneficial for the country and has been positive for BRICS. BRICS has impacted global economic markets by contributing over a third of global GDP growth over the last ten years (Besada et al., 2013).

BRICS has had a significant influence in South Africa in policies, economy, development strategies and trade (which includes mainly corn, diamonds, sugar and gold). BRICS has played a significant role in South African health care. In 2015, the Chinese government donated medical equipment to the Steve Biko Academic Hospital in Pretoria. The donation of medical equipment as a result of the Second Ministerial Forum of China-Africa Health Development was held in Cape Town in October 2015 (National Health Commission of the PRC, 2015).

South Africa and China have had solid trade relations. In 2015, China and South Africa signed 25 trade agreements valued at \$16.5 billion. China is currently South Africa's biggest trade partner. In 2017, 7.8% of South Africa's total exports for one month went to China, while 18.7% of imports came from China in the same month (Moosa, 2017).

South Africa had several favourable characteristics which played a role in its inclusion in the coalition (Olivier, 2013). South Africa already had an existing relationship and economic influence in international politics and organizations - specifically the South African Customs Union (SACU) and the African Union (South African Institute of International Affairs, 2019). South Africa is viewed as a country that wields influence on the African continent (South African Institute of International Affairs, 2019). It was identified as a regional hegemonic power due to its increasing population. Due to its large and advanced economy on the continent and well-developed infrastructure such as railways, roads and buildings (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2013). South Africa also has well-developed communication and political system compared to neighbouring African countries (Pinto, 2012). South Africa accepted its addition to BRICS so that it would be allowed to pursue domestic interests to promote its regional cooperation program and related continental infrastructure developments (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2013).

2.6 Conclusion

High levels of youth unemployment are a pressing challenge for developing countries, including South Africa. This chapter shows the severe effects of youth unemployment on a country politically, economically, socially and security-wise. High levels of youth unemployment have shown to be the underlying issue of high levels of poverty and crime, low economic growth, high suicide and anxiety rate among the youth. South Africa's government has made various attempts to decrease youth unemployment with initiatives like the EPWP, National Youth Services, Community Works Programme and employment tax incentives. The chapter presents the BRICS coalition comprising of five major emerging economies: Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa and the effects of this coalition on the conditions of member states. This coalition has played a significant role in the altering of global affairs and connections between the developing and developed world.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explores and discusses the relevant existing literature on youth unemployment in South Africa and the role of BRICS in addressing the issue. Although there is current data on youth unemployment, there is a gap in the literature that focuses explicitly on BRICS influence in addressing youth unemployment in South Africa. The literature presented provides an in-depth understanding of unemployment and youth unemployment and its causes and effects on society.

3.2 Multilateralism

Multilateralism is defined as coordinated political relations between three or more states or other actors on an international level, these states, international organisations cooperate with each other to solve global issues and find solutions (Moreland, 2019) Multilateralism is usually used in the contrast of unilateralism, because unilateralism favours and encourages decisions made solely by one state and discourages coalitions between states, while on the other hand multilateralism encourages cooperation and coalitions between states (Moreland, 2019). Multilateralism is an effective tool for states to pursue their national interests, international organisations such as the IMF, the World Bank and even BRICS comprise of multilateral principles. International organisations such as the ones mentioned above were first launched and established to pursue common goals, economic growth and development through coalitions and multilateral partnerships.

Multilateralism has a long history which traces back after the 2nd world war and is referred to as the process of organizing relations between groups of three or more states (Scott, 2015). Although the word multilateralism only appeared after the 2nd world war, it played an extremely significant role in the 20th century international relations system and can be traced back to the Great Depression (UN Geneva, 2016). Multilateralism accords recognition to small or developing states thereby giving them equal power to bigger and developed states. At the same time, developed countries are controlled by international responsibility. Multilateralism increases accountability, transparency, and the sustainability of states, and in the case of aid,

multilateral aid is more efficient, effective, and responsive to the needs of the recipient (Hisahiro, 2019).

3.2.1 Multilateralism in practice

Economic organisations possess strong multilateral principles. Two of the most influential organisations are the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) now known as the World Bank. Both these economic organisations have an extremely long history that can be traced back to 1944, when the second World War ended (Moschella, 2012). The IMF and the WB have particularly attracted much criticism for the influence they exert on their member states (Moschella, 2012). The IMF was established in 1944 as an aftermath of the Great Depression in the 1930s, the organisation had 44 founding member countries that aimed for international economic cooperation (Eichengreen, 2008).

The IMF main objectives are to “substitute global monetary cooperation, secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable economic growth” (Eichengreen, 2008: 70). The World Bank, was established in 1944 with an initial funding of \$912.7 million and 15 founding member states (World Bank, 2021). The IBRD was established to help Europe recover from the World War II by providing financial assistance through loans (World Bank, 2021). These institutions provided a platform to other multilateral international economic organisations such as BRICS. Although economic coalitions and organisations such as those mentioned above were established with the aim and intention of economic growth and pursuing common goals there have been advantages and disadvantages for member states.

3.2.2 Advantages and Disadvantages of Multilateralism

Multilateral agreements benefit developing countries the most because they provide developing states with an opportunity to participate economically in an equal and less competitive global political world (Harris, 2007). Multilateral agreements increase trade between member states which boosts the economy of member states (Harris, 2007). Multilateral agreements and multilateral organisations provide companies within member states with low tariffs or free

trade. This particularly helps companies expand, making the cost of exporting much cheaper (Elliot, 2004).

South Africa is currently a member of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) which is a regional economic trade agreement that provides free trade on specific trade items such as sugar and maize. The SADC currently has 16 member states which includes Angola, Botswana, Comoros, Democratic Republic of Congo, Eswatini, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe (Department of Trade, 2019). The SADC is a trade agreement of 85% duty-free trade achieved in 2008 on most goods such as fish from Namibia and sugar from Eswatini (Department of Trade, 2019). Government to government relationships are one of the most common tools used to advance a state economically and pursue economic interests especially in Africa (Department of Trade, 2019). SADC possesses strong multilateral principles due to trade agreements between at least 16 African countries with the aim of identifying and establishing joint investment projects in partner countries and promote two-way trade (Department of Trade, 2019).

In 2018 in terms of export and import trade South Africa was the biggest intra-SADC FTA trading partner, which accounted for 45% of total intra-SADC FTA trade (Department of trade, 2019). In the same year South Africa was also the largest exporter intra-SADC FTA accounting for 66% of the total, through this multilateral trade agreement, in 2018 South Africa's exports to other African countries increased which amounted to \$185 243 million, while exports amounted to USD \$191 575 million (Department of trade, 2019). When exports of a country increases, this indicates a high demand for goods which allows companies to expand and increases their productivity thus directly positively impacting the economy of the country.

Another advantage of multilateralism is that "it standardizes commerce regulations for all the trade partners. Companies within member states save legal costs since they follow the same rules for each country" (Moreland, 2019:23) Multilateral agreements have flaws; one of which is it increases foreign competition within member states. Economic coalitions like BRICS is no exception, while countries such as China and India experience economic growth and development at an exponential rate as a result of increased export rate to other fellow BRICS member states, countries such as Brazil and South Africa are experiencing an influx of foreign products which puts pressure on small local companies (Elliot, 2019). The South African

textile industry particularly is at an advantage with more than 70% of clothing imported into South Africa. Because of this, the local textile industry accounts for a mere 14% of manufacturing employment in South Africa, providing as little as 60 000 to 80 000 jobs and making an 8% contribution to its GDP (Quarterly Labour Survey, 2018). South Africa's local textile industry has potential to flourish however increased international competition has put the textile under strain with companies failing to even pay workers a minimum wage. In 2013, factory employees within the metro-area were earning as little as R809 per week while non-metro employees earned R450 (Nair, 2013). Between December 2004 and April 2015 employment within the textile industry decreased by more than 50 000 (Nair, 2013).

Inequality within economic coalitions with strong multilateral principles is a major concern, and this is one of the most common areas multilateral organisations and agreements attract much backlash and discouragement. BRICS as one of the most well-known economic coalitions has inequality in terms of economic growth and development. Although one of the core objectives of BRICS is to pursue common interests and develop economically, some members of the coalition are growing and developing economically at a fast rate, while other BRICS member states are experiencing little or no economic development. In 2016, the GDP of China tripled and was worth \$6101 trillion, India \$1744, Russia \$1525 and Brazil \$2205 trillion while South Africa's increased by 3% and was worth \$375 million (World Bank, 2018)

In 2016, the GDP of most BRICS countries increased however the South African economy was under strain, the rand was at its lowest at R14, 12 to the dollar as compared to 2010 when the rand was R7, 68 to the dollar (World Bank, 2019). In 2011, South Africa had a total value of \$82 631 million in exports while its imports were valued at \$83 100 million; and in the space of 5 years South Africa's exports were valued at \$80 265 million while imports were valued at \$85 510 million. There has been an increase in imports and a significant decrease in exports in the space of 5 years (World Bank, 2019). China's exports have done exceptionally well as compared to other BRICS member countries, in 2015 China's exports were valued at \$2,273,468 million, India's exports were valued at \$264,381 million, Russia was \$343,908 million and Brazil valued at \$191,127 million (World Bank 2019). While on the other hand, China's imports were valued at \$1,679,564 million, Russia valued at \$182,782 million, India \$390,745 million and Brazil valued at \$171,446 million (World Bank 2019). There has been a huge imbalance in economic development among BRICS member states as well as trade.

BRICS is comprised of 5 of the world's fastest emerging economies, however there is an imbalance in economic growth and development among BRICS member states. The GDP growth rate of three (China, Russia and India) out of the five member states have gradually grown between 2016-2018 while the other two countries (South Africa and Brazil) have experienced slow or no economic growth at all (World Bank, 2019). BRICS has benefited China immensely with an increase in exports to other BRICS countries as discussed above, as a result China's economic growth rate per year has been above 6% from 2016-2018 (World Bank, 2019). India has the second highest economic growth rate within the coalition, like China, India has had great success with their exports which has allowed major companies such as Zensar and Nihilent to expand into South Africa (Bratt, 2016). Although India's GDP growth rate decreased from 8.3% in 2016 to 7.0% in 2017, India's GDP growth rate is still higher compared to other member states (Bratt, 2016).

Between 2016 and 2017 Russia's GDP growth rate increased from 0.2% to 1.8%, while on the other Brazil's GDP economic fell into a decline by -3.3%, it did experience some growth the following year with just a mere 1.3% (World Bank, 2019). South Africa has also fallen victim to a slow GDP growth rate, in 2016 South Africa had a GDP growth rate of 0.4% which increased to 1.4% in 2017. Russia, Brazil and South Africa have one of the slowest growing economies as compared to their counterparts China and India (World Bank, 2019). Between 2016 and 2019 China's average GDP growth rate was 6.5%, India 5.2%, Russia 1.1%, Brazil 1% and South Africa 0.8% (World Bank, 2019).

3.3 Youth

The ages of 15 to 35 years old, commonly referred to as the youth, is the largest group affected by unemployment currently. According to the United Nations (2013), youth refers to a transition from dependant childhood to independent adulthood. Youth is regarded as more fluid than other age groups; however, age is seen as one of the simplest ways to define youth due to its correlation with education and employment. Therefore, 'youth' is often described as an individual between completing secondary education and finding their first employment (United Nations, 2013). The United Nations, "for statistical purposes, defines 'youth', as those persons between the ages of 15 and 24 years, without bias to other definitions of Member States" (United Nations, 2013:1). The age range of youth is a much-debated concept. The World Health Organization (2011) also refers to youth as persons between the ages of 15-24 years old. BRICS member states (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) do not have a common

definition or perspective of what age is youth, youth policies and programmes are aimed at individuals that are between 15-29 years in Brazil. While in Russia individuals between the ages of 18-40 years are regarded as youth and south Africa with the ages between 15-35 years (MacLennan. et, al, 2014).

The South African National Youth Policy defines youth as individuals between the ages of 14 and 35. The concept of youth is very expansive. The National Youth Policy definition includes different youth groups, particularly those that have been exposed to various socio-political and historical experiences (Southern African Regional Poverty Network, 2002:3). A 35-year-old lived through a time of identity clashes and political turmoil as a learner, while a 14-year-old “youth is growing up in an environment when many of the new reforms and achievements of the struggles are being realized” (Southern African Regional Poverty Network, 2002:3).

The South African youth population is 20.3 million aged 15-35 years old, which equates to 38.4% of the population. Half of the youth population (53.18%) is currently unemployed or not enrolled in any school/ education institute (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, Quarter 1: 2019). The current national crisis of youth unemployment is caused by various reasons such as “population growth, little or no work experience, unsuccessful ways of job searching and lack of career guidance in schools, resulting in unacceptably high unemployment rate for first-time job-seekers in South Africa” (Cloete, 2014:514). The South African youth is greatly affected by the increased demand for skilled labour - which translates to a decrease in unskilled workers (Cloete, 2014: 515). Youth unemployment is a global issue and is relatively higher on the African continent, with 31% of the 420 million African youth unemployed (African Development Bank, 2016).

3.3.1 Global overview of youth unemployment

Globally, there are approximately 1.3 billion young people between the ages of 15 to 24 years old and, in the next decade, about one billion individuals will enter the labour market (International Labour Organization, 2018). Between 1997 and 2017, the global youth labour force has decreased by 34.5 million, despite the youth population growth of 139 million (International Labour Organization, 2018). The global labour market cannot absorb the rapidly growing youth population, which results in high levels of youth unemployment. The continuing

trend of high youth unemployment over an extended period can have severe economic and social repercussions (International Labour Organization, 2018).

A large number of the global youth population are not enrolled in any educational institution and are not employed or receiving any training (International Labour Organization, 2015). High levels of unemployment are not just an issue faced by developing countries; it is a global issue. In the final quarter of 2016, the global unemployment rate was 5.67%, which roughly equates to 174.7 million people around the world unemployed (International Labour Organization, 2020). Unemployment levels are higher in countries with developing economies such as BRICS member states. In 2017, the youth population accounted for 35% of the unemployed population globally. Even though there has been some improvement in unemployment among the youth since the 2008/2009 Global Financial Crisis, there are still 70.9 million young people unemployed, as illustrated in Table 3.1 (International Labour Organization, 2018). The unemployment level has increased drastically, with the youth three times more likely to be unemployed than individuals over 35 years. This contributes to the unemployment of 75 million young people who have the appropriate training, which means that every 4 out of 10 unemployed individuals are between 15-24 years (International Labour Organization, 2018).

2016	2017	2018	2019
13.1 %	13.1 %	13.2%	13.2%

Table 3.1: Percentage of youth unemployed globally (2016-2019)
Source: International Labour Organization (2020)

According to the International Labour Organization (ILO) (2017), 40 million new young people are entering the global labour market each year, and there are already approximately 200 million young unemployed persons. Thus, for the labour market to handle all these young people's entry, almost 600 million jobs have to be created (Ayhan, 2016). The economic conditions for the global youth population are gradually becoming worse. In 2016 approximately 309 million people categorised as 'youth' were employed but still living in households that earn less than \$2 a day. Millions of young people have to work temporarily or part-time. Thus, affecting achieving sustainable and inclusive growth (Ayhan, 2016). In 2018,

approximately 39% of young workers, specifically in developing countries, lived in moderate or extreme poverty (International Labour Organisation, 2019). More than two out of five young people in the workforce are working but still poor (International Labour Organization, 2017). The current issue of youth unemployment is about creating jobs for the youth and creating quality and decent jobs to improve their living standards and provide a means for career development (International Labour Organization, 2017).

Global youth unemployment trends highlighted the vulnerabilities of young women in the labour market. In 2017, the participation rate of young women in the labour force was 16.6% lower than men. Globally, there are more unemployed young females than their male counterparts (International Labour Organization, 2017). Unemployment among young women is higher in almost all regions of the world. For example, in Northern Africa and Arab states, the youth unemployment rate among women is nearly double compared to male counterparts (International Labour Organisations, 2016). In Northern Africa, 44.3% of young women are unemployed, and 44.1% of young women in Arab states (MENA) are unemployed (International Labour Organization, 2016). Youth unemployment among females is much higher in North Africa and Arab states due to the youth labour market being influenced by gender bias. Female participation in the labour market is low at 24.1% compared to the male rate of 60.2% (International Labour Organization, 2016). Young females with tertiary degrees in the MENA region experience a longer transition between school and work than their male counterparts, with an 11 month and eight-month difference, respectively (United Nations, 2019). Young females in North Africa and Arab states (MENA) are also faced with pressure from cultural norms such as getting married at a young age and taking care of family responsibilities.

Due to cultural norms such as those mentioned above, young females are less likely to attain high school education. Female adolescents (15-17 years) account for over half of the 9.3 million children out of school (United Nations, 2019). Quality and economically inclusive jobs given to women is still a pressing concern. In 2010, the World Bank recorded 52.6 million domestic workers globally, and 80% of those are female. The widening gender gap in youth unemployment is a true reflection of social and cultural norms that limit women's access to quality job opportunities; these social and cultural norms also influence what is regarded as a suitable job for a female (International Labour Organisation, 2018).

3.3.2 Youth unemployment in Africa

Globally and in countries on the African continent, jobs, development, and opportunities for the youth are constantly at the top of the development agenda. In 2009, the African Union Commission declared 2009-2018 as a period for youth development. It approved a POA to implement activities identified as priorities (The African Capacity Building Foundation, 2017). Through the African Union Agenda of 2063, member states are called to support their youth with investment in health, education, access to technology and other opportunities in order to reduce unemployment and underemployment and because they are catalysts for the continent's resurgence (The African Capacity Building Foundation, 2017). In Africa, the youth represent both a challenge and an excellent opportunity for development, especially now when most of the world's population is ageing. Although young people need jobs, they also play a critical role in creating them (The African Capacity Building Foundation, 2017).

Africa has the largest population of young people globally; these are persons aged between 15-24 years old. In 2015, it was recorded that 226 million young people lived in Africa, which represents roughly 20% of Africa's population (United Nations, 2016). In 2015, the youth population of Africa made up one-fifth of the world's youth population. Despite the opportunity for significant economic growth due to the continent's large population, high levels of youth unemployment are a primary concern, especially in countries such as Botswana, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Senegal and South Africa (United Nations, 2016). The African youth population account for 60% of the unemployed, making them vulnerable to recruitment by individuals or groups that promise them opportunities for a better life (Atta-Asamoah, 2015). Africa's youth have either involuntarily or voluntarily become contributors to political instability, violence and crime within the continent. In many parts of Africa, young people are manipulated into undermining political processes by political elites (Atta-Asamoah, 2015). Youth unemployment, poverty and political instability are reinforcing one another. This can be identified with the increase in violence, crime and extremism through activities of AlQaeda in northern Nigeria and East Africa (Atta-Asamoah, 2015).

In most African countries, youth unemployment is twice as likely to occur than amongst adults, with young females affected the most by unemployment. In Sub-Saharan and North African countries, it is easier for young males to find a job than young females even if they have the same skills and job experience (African Development Bank, 2016). Male and females do not share the same employment experience. In 2017, women represented less than 50% of the

global workforce (African Development Bank, 2016). Many African countries have displayed a significant difference in young male and female employment. Countries such as Swaziland and Namibia show a relatively high unemployment rate among women, with more than 35% of women unemployed (Van Klaveren et al., 2009). This results from gender inequalities that exist in patriarchal work environments and institutional systems (Van Klaveren et al., 2009). Although several countries in Africa are regarded as the fastest-growing economies among developing countries, high unemployment levels (especially among the youth) are a significant concern. This is due to the lack of available jobs for youth, inappropriate skills and lack of experience (International Labour Organization, 2020).

3.4. Youth unemployment in South Africa

Youth unemployment in South Africa is at an all-time high, with more than half of the youth population currently unemployed. South Africa has a population of 5 78 million people (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019). The South African youth population is 20.3 million aged 15-35 years old, which equates to 38.4 % of the population. In 2018 the official Quarterly Labour Force survey conducted in the 4th and final quarter of the year reported 52, 85% of the South African youth as unemployed, with an increase in the 1st quarter of 2019 to 53, 18% (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019). The rise in youth unemployment during the 1st quarter of 2019 is due to new job seekers entering the labour market. These are recent graduates, while the rest were either retrenched/ fired or left their previous employment (Lindwa, 2019). Statistics released in the 3rd and 4th quarter of the year 2019 showed no change in the youth unemployment rate, which has not happened since 2008 (Lindwa, 2019).

According to South African economist Mike Schussler, employment during the 4th quarter usually picks up due to temporary job opportunities offered by retailers, hotels, and during the agricultural planting season; however, this has changed with only a fraction of the usual jobs being provided. Since 2016 South Africa has managed to provide 121 000 jobs during the last quarter; however, during the 4th quarter in 2019, only a third of the average amount (45 000 jobs) was provided (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019). The Gauteng province has the largest population of 15, 2 million people; almost half (5, 10 million) of the people are made up of youth (15-35 years old). According to the official Quarterly Labour Force Survey conducted during the 3rd quarter of 2019, the province of Gauteng had the lowest rate of unemployment with 35.1%, while a majority of the unemployed youth are from the Eastern

Cape province with a percentage of 46.5% between the ages of 18-35 years old with no employment, education or any training (Githahu, 2020). During the 1st quarter of 2019, the North West province recorded the highest youth unemployment rate, with 40.3% of young people between the ages 15-24 years recorded as unemployed or unenrolled in any education or training institution (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019). Even though the North West province recorded the highest unemployment level during the 1st quarter of 2019, only 6.9% of the 20.3 million young people live in the province.

Reports from the StatsSA Quarterly Labour Force Survey of 2018 and 2019 show the percentages of South African youth populations currently unemployed or not enrolled in any education or training institution (Table 3.2).

4th quarter of 2018	1st quarter of 2019	4th quarter of 2019
52.85% unemployed	53.18% unemployed	52.18% unemployed

Table 3.2: Percentages of unemployed youth in South Africa (2018 – 2019)
Source: StatsSA Quarterly Labour Force Survey (2018 and 2019)

In 2019 it was reported that the youth unemployment rate contributed to 60.4% of the total unemployment rate, with approximately 11 million unemployed and not in any training or education institution (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019). Like other African countries in North Africa and the sub-Saharan region, young females in South Africa are also most affected by unemployment. A more significant number of females were not employed in training or an educational institution. In the final quarter of 2019, unemployed females equated to 31.3%, while men equated to 27.2% (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019). Youth unemployment trends between 2015 and 2019 reveal that young South African women are most likely not to find employment when compared to their male counterparts (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Percentage of unemployed female youth in relation to total unemployed youth

2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
55.06%	59.64%	59.01%	59.2%	60.65%

Source: International Labour Organization (2020)

3.4.1. Causes of Youth Unemployment

a. High school dropout rate

One of the leading causes of youth unemployment in South Africa is the low level of education seen in the high school drop-out rate. According to the Department of Education in 2016, “only 52% of the appropriate age population remain enrolled in school” (Weybright et al., 2017:2). South Africa’s Department of Basic Education (DBE) reported an increase in the school dropout rates, with 6.5 of % of learners dropping out in Grade Nine and 11.5% and 11.8% dropped out in Grades 10 and 11, respectively (Weybright et al., 2017). It is reported that in 2019 there were 2 million young people who had not completed their matric (Writer, 2019).). “It is estimated that out of each 100 learners that begin school in Grade One, half drop out, 40 will complete the NSC exam, and only 12 will be eligible to pursue higher education” (Lamb and Markussen, 2010:10). School dropouts lack the communication, numeracy and literacy skills needed in the labour market, thus making them unemployable. Hence many school dropouts remain unemployed for many years (Lamb and Markussen, 2010:10).

b. Apartheid legacy and lack of resources

The South African education system is still somewhat hindered due to the apartheid era. The apartheid Bantu Education Act of 1953 was created to use the education system to intentionally exclude non-white persons from society (Carmody, 2018). Inequality in funding, minimal effort on mathematics and science in non-white schools have continued from the apartheid era to date. (Amnesty International, 2020). Despite the government’s efforts to support and improve the education system, by dedicating 6% of the GDP to the education system, South Africa continues to trail behind other countries. This is with regards to low standards in mathematics and science compared to other countries (Carmody, 2018).

Furthermore, there remains a significant difference in resources between schools in South Africa. For example, throughout the country, 20% of schools do not have adequate learning

facilities (such as classrooms), and they lack clean and sanitary toilets. 30% of schools have no computer access, while only 40% of schools have access to the internet (Carmody, 2018). Also, the quality of South Africa's education plays an influential role in the high levels of youth unemployment in the country.

The South African Apartheid system ended almost 20 years ago; however, the consequences of systematic racial discrimination are still an issue to date (Mariotti and Fourie, 2014). High unemployment levels, poverty and inequality between the white and non-white population of South Africa are evident. During the apartheid era, non-white people were forcefully removed from city centres and relocated to rural townships, where there was little or no access to public services (Mariotti and Fourie, 2014). The relocation of the black population to rural townships was a policy implemented under the apartheid government to prevent the black population from getting skills which caused a demand for cheap labour among the non-white population, particularly in agriculture and the mining sector (Rancchod, 2019). Over the last decade, these two sectors have evolved and have become more industrialised and less labour- intensive; this historical factor is a significant contributor to the lack of skills among a large percentage of the population which leads to high levels of unemployment (Rancchod, 2019)

c. Poor economic growth and job creation

South Africa's high unemployment rate resulted from slow economic growth; following the great recession in 2008, the unemployment rate drastically increased. Before the 2008 recession, the GDP growth declined to 1.8% from 4.4% and was expected to decrease to 0.5% in the year 2020. Thus, the amount of students graduating every year is increasing, and simultaneously, not enough jobs are created to fully absorb the large unemployed population (Steynvaart, 2018). The higher education management information system estimated that South African universities produce approximately 190 000 new graduates every year; however, according to the 2019 QLFS, the labour market only absorbs an estimated 41 000 graduates every year (Steynvaart, 2018).

As a result of the decrease in turn over profit by various sectors such as agriculture, trade, transport and manufacturing, there has been a significant reduction in each sector's jobs. The transport sector experienced a loss of 2000 jobs, while the manufacturing sector experienced a loss of 4000 jobs, with a 5.9% decrease at the end of the fourth quarter in 2019. This decline

in the manufacturing sector is regarded as South Africa's most significant decline since 2014 (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019). Output in the vehicle production sector also decreased in 2019. This sector is regarded as one of the largest employment producers and has reduced by almost 25% in the fourth quarter (Quarterly Labour Force, 2019).

One of the issues that South Africa is currently faced with is the lack of available jobs. This lack stems from the shutdown of factories and companies. The shutdowns have occurred due to the reduction in production and productivity in most countries' economic sectors. This has also caused mass retrenchment of workers. Major sugar production company Hullet based in Tongaat, is no exception to this economic ripple; in 2019, it issued a total of 5000 retrenchment letters to permanent and temporary employees (De Villiers, 2019). The company could not keep up with the international competition that provides lower sugar prices, and the high sugar tax put the company under strain, which resulted in its downsizing (De Villiers, 2019).

d. Mismatch between skills and employer needs

Slow economic growth cannot be solely responsible for the high rates of youth unemployment. Another cause for high youth unemployment in South Africa is the large discrepancy between what and how colleges and universities teach and the skillsets that companies/businesses want (Bangani, 2019). Young people, specifically between 15 and 35 years old, remain in a highly vulnerable state in the labour market. Many of them lack skills and appropriate work experience. The youth of South Africa are particularly likely to lack core skills required for employment since core skills are acquired non-formally through on-the-job training and experience; therefore newly graduates and the majority of the youth find themselves at a great disadvantage when competing for already limited job opportunities (International Labour Organization, 2017).

Pillay (2019) writes that South African graduates lack skills such as teamwork, leadership, and organization, usually acquired through employment programmes or on-the-job training. Twenty-seven per cent of young people who participated in employment programmes were able to find employment and had a 9% advantage over those who had not (Pillay, 2019). A gap between the demand for specifically skilled labourers and graduates seeking employment is a significant concern. South African graduates are not studying towards scarce and demanding jobs, therefore making them lack appropriate skills for available jobs. South Africa's

technology industry is suffering due to the lack of skilled people. The country has a shortage of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) specialists. South Africa also has a shortage of health workers. There is currently an average of one doctor and one nurse per 1000 patients (World Health Organization, 2019). In 2017, South Africa had a shortage of 40 000 qualified artisans, forcing an import of skilled artisans from other countries (Pillay, 2019).

e. Lack of resources for job search

Socio-economic factors contribute to the high levels of youth unemployment in South Africa. Graduates with more financial resources find it much easier to find a job because they have access to vehicles, which increases their mobility. Most employers require that workers have their transport; thus, job seekers from disadvantaged backgrounds are less likely to be hired (Steynvaart, 2018). First-generation graduates from less privileged and financially needy backgrounds/ households do not have the same access to resources as graduates whose parents have attended university before or are more economically stable (Steynvaart, 2019).

Many young people lack social capital and robust networks that would help them source a job (Rankin and Roberts, 2011). Youth currently do not have enough financial resources available allows mobility to areas with a high demand in the labour market (Cassim and Oosthuizen, 2014). The remaining population that have sufficient financial resources as a result of their family support or network have particularly high wage expectations they believe they should receive, which results in extended periods of unsuccessful job searching (Cassim and Oosthuizen, 2014)

f. National minimum wage policy

In 2017, an agreement was signed by President Ramaphosa with representatives of major businesses and labour unions on an agreed national minimum wage (Dlamini, 2018). The national minimum wage directly translates to R20/hour, which adds up to approximately R3500/month for employees that work 40 hours a week (Dlamini, 2018). The minimum wages policy has several advantages -working hours are not decreased in response to the national minimum wage policy, potentially take some of their employees out of poverty and improve their standard of living (Kalenkoski, 2016). National minimum wage policies only benefit individuals who are already employed. Minimum wages reduce employment opportunities and

job creation, especially for low skilled workers (Kalenkoski, 2016). The minimum wage policies create a gap between the number of desired jobs and those available. Due to this, companies are forced to reduce the workforce to meet the minimum wage policy (Kalenkoski, 2016).

In a country like South Africa, with a highly competitive labour market and limited jobs for young unskilled workers, the minimum wage policy decreases youth employment; thus, the youth population miss out on on-job training opportunities that employers had previously subsidised through entry-level/training salaries (Kalenkoski, 2016). Minimum wages in the Expanded Public Works Programme is approximately 80 rand a day. If the minimum wage has to rise, the government will create far fewer employment opportunities than it currently does - to meet the new standard (Bernstein, 2016). In an already struggling South African economy, employers simply cannot afford to meet minimum wage policies. This forces companies to either reduce working hours or let go of some of their employees. Policy-oriented studies utilize a class of mathematical models called computable general equilibrium and impose neoclassical behavioural assumptions (Straus et al., 2017). In the South African national treasury, computable general equilibrium models that were conducted predicted that an average wage increase of only R31 on R1 258 result in the loss of 96 000 jobs (Straus et al., 2017). “In the development policy research institute model, a national minimum wage of R1 619 results in about 451 000 job losses” (Straus et al., 2017:25).

g. The effects of the Fourth Industrial Revolution

The introduction of the Fourth Industrial Revolution is gradually making its way into South Africa. The introduction of such technologies harms unemployment, although these technologies are cost-efficient and save businesses (Stoddard, 2020). The mining sector in South Africa is mechanizing wherever possible, and such innovations will eliminate thousands of opportunities for unskilled workers and semi-skilled workers (Stoddard, 2020). The youth of South Africa are likely to fall into this category. Research conducted by the global management consulting firm McKinsey stated that in the year 2030, approximately 3.3 million jobs would be lost. This includes 70% of data-processing jobs, such as payroll officers, which will be automated, predicting that not all the jobs in this sector will be lost, but there will be a reduction in available jobs (Stoddard, 2020).

The automation of the labour sector has several advantages, which include faster production output and cheaper labour costs for businesses. However, the automation of the labour sector will have significant impacts on unemployment (Malinga, 2018). Individuals with minimum skills and experience are at risk of losing their jobs. A third of existing jobs in South Africa are at risk from robotics, artificial intelligence, machine learning and automation (Malinga, 2018). Suppose the jobs are predictable and repetitive greater the risk of it being substituted with automation technology. The introduction of advanced technologies and digital automation will cost South Africa a total of over 4.5 million job losses (Le Roux, 2018). The mismatch of available jobs and skills plays a role in the high rate of youth unemployment; South Africa currently lack appropriate skills that match the economy (Consultancy South Africa, 2019). Research has shown that more than 50% of the workforce in South Africa is mismatched. South Africa is regarded as a workforce exporter. This means that economies across the globe seek skilled, low-cost employees from South Africa. However, with the high demand for digital skills resulting from automation, foreign investors are forced to look elsewhere for employees (Consultancy South Africa, 2019). South Africa lacks skills that match its current economy. Developing skills such as digital skills will allow its economy to integrate better with the global economy.

3.4.2. Effects of Youth Unemployment

High levels of unemployment have various effects on the youth of South Africa and the country. These effects can be felt in the security, social, emotional, and most importantly, economic aspects of an individual's life. Additionally, a high unemployment rate lowers the GDP of the country.

a. Weak economy

High unemployment levels indicate that the economy is struggling, which results in decreased economic output and lower salaries. Unemployed individuals are restricted financially on how many goods they can buy; this contributes to reduced spending and reduced economic outputs. An increase in the unemployment rate leads to a negative multiplier effect (World Bank, 2019). The unemployed are also unable to purchase as many goods as possible, which will contribute to lower spending and lower output. A rise in unemployment can cause a negative multiplier

effect (World Bank, 2019). In 2010, South Africa had a total value of \$82 631 million in exports, while its imports were valued at \$83 100 million. In the space of five years, South Africa's exports were valued at \$80 265 million while imports were valued at \$85 510 million. There has been an increase in imports and a significant decrease in exports in this time period (World Bank, 2019). Due to trade imbalances that can be identified in the influx of imports and a decrease in exports, local companies and manufacturers do not profit as much. There is an additional increase in international competition, which forces companies to downsize, resulting in the loss of over 22 000 jobs in 2019 (StatsSA, 2019).

High unemployment rates also increase the amount of money borrowed by the government, thus creating more debt. An increase in unemployment leads to a decline in tax revenue because fewer people pay income tax and spend less (hence lower VAT). Furthermore, the government will have to increase spending on unemployment and social welfare (World Bank, 2019). The government does not just contribute to unemployment benefit, but entire families affected by unemployment are likely to receive housing benefit and income support (World Bank, 2019). SARS reduced the credit book on VAT refunds from R41.8-billion in September 2018 to R25-billion by the end of the financial year, and company income tax decreased by 2.5% due to a substantial amount of tax refunds paid to the large businesses (Donnelly, 2019).

b. Increasing Poverty

High levels of poverty are one of the effects of unemployment in a country. Poverty means that an individual cannot afford basic needs. It additionally means that an individual is deprived of several needs due to living below what is economically sufficient (Human Development Report, 2019). In South Africa, 6.3% of the population (3,549,000 people) are multidimensionally poor, while 12.2% are regarded as vulnerable to multidimensional poverty (6,902 000 people) (Human Development Report, 2019). The poverty level in South Africa is high, with more than half of the adult population (over 18 years) living in poverty. The poverty rate is measured by three threshold points, the upper-bound poverty line, which refers to an income of R1,183 (approximately \$70.90) per month. Additionally, the lower-bound and food poverty lines refer to an amount of R785 (\$47.04) and R547 (\$32.78), respectively (Bittar, 2020). 49.2% of the South African population over 18 years falls into the upper-bound poverty lines; this results from high levels of unemployment, low quality, and low wage jobs (Bittar, 2020). According to a survey conducted in 2015 by StatsSA, poverty levels in South Africa

are higher in rural areas than in urban areas. 25.25% of the urban area population live below the upper-bound poverty line, while 65,4% of the rural area population lived below the upper bound poverty line (StatsSA, 2019). South African women are the most vulnerable group. The majority of those living in poverty are female. A living conditions survey of 2014/15 recorded that 50% of the female population live in poverty, while their male counterparts are 46.1% (StatsSA, 2019).

c. Political instability and corruption

High levels of unemployment affect not only the economy of a country but also the political climate. Political instability and political issues increase when there are high levels of unemployment. Like many other countries, South Africa has several political issues ranging from political instability, taxation, unionization, and increasing levels of corruption. In South Africa, corruption continues to increase and inhibits economic opportunities and development. The term corruption refers to the abuse of public office for private gain (Gumede, 2019). Crimes such as corruption, fraud and theft increased in 2013/2014 to a total of 91 569 incidents, a 4% increase from the previous year (Tracey, 2015).

Corruption can also have detrimental effects on a country, namely a low economic growth rate and economic recession. Falling into recession can cut more than 200 000 jobs. In 2017, President Cyril Ramaphosa stated that corruption had cost the country as much as R1 trillion (Corruption Watch, 2017). High levels of corruption do, indeed, have an impact on youth unemployment. Due to corruption, funds targeted at youth development programmes, education, skills development and training is stolen (Corruption Watch, 2017). High levels of unemployment have increased competition for jobs drastically. Due to this, there are currently not enough jobs available versus the number of job seekers. Unfortunately, this has created an opportunity for officials in companies and government to exploit job seekers through bribery for jobs. Corruption trends in South Africa show the growing popularity of bribing for employment. The labour market is flooded by those who are willing to bribe officials for a job rather than appointing a job seeker in a role who has the adequate and necessary skills and training (World Bank, 2016). Corruption in companies and government has led to the exclusion of candidates with the requisite skills from the labour market, most of whom fall under the youth population 15-35 years old (World Bank, 2016).

d. Increasing insecurity

In countries like South Africa with high levels of poverty, high levels of crime are common. As discussed above, poverty is one of the most significant effects of unemployment. This essentially leads to people resorting to crime to survive or make an income (StatsSA, 2018). In the 1st quarter of 2020, South Africa has ranked the fifth most dangerous country out of 144 countries worldwide with a score of 57% - most of the crimes were highly violent such as murder, house break-ins and rape (StatsSA, 2020). In 2019, house burglary was the number one crime in South Africa, with more than 169 000 incidences recorded, which is a representation of 0.8% of all households (StatsSA, 2020). Most of the household robberies reported were in the Northern Cape, with 24 730 incidences, with 7.39% of all house robberies reported in South Africa (StatsSA, 2020).

Murder is defined as the unlawful and intentional killing of another person. This has increased in South Africa from 21 022 in 2018/2019 to 21 325 in 2019/2020. Thus, an average of 58 people is murdered every single day in SA (StatsSA, 2020). South Africa's legal definition of rape is defined "as oral, anal or vaginal penetration of a person, whether male or female with any genital organ, anal or vaginal penetration with any object" (StatsSA, 2020). South Africa currently has one of the highest rape rates in the world, with 72.1 %, in 2019/2020. The police recorded 42 289 rape cases, an increase from 41 583 in 2018/2019, and this is an average of 116 rape cases a day (StatsSa, 2020). There is a strong correlation between violent crimes and unemployment. Unemployed people are more prone to getting involved in crime due to boredom, substance abuse, frustration and poverty. A study that investigated the effects of unemployment on the crime rate in Richards Bay and Empangeni in KwaZulu Natal interviewed 60 participants (convicts). The study revealed that 100% of them were unemployed at the time the crime was committed and resorted to crime in order to provide for themselves and their families (Tshabalala, 2014). Boredom, as a result of unemployment, has severe implications on the crime rate as well. A study conducted in SA revealed that boredom, opportunity and revenge were some of the reasons men rape and sexually abuse children (Tswana, 2017). Rape statistics from Saartjie Baartman centre for women and children in Cape Town revealed that one in three men admitted to raping out of boredom, specifically in child rape cases (Saartjie Baartman Centre, 2017).

e. Psychosocial effects

Research on the correlation between unemployment and mental health issues have been conducted since the 1930s. Research conducted by Eisenberg and Lazarsfield (1938) determined that unemployment “can make people more emotionally unstable than they were previous to unemployment” (Eisenberg and Lazarsfield, 1938:15). Mental health issues are defined as the psychological state of someone who has emotional or behavioural problems (Mabela, 2012). High levels of unemployment among the youth has resulted in an increase in mental health issues, such as depression and anxiety. A survey conducted in the North West province with 190 respondents between (17-34 years) revealed that more than 50% felt a sense of decreased self-worth/self-esteem and feelings of depression (Witte et al., 2012).

Increased levels of suicide among the youth population of South Africa is a growing issue. Suicide is when an individual directs violence at themselves with the intent to end their lives (World Health Organization, 2019). There is a link between suicide and mental health issues, such as depression and the erosion of self-confidence. The high level of deaths by suicide in South Africa can be linked to the inability to deal with stress, which is caused by prolonged periods of unemployment (World Health Organization, 2019). South Africa has the eighth highest suicide rate in the world and is among the top three causes of death in individuals aged between 15-44 years old (Netcare Hospital, 2018). In the age group of 15-24 years, suicide is the second leading cause of death (Netcare Hospital, 2018). In relation to South Africa’s steadily increasing youth unemployment rate, the suicide rate among the youth of South Africa is also increasing. The average suicide rate in 2015 was 11.08 % per 100 000 people and increased to 21.8% by 2019 (Van der Merwe, 2019).

3.5. South African Government’s Response to reducing youth unemployment

The South African government has, through various projects and initiatives, aimed at reducing youth unemployment in South Africa. Some of these initiatives have proven to be successful by providing a large number of the youth population with employment that requires little or no skills and experience.

3.5.1. Employment generation and capacity development

The Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP), The Expanded Public Works National Youth Services and the Community Work Programme (CWP) are fundamental government initiatives launched between 2004-2009. The government policy priorities such as decent

employment, viable livelihoods, education, health, food security and rural development (Department Of Public Works and Infrastructure, 2018). The Expanded Public Works Programme ensures that some public services are provided in ways that absorb more unskilled labour. 40% of the expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) positions are allocated to the youth, and these also offer some on-the-job training (United Nations Development Programme, 2014:6).

The Expanded Public Works Programme, together with various municipalities, have job creation initiatives in the infrastructure sector, non-state entities, environment, culture sector and the social sector (Department of Public Works and Infrastructure, 2018). The infrastructure sector is led by the Department of Public Works, which works closely with the Department of Transport, Water Affairs, Mineral Resources and Energy. The infrastructure is based on labour intensive methods in all construction projects in the public sector (Department of Public Works, 2017). The infrastructure projects currently under the Expanded Public Works Programme aim to provide training and skills development to the unemployed. It also focuses on building cost effective and quality assets while employing labour-intensive construction processes to provide job opportunities (Department of Public Works, 2017).

The key EPWP under the infrastructure sector includes an initiative known as Vuk'uphile Learnership Programme, launched in 2005. This initiative aims to develop and train emerging contractors, which provides them with experience to execute labour-intensive projects. It also encourages contractors to reach NQF Level 2 and become supervisors at NQF Level 4 (Department of Public Works, 2014). The project also aims to develop the trainees' administrative, technical, contractual and entrepreneurial skills (Department of Public Works, 2014). Through the Vuk'uphile leadership programme, 3 874 job opportunities were created in the 1st quarter of 2012 and the 2nd quarter of 2013 in the city of Erkurhuleni (Department of Public Works, 2014). Since the Vuk'uphile leadership programme launch, more than 5 000 job opportunities in construction have been created throughout the country (Department of Public Works, 2014). Since the launch of the EPWP, and through 69 891 projects across all nine provinces, 2 million employment opportunities were created for the youth, 2.9 million for females and 55 346 jobs for individuals with disabilities after phase 3 in 2018/2019 (Department of Public Works, 2020).

The National Department of Public Works and Infrastructure currently has an initiative known as the EPWP National Youth Service Programme, launched in 2007. This initiative was created by the department to involve South African youth in improving service delivery, promoting nation-building and unity, and assisting the youth in gaining necessary job-related skills (Department of Public Works, 2017:1). The National Youth Services is a programme that provides skills training and development training. This initiative aims to provide youth aged between 15-35 years with life and technical skills, opportunities to build their work experience and mentoring (Department of Public Works, 2018). The National Youth Service has three categories: Category 1 targets the unemployed and those not enrolled in any education and training institutions. Category 2 is voluntary work by the youth who are about to complete their higher education and TVET qualifications. They usually require practical work experience and are also provided with a platform to give back to their communities. The third category is a gap year programme for youth post-matric who did not get admission into any higher education institution and training or voluntarily took a gap year (National Youth Agency, 2019).

The National Youth Service Programme has two main objectives. The first is to develop the abilities, skills and knowledge of young people, so they transition to adulthood successfully. The second is to improve their marketability by providing opportunities for their skills development and job experience, and support. These would then allow them to further learn opportunities (Department of Public Works, 2017:3). The National Youth Services Programme, specifically, targets the youth aged between 18-35 years old. 55% of the jobs are reserved for women, while 45% are reserved for men (Department of Public Works, 2017:3).

The Environmental and Culture sector has an initiative that contributes to the Expanded Public Works Programme. This provides youth with opportunities to work on various projects funded by different departments such as the Department of Rural Development, Department of Tourism, Arts and Culture (Department Of Public Works, 2017). The Expanded Public Works programme within the environmental and cultural sector creates both short and long term work. The main objectives of the environment and culture sector include creating jobs and providing training through job creation. The action plan of the environment and culture sector was categorized into three different phases. Phase 1 was implemented in 2004; phase 2 was implemented five years later in 2009 and phase 3 in 2014 (Environment and Culture Sector Plan, 2019). All three phases of the environment and culture sector were aimed to increase the number of underprivileged and unemployed South Africans receiving an income through

working in the environment and culture sectors' expanded public works programme projects. The other aim was to "protect, restore and preserve the physical environment and contribute to sustainable development and promote the Green Economy initiatives" (Environment and Culture Sector Plan, 2019: 17).

The Environmental and Culture sector has had a successful rate during Phase One and Phase Two of the programme. In phase one, the environment and culture sector had a target of creating 200 000 work opportunities over a five year period. The programme created 427 721 jobs at a 234% success rate, with 40% of those employed between ages 15-35 years old (Environment and Culture Sector Plan, 2019). In phase two, the programme had a target of 325 652 full-time work opportunities in road work, infrastructure, construction and agriculture. Phase two created 176 037 full-time work opportunities and had a 54% success rate (Environment and Culture Sector Plan, 2019). In the year 2012/2013, there were 80 354 work opportunities created, and 22 423 of those were full-time jobs. The environmental and culture sector performed better than the other sectors in terms of achieving job creation targets. In 2017/2018, the environment and cultural sector had a target of creating almost 40 000 work opportunities. The job opportunities would be attained through projects such as viable land based livelihoods, waste management, parks and beautification (Department of Public Works, 2018). The environmental and culture sector achieved 30 098 chose jobs and had just a little over 90% success rate for 2017/2018 (Department of Public works, 2018).

The Expanded Public Works Programme within the social sector is a programme that provides beneficiaries with training. The training is aimed at enhancing their abilities to provide social services while offering options for a career path. This includes exit strategies into formal and self-employment (Department of Public Works, 2017). The EPWP social sector offers employment opportunities to unemployed and unskilled persons who, most commonly include the youth aged 15-35 years old. This is carried out through the delivery of social development and community protection services (Department of Public Works, 2017). This includes early childhood development, which provides education and care to children; the services provided include providing health services to children as well as responding to their educational and psychological needs (Department Of Public Works, 2018).

Through this training, the beneficiaries are provided with skills to increase their capacity to generate an income through on-the-job training (Department of Public Works, 2018). Between

February 2013 and 2014, 336 expanded public works beneficiaries were enrolled in West Coast College, where they successfully completed an 8-month early childhood development leadership programme (Western Cape Government, 2015). The training, which was conducted over an 18-month period, was aimed at expanding the early childhood development field in the west coast region. This is where there would be more experienced and qualified practitioners while creating better employment opportunities for the youth at the same time (Western Cape Government, 2015). In 2016, the EPWP officiated the graduation of 40 participants that successfully completed a 12-month pharmacist assistant programme. This is an example of a successful programme that falls under the NQF level 3 learnership programme (South African Government, 2016).

The EPWP and EPWP National Youth Service have experienced some challenges regarding implementation and execution. Issues with the programme are linked to the execution of the programme from a national to a local level. Most municipalities are failing to take full responsibility for the programme within their city/town (Aghimien et al., 2019). The programme focuses on the provision of public infrastructures, and, unfortunately, it has been reported that there are insufficient cooperation and coordination among participants (Aghimien et al., 2019). The success rate of EPWP and EPWP National Youth Services is affected by the lack of knowledge and commitment to the programmes in some municipalities. Formal reports of the programme's progress are not reported in some local municipalities (Aghimien et al., 2019). There are further inconsistencies with the payment of salaries of employees. Salaries assigned to employees are not received as agreed, and participants are often left with 2-5 months without any stipends, which demotivates participants and leads to many leaving the programme (Aghimien et al., 2019).

The Community Work Programme (CWP) is a South African government initiative established in 2007 as a pilot project. It was initiated by the second Economy Project (Trade and Industrial Policy Strategies, 2014). The programme was launched to address high levels of unemployment and contribute to initiatives by the government in addressing poverty and unemployment (Trade and Industrial Policy Strategies, 2014). The programme provides unemployed and underemployed participants with stipends that supplement their existing income and provide them with a basic level of income (South African government, 2019). The purpose of the Community Work Programme is to contribute towards the development of public property and services in disadvantaged communities. It also aims to support community growth and improve

people's quality of life by providing job experience and promoting social and economic inclusion (South African Government, 2019).

The CWP enrolls about 1000 people per site that is operating at total capacity. The CWP offers participants two days of work per week (8 days a month) and receive R81/day stipends (South African Government, 2019). The CWP programme focuses on work tasks that uplift and support communities within South Africa. This is because participants acquire on-the-job training, communication skills, organizational skills, and overall work experience. The tasks participants are given looking after orphans or vulnerable children in foster care homes and shelters, helping the sick, assisting teachers in schools and partnering with South African Police Services to improve safety and reduce crime (South African Government, 2019). In 2016 there were 212 different CWP sites in 203 municipalities across the country, which provided R1.7 billion in wages to more than 200 000 employees (South African Government, 2019).

3.5.2. Employment Tax Incentives

In 2014, an employment tax incentive encouraging employers to hire young work seekers was introduced to reduce youth unemployment (SARS, 2015). The tax incentive was implemented because a large number of the youth population is unemployed, which means that the youth are lacking the skills or experience necessary to contribute to the economy (SARS, 2015). In South Africa, the lack of skills and work experience; perceptions regarding the restrictions of labour regulations such as the Employment Equity Amendment Act (EEAA)¹ as well as stipulated minimum wages is why some employers are unwilling to hire the youth (SARS, 2015).

In addition to enabling the employment of young job seekers, the employment tax incentive provides benefits for employers such as a decreased cost for hiring youth through a cost-sharing arrangement with the government; and a decrease on Pay As You Earn (PAYE) while leaving the employee's wage unchanged (SARS, 2015). Basically, the employment tax incentive cuts the cost of employing the youth by decreasing the employer's PAYE owed to SARS without affecting wages (SARS, 2015). The tax incentive allows employers to claim the incentive for all employees that qualify for a 24 month period (SARS, 2015). The employment tax incentive is based on the wages received by each qualifying employee. Its success rate is gradually increasing per year, as the employment tax incentive claims in 2014 alone were 279 752 while

¹ This Act declares failure to provide equal pay for work of equal value as a form of discrimination.

in 2015, 942 645 claims were made. In both 2014 and 2015, the number of firms that received employment tax incentives was 11 883 (Ebrahim and Ranchhod, 2017). Industry sectors that employed youth aged between 15-35 years old in 2014 and 2015 included wholesale and retail, construction, manufacturing and education. During 2014 the manufacturing sector had the highest employment tax incentives claim with 26.3% (Ebrahim and Ranchhod, 2017).

Drastic increases in job creation as a result of the employment tax incentive is unlikely. According to the World Bank (2014), new job opportunities created through wage subsidies are a result of companies retrenching their existing employees to benefit from the wage subsidies. This is called a substitution effect (National Treasury, 2014). In an already fragile labour market, job creation through subsidy cannot be achieved. This is because employers are less likely to increase the workforce unless they retrench existing employees to accommodate new youth job seekers. A study conducted by Ranchhod and Fin (2015) examined the employment tax incentive policy six months after its launch. The study measured employment tax incentive effects using the nationally representative survey (Ebrahim, Leibbrandt and Ranchhod, 2017). Ranchhod and Fin (2015) found no difference in youth unemployment probabilities in the first six months of implementing the policy. The study was extended for a further twelve months and did not reveal a statistically significant change in the youth employment probability (Ebrahim, Leibbrandt and Ranchhod, 2017).

3.5.3. Job summits

The state, together with various departments such as Hospitality, Health, Trade and Industry, Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Agriculture and Land Affairs, Transport, Water Affairs and Forestry, Housing and Public Works, has created an interdepartmental committee for an annual job summit. The annual job summit is aimed at reducing poverty, unemployment and fostering youth development, economic growth and economic development (Jobs Summit, 2018). The Jobs Summit set in motion initiatives that support employment opportunities or job security and support individuals affected by restructuring and retrenchments. These initiatives included the Eastern Cape's Coega project, which used R500 million to build a new casino and R700 million to build a new South African Breweries plant in 2000 - 15000 people were hired during the construction phase (Jobs Summit, 2018).

During the 2018 Job Summit, an initiative known as the Job Exchange portal was launched to target South African youth. The initiative connects youth with employers (Jobs Summit, 2018). One of the core reasons for the high youth unemployment rate is that employers struggle to find suitable people to employ while millions of young people are unemployed. The job exchange portal initiative aims to change that by connecting employers with job seekers and job seekers to gain skills and secure employment. The jobs exchange portal simplifies and speeds up the employment process to concentrate on production while helping alleviate unemployment and increase their skilled labour force (Jobs Summit, 2018). Through the use of the jobs summit portal, individuals are encouraged to create online applications, making company registration easier and faster. The portal aims to promote entrepreneurship and the opening of small businesses which will potentially employ youth. The online system allows users to register companies, apply for a tax number, VAT number, unemployment insurance and the skills development levy under one system (African News Agency, 2019).

Through the jobs exchange portal, work seekers can upload their credentials such as supporting documents where applicable and their curriculum vitae. The jobs exchange portal provides online access to skills development and training opportunities while staying informed of new and available employment opportunities (African News Agency, 2019). Potential employers have access to an automatic selection and hiring process which finalizes all necessary organisational documents, including B-BBEE requirements. The jobs exchange portal simplifies recruitment processes and reduces administrative bottlenecks (Jobs Summit, 2018). The portal is expected to help millions of people generate an income through self-employment and job opportunities. On the 4th of October, the government of South Africa hosted the Jobs Summit in Johannesburg. The Job Summit launched the framework agreement, which is an initiative set to create approximately 275 000 jobs. The framework agreement includes improving the economy, obtaining inventions and industrial financing. The framework will assist local businesses through township supplier development programmes, increasing entrepreneurship among the youth. It also includes the implementation of the national minimum wage (South African Government, 2019).

Despite the multiple projects launched through the jobs exchange portal by the South African jobs summit, many of them have had a low success rate. The jobs summit portal has some shortcomings. Firstly, the target of 275 000 jobs a year is not enough, considering that there are more than 10 million young people unemployed. The job summit portal, which outlined

interventions on SMME's, education, inclusive growth and unemployment, has a success rate of less than 50%, with only 30 000 jobs created per year through the initiative (Skae, 2019). The initiative provided a basis for job creation; however, it falls short on implementing at the national and local level. The inter-ministerial committee tasked with creating proposals on their role in job creation experienced some delays. The proposal based on job creation policies was deemed incomplete and, as a result, had a major setback to the programme (Skae, 2019).

3.6 Foreign policy, international relations and youth unemployment

Foreign policy is regarded as a tool for development. Countries development strategies usually include “investment policy, economic, financial and commercial negotiations, resource exploration rights, international co-operation and international projection” (Institute of Global Dialogue SA, 2014). The term foreign policy within the international relations system is concerned with the behaviour of states towards other states. George Modelski notes that political actors use foreign policy to influence and shape the behaviour of other states and a process where countries modify or change their actions and interests according to the international environment (Bojang, 2018). The foreign policy aims to allow a state to benefit and gain advantages from its contribution to international affairs. In developing countries such as BRICS member states, the foreign policy seeks to reform the international system to permit states to profit from altering international environments (Institute of Global Dialogue SA, 2014). BRICS creates and implements policies that promote employment and job creation within BRICS member states. It creates quality and inclusive employment policies (International Labour Organization, 2016).

The South African Trade Policy Framework aims to develop a trading strategy supportive of its developmental interests. This framework is to develop South Africa globally and create policies that ensure national economic objectives (BRICS Information Centre, 2012). Export trade between BRICS member states increased from 6.2% in 2005 to 16.8% in 2011, while imports from BRICS countries was at 13.6% in 2005 to 20% in 2011. Trade between South Africa and other BRICS members significantly increased by 29% (BRICS Information Centre, 2012). During the time frame of 2010 to 2011, there was an increase in jobs in the department of trade, which include administration jobs, supply chain management and general workers, which added to approximately 80 000 jobs, while 48 000 new jobs were created in the manufacturing sector (BRICS Information Centre, 2012).

International relations is defined as studying relationships between states and international organisations. International relations enables states to cooperate, gain resources and share information as a way also to find solutions to global problems that affect any state or region (Pfaltzgraff and McClelland, 2019). International institutions play a significant role in the international relations system, as they govern, provide rules and laws by which states abide. The international relations system uses these international institutions to resolve global issues, promote global agendas, and provide cooperation platforms (Crockett, 2012). International institutions such as the World Bank, African Union and United Nations have gained much popularity within the international political system. As discussed above, youth unemployment is a global issue and is becoming detrimental to many states' economic growth. Thus it is vital to engage with international organisations to ensure their involvement in various programs and initiatives to find solutions to this global issue. In 2012, the United Nations Economic and Social Council held an event at the United Nations Headquarters in New York to explore areas that affect policy setting and innovations for endorsing youth employment (United Nations, 2012).

The Youth Employment Initiative (YEI) launched in 2013 to increase the European Union's (EU) financial support for youth unemployment. This was suggested to implement youth guarantee schemes and make this available to the regions experiencing youth unemployment (European Union, 2016). The youth employment initiative ensures that parts of Europe (where unemployment and poverty are high) receive assistance for their youth. This initiative is implemented through apprenticeships, job placements, and further education, leading to qualification and trainee-ships. The outcome was the percentage of unemployed youth dropped from 24.4% in 2013 to 14.95% in February (European Union, 2020). Twenty-four million previously registered individuals on youth guarantee schemes received employment offers, furthered their education, or received an apprenticeship or traineeship (European Union, 2020). The World Bank has an initiative known as Solutions for Youth Employment (S4YE). The initiative has a portal that creates accessible space for existing projects happening in other regions. This portal is a platform to learn and share new and innovative design features in programs (World Bank, 2019). The portal provides information on more than 150 youth employment initiatives supported by the World Bank across 70 different countries (World Bank, 2019).

CHAPTER FOUR: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 Introduction

The dynamics of world politics has evolved drastically over the last twenty years. Various theories have been used to explain the evolution of the relations and interactions between states. For this study, a key international relations theory known as liberal institutionalism will be used to explain the impact of inter-state cooperation. It will also be used to discuss how institutions have used cooperation to aid and develop each other. Institutions like BRICS can be situated within the ideas of liberal institutionalism through shared interests and consensus to reach a common goal and cooperation. The vision and principles of liberal institutionalism are appropriate to explain the nature of BRICS as an institution and its efforts in addressing youth unemployment in South Africa. The high level of youth unemployment in South Africa, has a huge impact on the economy of the country. Therefore, examining the low GDP and slow economic growth of the country as a result of high levels of unemployment using the classical growth theory is appropriate for the conduction of this study.

4.2 Liberal institutionalism

Liberal Institutionalism, developed by Robert Keohane and Joseph Nye in the 1970s, mainly focuses on the idea of interdependence. This refers to a situation in global politics, where state actors and non-state actors are dependent on each other (Rana, 2015:291). Liberal institutionalism places great emphasis on cooperation in institutions because they play a significant role in the sustainability of international relations. Liberal institutionalism has an optimistic view of the cooperation between institutions and states (Berlin, 2012). The theory states that cooperation among states and institutions is the best way for both parties, whether it be states or members of institutions, to receive absolute gain (Berlin, 2012). According to Robert Keohane (1989), international institutions have constitutive as well as regulative aspects. This means that international institutions help define interests and how actions are interpreted (Hughes and Meng, 2011). Liberal institutionalism suggests that cooperation through institutions alters states' behaviour, making them more rational and peaceful (Keohane and Nye, 1989).

Liberal institutionalism presents the idea that institutions provide guidelines and practices that clarify roles, constrain activity, and alter states' expectations (Nuruzzaman, 2008). Liberal institutionalism views states as rational actors that capitalise on absolute gain through

cooperation and not disturbed about gains made by other states, as the theory of realism would suggest (Nuruzzaman, 2008). Institutions are seen as sovereign entities that significantly influence states' behaviour to communicate preferences and interests (Nuruzzaman, 2008).

4.3 Liberal institutionalism versus Realism

Liberal institutionalism cannot be fully understood without explaining the differences between it and realism. Realism, also known as political realism, is the complete opposite of liberal institutionalism. Realism argues that the political system/ international relations system is competitive and conflicted. The theory usually contrasts both idealism and liberal institutionalism, which stress cooperation (Karpwicz, 2010).

Liberal institutionalism argues “that states aim to capitalize on absolute gain through cooperation; thus, it argues that international institutions are key actors in promoting international cooperation” (Nuruzzaman, 2008: 195). The liberal institutionalism theory argues that states are rational actors; and are not usually concerned with other states' gains. There are three key features of liberal institutionalism that distinguish it from realism. These include: “multiple channels, absence of hierarchy among issues, and a minor role accorded to military force” (Devitt, 2011:2).

a. Multiple channels

There are numerous channels connecting societies, states, transgovernmental organisations and linking various transnational transactions (Rana, 2015:291). In a state of interdependence, formal and informal interactions between governmental leaders are a source of connecting societies (Rana, 2015:293). Global organizations are gaining more significance. Multinational firms and banks such as the World Bank have a pronounced influence on national matters and regional relations (Rana, 2015:293). And so, “besides pursuing their interests, these institutions also act as communicators, making government policies in various countries more sensitive and accommodating to one another” (Rana, 2015:292).

The presence of transnational civil societies within the international relations system has become increasingly important. They play a role in global agenda-setting, international law-making, and diplomacy (Bauerkamper and Gumb, 2010). International civil societies are not just formal organizations and institutions; they are also networks and informal links between borders, states or governments. Transnational civil societies can be fairly temporary but

effective at getting neglected issues onto the agendas of national governments and international organizations (Bauerkamper and Gumb, 2010). Transnational civil societies range from labour unions, LGBTQI, religious-based, charity groups and organizations. The transnational civil societies play a role in negotiations and implementation of matters regarded as a concern (Florini, 1996). Communication and cooperation between transnational civil societies are achieved effortlessly due to the increase in information technology use and availability (Marchetti, 2016).

b. Hierarchy of Issues

Liberal institutionalism argues that there is an absence of hierarchy among issues. In other terms, the theory suggests that international politics cannot be divided into high and low politics (Rana, 2015:291). The theory suggests that even though high politics (such as military power and national security) are still regarded as relevant and important, liberalists argue that low politics (like economic, social and environmental issues) are considered very important in terms of international agenda (Rana, 2015:291). As compared to the realist's that security is always a priority among states, liberal institutionalists argue that any problem could be a priority of the international agenda at any given time (Rana, 2015:291).

Realists view the international system as anarchic and consider security as a fundamental issue. To improve security, states try to expand their power and get involved in power-balancing to discourage potential invaders (Devitt, 2011). Unlike liberal institutionalism, power plays a significant role in the construction of realism. Realists such as Thomas Hobbes argue "that people have a desire for power in the anarchic state of nature which eventually leads to wars unless the conflicting parties could establish a social contract" (Devitt, 2011:5). Realists' idea of power is equal to military force; according to realists, other forms of power, such as economic power and technology, are of secondary importance (Devitt, 2011). According to realism, power is property orientated. Furthermore, realists are interested in physical, measurable resources of power which is known as hard power (Devitt, 2011).

Liberal institutionalism rejects the idea of hard power but embraces the concept of soft power. The theory is based on interconnections and cooperation. The idea of soft power, also known as co-option power, was first presented by Joseph Nye more than two decades ago and is established on attraction and is linked to intangible power or resources such as economic status, ideology and organizations (Wagner, 2014). Liberal institutionalists argue that soft power plays

a significant role in preventing wars. This is achieved through international institutions that promote cooperation through mutual rules and norms and enhance peaceful relations (Gomichon, 2013). Joseph Nye further argued that institutions improve a state's soft power because they are likely to promote their principles, ideas, and foreign policies (Gomichon, 2013).

c. The minor role of the military

The minor role of military force is a key idea of liberal institutionalism. The theory thus suggests that force is of low importance in international relations. Liberal institutionalists suggest that when interdependence and cooperation are successful, military force becomes irrelevant in resolving disagreements on members' economic issues (Rana, 2015). According to Keohane and Nye (1989:28), "intense relationships of mutual influence may exist, but the force is no longer considered an appropriate way of achieving other goals such as economic and ecological welfare which have become more important, mainly due to the effects of military force and wars being costly and uncertain" (Keohane and Nye, 1989:28).

Like the theory of realism, liberal institutionalism theory acknowledges that anarchy is an obstacle to cooperation among states; however, liberal institutionalists presents that anarchy does not make achieving cooperation completely impossible (Nuruzzaman, 2008: 195).

According to realists, anarchy is viewed as a hurdle in cooperation due to two problems: comparative gains and states cheating on each other. Liberal institutionalism argues that "institutions promote cooperation through making information available to all parties and by reducing the risk of cheating" (Devitt, 2011:2).

Although liberal institutionalism has significant differences from realism, liberal institutionalism theory acknowledges that anarchy hinders cooperation among states. However, they believe that anarchy does not make cooperation impossible (Nuruzzaman, 2008:195). According to realists, anarchy is viewed as an obstacle in institutionalism. The issue of relative gains refers to how resources (gains) are distributed; how states distribute these gains and how they can receive more gains than their rivals. This eventually leads them to act in an anarchic setting (Devitt, 2011:2).

4.4 Principles of liberal institutionalism

There are key themes presented in liberal institutionalism – these include democracy, individual/human rights, globalization, free markets/ free trade, bilateral trade agreements, and multilateralism

4.4.1. Democracy

The concept of democracy is “derived from the Greek term demos and Kratos, and Demos directly translated means the common people and Kratos translated means strength” (Mnikati, 2020:41). Democracy is key in the foundation and construction of liberal institutionalism. Joseph Nye argued that democratic states are more peaceful with other states and rarely go to war with other democratic states (Gomichon, 2013). This is known as the democratic peace thesis. Democracy is defined by the Cambridge Dictionary (1995) “as the belief in freedom and equality between people, or a system of government based on this belief, in which power is either held by elected representatives or directly by the people themselves”. According to theorist Dahl, there are three characteristics of democracy. These are popular sovereignty, political equality and majority rule (Krouse, 1982).

Democracy provides a form of governance that respects human rights and essential freedoms. This environment also allows citizens freedom of expression, giving them a say in decision making, and they can hold leaders accountable (United Nations, 2016). Liberal institutionalists believe that states are generally peaceful in nature because not just a few govern but many. Also, democratic state leaders are held accountable and might fear not being re-elected if they had to go to war with another state (Moravesik, 2010). For liberal institutionalists, democracy allows consensus between those who are in power and the citizens, especially where policies are introduced and implemented, thus reducing any conflict caused by citizens. Democratization, therefore, lowers the risk of internal conflict (Moravesik, 2010). Liberal institutionalism suggests that the democratic political process facilitates the resolution of intense conflict when the political system is challenged by internal groups (Kinsella and Rousseau, 2008). Democracy plays a significant role in peaceful persuasion. This contrasts with the use of status, force or threat due to the underlying formal principles of equality among participants (Dizerega, 2001).

Democracy is a central aspect of liberal institutionalism, and one cannot exist without the other. The theory fully embraces the idea of consensus and the use of soft power. The norms and

practices of democracy facilitate the idea of people working together to serve the majority through cooperation and consensus. This can be carried out between the government and the citizens. Democracy utilizes unity and equality via elections. Through this system, each individual engages with the government, and each citizen's opinion weighs the same importance as the next (Gatiso and Vollan, 2015). A democratic structure creates a balance in power to ensure that supreme power is not given to a single individual. This prevents elected officials from ignoring the community's needs, thus limiting the possibility of civil wars, political instability, international wars and conflicts (Gatiso and Vollan, 2015). Through democracy, the international order has become more peaceful. This is because democratic states are less likely to use political violence against citizens or to participate in widespread violation of human rights. This is because democracies resort to a peaceful settlement of political disputes, as the norms and practices of a democratic system encourage this (Remmer, 1998).

As discussed, liberal institutionalism emphasizes cooperation between citizens and the government or any organisation, which directly translates to non-state and state actors cooperating to reach a common goal (Kinsella and Rousseau, 2008). Liberal institutionalism suggests that international organizations, states and non-state actors promote democracy in one way or another, which is usually done through the promotion of human rights, development strategies and programmes or involvement in peace and security (United Nations, 2016).

4.4.2. Individual and human rights

Human rights are an essential aspect of the international relations system and play a more significant role in the theory of liberal institutionalism. Thus the theory emphasises that it is coherent for state actors to pursue policies that are compatible with human rights values (Dunne and Hanson, 2008). Liberal institutionalism suggests that citizens of states have rights that public authorities should respect. The theory argues that individuals have fundamental rights to freedom of speech, fair treatment in terms of legal processes and political equality (Dunne and Hanson, 2008). Due to the focus on interconnectedness and cooperation, liberal institutionalism argues that all individuals have equal moral worth, and any abuse of human rights is a global issue and affects all states (Dunne and Hanson, 2008).

Human rights play a significant role in the overall development of a state; liberal institutionalism argues that there cannot be sustainable development without human rights (International Cooperation and Development Fund, 2001). International development

institutions and organizations promote economic growth as a mean of advancing human rights. The main aim of economic development is poverty alleviation (International Cooperation and Development Fund, 2001). Poverty results in various problems such as inadequate public health care, high levels of infant and child mortality, illegal child labour, lack of education opportunities and insufficient infrastructure. These issues increase inequality and erode the human rights of citizens (International Cooperation and Development Fund, 2001).

Liberal institutionalism argues that institutions are essential for exercising the freedom of individuals. This is freedom from subjective authority, social rights and democratic representation (Keohane, 2012). Legal, political, domestic and international institutions are mandated with the task of monitoring and protecting human rights. The support these international institutions receive, such as the United Nations, is evidence that a consensus exists between regular citizens and among decision-makers. This is in order to protect the human rights of all citizens (Langlois, 2003). Achieving global cooperation to find solutions to cultural, social, or humanitarian issues or promoting human rights for all is one of the fundamental purposes of the United Nations (United Nations, 2016). The United Nations has various declarations by which the international community and states should abide by, must act and corporate. United Nations “promotes good governance, monitors elections, supports civil society to strengthen democratic institutions and accountability” (United Nations, 2016). The United Nations is an international institution that supports and represents all the above characteristics of the importance of institutions according to liberal institutionalism.

4.4.3. Globalization

Liberals argue that globalization is the condition of world politics. It has provided an opportunity for growth and connections between states, people and institutions across the globe. Globalisation basically refers to the flow of technology, information and products between national borders and the interdependence of states globally are influenced by free trade (Kopp, 2020). Globalization has had a social, cultural, political and economic influence on states and the entire international system. Socially, globalization has increased interaction among various populations across borders. Culturally, globalization represents the exchange of ideas, values and expressions among different cultures internally and externally (Kopp, 2020). Politically, globalization has increased the influence and role of intergovernmental organizations, such as the United Nations, the African Union and even BRICS. The influence

of intergovernmental organizations has grown to an international level, allowing such organizations to include countries across the globe. This essentially provides an environment to share and discuss common interests, as well as to offer solutions to global issues (Kopp, 2020). Globalization offers a platform for interaction and cooperation across borders, among states and among different cultures. Thus, allowing developing countries to get involved with developed countries and helps developing states catch up with developed countries. This is carried out through increased manufacturing, economic developments and improvements, which also includes the standard of living for the citizens of developing states (Kopp, 2020).

Globalization has resulted in increased interconnectivity between countries and communities. Through globalization, borders have essentially disappeared and allowed for easier access and flow of finances between countries via trade and foreign direct investment (Amadi, 2020). Globalization is a fundamental building aspect of liberal institutionalism because it promotes cooperation, interconnections and dependency through various activities. This regards activities such as the flow of and movement of people (through migration), knowledge, services, beliefs, goods, images, and capital across borders (Amadi, 2020). Globalization has created an environment in which countries are able to pursue common social, economic or political goals. These goals are achieved and account for means of international monetary flows, exchange of knowledge, technology and information (Amadi, 2020). Globalization weakens the relevance of ethnicity, nationhood and locality through interactions and connections between different groups of people, countries and essentially the disappearance of borders (Buchan et al., 2009). Globalization, therefore, reduces the possibility of wars and conflicts because it promotes and encourages a sense of shared belonging (Buchan et al., 2009).

Globalization has drastically shaped business worldwide, making products across various borders accessible and easier. Many companies cooperate or merge with other companies through strategic alliances (Ungureanu, 2010). Through globalization, companies are able to merge or invest across borders and within different countries. In 2018, approximately 140 Indian companies invested almost \$4 billion in South Africa, thus creating over 18 000 work opportunities (Mishra, 2019). The companies that invested in South Africa included Wipro, Coal India, Mahindra and HCL technologies. There have also been major South African companies that ventured into investments in India; these included SASOL, FirstRand, Old Mutual, Shoprite and Nandos (Mishra, 2019).

4.4.4. Free market/Free trade

Free trade and free markets as dimensions of liberal institutionalism refers to increased cross border trading and removing supply and trade-related constraints. Liberals posit that global trade binds states together because they share common interests (Gomichon, 2013). Free trade is a financial practice where states import and export goods without government interference in the form of tariffs and import/export sanctions (Vitez, 2019). Free trade makes each country depending on the other. Free trade agreements give states a wider variety of competitively priced goods and services and expose states to new technologies and advanced practices (Department of Foreign Affairs, 2017). Free trade plays a significant role in the construction of liberal institutionalism because it enhances regional economic integration. It provides a platform to build shared approaches to trade and investment between states. Developing countries benefit from free trade agreements as a result of enhanced trade and investment opportunities that will potentially contribute to the economic growth of that state (Department of Foreign Affairs, 2017). Free trade agreements provide emerging economies with access to financial resources necessary to produce manufactured goods. This helps to provide a variety of affordable goods, employment opportunities and alleviate poverty (Vitez, 2019). Free trade provides developing countries with additional protection and also helps developing states to improve their military strength, internal infrastructure and improve politically (Vitez, 2019).

4.4.5. Bilateral trade

Over the last few years, bilateral trade has gained much popularity within the international community. Bilateral trade agreements are a key component of liberal institutionalism, as the theory promotes cooperation and consensus between states. This is essentially what bilateral trade involves. Bilateral trade agreements are agreements between the two countries in order to encourage trade and economic growth. This means that each country has equal amounts of trade between each other (Stevens, 2005). Bilateral trade agreements remove trade restrictions such as tariffs and export restraints (Kagan and Walters, 2020), targets national policy areas and aim to improve cooperation and enable trade between states in particular economic sectors such as agriculture or mining (Stevens, 2005). Bilateral trade agreements aim to improve access between markets and increase their financial development (Kagan and Walters, 2020). These agreements are negotiated between two nations, and as a result of the two states involved in negotiations; the negotiation process is easier, and therefore bilateral trade agreements gain faster trade benefits (Kagen and Walters, 2020)

Bilateral trade enables consumer's access to lower-priced goods due to the elimination of tariffs and other trade agreements (Stevens, 2005). These agreements also provide companies with new international markets and, as companies benefit from increased profit, employment opportunities are created to keep up with the demand (Stevens, 2005). They can achieve binding agreement on contentious issues such as human rights, education and development and labour standards (Trakman, 2011). According to the World Trade Organization, three-quarters of world trade is conducted under bilateral trade agreements. This is in an environment that encourages equality since rules in business operations are monitored (World Trade Organisation, 2021).

4.4.6. Multilateralism

Since World War 2, multilateralism has played an essential role in maintaining global peace and promoting development. Multilateralism is a process of organization within the international relations system that involves relations between groups of three or more states in order to achieve a common goal (Hisahiro, 2019). Multilateralism has a long history of over 30 years, and organizations (such as The World Trade Organization) have strong multilateral principles and are often based on trade relations. The World Trade Organization aims to ensure that trade flows smoothly and as freely as possible (Hisahiro, 2019). Multilateralism facilitates international democracy because small or developing states are recognised and hold equal power. At the same time, developed countries are controlled by international responsibility. Multilateralism increases accountability, transparency and the sustainability of party states, and in the case of aid, multilateral aid is more efficient, effective and responsive to the needs of the recipient (Hisahiro, 2019).

Multilateralism is a crucial feature of liberalism, as it facilitates and promotes cooperation among states. This is for their mutual gain with one of the most influential multilateral organizations launched in the post-world war era - the United Nations (Caporaso, 1992). The United Nations has primary objectives, which include "to maintain international peace and security, to encourage international cooperation in the spheres of social, economic and cultural developments, to develop friendly relations among nations on the principles of equal rights and to recognise the fundamental rights of everyone" (United Nations, 2019:2)

4.5 Liberal institutionalism and BRICS

4.5.1 Introduction

As discussed, liberal institutionalism says that cooperation among states and institutions is the best way for both parties, whether it be states or members of institutions, to receive absolute gain (Berlin, 2012). BRICS has facilitated cooperation within various sectors which are identified as a mutual interest. The coalition known as BRICS was formed with the intention of being an alternative global financial institution to Western-dominated institutions (such as The World Bank). One of BRICS main aims is to provide financial aid to developing countries. The organization also has the objective of providing self-governance that will be tasked with carrying out developmental and financial plans in member states without relying on any foreign institution (Kahn, 2011). BRICS priority “areas for cooperation include trade and investment promotion, manufacturing and minerals processing, energy, agricultural cooperation, science, technology and innovation” (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015:1). Together the member states have 30% of the global land, 45% of agriculture production worldwide, 43% of production worldwide and 21% of global gross domestic product (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015).

BRICS aims to create equality within international politics, as well as the democratization of global governance. BRICS seeks to do this by filling the gap between the developing world and the developed world by providing alternative financial institutions that deal with foreign aid and investment (Armijo, 2014:10). BRICS aims to democratize global governance by having countries with developed economies, infrastructure and technology representing the developing world. These countries will prevent wealthy countries from dictating the global agenda in the absence of transparency and accountability (Ibon International Policy, 2013). BRICS countries intend to develop economically, integrating from holding regional power to a global level. China, one of the most influential members, aims to become a superpower and even surpass the United States of America economically (Cassiolato, 2009:15). BRICS has the aim of helping member countries, such as South Africa, to develop and improve domestic technological capabilities and improve its capacity to use new and old technologies (Cassiolato, 2009:15). BRICS objectives are to promote a legitimate international system and provide a South-South framework for cooperation, thereby acting as a communicator between the developed and developing world, specifically in the United Nations and World Trade organisation (Kahn, 2011:42).

4.5.2 Cooperation within BRICS

Cooperation within an institution is an essential aspect of liberal institutionalism. BRICS fosters cooperation through its Annual Summits, where matters of mutual interests are discussed. Different issues, such as poverty or education, are identified as a priority and an area for development. Cooperation with BRICS and the international community is a fundamental aspect of the coalition. Since the first annual summit held in Russia by BRICS in 2009, the coalition has expanded to over 30 new cooperation areas. This includes areas such as technology and innovation, health, education science, economy and finance (BRICS Brasil, 2019). The financial cooperation of the member states involves evolving international financial institutions, particularly the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank Group (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). Through the various cooperation initiatives launched by BRICS, the coalition aims to provide tangible benefits for all member states. Economic and financial cooperation within BRICS includes the New Development Bank, a multilateral bank that was created at the sixth annual Fortaleza summit in 2014 (The Strategy for BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). The bank is an exceptional example of the coalition's economic and financial cooperation. The bank acts as financial aid for the mobilisation of FDI in infrastructure and development projects within BRICS member states and other developing states (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). It also enhances the efforts of multilateral and regional financial institutions for global development, which contributes to the achievement of collective, solid and sustainable growth (New Development Bank, 2020).

BRICS is committed to promoting sustainable energy production and consumption, which is crucial for the economic development of its member states. BRICS member states have the following priority areas related to energy planning: developing energy infrastructure, providing mutual support for different energy supplies, promoting the use of a renewable source of energy, promoting universal access to energy and introducing environmentally friendly technologies of energy production and consumption (The New Development Bank, 2020). Through the financial assistance of the New Development Bank, South Africa received funding for a project with South African energy supplier Eskom. The Eskom project funded by the NDB for the reconstruction of the energy supplier will provide the company with an alternative renewable and sustainable form of energy (The New Development Bank, 2020). The financial aid offered by the bank for the Eskom renewable energy project was approved in 2016 and is worth a total amount of \$180 million. The project will support renewable energy development

and will contribute to the reduction of the country's reliance on non-renewable energy, which are fossil fuels (The Strategy for BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015).

Cooperation in the area of health was launched in 2011 in Beijing, China. At the first meeting, the health ministers of member states discussed their role in providing better access to quality and affordable health care and technology (World Health Organization, 2014). Through the area of cooperation, it has resulted in the identification of common issues among member states. These common issues include the incidence of infectious diseases (such as tuberculosis and HIV) and the lack of access to medical care and medication (BRICS-Brazil, 2019). BRICS health cooperation aims to strengthen the health systems in all member states. It seeks to overcome issues that hinder access to affordable medical care, which includes safe medical products, vaccines and other health technologies for tuberculosis, HIV, malaria and other infectious diseases (The Strategy for BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015).

Although the issues experienced by BRICS member states with regards to health care differ, the coalition has one common aim. This aim is to strengthen the role of all member governments in health, particularly financially (World Health Organization, 2014). BRICS supported health cooperation through five different areas. This includes strategic health technologies for communicable diseases (such as HIV and tuberculosis), which is a project led by Brazil. The medical technologies managed by Russia, the establishment of health surveillance systems led by India, medical treatment discovery and development driven by China and reducing non-communicable disease risk factors, prevention, health advancement and global health coverage managed by South Africa (World Health Organisation, 2014). Over the last eight years, partnerships between vaccine manufacturers and multinational corporations with BRICS countries were made. In 2013, the Brazilian government funded Oswaldo Cruz Foundation, and together with the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, announced that it would develop an affordable measles vaccine (The Strategy for BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). The Brazilian government invested a total of USD \$727 million for the project, which included the construction of a plant at the bio-Manguinhos site to produce the vaccine (The Strategy for BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015).

4.5.3 Trade within BRICS: Bilateral/ Multilateral Trade

Trade, whether multilateral or bilateral, within BRICS member states plays a massive role within the coalition. There are various examples of trade relations within the coalition. Trade

is a priority for BRICS. It is an essential aspect of economic integration and economic development (The Strategy for BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). To expand trade cooperation with BRICS, the coalition plans to enhance consultations on macroeconomic and trade policies, encourage collaboration and trade in services, consider the influence on output and efficacy, and exchange information on policies that affect trade and investment (The Strategy For BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). BRICS will achieve these objectives by strengthening cooperation among organizations responsible for investment, exploring implementing co-financed projects, including regional projects aimed at infrastructure, and promoting dialogue on domestic investment policy. It will also increase cooperation and trade in key services (The Strategy for BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015).

The role of free trade plays is significant within BRICS. As mentioned above, free trade enhances economic integration. Trade within BRICS member states has increased over the past four years. South African trade data from the Department of Trade and Industry revealed that between 2010 and 2018, South African exports to BRICS member states increased by 76% to R155,3 billion while imports rose to 95% to R225,5 billion (Vuk'uzenzele, 2019). In Brazil, between 2009 and 2013, the annual trade with other BRICS member states expanded by 27% (Zhiwei, 2019). During 2013, when Brazil experienced a decline in their foreign trade, trade with other BRICS member states experienced the least decline, with approximately 30.5% (Zhiwei, 2019). Trade between India and China show trends of drastically increasing from \$2.71 billion in 2001 to \$70 billion in 2016 (Joginder, 2014). Trade has increased among BRICS member states and with other African countries. For instance, Ghana experienced a large influx in trade with BRICS member states (Joginder, 2014). In 2017, Ghana had 3.08 billion in imports from China; import value with India was \$660 million. Brazil was valued at \$231 million, and Russia was valued at \$147 million (OEC World, 2019).

Over the last few years, trade between Africa and BRICS has doubled, with BRICS member states trading more with Africa than themselves (United Nations Commission for Africa, 2014). During the 5th BRICS summit held in Durban, South Africa, a series of agreements were made regarding Africa's development. One of the agreements is known as the BRICS Multilateral Infrastructure Co-financing Agreement for Africa, which aims to pave the way to create co-financing measures for infrastructure projects on the African continent (United Nations Commission for Africa, 2014).

A bilateral trade agreement exists between India and South Africa. South Africa is India's largest trading partner in sub-Saharan Africa. In 2017-2018, India was the 4th largest importing country and 5th largest export destination (Department of Trade, Industry and Competition, 2019). India's exports to South Africa have drastically increased in the last decade. It rose from \$984 million in 2004/2005 to \$3.546 billion in 2017/2018 (Department of Trade, Industry and Competition, 2019). India's imports from South Africa increased from \$292 million in 2004/2005 to \$5.834 billion in 2017/2018 (Department of Trade, Industry and Competition, 2019). South African exports included iron and steel, precious metals, vegetable products, wood and wood products, while imports included pharmaceutical products, organic chemicals, plastics, electrical and electrical equipment (World Bank, 2019). Through increased trade between the two countries, there has been a significant economic increase in their trade value over the last ten years, resulting in mutual gain.

Bilateral trade agreements between South Africa and many other countries has been an essential tool in fostering relationships. It has aided and facilitated cooperation and economic development in various sectors. Since 1994, South Africa has signed over 50 bilateral trade agreements with countries from all parts of the world, including France, Uganda, Belgium, Mexico and BRICS member states (Department of International Relations and Cooperation, 2020). In August of 2010, South Africa and China signed a bilateral agreement known as the Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) on environmental management cooperation. The MOU's objectives are to encourage collaboration in environmental protection and partnership between South Africa and China to preserve and develop the environment (Department of Environment, Forestry and Fisheries, 2019).

The coalition is a clear example of multilateralism. The groups' objectives have fundamental principles of liberal institutionalism (The Strategy for BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). BRICS has maintained cooperation in various sectors such as agriculture, education, science, statistics, development finance institutions, health, security and justice. For the past decade, BRICS has used the coalition to improve the coordination of issues of mutual interest. BRICS cooperation is based on defined national interests and foreign policy goals (The Strategy for BRICS Economic Partnership, 2015). Unlike most Western states, weaker states have sought to create multilateral institutions suited to their own goals and interests. Emerging powers rely on multilateral institutions and relations to achieve their goals (Kapoor, 2020). BRICS member

states have sought to use multilateral cooperation's to improve coordination issues of mutual interest (Kapoor, 2020).

In 2015, the Ministers of Science and Technology signed a memorandum of understanding (MOU) to launch a research and development cooperative programme between BRICS members states (National Research Foundation, 2019). The multilateral agreement between members of the coalition aims to support basic and applied joint research projects. These are projects that have been submitted in specific research fields identified by the BRICS partners through a multinational approach. This is undertaken to provide an opportunity for young and emerging researchers within BRICS member states to meet and interact. The multilateral Joint Science and Technology Research Collaboration aims to contribute to research capacity development through the provision of masters and doctoral scholarships and student exchange programmes (National Research Foundation, 2019).

4.5.4 BRICS Foreign Policy (Soft Power)

Soft power plays an enormous role in BRICS. Soft power is explained by Joseph Nye as a countries ability to achieve its goals through attraction and persuasion instead of force (Gomichon, 2013). BRICS soft power includes their foreign policy, trade openness, infrastructure availability and market size. The soft power of a country or organization attracts Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and financial aid, which benefits the recipient and investor (Asongu et al., 2018). FDI, in emerging economies, has the ability to economically transform the country as it provides additional financial resources through investment. This creates employment, allows for the transfer of skills and technology improvements.

On the other hand, investors receive natural resources and a low-cost workforce (Asongu et al., 2018). Emerging countries received a greater amount of FDI in 2013. Among the top, 20 recipients were Brazil, India and China (Asongu et al., 2018). In 2011, BRICS member states attracted 26% of the global FD in the past ten years. BRICS FDI has tripled to the value of \$263 billion. BRICS has a substantial outward foreign direct flow with an increase in investment from \$7 billion in 2000 to \$126 billion in 2012 (United Nations, 2013).

BRICS supports and promotes global peace and security. The coalition exercises its power through consensus and dialogue. Its members support the central role of the United Nations in maintaining and promoting global peace and security. BRICS member states, namely China and Russia, currently hold permanent member seats within the United Nations. BRICS member

states are active United Nations peacekeepers because they provide troops. India is the third largest provider of troops. From 2004 to 2012, they provided the United Nations with over 100 000 people to serve (Slonskaya, 2015). BRICS members' states have contributed to peacekeeping initiatives and programmes in the United Nations (IDS policy briefing, 2014). China has increased its participation and involvement in international affairs and is now the most significant contributor to the United Nations consent-based peacekeeping (IDS policy Briefing, 2014). While on the other hand, South Africa, Russia, Brazil and India have established state institutions to co-ordinate development aid and support peacekeeping and peacebuilding abroad (Richmond and Tellidis, 2013). BRICS ministers argued that peace could only be achieved through inclusive national dialogue with respect for each participating member's independence, territorial integrity and sovereignty (South African Government News Agency, 2018).

4.5.5 BRICS and Human Rights

Human rights within BRICS member states are an essential component of their foreign policy and the coalition's objectives. The coalition shares common ideas on fundamental human rights, including freedom of speech and expression, access to health care, education and freedom to participate in political events such as elections (Steytlar, 2019). BRICS member states further uphold their commitment to human rights by being part of human rights treaties and initiatives to combat human rights violations abroad. South Africa is part of several international human rights treaties such as the International Covenant On Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and The Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (Steytlar, 2019). South Africa and Brazil are currently the United Nations Human Rights Council's leaders on initiatives against racism. In 2006, Brazil was the main sponsor of the United Nations Human Rights Council. As members of the Non-Aligned Movement, South Africa and India are cosponsors of resolutions on racism; Brazil joined later in 2010 (Jordaan, 2015). The promotion and protection of human rights are essentially crucial in South Africa as its national institution. South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) was set up to support constitutional democracy. The SAHRC is committed to promoting respect for and protecting human rights for everyone without fear or favour (South African Human Rights Commission, 2016).

Despite BRICS advocacy for human rights, there have been issues with human rights violations and human rights abuse cases, specifically within China and Russia. China has had freedom of expression violations, an unfair justice system that violates citizens' human rights and a

violation of freedom of religion and belief (Human Rights Watch, 2019). China's law enforcement, the judicial system, and overall legal system were placed under the Chinese Communist Party's entire leadership. China legalized arbitrary and secret detentions such as residential surveillance in certain areas and a judicial system of detention (Human Rights Watch, 2019). The change within the justice system allowed prolonged detention and increased the chances of torture and other forms of force (Human Rights Watch, 2019). There has been strict censorship placed on all media, including print media, online games and even the social media platform Twitter, which has been officially banned in the country (Amnesty International, 2019).

Russia, like China, has a large number of human rights violation cases, "the right to freedom of expression, association and peaceful assembly consistently restricted, in law and practice" (Human Rights Watch, 2020). Those who attempt to express these rights are faced with harassment, ill-treatment from the police, hefty fines and, in some cases, criminal trials and imprisonment (Human Rights Watch, 2020)). In July 2019, more than 2600 people were arrested during a peaceful protest until the intervention of police authorities in Moscow. Some police violence victims were innocent bystanders, which included an individual by the name of Konstantin Konovalov. This victim was stopped by the police and assaulted. The attack left the innocent victim with a broken leg (Human Rights Watch, 2020). In October 2018, the Russian government banned organizations regarded as "foreign agents" from providing anticorruption assessments of draft legal acts (Human Rights Watch, 2020). Authorities continue to fine organizations and their leaders for violating the "foreign agents" law. Three human rights organizations and a group working on HIV/AIDS prevention were forced to close down (Human Rights Watch, 2020).

BRICS member states constitutions also share similarities in their fundamental rights for citizens. This includes the right to education, the right to freedom of religion, and the right against discrimination and exploitation. The basic principles of liberal institutionalism such as democracy, trade and cooperation can be identified in BRICS member states constitutions. The liberal institutionalism element of democracy can be placed in three of three BRICS members. These are the Indian, Brazilian and South African constitution. Article 301 of India's constitution asserts that trade and commerce in the country should be free. This can also be identified in three of the five BRICS member states who share similarities in government and constitutions. While South Africa, India and Brazil are advocates for equal and fair rights for

citizens, there are some human rights violations and issues of human rights abuse in China and Russia, as discussed above. Brazil's Constitution of 1988 in "Article 5 states all citizens are equal before the law without differences of any kind, and Brazilians and foreigners residing in the country are ensured the inviolability of the right of life, liberty, equality, security and property" (Constitution of the Federative Republic Of Brazil, 2010:15). The Brazilian constitution states that men and women are equal; citizens have the freedom of expression, freedom of religion and protection of places of worship under the terms of the law (Constitution of the Federative Republic of Brazil, 2010). Brazil and South Africa share similarities in their human rights policies. Section 9 of the South African constitution, similar to Brazil, promotes the equality of all citizens before the law and states that everyone has the right to equal protection, freedom of expression, freedom of religion, belief and opinion (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996).

4.5.6 Economic Development as a means of advancing human rights

As discussed above, international development institutions and organizations such as BRICS promote economic development as a means of advancing human rights. The main aim of economic growth is poverty alleviation, as poverty is one of the causes of many conflicts worldwide. Additionally, poverty threatens dignity, freedom from want and the recognition of all human rights (Dunne and Hanson, 2008). BRICS is dedicated to alleviating poverty and unemployment and encouraging and supporting economic advancement in BRICS member states. Strong economic development advances human development, which promotes further economic growth. Thus an effective strategy for poverty alleviation must include principal measures to promote rapid economic development (Dunne and Hanson, 2008).

In 1990, 1.95 billion people in the world lived in extreme poverty; however, in 2012, the number dropped to 896 million (Maiorano and Manor, 2017). Poverty alleviation is a priority on the agenda list of various international organizations and states. The decrease in poverty since 1990 is a result of increased international trade and globalization (Rogers, 2013). The interconnections and movement of capital, people, and goods worldwide between developed and developing countries have significantly increased. Developing countries account for 25% of global trade in 2012 compared to 10% in 1980 (Rodgers, 2013). Increased international trade has resulted in the economic development of many countries, which has alleviated poverty. This was achieved through increased relief funds, investment in education and increased employment opportunities within their borders and abroad (Rodgers, 2013). The BRICS

member states contributed the most towards the alleviation of poverty globally. Collectively the BRICS member states lifted 800 million people out of extreme poverty within member states (Maiorano and Manor, 2017). This is achieved through robust agricultural research systems and technologies. Agriculture is a significant contributor to economic growth and poverty alleviation (Dunlap, 2017). Growth in the economy originating from agriculture is twice as effective in decreasing poverty (Dunlap, 2017).

China accounts for just a little over 60% of the global reduction in poverty. China lifted 748.5 million people out of extreme poverty from 66.3% to 0.6% in 2019 (World Bank, 2020). China has employment initiatives and programmes which can be traced back to as early as 1984 when the government offered opportunities that replaced total relief (Osorio & de Arruda, 2014). Workfare programmes in China in the 21st century is solely based on providing employment that requires low skilled workers and provides remuneration, approximately 70% of China's jobs are targeted at the youth population (Osorio & de Arruda, 2014). initiated a programme known as the Dibao programme, which provides additional income to households earning less than a certain threshold. The programme Dibao was first launched in Shanghai in 1993. It was expanded into all urban areas in 1999 and all rural areas in 2007 (Zhou et al., 2020).

China has achieved a decrease in poverty through the systematic implementation of a development poverty reduction programme. The steps include a seven-year priority poverty alleviation programme which is aimed at alleviating 80 million people from poverty (Massorova and Potapenko, 2018). The second step of the programme includes the new century rural poverty alleviation plan, which was carried out from 2010-2020. China experienced slow progress in poverty reduction when rural economic growth slowed down. By 1994, 80 million of the rural population remained poor (World Bank, 2018). High levels of poverty in China are mainly related to illness. There is a lack of medical infrastructure in high population density areas citizens are likely to fall into the cycle of poverty-unhealthy-low income-poverty (Zhou et al., 2020). China health status of the rural poor, attributing to 51.63% of the poverty, is linked to the sickness of members per household (Zhou et al., 2020).

Among BRICS member states, China, Russia, and Brazil have shown the most improvement in poverty eradication. China has the lowest number of poverty cases, with a poverty ratio of residents living below the poverty line being 1.7% in 2018 as compared to 3.1% in 2017. This

is followed by Brazil, with an unchanged poverty ratio of 4.4% in 2017 and 2018. In Russia, the poverty rate decreased from 13.2% in 2017 to 12.9% in 2018 (World Bank, 2020).

One of Brazil's major causes of high levels of poverty is the inequality of land distribution. 10% of the population controls 50% of all land. This means that 2 million people own half of the country's land. Simultaneously, the other 90% have little or no access to land ownership - which would improve their economic status (Thomas, 2017). Inequality in income plays a role in the increased poverty level. In 2018, the wealthiest 10% of Brazil's population accounted for 44.1% of national income, while the rest of the population accounted for a little over 55% of the remaining national income (Thomas, 2017). Brazil's six richest men have the same wealth as 50%, roughly 100 million people of the most impoverished population combined (Thomas, 2017). Despite high inequality and poverty in Brazil, Brazil has achieved success in reducing poverty over the last decade. The number of people living in poverty decreased from 50% to 18% relative to the national poverty line from 1990 to 2014 (Massorova and Potapenko, 2018). Brazil's successful fight against poverty results from targeted programmes, such as the social cash transfer programme introduced in 2003, which reported the highest efficiency. The Bolsa Familia is a conditional income-transfer programme launched in 2003. It aims to reduce poverty and reach social development goals (Massorova and Potapenko, 2018). This programme contributed to a 16% reduction in income poverty and a 33% decrease in extreme poverty in 2005. The Beneficio de Prestacao Continuada programme focused on the elderly aged 65 years or older and impoverished individuals with long-term disabilities. This programme contributed 17% to income inequality reduction between 2001 and 2011 (Massorova and Potapenko, 2018).

Russian economy relies significantly on the natural gas sector. One of the significant factors contributing to poverty in Russia is the decline in its GDP due to a decrease in oil prices (Luhn, 2016). Russia's economy is experiencing a drop in economic growth by 3.7%, threatening improvements made in poverty reduction throughout the country. The Brent crude oil value decreased and is traded at \$30 a barrel (Luhn, 2016). Despite Russia's shrinking economy, Russia has experienced some improvement in the national poverty rate between 2017 and 2018. As discussed above, the Russian poverty rate declined from 13.2% in 2017 to 12.9% in 2018. Russia launched the Social Support of Citizens programme (2013-2020), which is aimed at reducing poverty among low-income families (Dugarova, 2016). Participants of the programme are provided with a monthly sum of Russian Ruble (RUB) 35 200 to increase their

income. The government's assistance is provided on a contract basis which includes participation in public works, training, self-employment and other methods to help bring families out of poverty (Dugarova, 2016). In 2014, 48 000 subsidies were provided, reaching over 145 000, and as a result, 60% of participants increased their income by 1.5 times, and 40% of low-income families successfully improved living standards and were taken out of poverty (Dugarova, 2016).

Poverty is on the rise in South Africa, with almost 50% of the population above 18 years old living below the upper-bound poverty line (UBPL) of R1 183 a month (Bittar, 2020). South African women are particularly more vulnerable, with many women living below the UBPL. According to Bittar (2020), 52.2% of South African women are regarded as inferior to men, with 46.1%. South African children are greatly affected by poverty, with 6 out of 10 children (62.1%) identified as poor (StatsSA, 2020). South Africa has launched initiatives aimed at alleviating poverty among adults and children in the country. This is carried out by creating economic opportunities for citizens, investment in human capital and basic income security (StatsSA, 2020). Alleviating mass poverty through economic opportunities can only be achieved through employment. The strategies include full-time paid and secured jobs. It also supports social integration and provides income relief such as CWP, EPWP and employment tax incentives (Wood, 2019). Investment in human capital includes a substantial investment in education. In 2019 the South African government invested R30 billion to build new schools and sustain existing schools (Wood, 2019). The South African education system receives approximately 20% of the national budget and 6% of the GDP (Wood, 2019). Basic income security is provided to children, foster care children, people with disability and the elderly. The child support grant is currently one of the most successful programmes. Over 12 million children receive financial assistance (National Treasury, 2019). The South African government provided 397 888 caregivers with a foster care grant of R1000 in 2019 (National Treasury, 2019).

India has made significant improvements in poverty due to increased economic growth; however, overpopulation and high unemployment levels are threatening the success achieved so far. Two-thirds of India's population lives in poverty, with 68.8% of the people living on less than \$2 a day. A further 30% of the population lives on less than \$1.25 a day (Breitkreuz et al., 2017). During the last decade, India has implemented different social protection programmes to alleviate poverty and improve living standards. One of the most successful

programmes is the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA), launched in 2006 (Breitkreuz et al., 2017). The MGNREGA is regarded as one of the most successful workfare programmes globally, although the programme does not specifically target the youth of India it has actively contributed employment to the youth and other groups (Osorio & de Arruda, 2014). MGNREGA has received a significant investment amount of \$5,3 billion, accounting for 0.3% of the gross domestic product (Breitkreuz, 2017). The MGNREGA provides social relief to 127 million households throughout India and provides wage employment to approximately 70 million homes each year (MacLennan, et. al, 2014)).

4.6 Classical growth theory

Classical growth theory is a modern economic theory that is associated with two economists Adam Smith and David Ricardo (Kenton, 2021). Classical growth theory has a long history and can be traced between the 18th and 19th century during the industrial revolution (Kenton, 2021). There are three characteristics of classical economic growth: slow economic growth and marginal product as a result of slow or no technological development, population growth in a state with a weak economy leads to productivity and economic decline (Kenton, 2021). Classical growth theory suggests that when productivity within a state, resources become limited and poverty levels increase.

Classical growth theory suggests that technology has an effect on capital increase and marginal product. When there is a technological development within a country, there is a capital increase, particularly GDP and GDP per capita, and the marginal product of labour rises (Kenton, 2021). The South African government has identified science and technology as one way to help solve some of the country's problems which can be achieved through education, innovation and technology development (Ekrem, 2020). The lack of internet and technology access is a major hindrance in the economic growth and labour production of the continent. Within the sub-Saharan region a total of 18% have access to internet and technology as compared to the global average of 30% (Ekrem, 2020). In 2018, only 54% of the total population of South Africa had access to technology and internet (Ekrem, 2020).

Lack of technology and internet access is as a result of poverty, lack of resources, costs of technology, limited access to power and electricity (Kenton, 2021). Lack of technology and internet decreases the capital of a country (Harris, 2007). In 2010, South Africa had a total

value of \$82 631 million in exports, while its imports were valued at \$83 100 million (World Bank, 2019). The level of employment drastically decreases when the capital of a country decreases. Corporate tax, personal tax and even the GDP of a country declines which affects the labour force of a country. This is explained in detail in Chapter 3 in section 3.3.2.

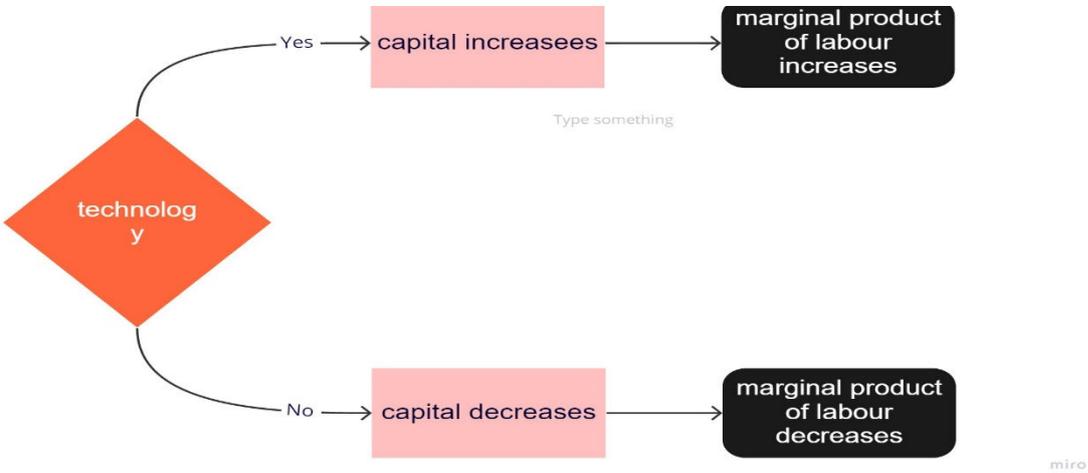


Figure 5.1: The correlation between technology, capital increase and labour (Harris, 2007)

Classical growth theory explains that as the population of a country increases, its labour productivity will decline and the economy (capital) of the country remains the same (Harris, 2007). Economic theorists David Ricardo suggests that capital increase plays an important role in economic growth; the labour force of a state increases when there is an accumulation of capital (Direct correlation between capital and employment) (Harris, 2007) Unemployment levels serve as an indicator of a country’s economic climate. When a country’s GDP is weak and there is slow economic growth, people are retrenched or paid lower wages. Hence, high unemployment levels indicate that a country is operating below full capacity, leading to lower national output and lower incomes (Pettinger, 2019). In 2019 in quarter four, the South African

economy reduced by 1.4, % following a 0.8% decrease in the previous quarter. During the fourth quarter, seven of the ten industries decreased in turnover profit, the employment rate increased from 52.18% in the fourth quarter from 52, 85 in the fourth quarter of 2018 which resulted in the country slipping into its second economic recession since 1994 (Labour Force Survey, 2019).

Classical growth theory suggests that economic growth decreases with an increasing population and limited resources, this is because when the population of a country increases, resources become limited causing a decline in growth (Harris, 2007). South Africa has a major strain on the supply of electricity and water, due to the increase in population. It is currently experiencing a demand-driven water scarcity or according to the UN population-driven water scarcity. Water scarcity occurs when water demand is higher than the water sources available and when demand is population-driven, an increase in population puts pressure on the amount of water physically available, leading to per capita water shortages (Mnisi, 2021). The Western Cape is the second major relocation destination in South Africa, for example, between 1995 and 2018, Cape Town's population grew by 79% (Mnisi, 2021). The population growth in Cape Town between this time was not matched by sufficient increase in dam storage capacity between 1995 and 2018 the dam storage capacity only increased by 15% (Mnisi, 2021). Population growth of Cape Town resulted in increased water demand at the residential level and unfortunate decline in capacity to supply (Mnisi, 2021).

The South African population has been increasing at an average of 1.5% per year with an increase of 58,558,270 million in 2019 to 59,308,690 million in 2020. This is an increase in population by 1.28% (StatsSA, 2020). One of the greatest advantages of population growth, is that it aids in economic development and economic growth, this is as a result of more people actively contributing to the economy through income tax, corporate tax and overall increase in the GDP of the country (Seekings and Nattrass, 2019). Population growth increases the workforce of a country which can directly increase its productivity especially in the agricultural and manufacturing sector (Seeking and Nattrass, 2019). Population increases can benefit a country however in a country such as South Africa this hinders the economy as it battles with a weak economy, slow economic growth and high unemployment rates. South Africa's high population has created a shortage in job availability - between 2000 and 2017, employment including informal and part-time jobs – grew by only 1.6% per year (Seekings and Nattrass, 2019). Between 1995 and 2017, the manufacturing sector grew by 1.9% and in the same

period, employment in the manufacturing sector declined by 1.3% per year (Seekins, Natrass, 2019)

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter presented the theoretical framework underpinning this study. BRICS, as a coalition, has key elements of liberal institutionalism. BRICS objectives are linked to liberal institutionalism and are key in economic development and pursuing mutual interests. The economic implications of high levels of youth unemployment are explored in-depth and the theory of classical growth theory is used to understand slow economic growth from a theoretical perspective. Cooperation within BRICS is a key component of how the coalition operates, It is achieved through yearly summits in each member state on a rotational basis. Despite the issues Russia and China are known for, like human rights violations, the promotion of human rights is an important theme for BRICS member states. These aspects form part of the constitution of South Africa and India. Economic growth within BRICS is achieved through trade relations, such as multilateral agreements and bilateral trade agreements. Equal economic growth within BRICS is, unfortunately, not the case. Increase trade relations have not provided South Africa with increased economic growth due to trade imbalances. Multilateralism is a fundamental component of BRICS, multilateralism is conceptualised and explored in relation to BRICS as a coalition. The use and promotion of soft power are essential in attracting foreign investment within BRICS member states, which has been evident in a significant FDI increase in these states.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents data and discusses key findings. This chapter will analyse existing literature to explore the phenomena of youth unemployment in South Africa, discuss the economic implications of high unemployment levels for South Africa and examine the implications of its membership in BRICS as it pertains to youth unemployment. The chapter concludes with an in-depth reflection by the researcher that draws from the discussions in the chapter.

Research Questions

The following research questions were examined in this study:

- a. How has youth unemployment affected the South African economy?
- b. How will South Africa's membership in the BRICS coalition affect its youth unemployment?
- c. What role is BRICS playing in addressing the issue of youth unemployment in South Africa?

This study's secondary sources were gathered from an extensive range of existing literature and government reports. These documents are the Delhi Declaration, BRICS Energy Report 2020, BRICS Recommendations for Cooperation Report, BRICS Labour and Employment Ministers Declaration, South African Quarterly Labour Survey 2015-2019, Amnesty International Annual Report, Department of Trade, Industry and Cooperation (Trade Reports), Department of International Relations and Cooperation, Bilateral Agreements signed by South Africa, and the World Bank Poverty Headcount.

5.2. How will South Africa's membership in BRICS affect its youth unemployment?

It is difficult to determine future global trends, economic trends, or even the way coalitions such as BRICS may operate in the future. This is due to the constant evolution of the international relations system and global politics dynamics (Krejci, 2006). Therefore, it is

difficult to predict how South Africa's membership with BRICS may affect youth unemployment in the future. In responding to the above research question, this section will discuss how South Africa's membership with BRICS has affected youth unemployment so far. It will also explore whether the membership is beneficial or not specifically for the unemployed youth of South Africa.

Like any multilateral coalition, there are several advantages and disadvantages for the members. The advantages experienced by South Africa do not merely benefit the government but also the citizens of the country. When a country is experiencing economic growth and is politically influential, the citizens begin to reap benefits. This is the case for previously disadvantaged groups - such as those from rural areas and the unemployed (including the youth). Through its membership in the coalition, South Africa can absorb the threats of globalization and benefit through trade as it increases its access to markets and Foreign Direct Investments. Coalitions such as BRICS create structures for organizations and individuals to share common goals (Petropoulos, 2013). South Africa's membership with BRICS directly impacts various sectors within the country such as trade, the economy, manufacturing, education, health care, imports, exports and even unemployment, specifically among the youth (15-35 years old).

a. Trade: Bilateral/ Multilateral trade

South Africa's membership with BRICS has increased its exports and imports within the coalition. To a certain extent, this has been beneficial for the economy of South Africa. South Africa is generally focused on exporting raw materials and semi-manufactured materials and a large influx of imports. This affects local production and local companies negatively - which directly impacts unemployment (Mthombeni, 2006). Major South African companies are struggling economically due to the lack of demand for locally produced goods. This is also due to the continued use of imported products instead of local products. Over the last decade, Brazil and the EU have been the source of South Africa's influx of poultry products such as frozen bone-in chicken pieces, which results in the annual loss of roughly R6.5 billion for the South African poultry industry (Breytenbach, 2017). The EU exports approximately 72% of the poultry products entering South Africa, while Brazil imports 17% and the US only accounting for 8% (Mchunu, 2017). The South African poultry industry is impacted negatively by the dumping of cheap products (frozen bone-in chicken pieces) from the EU, USA and Brazil, directly affecting over 20 000 jobs (Booyesen, 2016).

Local poultry and egg company, and South Africa's second-largest chicken producer, RCL Foods, also known as Rainbow Chickens, experienced a drastic decline in profits. This was mainly due to substantial increases in dumped imports during the financial year of 2017. RCL foods profits decreased by 63.9% (R101 million) annually (Breytenbach, 2017). In the first quarter of 2017, RCL foods, located in Hammarsdale in KwaZulu-Natal, was forced to retrench 1 350 employees (Mchunu, 2017). According to the South African Poultry Association (SAPA) Chief Executive, for every 10 000 tons of chicken imported into South Africa, over 1000 jobs are lost in the South Africa poultry industry (Booyseen, 2016). The decline in profits in the poultry industry could be detrimental, leading to an overall industry collapse. This hurts other industries, such as agriculture. The South African poultry industry directly contributes to the success of the animal feed industry. The poultry industry buys almost half of the country's maize production and is the country's second-largest consumer of maize after its citizens. It also consumes 90% of the South African soya production, which puts approximately 20 000 jobs in the maize and soya production sector at risk (Fairplay, 2017).

Evowood, formerly known as Masonite, has been in operation since 1942 and was the largest hardboard manufacturer in the southern hemisphere. It was also one of the biggest plants of its kind in Africa (West, 2019). The Estcourt based mill in KwaZulu-Natal provided a range of construction-related materials and steam-cooked, pressure moulded wood products locally and internationally (Arde, 2019). The hardboard manufacturer was one of Estcourt's biggest employers, with over 1000 employees and an economic engine (Arde, 2019). The company was liquidated due to international customers pulling out and finding alternative hardboard suppliers. The absence of protection against imported goods has been the reason for the shutdown of one of the biggest hardboard suppliers nationally and internationally (West, 2019).

South Africa's manufacturing sector plays a significant role in driving growth, economic development, poverty and unemployment reduction. The development of a country is judged by the manufacturing industries' development (Haraguchi et al., 2017). South Africa's manufacturing sector can employ many low-skilled and unemployed youth (15-35 years). However, the sector experienced a decline in profits for the 9th consecutive month. In the second quarter of 2019, the sector decreased in employment by 15 000 (1.2%) (StatsSA, 2019). There has been a significant decline in local production and demands for local products. This reduces the manufacturing sector's contribution to the economy. In the first quarter of 2019, the manufacturing sector contribution to GDP declined by 8.8%. This resulted from a decline

in petroleum, transport, wood and paper (StatsSA, 2019). In the same year of 2019, South Africa received imported paper, board, and pulp articles from Brazil worth \$76.78 million, thus providing competition for locally produced products (StatsSA, 2019).

Importing products into South Africa does provide benefits for the citizens of South Africa and the economy. Importing products from other countries, such as bone-in chicken from Brazil, provides shoppers with an alternative source of protein within local markets at an affordable price (Daoui, 2018). Imports provide local businesses (who engage with importing goods) the opportunity to be primary suppliers of specific products. This would allow them to earn a profit on imports and provide South Africa with better quality food sourced from nations where it is locally grown (Daoui, 2018). Importing products from other countries such as China provides the citizens with a wide range of manufactured products (such as textiles and clothing) at an affordable price. This can be attractive because products are manufactured on a larger scale and cheaper (Daoui, 2018). Economically, a country's tax revenue is increased through trade tariffs and trade rates placed on items imported into the country. Trade tariffs placed on imported chicken in South Africa are 60% of the product's value (Booyseen, 2016).

South Africa is ranked 36th in the export economy globally. It exports a wide range of goods, including fruits, corn, precious metals, and minerals (Pines, 2020). South Africa is the largest platinum exporter, accounting for 28.5% of the global market share worth \$32 billion; it is the 6th largest diamonds exporter in the world and has a share of 8.1% in the global market, which is worth \$116 billion annually (Pines, 2020). China is South Africa's top export destination which is valued at \$18.1 billion. In 2019, South Africa exported edible fruits and nuts worth \$241.16 million. Wool, yarn and animal hair was worth twenty-nine million (Pines, 2020). South Africa is the 6th largest coal exporter globally, with a global share of 4.7% valued at \$142 billion annually. India is a major export destination taking 39% of all South African coal exports (Pines, 2020). A large amount of India's industrial sector is dependent on coal. Coal is a cheap and reliable energy source, which allows the government to provide energy for over 1 billion people (Angomoko, 2017). China is one of the largest manufacturing countries in the world and has a great demand for raw materials, while on the other hand South Africa is one of the largest raw materials exporters. BRICS member states and other countries worldwide have resorted to obtaining raw materials from Africa due to lower commodity prices and the availability of natural resources (Angomoko, 2017).

Liberal institutionalism emphasizes the various advantages of cooperation between countries as they pursue common goals. This is facilitated and aided via bilateral and multilateral trade agreements and through international institutions such as BRICS. However, some disadvantages experienced by members of a coalition (Keohane and Nye, 1989). The distribution of power is not always equal, and smaller nations or countries with weaker economies have less deciding power. There is often inequality in economic gains. This can be identified within the BRICS coalition, as the economic growth of South Africa is much slower than other members. South Africa's economy grew by 1% in 2019, while Brazil grew by 1.14%, China 6%, India 5.3% and Russia 2% (World Bank, 2020). There is an imbalance in export and imports within South Africa, resulting in a trade deficit. This occurs when the value of a country's imports surpasses its exports; in other terms, a country is importing more goods and services than importing (Hayes, 2021). In 2019, South Africa experienced a trade deficit due to exports worth R87.61 billion and imports of R90.89 billion. This roughly equates to a \$1500 yearly product demand per person (StatsSA, 2019). One of the effects of a trade deficit is the increase in the loss of jobs. The youth unemployment rate spiked in 2019 to 55.97% from 53.79% in the previous year (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019).

b. Free trade

Free trade policies play a significant role in the economic growth and development of BRICS member states. This poses little or no barriers in the form of tariffs or quotas in the trade between countries (Rasure, 2020). Free trade agreements are commonly used within BRICS to increase cooperation, economic growth and development (Rasure, 2020). Free trade has its set of advantages and disadvantages. For a developing country like South Africa with a high unemployment level, the citizens have little or no money to spend on goods and services. Therefore, free trade directly benefits the consumers as it provides them with access to cheaper and quality goods (such as generic pharmaceutical products from India) (UNCTAD, 2014). The elimination of trade barriers, tariffs and trade-related taxes provides companies access to the global market. This allows them the opportunity to compete internationally and advance economically. Thus, resulting in their expansion in meeting surplus demand. Therefore, free trade could be an essential tool in unemployment alleviation, especially in South Africa (UNCTAD, 2014). Free trade agreements between countries facilitate integration, allowing the transfer of technology, knowledge and innovation. Multinational companies, such as Hisense,

are generally more experienced and have more expertise than domestic companies. Free trade allows these global companies to partner with local companies. This helps the local companies adopt new mining, manufacturing methods and technology, ultimately resulting in increased job opportunities and skills training for local employees (Amaded, 2020).

c. Foreign Direct Investment

As discussed in the theoretical framework (Chapter 3) of this study, FDI is an essential aspect of any country's economic development and revenue. It also contributes to the socio-economic transformation of any economy (Asongu et al., 2018). FDI is an investment of funds by a government or institution from one state into another. It is also categorised as “the reinvestment of profits from overseas operations and intra-organisational loans and borrowing to international subsidiaries” (Padia, 2019:2). Foreign direct investment can benefit both the investor and the host government. As an international coalition, BRICS is currently one of the largest FDI recipients (Asongu et al., 2018).

BRICS as a collective and its member states individually can attract foreign investment through their foreign policy, trade openness, infrastructure availability and large market size. BRICS member states collectively contribute 40% of the global population, which plays a role in attracting foreign investment (Asongu et al., 2018). FDI in emerging economies can transform the country economically. It can also provide additional financial resources through investment, and create employment, transfer of skills and technology. On the other hand, investors receive access to natural resources and a low-cost workforce (Asongu. et al., 2018). In 2013, emerging countries received a greater amount of FDI. Among the top 20 recipients were Brazil, India and China. The FDI was received, particularly from the United States and EU companies (Asongu et al., 2018). Between 2003 and 2016, Brazil received FDI worth \$14 billion in the mining and metals sector. India’s telecommunications sector received \$1.25 billion between 2000- 2020 from Russia (Rios, 2020). In 2011, BRICS member states attracted 26% of the global FDI. Over the past ten years, BRICS FDI has tripled to the value of \$263 billion. BRICS has a substantial outward foreign direct flow with an increase in investment from \$7 billion in 2000 to \$126 billion in 2012 (United Nations, 2013).

There are various ways FDI benefits the recipient country, which include job creation, development of economies, human resource development, development for undeveloped and

backward areas and increase in exports (Padia, 2019). Developing countries such as South Africa are strongly involved in ways to attract it. For example, its government launched a campaign to attract \$100 billion of FDI by 2023 (Asongu et al., 2018). The South African FDI figures during 2019 increased to \$ 151 billion from \$ 127 billion in 2018. This resulted from the campaign launched by the government, which controls corruption, eases trading across borders, improves the quality of government, and encourages trade openness. According to the Department of Trade and Industry (2015), 1344 FDI projects were recorded in South Africa between 2003- 2015. The total number of capital accumulated during this period was \$71.2 billion, and a total number of 189 724 employment opportunities were created. The main sectors that attracted FDI were software and information technology services, business services, financial and communication services, industrial machinery, equipment, and tools (DTI, 2015). In 2018, China signed an investment commitment of \$14 billion in South Africa. This investment aimed to boost two of South Africa's key industries - Eskom and Transnet (Khumalo, 2018).

Human resource development refers to “the incorporated use of training and career development efforts to develop the performance of an individual or group” (Padia, 2019:1). Human resource development allows employees to develop new skills and knowledge (Padia, 2019). FDI provides the means for human resource development through the involvement of international companies in recipient nations. The skills and enhanced training that low-skilled and unemployed youth gain boost education and the country's human capital quotient. Trained employees perform better, making the business perform better (Asongu et Al., 2018). When companies are performing better economically, they can expand their workforce. This creates jobs and allows them to contribute more to the country's revenue through tax (Padia, 2019). In other words, there is a strong correlation between human capital and human resource development. Human capital generally refers to productive investments in a nation's citizens, including their skills, education, and health (Zidan, 2001). Human capital theory suggests that the investment in the citizens of a nation, as mentioned above, would benefit a country in its efforts to develop economically (Zidan, 2001).

Through human resource development programmes such as education cooperation between India and South Africa, the economy can be developed. These programmes are aimed at skills development and training, particularly for young, unemployed and low-skilled individuals. It has turned out to be an essential tool used to develop the economy of South Africa. In 2018,

South Africa, together with the investment of the Indian government, launched the Gandhi Mandela centre of specialization for artisan skills in Pretoria. The centre aims to provide quality skills at a greater capacity. It also aims to promote quality education and training to meet the youth's requirements and provide employers' artisan skills in South Africa (Zidan, 2001).

5.3. How has youth unemployment affected the South African economy?

a. GDP Growth

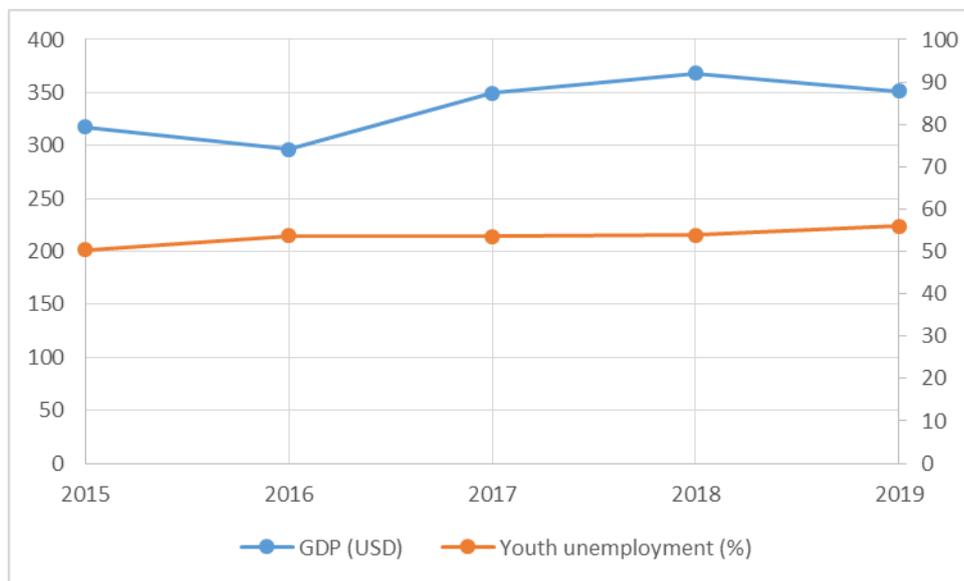
High levels of unemployment have significantly affected the South African economy. According to the African Development Bank (2016), high unemployment levels contribute to poverty and income inequality. Unemployment levels serve as an indicator of a country's economic climate. Consequently, high unemployment levels result in increased government borrowing, lower GDP for the economy, higher taxes in the future and higher interest rates (Pettinger, 2019).

When there is an economic boom and GDP growth, companies can employ more workers and pay higher salaries, which leads to a growth in household spending on goods and services. Alternatively, when a country's GDP is weak and there is slow economic growth, people are retrenched or paid lower wages. Hence, high unemployment levels indicate that a country is operating below full capacity, leading to lower national output and lower incomes (Pettinger, 2019.) In the fourth quarter of 2019, the South African economy reduced by 1.4,% following a 0.8% decrease in the third quarter; this affected the sectors, including transport and trade (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019). During the same quarter, seven of the ten industries decreased in turnover profit resulting in the country slipping into its second economic recession since 1994 (Labour Force Survey, 2019). The transport and communication industry decreased by 7.2% in revenue, contributing to the 1.4% fall in GDP. On the other hand, Agriculture experienced its fourth consecutive quarter of negative growth, decreasing by 7.6%. This was due to late rains and heatwave conditions in most parts of the country, particularly the Eastern Cape and the Free State (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019).

The economic growth and development of any country are associated with high employment, which is the main contributing factor to poverty reduction. South Africa has had some success in poverty alleviation since 1994; high unemployment levels (particularly amongst the youth) are threatening the improvements made thus far (World Bank, 2020). The high unemployment

rates are associated with low GDP growth and development, one of the leading factors of South Africa’s high poverty rate. In 2015, one in every two South Africans lived in poverty, equalling 55.5% of the population (StatsSA, 2017). Figure 5.1 below reveals the strong correlation between the economic growth (GDP) of a country and youth unemployment (World Bank, 2020). It also shows the spike in youth unemployment and a decline in GDP between 2015 and 2016; the figure below shows the impact of youth unemployment on economic growth and low economic growth on youth unemployment.

Figure 5.2: The relationship between high levels of youth unemployment and GDP (World Bank, 2020).



b. Fall in tax revenue

When GDP trends are higher, the opposite in illustration, Figure 5.1 occurs. When South Africa experiences economic growth (GDP), unemployment decreases. Higher economic growth leads to higher tax revenue, which allows the government to invest more in services for citizens such as health care, education and social relief funds (Pettinger, 2018). Higher economic growth attracts more foreign investment through companies to meet future demands, thus creating a cycle of economic growth and investment (Pettinger, 2018). Economic growth can increase the standard of living for the citizens of a country. A study conducted in 1990 between

14 countries, including Ghana, Tunisia, Uganda and India (OECD, 2011), revealed that poverty decreased in 11 countries, on an average of 1% increase in per capita income. This resulted in a 1.7% decrease in poverty (OECD, 2011). As discussed, South Africa's unemployment rate covers youth, and they account for 63% of the total number of unemployed persons. Higher economic growth can reduce youth unemployment (Quarterly Labour Survey, 2019). A decrease in youth unemployment occurred between 2011-2012 at a percentage of 0.1%. Within the same period, the GDP annual growth increased to 3.28% from 3.04% in the previous year (World Bank, 2019). Higher youth unemployment rates will lead to a decrease in tax revenue as fewer people contribute to income tax and are spending less (hence higher VAT). When citizens spend less on services and goods, there is a decrease in tax revenue collected by the government. Taxes, such as VAT, are increased in order to combat the governments growing shortfall. In 2022/2023, taxes are projected to increase to R10 billion from R5 billion in 2021/2022 (National Treasury, 2019).

The performance country's economy relies heavily on tax revenue as the government generates a large amount of its income from tax. The government's raising of taxes will force people to spend less because higher taxes reduce their take-home pay. Consequently, people will have less income, and household savings will decrease (Pettinger, 2019). Higher taxes will force some companies to cut down on workers, reducing the number of people who contribute towards income tax (Pettinger, 2019). Developing countries have one of the largest youth populations, and these individuals contribute more than 35% of the total population. They respectively contribute to 70% of the total unemployment rate (Buheji and Ahmed, 2017). The current youth population is the largest ever in South African history, and so is the number of unemployed young people, which has negatively influenced the country's revenue. The government has reduced public spending on services including health care, education, skills and development programmes due to fewer people contributing to the economy (Buheji and Ahmed, 2017).

Reduced spending on health care will affect the quality of health care for vulnerable groups, including unemployed persons, the elderly and people living in rural areas. The uninsured population is increasing at 1.52% per year. Reducing health care budgets will lead to overcrowding of public clinics and hospitals, low maintenance of health care facilities and low health care quality (Child, 2017). Budget cuts within the health care system result in less staff. South Africa has one doctor and one nurse per 1000 patient's ratio, which results in poor health

care quality (Child, 2017). Studies show a correlation between health care, poverty, and higher mortality rates, heart diseases, obesity, and asthma in children. This results in people diverting more time away from earning an income as a result of poor health. Thus, relying on the government for assistance (Child, 2017).

Between 2009 and 2018, the government invested progressively less in the Department of Basic Education each year. The government's spending per learner has declined by an average of 2.3% per year (Bornman and Hopolang, 2020). Budget cuts within the Department of Basic Education will result in inadequate education at the secondary and tertiary level, including technical training. As a result, students cannot meet the requirements of the labour market, which creates a mismatch between skills that employers require and skills work seekers have. This is evident in South Africa, as discussed in Chapter 2 (Jong-Wha, 2014). Budget cuts result in low quality of education. There is a gap in the results of internationally comparable mathematics and science exams. According to the World Economic Forum, South Africa is currently ranked last out of 140 countries (Department of Basic Education, 2015).

Health care access is a concern in emerging economies such as South Africa. The majority of the population relies on the public health system. South Africa provides the population with free basic medical/health insurance from public health facilities funded through general taxes (Rao et al., 2014). In South Africa, private financing accounts for 52% of the total health spending, respectively (Rao et al., 2014). Developing countries, such as South Africa, recognized the importance of education to promote economic growth and development. Hence, they initiated efforts to increase enrolment access and foster academic centres' development (Rodrigues and Ramburuth, 2015). The legacy of Apartheid in South Africa is still being tackled. This is specifically in housing, job opportunities and education. The South African government has made 40% of the poorest schools, primarily located in rural areas, "no-fee schools". The South African government has also established financial aid schemes, such as the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS), to provide bursaries and loans to disadvantaged students in higher education institutions (Bakova, 2014).

c. Decline in income tax/corporate tax

Fewer people are earning an income and are not contributing to the economy through personal income tax or VAT, which increases the amount a country borrows. The borrowed funds would be used to provide essential services (such as education or health care), which would usually

be paid for through the GDP (Pettinger, 2019). As briefly discussed above, South Africa has one of the largest youth populations, 15-35 years old, accounting for over half of the total population. With over 50% of the youth population unemployed, there is a decline in the amount of money spent on goods and services per individual and household (Writer, 2019).

The decline in the purchase of goods and services directly affects a country's revenue, resulting in a decline in VAT contribution (SARS, 2020).

Companies pay corporate income taxes according to their profit turnover. Corporate income tax, also known as business tax, is a tax imposed on businesses liable under the Income Tax Act of 1962. Corporate income tax contributes a considerable amount towards the revenue of a country. For example, in 2019, corporate taxes contributed R 214. 7 billion (15.8%) to South Africa’s GDP (SARS, 2020). This concerns the payment of tax on all income received or accumulated within a financial year (SARS, 2020). Over the past decade, the corporate income tax contribution to the country's revenue has declined as a result of weak economic growth, lower consumer and investment spending (SARS, 2020). The high unemployment rate reduces corporate income tax as fewer people spend on goods and services, reducing companies' overall profit and reducing their corporate income tax contribution (SARS, 2020). Table 5.1 provides data on the decline in corporate income tax over three years in South Africa.

2017/2018	2018/2019	2019/2020
R220 239 million	R214 388 million	R214 655 million

Table 5.1: Corporate income tax contribution in millions (2017-2020)
Source: SARS (2020)

The South African economy is heavily dependent on tax revenue. It is a significant contributor to a healthy economy. There are over two million companies in South Africa registered for income tax. More than 550 000 pay PAYE on behalf of their employees, and over 800 000 collect VAT on behalf of the government (Mavuso, 2020). The fall in tax revenue is contributed mainly by a decrease in corporate tax. There has been a decrease from 25% in tax collected from 2007/2008 to 18.1% in 2015/2016; to 16.5% of tax in 2018/2019 (SARS, 2020). The leading factor in the fall of tax revenue is that companies are not as profitable as they were in previous years. Therefore, they pay less corporate income tax to the government. The

contribution of corporate tax to South Africa's revenue is also dependant on the number of firms operating. The decline in corporate tax can be linked to the shutdown of companies and businesses. Between April 2018 and April 2019, the number of business liquidations increases by 53.1% (Dlamini, 2019). According to StatsSA (2019), a total of 1015 liquidations had occurred between January and June. The construction sector lost 44 businesses, agriculture lost 9, and tourism lost 239 (StatsSA, 2019).

With approximately half of the youth population unemployed (52.18%) and not actively contributing to the economy, the government raised the maximum personal income tax rate in 2017 to 45% compared to 41% in the previous year (SARS, 2021). Lower personal income tax results in increased customer spending and higher take-home pay leading to higher economic growth (Pettinger, 2019). When personal income tax rates are high, there is a decrease in spending, which leads to a decline in economic growth. This is due to fewer people actively contributing to the economy (Pettinger, 2019). High levels of unemployment directly affect the personal income tax contribution. It means that 52.18% of the 20.8 million people between the ages of 15-35 years old are currently not employed and thus not paying personal income tax.

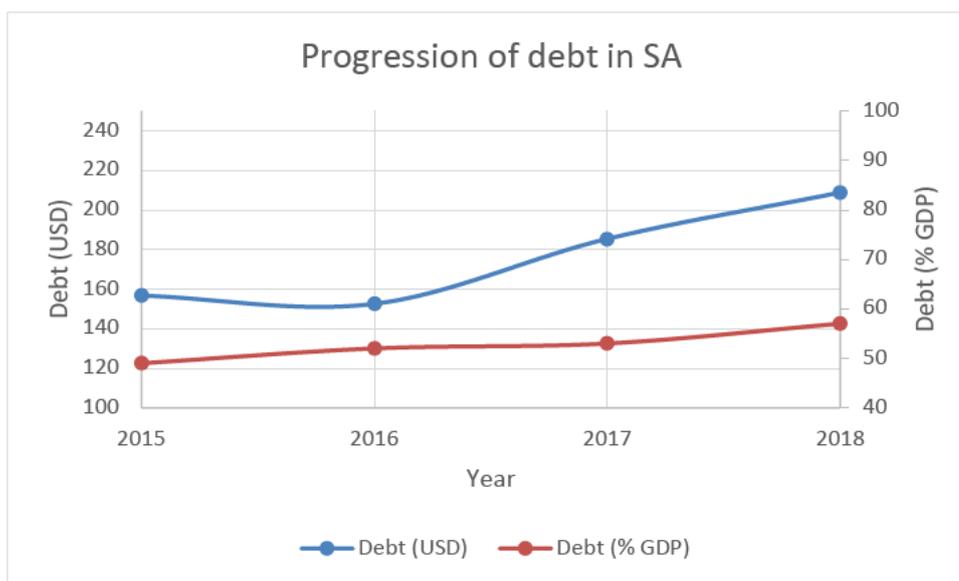
When a country has a high level of unemployment, the government is more likely to spend more on unemployment and related benefits on not just an individual but an entire household at a time (National Treasury, 2019). South Africa is no exception to this since the government currently provides financial assistance to 17.6 million beneficiaries from vulnerable demographic groups every month (National Treasury, 2019). The South African National Treasury Department allocated a budget of R162.9 billion in 2018/2019 towards providing social welfare benefits to the elderly, war veterans, people with disabilities and children (National Treasury, 2019). In 1998, the child support grant launched with an initial value of R100, reaching just over 22 000 children in the first year. The South African child grant has increased to R450 a month per child (National Treasury, 2019). The child support grant is currently one of the most successful programmes, alleviating child poverty and providing financial assistance to over 12 million children (National Treasury, 2019). The South African government provided 397 888 caregivers with a foster care grant of R1000 in 2019 (National Treasury, 2019). The South African government also provides 3.7 million old age grant beneficiaries with a monthly payment of R 1 695, and one million disability beneficiaries who

receive a monthly fee of R1 695 and 215 880 beneficiaries of grant-in-aid (National Treasury, 2019).

d. Increased debt

According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), emerging economies and the world's poorest countries have resorted to cheap debt, high debt-to-GDP ratios, accounting for almost 50% of IMF beneficiaries (The World Bank, 2020). Due to high levels of unemployment and fewer people actively contributing to South Africa's economy, there has been a drastic spike in loans from other countries resulting in high debt levels. Trends of high unemployment rates accompanied by high debt levels can be found in many emerging countries (World Bank Group, 2017). The debt levels of South Africa increased drastically in 2018, with public debt increasing by \$23 340 million from the previous year (World Bank, 2018). South Africa's debt level is one of the worst as compared to other countries. South Africa is currently 111 on debt to GDP and 107 in debt per capita (StatsSA, 2019). The government has repeatedly spent more than it earns. The deficit in 2016/2017 amounted to R156 billion, while the gross loan debt amounted to R 2,2 trillion. This is roughly equated to R40 000 per person living in South Africa (StatsSA, 2019). The drastic spike in debt resulting from loans in South Africa can be seen in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.3 : The progression of debt in South Africa 2015-2018 (StatsSA, 2019)



As discussed above, countries with high unemployment levels have resorted to aid in the forms of loans to provide essential services and provide government relief funds. There is a strong correlation between high levels of youth unemployment and high debt levels, as half of the largest countries population (55.97%) is currently not actively contributing to the economy (Quarterly labour service). Figure 5.2 reveals the drastic increase in debt over the last four years. This is measured per billion based on the assumption that debt increases with youth unemployment. The trend suggests that if there a few people actively contributing to the economy as a result of unemployment, the consequence will be higher national debt. The country will have difficulty in providing basic services and government relief funds for the citizens.

5.4. What is BRICS role in addressing youth unemployment in SA?

There are various initiatives and programmes specifically targeted at the youth in BRICS member states. The demographics of BRICS have changed over the last five years due to low fertility levels and high levels of diseases such as HIV, Tuberculosis, diabetes, and malaria (Preet, 2014). To fully achieve economic development due to the changing demographics of BRICS member states, the coalition has shifted its focus to the youth (15-35 years old). Various initiatives and programmes range from promoting youth employment and fostering skills development and education. The focus on the youth population within BRICS member states aims to create sustainable growth (Preet, 2014). BRICS countries have shown their commitment to addressing youth unemployment through dedicated programmes. The programmes are divided into three categories: “workforce, technical or professional training, and access to funding to promote self-employment and entrepreneurship” (de Arruda and Slingsby, 2014:6)

BRICS, a coalition of the five major emerging economies, is an example of one of the most influential multilateral groups which fully embodies principals of liberal institutionalism. Over the last decade, the coalition has used various programmes and aspects to promote development, economic growth and cooperation. The coalition's main principle is increased cooperation among BRICS member states, foreign policy, the use of FDI, open trade, bilateral trade, and the advancement of human rights. These have been essential tools in developing all five member states (BRICS Information centre, 2016).

a. Foreign Direct Investment

FDI is one of the most important sources of private external finance for developing countries. FDI is defined as capital flow from one country to another, which grants foreign investor general ownership stakes in domestic companies and assets (Boyle and Chen, 2020). Foreign investment has some advantages, which include incentive structures that lead to productive investment. FDI provides increased tax revenue, technology and skills transfer, an increase in export markets, higher income, and poverty reduction in a country (Asafo-Adjei, 2007). FDI from BRICS member states has reduced youth unemployment rates and increased South Africa's revenue, with China accounting for most South Africa investments (\$840 million). The total foreign direct investment into South Africa increased from \$1.3 billion in 2017 to \$7.1 billion in 2018, equating to a 446% increase (United Nations, 2019). In 2018, China invested R193 billion in South Africa. One of China's investments in South Africa was the launch of the BAIC vehicle plant at the Coega harbour worth \$840 million (R11 billion) (United Nations, 2019).

b. BRICS Youth Forum

The 5th BRICS youth forum was held in October 2019 with representatives from all coalition members. These representatives assembled to debate the future of BRICS youth and make recommendations based on the identified common trends among youth in BRICS countries (5th BRICS Youth Forum, 2019). The recommendations made at the 5th BRICS Youth Summit included preparing youth labour for the automation reality in sectors such as mining. The summit recommended creating a curriculum standard that can improve youth's education and job placements (5th BRICS Youth Forum, 2019). The youth representatives recommended incorporating soft skills (such as communication skills, teamwork, time management and organizational skills) to be part of the school curriculum.

Additionally, the provision of information on existing youth exchange programs in each country should be made available along with the creation of crowdfunding platforms for BRICS entrepreneurs (5th BRICS Youth Forum, 2019). The recommendations made by youth representatives will be achieved through various programs. One such program is the temporary social platform which will share scholarship opportunities and employment opportunities. Furthermore, BRICS digital generation is a telecommunications platform that aims to educate

and train young people for the digital economy. The program provides online courses that focus on theoretical skills, language training, and technical EPWP skills development (5th BRICS Youth Forum, 2019).

At the 5th BRICS youth forum held in 2019, the coalition made recommendations on social mobility through entrepreneurship and job creation targeting the youth population in BRICS member states (5th BRICS Youth Forum, 2019). BRICS aims at creating a combined fund using private and government capital, creation of a crowdfunding platform for BRICS entrepreneurs, creation of a capacity-building fund in order to support start-up businesses and promotion of skills development initiatives for BRICS youth in order to improve employment (5th BRICS Youth Forum, 2019). Through its New Development Bank, BRICS aims to build up social businesses to mobilize their power to solve social, economic and environmental problems (Yunus, 2015). Social business strategy by BRICS is a variety of businesses that dissociates itself from a profit motive. They are non-dividend companies and, therefore, can decrease and solve unemployment issues (Yunus, 2015).

c. Education

One of the initiatives launched by BRICS to alleviate youth unemployment in South Africa is in education. BRICS aims to create incentives for student exchange programs between its members by facilitating visas and creating university and school programs (5th BRICS Youth Forum, 2019). BRICS has initiated related scholarship programs to secure funding, build literacy standards between the countries, and develop a digital platform for BRICS countries to be used for education and training of BRICS youth (5th BRICS Youth Forum, 2019). As discussed, the minimal focus on mathematics and science in black schools have persisted from the apartheid era to date. South Africa lags behind other countries with extremely low mathematics and science standards compared to other countries (Carmody, 2018).

In 2013 South Africa signed a cooperation agreement with China “on syllabus development and implementation, mathematics, science, technology education, teacher training and development” (Mkhize, 2016:4). The cooperation agreement between China and South Africa focuses on strengthening education ties at an institutional and policy level. This is in order to improve the mathematics and science results of South African students. In 2017, the Department of Science and Technology (DST) signed an agreement with China’s Ministry of

Science and Technology to establish the Young Scientist's exchange programme that would allow the youth of both participating states to share information and develop skills (South African Government News Agency, 2019). The programme will provide scientists, scholars, and researchers an opportunity to develop in specific areas such as biochemistry, advanced manufacturing, ICT systems and space and science astronomy (South African Government News Agency, 2019). The program aims to cultivate future leading scientists by promoting students' exchange between research institutions and universities. This is to advance research and development and advance product development (South African Government News Agency, 2019).

The National Research Foundation has various partnership programmes for university students from South Africa who wish to study abroad. These programmes are with other BRICS countries and Amsterdam, Singapore and the United States of America. The National Research Foundation has the China-South Africa Young Scientist Exchange Program. This program aims to cultivate future leading scientists between China and SA (National Research Foundation, 2019). The program promotes cooperation among research institutes and universities to realize the impact of joint research and development. Areas covered in the China-South Africa Young Scientist Exchange Program include biotechnology, information and communication technology, space science, astronomy, and transport technology (National Research Technology, 2019).

BRICS member states recognized the importance of education to promote economic growth and development. Their efforts are focused on increasing enrolment access and encouraging the development of academic centres (Rodrigues and Ramburuth, 2015). BRICS member states have been committed to investing a portion of their GDP towards education (Bokova, 2014). The South African government considers education one of its highest domestic priorities and receives 5% of the GDP (National Treasury, 2019). The legacy of apartheid in South Africa is still being tackled specifically in housing, job opportunities and education. The South African government has made 40% of the poorest schools (primarily located in rural areas) “no-fee schools”. The South African government has also established financial aid schemes such as NSFAS to provide bursaries and loans to disadvantaged students in higher education institutions (Bakova, 2014). In 2019, the National Financial Aid scheme provided bursaries and loans at an estimated value of R22 billion for over 659 000 beneficiaries, including 371 368 university students and 288 341 TVET colleges (Vuk’uzenzele, 2019). There is a strong

correlation between unemployment and low literacy levels and education levels. Increased investment in education through the above programs provides individuals with a better opportunity to gain employment. According to the Quarterly Labour Force (2019), graduate unemployment is low compared to 6.9% of students with other tertiary qualifications, 34.5% for matriculants and 55.9% for individuals with less than 12- NSC certificate.

d. Science and Technology innovation

South Africa accords much importance to science and technology as a vital tool for social development, economic growth, and poverty reduction. (Institute of Global Dialogue SA, 2014). Local researchers can benefit from global cooperation in science and technology by accessing additional resources to conduct national projects. For instance, the Droogfontein solar power plant in Kimberly managed to attract investment worth R1.5 billion and generate one million working hours in construction jobs. The number of on-site construction jobs increased to more than 800 jobs, with 50 permanent and operational positions (Institute of Global Dialogue SA, 2014). BRICS nations have opened up opportunities that enhance intra BRICS energy cooperation to substitute national energy security. Clean energy and renewable energy investors include China, with over R25 billion (Institute of Global Dialogue SA, 2014). Science, technology and innovation are among the most vital components of South Africa's National Development Plan. This is a means to encourage economic growth, competitiveness and advance social development (5th BRICS Youth Forum, 2019). At the 10th BRICS summit held in 2018 under the theme "BRICS in Africa", China committed to investing \$14.7 billion. This was dedicated to developing various South African sectors such as "infrastructure development, ocean economy, green economy, science and technology and agriculture (Mzekandaba, 2018).

e. Skills and training transfer projects

The skills gap among South African youth is one of the reasons for the high youth unemployment rate. Indian companies operating in South Africa are taking steps to transfer skills (Bratt, 2016). In the IT sector, a programme called the Khulasangam programme was launched by the FirstRand Foundation and aimed to address the shortage of skilled youth workers by bridging the gap between tertiary education and employability (Bratt, 2016). The programme takes unemployed IT graduates from South Africa to India for a 6-month

internship. This program exposes them to Indian businesses, community, development and society. The programme participants benefit from it because they have advanced training from abroad, but they are also more employable due to their international work experience (Bratt, 2016).

BRICS bilateral trade includes investments and the operating of foreign companies in host countries. This is to increase trade between countries, create employment, expand companies, introduce them to new markets, and provide information and skills training exchange. As of 2011, an Eastern Cape-based global consulting and services company in South Africa - Nihilent Technologies, has trained 2800 students and 700 unemployed youth through its 'Change the World' programme (Bratt, 2016). The internship program is a 17-month on-the-job training that focuses on the transfer of technical IT skills and promotes employability through practical work experience gained through the program. Every year Nihilent Technologies absorbs ten new individuals for an internship programme, and there have been over 60 interns trained from 2011-2016 (Bratt, 2016). Upon completing the internship programme, candidates are absorbed into the Nihilent company or the client workforce (Nihilent Technologies, 2021). Zensar Technologies, another company from India operating in South Africa, also invested in training and skills transfer. Zensar Technologies collaborates with the media, information and communication technologies sector education and training authority (MICT SETA) to enhance local skills and create job opportunities (Bratt, 2016). The company has a graduate training and recruitment programme which trains and employs young people with less than one year's experience. It provides interns with a paid stipend in IT. Since 2009, the company has created more than 400 internships for South Africans, with more than 50% of the interns absorbed into Zensar Technologies (Bratt, 2016).

Through increased cooperation and integration, China aims to increase its presence in South Africa to achieve goals of economic growth and development. There has been an increase in the number of Chinese companies doing business and operating in South Africa. Fifty-six companies are originating from China which directly translates to thirty thousand jobs in South Africa. More than 160 Chinese member companies in energy, mining and ICT are based in South Africa (CNBC Africa, 2019). Through the South Africa-China Economic and Trade Association, a job fair was organized with the Chinese Culture and International Education Exchange Centre and held in April 2019 in South Africa (CNBC Africa, 2019). The job fair aimed to connect unemployed South African youth (15- 35 years old) with Chinese companies

that can offer practical training and employment opportunities. The event attracted more than 1000 students who were seeking information and employment from Chinese companies. A total number of 238 students were offered jobs from companies such as Air China, China Unicom, Huawei, and Hisense (CNBC Africa, 2019).

Approximately 140 Indian companies have invested close to \$4 billion between 2005 and 2017 in South Africa. This has targeted companies in the health care, pharmaceuticals, IT, finance, and automobile sectors. These businesses originally from India operating in South Africa are not just creating jobs and investing funds but actively contributing to South African communities (Ridge, 2018). The companies such as TATA Automobile, Nihilent Technologies, Zensar Technologies, Sahara Computers, Jindal Steel and Power, and Wipro have created employment for almost 18 000 people. Additionally, the IT sector operating in South Africa is creating a platform to transfer skills to South Africans (Ridge, 2018). The transfer of skills to South Africans is targeted at equipping South African youth with labour market skills instead of outsourcing from other countries (Ridge, 2018). Indian companies established training centres to enable exchange programmes between India and South Africa for IT graduates (Ridge, 2018).

Cooperation between India and South Africa has drastically increased. South Africa is currently one of India's biggest importers, with every 5 out of 6 diamonds produced in South Africa sold to India (Bratt, 2016). The operation of Indian companies in South Africa has increased job creation and skills exchange programs. Indian companies have invested billions of dollars in the South African mining sector (Bratt, 2016). Vedanda Limited is a mining company based in India that invested almost \$1 billion into a zinc project in Northern Cape, South Africa. On the other hand, Jindal Africa (another Indian based company) is pursuing coal mining and iron projects in South Africa, employing more than 500 people in Kiepersol Colliery in Mpumalanga (Bratt, 20116).

e. Increased Trade

As discussed, when a country's economy is growing, and there is an increase in GDP, businesses can employ more workers and can increase salaries of employees, which leads to an increase in household spending on goods and services. When the GDP of a country is weak and economic growth is slow, people are retrenched or paid lower wages; hence high levels of

unemployment indicate that a country is operating below full capacity; this leads to a decrease in output of a country and lower salaries (Pettinger, 2019). Trade plays a vast role in the economic growth of BRICS members, it is the main contributor to GDP, and intra-BRICS trade has significantly increased in 2016, with BRICS accounting for 17.2% of trade globally (Prinsloo, 2017). The South African Trade Policy Framework aims to develop a trading strategy that promotes the developmental interests of South Africa and to develop it to secure policy space to pursue its domestic economic goals (BRICS Information centre, 2012). Export trade between BRICS member states increased from 6.2% in 2005 to 16.8% in 2011. The imports from BRICS countries were valued at 13.6% in 2005 to 20% in 2011. Trade between South Africa and other BRICS member states grew by 29% (BRICS Information Centre, 2012). Between 2010 and 2011, there was an increase in jobs in trade in South Africa. This added up to approximately 80 000 jobs, while 48 000 new jobs were created in the manufacturing sector (BRICS Information Centre, 2012). The increase in the number of jobs assisted in improving the living standards of citizens through employment opportunities. In 2012, the youth unemployment rate was 49.82%, down from 50.53% in the previous year (Quarterly Labour Survey, 2012).

South Africa's total trade with other BRICS member states has increased from \$3.1 billion in 2001 to \$28.9 billion in 2016. Through increased trade with others in the coalition, South Africa was able to diversify its export markets. This diversification of economic partners is of growing significance for South Africa as BRICS increases their global imports share (Prinsloo, 2017). Increased intra-BRICS trade can be directly translated to the decrease in youth unemployment. Economists state that if a country's GDP increases by at least 4% per year, there is a 1% decrease in unemployment (Prinsloo, 2017). South Africa has increased trade with Brazil, and this is due to the Southern African Customs Union (SACU) and the Southern Common Market trade blocs (Prinsloo, 2017). The drastic change in trade between South Africa and Brazil is due to a tariff line of approximately 1065 product lines across 16 sectors, of which 269 products are zero per cent import duty fee (Prinsloo, 2017). As a result, exports to Brazil increased by 37%, from \$483 million in 2017 to \$663 million in 2018 (Prinsloo, 2017).

South Africa and China have had strong trade relations for over ten years, with South Africa being China's largest trading partner in Africa (Nyabiage, 2020). Trade between South Africa and China increased from R205 billion in 2012 to R270 billion in 2014, a 32% increase (Mhaka and Jeke, 2018). In 2019, the relation between China and South Africa was valued at \$42

billion, accounting for a fifth of Africa and China's total trade (Nyabiage, 2020). In 2018 alone, South Africa exported goods to China worth \$8.6 billion (9% of total exports). The goods exported included copper, precious stones such as diamonds, wood, iron and steel (World Bank, 2021). Trade relations between China and South Africa primarily focus on minerals, as eighty-five per cent of South Africa's exports to China are precious metals and minerals (Jordaan, 2019). Increased trade and increased exports have a positive impact on the economy of a country. It means that there is a higher output from industries, and more employees will be hired to keep factories and businesses in operation (Jordaan, 2019).

Several Chinese-owned enterprises in South Africa have contributed to the economy and job creation; sectors that received Chinese investment were textiles, banking, property, manufacturing and agriculture (Taung Gold International Limited, 2021). One of the most significant investments made by a Chinese-owned enterprise was The Industrial and Commercial Bank of China (ICBU), which purchased a 20% stake in the assets and earnings of one of South Africa's largest banks - Standard Bank, valued at US \$ 5.5 billion (Taung Gold International Limited, 2021).

Investment from Chinese owned enterprises has injected cash into South Africa's economy and job creation. Chinese electronic manufacturer Hisense first entered the borders of South Africa in 1997. In 2013, it established an industrial park in the Western Cape Province in Atlantis, Cape Town (Taung Gold International Limited, 2021). Since the launch of the Hisense industrial plant in Cape Town, the investment has achieved a 12% market share and employs over 800 people. Hisense is also strongly involved in the development of the South African community and does training and social upliftment projects which contribute to the well-being of over 3000 people (Taung Gold International Limited, 2021). In 2019, Hisense made an additional investment of R72 million, bringing the total investment in South Africa to R440 million. This was an investment that created 150 manufacturing jobs (South African Government, 2019).

Over the last ten years, China has invested billions in mining and mineral extraction projects across the African continent. Currently, it imports approximately \$4 billion worth of minerals and metals every month (South African Government News Agency, 2014). The South African mining sector has received a strong presence from China. South Africa is currently ranked second in China's mining investment in Africa. In 2011, China and the African Development

Fund (ADF), together with the Jinchaun group, invested \$227 million into a South African owned mining company known as Wesizwe Platinum mine (South African Government News Agency, 2014). A 45% shareholder investment made by China and the African Development Bank (AfDB) and Jinchaun group created over 3000 jobs (South African Government News Agency, 2014).

f. Foreign policy

Foreign policy is regarded as a tool for development. Countries development strategies usually include investment policy, economic, financial and commercial negotiations, resource exploration rights, international cooperation and international projection (Institute of Global Dialogue SA, 2014). Foreign policy allows states to gain benefits and advantages from their participation in international affairs. For developing countries such as BRICS member states, the foreign policy aims to change the global system to profit from changing international circumstances (Institute of Global Dialogue SA, 2014). BRICS creates and implements policies that promote quality and inclusive employment and job creation within BRICS member states (International Labour Organization, 2016). The quality and inclusive employment policy is aimed at “formalising the labour market and promoting quality and inclusive employment, through increasing the productivity of labour, strengthening vocational education and training, encouraging labour mobility and the modernization of enterprises and economic sectors” (International Labour Organization, 2016).

BRICS has included policies within the coalition to promote youth employment and alleviate youth unemployment within member states. Policies included in this endeavour are Quality Jobs and Inclusive Employment (BRICS Labour and Employment Ministers Declaration, 2017). Labour and employment policies foster sustainable and inclusive growth (BRICS Information Centre, 2016). The policy's focus is on increasing quality and inclusive employment through the establishment of social protection of at-risk groups and the protection of unemployed people to prevent social segregation. The policy focuses on the development of occupational standards and qualifications (BRICS Information Centre, 2016). Through formalising the labour market, the policy will lead to job creation and income generation opportunities in the formal economy and create job opportunities through enterprise innovation and productivity increase (BRICS Information Centre, 2016).

5.5. Findings

This study's focus was to explore the efforts of BRICS (as a coalition) in addressing the high rate of youth unemployment in South Africa. This study investigates youth unemployment in South Africa and coalitions such as BRICS in alleviating such issues. The research study explored and discussed the economic effects of youth unemployment in South Africa, the impacts of South Africa's membership in BRICS on youth unemployment and the role of BRICS in alleviating youth unemployment in South Africa. This was carried out by using a qualitative research approach. Various forms of data were utilized in this study, including books, journals, articles, BRICS Summit Declarations, government reports and BRICS reports. In the interpretation of the secondary data gathered, the main trends, themes and patterns were discussed with reference to the three core research questions. The following discussion emerged from research and analysis on youth unemployment within South Africa and BRICS's efforts in addressing the issue.

The findings of this study are in line with liberal institutionalism theory and based on the premise the "Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of a country is one of the main indicators used to measure the performance of a country's economy", as stated by Pettinger (2019). This study has established that there is a strong relationship between the GDP of a country and unemployment. In South Africa, there are clear trends of low economic performance and high unemployment levels, specifically among the youth. This population makes up a significant component of the high unemployment rate (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019). In addition to low economic and GDP growth, high unemployment levels also fuel increased debt, government borrowing, a fall in tax revenue government and increased government relief funds for citizens.

The discussion provided on the effects BRICS has on the youth of South Africa portrayed various negative and positive effects on its most vulnerable group. The benefits include skills and training opportunities for the youth, increased job opportunities and increased investment in education and programmes specifically targeted at the youth. Certain aspects of the membership South Africa has in BRICS does not favour the youth and are causing an increase in their unemployment. This includes free trade and inequality in economic gains as a result of export and import deficits. South Africa is in a position to gain economically, socially and politically in the long-run. BRICS is a platform for dialogue and cooperation among countries representing 43% of the world's population. It also serves as an ambassador for promoting

peace, security and economic development in an interdependent and globalizing world (BRICS Information Centre, 2016). The BRICS member states are members of many multilateral organisations and international agencies; therefore, there is an excellent opportunity for South Africa to gain knowledge and information from the coalition (Asuelime, 2018).

South Africa has an opportunity to navigate through the ways of how BRICS member states engage in their practices (Asuelime, 2018). South Africa will also learn the political culture of fellow member states even though there are some differences in state configuration. Through South Africa's membership with BRICS, the country has an increased voice in the international sphere and provided SA with the opportunity to further its voice on global issues and be a spokesperson for the African continent's agenda (BRICS, 2018).

South Africa's membership with BRICS provides ways to advance economically, politically and socially, which essentially benefits the youth. South Africa has the opportunity to influence policy-making within a major international coalition to make the international economic system equal, more inclusive and beneficial for developing countries (Besada et al., 2013). BRICS has put South Africa in a position to benefit from international investment and enhanced trade due to South Africa's influence in the Sub-Saharan region (Besada et al., 2013). Since joining the coalition, South Africa has benefited from an increase in investors. FDI grew from \$1.3 billion in 2017 to \$7.1 billion in 2018 - a 446% increase. This displays great potential for the development of the economy and youth unemployment alleviation in the future through the impact of BRICS membership (Villiers, 2019).

Although BRICS member states have benefited greatly from the multilateral coalition that exists amongst the members such as increased trade, increased foreign investment and even an opportunity to participate within the global political and economic arena. BRICS as a coalition has been surrounded by much debate, specifically as a result of the inequality within the coalition. Multilateralism characteristics are deeply rooted in the systems and governance of BRICS. Multilateralism increases trade between member states as discussed above, however increased trade within BRICS has not been mutually beneficial according to the findings within the study.

South Africa has had an average economic growth rate of 1% from 2015-2019, and this slow economic growth rate is caused by high levels of unemployment among the youth (15-35

years). Slow economic growth has various long-term implications such as a recession, a macroeconomic term defined as a significant decrease in general economic activity in a particular state. Statistics South Africa in 2019 released annual GDP growth data, indicating that South Africa was in a recession (StatsSa, 2019). Its economy fell into its second recession in consecutive years, and its GDP declined by 1.4% in the final quarter of 2019 (Quarterly Labour Survey, 2019). While in the same period of time China experienced great success, In 2017, 7.8% of South Africa's total exports for one month went to China, while 18.7% of imports came from China in the same month (Moosa, 2017).

As discussed above multilateralism promotes international participation, increases international influence and the expansion of foreign companies locally. As discussed above the influx of foreign companies within South Africa lead to the shutdown of local companies that cannot survive international companies that provide cheaper products. This essentially creates a chain reaction which leads to increased unemployment, which then leads to increased poverty levels and eventually crime. This can be identified in BRICS and South Africa's unemployment rate and the spike in crime. In 2015 to 30.50% in 2017; this directly translates to roughly 23.8 homicides per 100,000 residents and in the same year Brazil experienced a spike in its crime rate (World Bank, 2018). During the same year (2017) China's unemployment rate was 4.44%, a 0.09% decline from 2016. The political and economic inequality that fuels much debate is based on the inequality that exists within BRICS multilateral agreements and the coalition.

The programmes and initiatives launched by BRICS, which aim to alleviate youth unemployment, have displayed much success. One hundred thousand young people were absorbed into the labour market through training, skills development, and investments in different sectors (CNBC Africa, 2019). One of the leading causes of youth unemployment in South Africa is the level of education. As discussed previously, a large number of South African youth drop out of school. Only 52% of the appropriate age population remain enrolled in school (Weybright et al., 2017:2). School dropouts lack the literacy, numeracy and communication skills needed in the labour market. This makes them unemployable; hence many school dropouts remain unemployed for many years. The commitment shown by BRICS in investing in education to alleviate youth unemployment is proving to be successful. Education and training prepare one for the workforce, finding a job and essentially reducing poverty (Masoka, 2019). This can be identified in South African youth unemployment trends.

So 58.4% of unemployed individuals have less education than matric, while 31.0% of unemployed individuals have less than a graduate degree (Quarterly Labour Survey, 2019). There must be an increase in education initiatives due to the already hindered education system (Carmody, 2018).

Initiatives and programmes launched in South Africa by BRICS has created more jobs for the youth, developed the education system, provided skills and training and various investments and boosted productivity growth. However, South Africa's youth unemployment is still high and continues to rise per quarter. For South Africa's unemployment rate to drastically decrease, the root causes of the issue need to be addressed. Many young people from vulnerable backgrounds continue to be excluded from the labour market (Graham et al., 2018). Youth unemployment is linked to various causes, and it is crucial to provide initiatives that help individuals deal with the emotional, social and psychological effects of unemployment. Tackling the inequality of financial resources and job opportunities needs to be addressed since it contributes to high youth unemployment (Rankin and Roberts, 2011).

The youth of South Africa face multiple forms of deprivation that force many to enter the labour market sooner, and the labour market is unable to keep up with the influx of new entrants. In the 1st quarter of 2019, the unemployment rate was 31, 0% during this period compared to 19, 5% in the 4th quarter of 2018, showing an increase of 11, 4% (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019) Ultimately the high unemployment rate is a result of slow economic growth. While such programmes and initiatives launched by BRICS cannot replace economic growth, they play a beneficial role in supporting the youth with skills, training and development to prepare them for the labour market over time (Graham et al., 2018). BRICS and the government of South Africa can do more to alleviate high levels of youth unemployment by providing job opportunities, skills, and training programmes but by tackling the mismatch between youth's skills and the skills required by the labour market. This way, the youth can be provided with job opportunities that require minimal work experience and job training (International Labour Organization, 2017). Despite the various job opportunities created through BRICS, most youths lack specific work experience and skills. This makes employers reluctant to hire them, which still puts the youth population at a disadvantage (International Labour Organization, 2017).

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Summary

As a conclusion to this study, this chapter summarises the research conducted and recommendations on how the South African government, with the help of BRICS, can address high levels of youth unemployment. This chapter also presents the conclusions of this study.

Research Objectives

This study focused on the following objectives:

- a. Examine how youth unemployment has affected the South African economy.
- b. Examine how South Africa's membership in the BRICS coalition will affect the country's youth unemployment
- c. Explore the role of BRICS in addressing the issue of youth unemployment in South Africa

Research Questions

The following research questions were examined in this study:

- a. How has youth unemployment affected the South African economy?
- b. How will South Africa's membership in the BRICS coalition affect its youth unemployment?
- c. What role is BRICS playing in addressing the issue of youth unemployment in South Africa?

Chapter 1 was an introduction to the study. The chapter provided a brief background of the research topic and a discussion of youth unemployment in South Africa. The terms unemployment, youth and unemployment were briefly conceptualised. It provided an overview of the studies main aims and objectives. Chapter 1 explored the study's significance, as determining the correlation between youth unemployment and the economy, BRICS membership on the youth of South Africa, and how BRICS has contributed to youth unemployment alleviation within South Africa. This chapter presented the research methodology, which was a qualitative research method from a desktop approach.

Chapter 2 explored BRICS as a coalition, the chapter extensively unpacked the coalition by examining its history. Chapter 2 examined BRICS mandate, which included its aims and objectives as a coalition. The systems and structures of BRICS were unpacked and discussed, while also examining at each member state individually, namely Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. The influence and contribution BRICS provides each member state is briefly looked at in chapter 2

Chapter 3 explored the available literature on youth unemployment globally, in Africa and South Africa. It also presented literature on the causes and effects of youth unemployment. It discussed the role of the South African government in reducing youth unemployment. The chapter examined multilateralism, the conceptualisation of multilateralism and extensively examined the advantages of multilateralism as well as the disadvantages. The chapter also examined the relationship between foreign policy, international relations and youth unemployment. It concluded by carrying out an in-depth examination of the history and makeup of BRICS and its structures, mandate, and member states. Youth unemployment is a global issue and is of growing concern in the international community. Due to the magnitude of this issue in South Africa, the government has provided various programs and initiatives to alleviate youth unemployment.

Youth unemployment is caused by various factors, including low education level, apartheid legacy and lack of resources for job searches. Youth unemployment is a global issue and is severe in developing countries such as South Africa. High levels of unemployment have economic, political and emotional impacts on South Africa and its youth. South Africa's membership in BRICS has played an important role in economic development, attracting foreign investment and becoming Sub-Saharan Africa's voice worldwide.

Chapter 4 focused on a discussion, analysis and application of the theory of liberal institutionalism. As the theoretical framework for this study, liberal institutionalism was developed by Robert Keohane and Joseph Nye in the 1970s and is used to understand and explain the role of coalitions like BRICS in supporting member states in youth unemployment. This chapter provided an extensive discussion of the theory, its history, key principles and arguments. The theory is firmly based on cooperation and interdependence; therefore, BRICS objectives and activities were explored while linking the theory and BRICS. The economic impacts of high levels of youth unemployment are one of the biggest issues faced by South Africa. The classical growth theory is explored to understand the correlation between population, high levels of unemployment (limited resources) and the economy. The theory is based on the idea that when an economy is weak and there is a population increase, this negatively effects the economic growth of the country. The limited resources South Africa has as well as the increase in population possess strong characteristics that can be identified in the theory of classical growth.

Chapter 5 was the data analysis and findings chapter. It provided a detailed discussion on youth unemployment and BRICS efforts in addressing the issue. The research questions were unpacked through the data gathered from secondary sources. This was achieved by drawing from the concepts of liberal institutionalism and exploring BRICS activities and its member states' bilateral engagements. While youth unemployment has political, social, security and psycho-social effects, the study specifically focused on its economic effects. The theory of liberal institutionalism emphasizes the use of consensus and cooperation through the use of institutions to pursue common goals, this study examined if South Africa's membership with BRICS has affected youth unemployment. These effects were based on current occurrences, both negative and positive, to explain the outcome if the same patterns continue. Chapter 5 provided an extensive discussion on the role BRICS has played thus far in reducing youth unemployment in South Africa. This included investments in various sectors such as mining and manufacturing, youth development through education programs, skills and capacity development initiatives and various employment opportunities abroad and within South Africa.

6.2 Recommendations

This section presents some key recommendation in which South Africa's membership in BRICS can yield further benefits for South African youth, particularly in reducing youth unemployment.

a. Focus on inclusivity

Together with South Africa, BRICS should strive to launch inclusive programs and initiatives to reduce youth unemployment. The literature presented in Chapter 2 revealed that individuals from poor backgrounds are more susceptible to youth unemployment due to a lack of resources and knowledge of opportunities. Additionally, a more significant number of females are unemployed as compared to their male counterparts. The South African government, together with the assistance of BRICS, needs to launch employment policies that favour individuals from rural and low-income households and females. The BRICS Labour and Employment Ministers Declaration include a Quality Jobs and Inclusive Employment Policy, which focuses on creating quality and inclusive employment. This refers to the formalization of labour markets and employment information exchange (BRICS Information Centre, 2016). Implementing policies such as this requires that vulnerable groups are given preference to create a balance within the labour market and create an opportunity for the development of rural areas.

b. Support programmes for unemployed youth

BRICS has launched various initiatives aimed at alleviating youth unemployment. However, there are hardly any programs or support groups for South Africa's youth to deal with the issue's caused by youth unemployment. These issues include alcohol and drug abuse, depression and suicide. Unemployment affects the country economically, socially and politically and has significant psychological impacts on its youth (Mzizi, 2017). The government, together with BRICS, should invest in programs that help the youth cope with the effects of unemployment, such as free counselling and assistance with drug and alcohol addiction, depression and various other mental health issues.

c. Technical skills development

As discussed in Chapter 4, education plays a significant role in promoting economic growth and development because it provides basic numeracy and literacy skills. However, the gap in technical skills needed by the labour market suggests that the South African education system is insufficient in preparing students for employment. The South African higher education system does not prepare the youth for a smooth entry into the labour market. Therefore, critical skills development courses and the introduction of additional technical skills development courses should be included in any higher education degree obtained from a university or TVET College. Compulsory technical skills development courses will bridge the gap between the mismatch of skills and provide the youth with the necessary skills in the labour market. The fourth industrial revolution has created a labour market that requires digital skills, information communications skills and interpersonal skills, as discussed in the dissertation. South Africa's young graduates lack these skills. Through various international companies, BRICS has already invested in South Africa through Hisense and Jinqun Iron & Steel. These companies can provide higher institutions with work opportunities for their students. BRICS would provide young graduates with an opportunity to enter the workforce while obtaining the necessary skills. This could be credited academically towards the completion of their degree.

d. Inclusive trade policies

As discussed in Chapter 4 of the dissertation, an imbalance in trade within a country harms the economy and adds to the country's unemployment. Weaker and smaller economies such as Brazil and South Africa within the coalition should not receive an influx of imports and reduced amount of exports (imbalance in trade). BRICS needs to implement trade policies within the coalition to ensure equal economic growth through balance in trade. A policy that puts restrictions on the quantity or value of imports into other member states will ensure that BRICS member states do not fall into a trade deficit, which will hinder economic growth and increase unemployment.

6.3 Areas for future research

Throughout this study, themes directly affecting South Africa's youth were introduced, such as poverty, illiteracy, school dropout rates, and high crime rate. The above study left various unanswered questions regarding the youth and economy of South Africa. The study revealed that despite the various initiatives and programs funded by BRICS, slow economic growth due to the high youth unemployment rate in South Africa is still a pressing concern (as discussed

in Chapter 2, sub-section 2.5). Data gathered throughout the study revealed that other BRICS member states experience higher economic growth than South Africa.

A qualitative study using existing data, government reports and books should be utilized to examine the difference in youth unemployment rates within BRICS; and programs launched within member states to alleviate youth unemployment. The future study should use the differences within BRICS to determine why other member states have successfully alleviated youth unemployment compared to South Africa. By the results of the future study, South Africa would adopt programs, initiatives, and policies that are beneficial for youth unemployment alleviation.

6.4 Conclusion

Liberal institutionalism is identified as a theoretical framework for understanding BRICS due to key elements such as cooperation, open trade markets/ free market, democracy, human rights and globalisation. Liberal institutionalism argues that states use cooperation to pursue common goals, to aid and develop each other. However, data indicates that South Africa has high poverty levels, high levels of youth unemployment and slow economic growth. BRICS, as a coalition, is flawed due to the lack of equal gain and lack of equal development. Youth unemployment and economic development are prioritized within the coalition; however, there has been little change in youth unemployment and South Africa's economic growth.

The initiatives launched by BRICS and the South African government have created many jobs; however, the youth unemployment rate has increased yearly. The underlying issues which lead to youth unemployment (political, economic and emotional issues) have created a vicious cycle where the effects of youth unemployment are also its cause. To drastically decrease youth unemployment in South Africa, these underlying issues, which are discussed in Chapter 3 of the dissertation, need to be resolved. This should be done to promote the programmes launched internally by the South African government and BRICS to decrease youth unemployment.

Youth unemployment in South Africa is a pressing issue with detrimental effects on the economy of South Africa. There is a strong correlation between high levels of youth unemployment and a country's GDP. Therefore, policies and cooperation agreements aimed at economic development need to address youth unemployment equally. Although the government and the BRICS coalition have made efforts to alleviate youth unemployment, those initiatives do not replace economic growth. South Africa must find avenues and initiatives to

enhance economic growth and increase the country's economic output while capitalizing on the BRICS coalition where necessary. The study's discussions show that there are negative and positive impacts of South Africa's membership with BRICS. However, based on the coalition's nature, South Africa's youth can benefit from the coalition economically and politically.

South Africa's youth can benefit from BRICS politically due to South Africa's positive relations with other members. This includes multilateral exposure and the efforts BRICS has made in addressing youth unemployment in South Africa. This reveals the coalition's commitment to developing all member states. There is strong evidence that shows the high levels of youth unemployment in South Africa have hindered the country's development and economic growth. Due to the diverse populations, political structures, policies, and information and technology within BRICS, South Africa can absorb these and use them as a guide to create their solutions to alleviate youth unemployment and develop economically.

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