



YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT IN ETHIOPIA: THE CASE OF 12 SPOTS IN FOUR SELECTED REGIONS AND TWO CITY ADMINISTRATIONS

**A STUDY REPORT SUBMITTED TO: CONSORTIUM OF
CHRISTIAN RELIEF AND DEVELOPMENT
ASSOCIATION**

BY GYD UNITED CONSULTING PLC

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List of Acronyms

I

AGOA - African Growth and Opportunity Act
AIDS - Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ADLI - Agricultural Development-Led Industrialization

ANRS- Amhara National Regional State
 BoFED - Bureau of Finance and Economic Development
 BOYS - Bureau of youth and Sports
 CBOs - Community Based Organizations
 CES- Centers for Employment Services
 CCRDA – Consortium of Christian Relief and Development Association
 CRS - Catholic Relief Service
 CSA - Central Statistics Agency
 CSO - Civil Society Organization
 CSW- Commercial Sex Worker
 DFID- Department for International Development
 DWCP - Decent Work Country Programmes
 EBDSN - Ethiopian Business Development Services Network
 ENAB - Ethiopian National Association for the Blind
 ENAD - Ethiopian National Association for the Deaf
 ERSWEC - Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation
 EU- European Union
 FAO - Food and Agriculture Organization
 FBOs - Faith-Based Organizations
 FDI - Foreign Direct Investment
 FHRD - Forum for Human Rights and Development
 FGD - Focus Group Discussion
FeMSEA - Federal Micro and Small Enterprises Development Agency
 GDP - Gross Domestic Product
 GEF - Global Environment Facility
 HIV/AIDS- Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
 IDA - International Development Agency
 IFC- International Finance Corporation
 KII - Key Informant Interview
 ILO - International Labour Organization
 IYF - International Youth Foundation
 LFS - Labour Force Survey
 MFI - Micro Finance Institution
 MOLSA - Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
 MSE - Micro and Small Enterprises
 MESP - Micro and Small Enterprises Strategy Paper
 MYSC - Ministry of Youth Sports and Culture
 NGOs - Non-Governmental Organizations
 NYPE - National Youth Policy of Ethiopia
 OECD - Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
 OVC - Orphan and Vulnerable Children
 ReMSEDA - Regional Micro and Small Enterprises Development Agency
 REST- Relief Society of Tigray
 SEPDA - Southern Ethiopia People Development Association
 SHG – Self Help Group
 SID - Society for International Development
 SIDA - Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
 SME - Small and Medium Enterprises

II

SNNPR - Southern Nations Nationalities Peoples Region
 SSA - Sub-Saharan Africa
 SWTS - School to Work Transition Survey
 UN- United Nations
 UNCTAD- United Nations Centre on Trade and Development
 UNDP - United Nations Development Programme
 UNECA - United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
 UNESCO - United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
 UNIDO - United Nations Industrial Development Organization
 UNPFA - United Nations Population Fund
 USA - United States of America
 USAID - United States Agency for International Development
 VAT - Value Added Tax
 WWD - woman with Disabilities
 YBI - Youth Business International
 YEN - Youth Employment Network

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VII

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The major purpose of this study was to investigate and explore the challenges and dynamics of youth unemployment and marginalization in Ethiopia including the services available to youth by key stakeholders in this regard; and to inform relevant youth

empowerment policy outlook, program and make recommendation to the stakeholders. More specifically, it tried to determine the magnitude and identify youth unemployment and marginalization in Ethiopia; to identify particular youth groups (sex, residence, education status, etc) most affected by unemployment and marginalization and how they are affected and their coping mechanisms; determine the level of labor market participation of the youth, the status of relevant sector participation in youth labor market; explore the root causes (policy, practices, social etc.) of youth unemployment and marginalization and recommend possible interventions .

In view of the above mentioned objectives, the study intended to cover 480 youth sampled to cover young people in each of the following status: unemployed, outside of the labour force (i.e. inactive), in school or vocational training and employed using stratified, probability and purposive sampling. Samples were drawn from male and female youth reside in 12 selected urban and rural areas of Amhara, Tigray, SNNPR, Oromiya regions, Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa City Administrations. To gather the required information for the study, both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. Extensive desk review, structured questionnaire, FGD and a key informant interview were selected as appropriate data collection tools. To analyze the data, descriptive statistics and t-test were applied for the quantitative data using SPSS, FGD and KII were analyzed using Colaizzi's procedural steps (1978).

The study findings indicated that unemployment was quite rampant among the youth. Almost one-third of the youth in the studied labor force were unemployed. The unemployment rate was higher among female youth. Female youth usually withdraw from the labour force after marriage. As a result, almost one-half of female youth were out of the labour force. It also found out that there was a considerable rural unemployment mainly due to shortage of land access for the youth, reduction of land fertility, and lack of infrastructure that makes life attractive in rural villages, poor extension and marketing system.

The most frequent explanations of the causes of unemployment in Ethiopia include: rapid population growth, poor dissemination of labor market information, skills mismatch, structural reforms, unbalanced economic growth, lack of technical skills, lack of experience, discrimination of the youth particularly women, poor integration of the education system with labour market, inaccessibility to useful information on time, poor extension and marketing system, shortage of land access to work on. The study affirmed that despite their numeric strength, the youth strongly feel marginalized at all levels of decision making. Accordingly, the youth constitute a category of our population that is continuously grumbling.

The study thus concluded that youth unemployment was still a serious problem and needs to be addressed with multisectoral and multi-stakeholder approach. Despite its initiatives and commitment to curb youth unemployment and marginalization, the Government should urgently form a high-level commission to chart a plan of action to address the problem of youth unemployment. The assistance of specialized agencies such the International Labor Organization and NGO's should be sought in developing such a plan of action. Successfully addressing the youth unemployment problem would also help mitigate the current the poverty problem in the country. In addition, prevailing discriminatory practices towards women, the poor and disadvantaged groups have

resulted in limited access to employment opportunities for youth of these groups implying that the Government and all stakeholders should take immediate action to make equity and social inclusion an integral part of the social and economic development plan/programme. Lack of an adequate level of education/training has also resulted in limited access to employment opportunities of youth in general and those from poor and disadvantaged groups in particular implying efforts to be made to raise the educational level of the youth. Further, it should be ensured that the type of education being provided to the youth match the skills that are in demand in the labour market.

A number of viable options such as strengthening the policy environment, reducing unemployment via rural- urban migration, making education and training more market relevant, equipping young people for labour market integration, promoting job creation programmes, promoting self employment, ensuring inclusion and equal opportunity, creating strong partnership among the government, NGOs, worker and employer associations and the private sector were strongly recommended. Besides, document tested models/programs/projects such as Nigeria's National Open Apprenticeship Scheme, New Zealand's Model of Stakeholders Forum to Youth Employment Creativity, the SENAI Model of Brazil, the YES Intervention Models of South Africa and Kenya, Brahmin Bank of Bangladesh, PSI program of YEN-WA, the SHG Model of Women IGA Program of India, TVE programs of China were recommended accordingly adapting them to the specific context of Ethiopia and target intervention.

CHAPTER ONE

IX

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The challenge of youth employment in Africa is especially large. In Sub-Saharan

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Africa, young people aged 15–24 account for 36% of the working-age population. Due to population pressure, the number of young people looking for work is expected to increase by 28% in the next 15 years, equivalent to about 30 million people. In fact, development scholars view ‘youth unemployment’ as major stumbling block to growing social disequilibria leading to economic disorder and poverty of the society (Mkandawire, 1996).

Failure to address youth employment issues will have serious consequences for the economy and society. Without opportunities for young people to earn a living, intergenerational cycles of poverty will persist, further affecting societies already made vulnerable by HIV/AIDS, food insecurity, and violence.

In Ethiopia, youth unemployment is a serious issue where almost two-thirds of the population is younger than 25 years. Disguised unemployment is a feature of the rural labour market while open unemployment is prevalent in urban areas. Indeed, Ethiopia has one of the highest urban unemployment rates worldwide, at about 50 per cent of the youth labour force (ILO, 2006). Moreover, young people in Ethiopia are confronted with many difficulties when it comes to their integration in the labour markets and their research for decent and productive jobs. Youth unemployment, which is substantially higher than global adult unemployment, has been growing in the last decade. In spite of the dramatic economic, social and political consequences of Ethiopian youth employment problems, few studies focus on this population(ILO, 2006, World Bank,2009).

Available evidences uncover that the situation of young people in the labour market is aggravated by the fact that the formal labour market is still small. Young people are often at the end of the job queue for the formal labour market because they lack adequate skills and experience, as well as efficient social networks. Some observations indicate that excluded from reasonably paid formal employment, young people are left with atypical or vulnerable forms of formal employment with low pay or the informal sector, where legal protection is limited. As a result, the bulk of young people are engaged in easy-entry informal sector activities with low returns and long hours of work, including street vending, car washing and watching, and making and selling crafts. Numerous young people are compelled to perform jobs with the lowest level of protection, even though they are among those who need the most protection.

The health status of young people affects their employment situation. Young people who are HIV-positive eventually become ill with HIV-related diseases, increase their absence from work, reduce their productivity and lower their chances of being employed. Unemployment has social as well as economic consequences for young people. Unemployed young people are forced to find alternatives to generate income, including activities in the survival-type informal sector and, in extreme cases, criminal activity. Urban youth unemployment is further exacerbated by rural-urban migration. Rural migrants believe that more jobs and social opportunities are available in urban areas, but once in the cities they find themselves without a job and with limited social networks. Trapped and discouraged by bleak job prospects, some turn to the sex, criminality and drug industries to survive.

Youth joblessness also implies missed opportunities in the use of human resources to produce goods and services. In addition, smaller tax revenues result from a smaller tax base for income tax and indirect taxes such as the value added tax. A further implication is related to security. An increase of one percentage point in the ratio of people ages 15–29 to people ages 30–54 increases the likelihood of conflict such as civil unrest or war by 7 per cent. Higher crime rates also have a direct economic cost in terms of loss of foreign direct investment.

As a matter of fact, the government of Ethiopia has recently started to pay due attention to youth employment concerns. The current policy emphasis on promotion of the private sector, expanding investment to improve the productivity of agriculture and introducing off-farm non-agricultural activities for the purpose of employment diversification in rural areas has resulted in some recovery and overall macroeconomic stability in the country. The role of the private sector particularly SMEs have improved in recent years, but compared to the daunting economic and social problems the country is experiencing, much remains to be done. Aggressive policy measures that stimulate private investment particularly via youth mobilization need to be implemented. Ensuring the sustainability and survival of the enterprises created is crucially important for employment creation. Thus, rather than accepting unemployed young people as a burden to society, there is an urgent need to focus on youth employment or occupation policies and to mainstream those policies into a larger development strategy framework. Well targeted youth policies—and specifically national employment policies—public spending directed at young people, projects to tackle rural employment, and the creation of job centres should be an integral part of such a strategy. Public work programmes and internships through public-private initiatives aimed at young people can provide them with an entry to the labour market and improve access to and equity in education. Guided by the needs of the private sector, they can also enhance the quality, curriculum content and resource allocation of the education system. Tapping into the unused potential of unemployed young people could prove a crucial asset for economic development on the country. To contain the impending youth challenges, thus, more efforts, particularly from non-state actors will be required to supplement the government's efforts. There is no empirical evidence about the integration these actors towards this end.

Therefore, it is timely to initiate comprehensive study on youth unemployment and marginalization in Ethiopia. It should be noted that this study is not intended as an overall assessment of the situation facing young people in Ethiopia. Rather, it is intended to supplement currently available information from the national surveys, such as the National Labour Force Survey 2006.

1.2 Rational for the Study

Empirical evidences indicate that the youth are in the frontline bear the consequence of unemployment and marginalization challenges. In Ethiopia and in Africa as well, the ratio of the youth-to-adult unemployment rate equals three (ILO 2006), which clearly points out the substantial difficulties of youth participation in the labor market. Yet, the

youth employment elasticity to GDP growth is low and only a fifth of that observed for all workers (Kapsos 2005). As a consequence, youth made up 43.7% of the total unemployed people in the world despite accounting for only 25% of the working population while Ethiopia's case reaches up to 50%(ibid). More than one third of the youth in the world is either seeking but unable to find work, has given up on the job search entirely, or is working but still living below the \$2 a day poverty line. In Ethiopia, 3 in 5 of the total unemployed are youth (ILO 2006) and on average 72% of the youth population live with less than \$2 a day. Moreover, Young people in Ethiopia are diverse in background and their employment prospects and challenges vary according to region, gender, age, educational level, ethnicity, and health status, thus requiring different sets of information-based policy and program interventions.

While the Government of Ethiopia has shown some tangible commitment in addressing the youth challenges in the country, the contents and implementation record of the youth policy and program interventions indicate that much more need to be done with collaborative effort by all concerned governmental and nongovernmental stakeholders. This should be in terms of broader and in-depth conceptualization of the youth problem to identify the driving factors, felt needs, values, education, skills formation and training and work aspirations. The encompassing conceptualization should include issues such as governance, representation, inclusiveness, and participation of the youth in the country's institutions, decision making and development processes. Systematic planning and programming of specific projects to address youth problems and concerns need to be fast tracked with clear strategies for implementation, and with realizable and measurable targets(Girma and Kedir,2005; Godfrey,2003).

However, there is hardly any study which systematically analyses the unemployment and marginalization situation of Ethiopian youth which serve as an input for policy and program. Hence, the initiation of this study by Christian Aid Ethiopia and Consortium of Christian Relief and Development Association.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study is to understand the challenges and dynamics of youth unemployment and marginalization including the services available to youth by key stakeholders in this regard; and to inform relevant youth empowerment policy, program outlooks and make recommendation to the stakeholders. More specifically it tried:

- To determine the magnitude and identify youth unemployment₃ and marginalization in Ethiopia;
- To identify particular youth groups (sex, residence, education status, etc) most affected by unemployment and marginalization and how they are affected and their coping mechanisms;
- To determine the level of labor market participation of youth;

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- Identify the status of relevant sector participation in youth labor market;
- To explore the root causes (Policy, practices, social etc.) of youth unemployment and marginalization and recommend possible interventions in line with CRDA's and Christian Aid Ethiopia's aims;
- To come up with strategies and ideas that help NGOs, Government, FBO's and other stakeholders to design appropriate youth empowerment interventions that reduce poverty and injustices that affect the life and livelihoods of youth in Ethiopia;
- To identify and document tested practices and strategies employed by Government, NGOs, FBOs etc. to improve livelihoods of youth in Ethiopia;
- To come up with relevant policies, strategies and practices from other similar countries for learning and adoption;

1.4 Organization of the Paper

The paper examines the challenges and dynamics of youth unemployment and marginalization including the services available to youth by key stakeholders in this regard; and recommends relevant youth empowerment policy, programs to be considered.

The paper is organized in seven parts. The first part focuses on the background, objectives and rationale of the study. The second part is about the methodology of the study. The third part is a conceptual framework and literature review which discusses the meaning, causes and consequences of youth unemployment with reference to the international, national and regional context (including that of the study area). The fourth part delves in to analysis of unemployment in Ethiopia and that of youth unemployment triangulating National population Census and related surveys. The fifth one assesses the service available to the youth particularly related to alleviation of youth unemployment and marginalization. It also analyses stock of policy, regulatory and operational efforts by stakeholders in addressing the problem of unemployment and reviews national and international initiatives of various stakeholders. The sixth part delves in to analysis and interpretation of both quantitative data qualitative data and summarizes findings. The seventh part concludes the essence of the whole discussions and draws some conclusions for policy considerations.

1.5 Operational Definitions

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Youth Unemployment - represents the number of unemployed young people aged 15 to 29 as a percentage of the total labor force, where the total labor force comprises the unemployed and the employed.

Marginalization: Is the process by which the youth lose importance and status because they are unable to participate in mainstream activities such as employment and related policy issues. Or is the exclusion of the youth from the labor force.

Youth underemployment: A situation whereby youth are employed for less payment than Ethiopian Labour regulations standard or with no commiserating reward.

CHAPTER TWO

2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1.1 Geographic Coverage

This study is just an exploratory survey than a truly nationally representative survey. A nationally representative survey would have required a considerable amount of resources, which were not available at the time. Accordingly, the survey was conducted in six areas of Ethiopia, which to a certain extent represent Ethiopia's different regions as well as the generally observed urban /rural variation. Moreover, the target areas selected for the study are those where considerable employment opportunities exist, and as such, where Ethiopian youth tend to congregate, especially in the capitals of the regions.

The geographic areas included in this study cover both urban and rural areas in six of the country's nine regions: Addis Ababa, the capital city of Ethiopia, Tigray region which encompasses Mekelle (the north's largest city and a capital for the region); SNNPR, which encompass Awassa(the capital of SNNPR where youth from over 60 nation and nationalities reside), Oromiya which encompasses Adama(a city which once was the capital of the Region and is a transit for four zones of the region), Amhara region which encompasses Bahir Dar(Region's the capital city, a key tourist destination and one of the economic centers of the country) and Dire Dawa city Administration which is adjacent to three regions namely Somalia, Harari and Eastern Oromiya and is the country's commercial capital). Selection of the regions and cities where the study was carried out was based on the existence of a sufficiently large and lively labour market and the promise of suitable job opportunities for Ethiopian youth. These target areas hold more than 90% of unemployed youth cover and are geographic areas that will best show the dynamics of youth employment, marginalization and labor market, according to 2006 Ethiopian Labour Force Survey.

Considering their suitability to best show the dynamics of youth unemployment, marginalization and labor market, Nazareth and surrounding rural kebeles, Bahir Dar City Administration including rural areas under the administration, Mekelle city administration and closer rural areas under the administration, Awassa city Administration with rural areas under Awassa Zuria woreda from Oromiya, Amhara, Tigray and SNNP regions respectively and Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa Cities were purposely selected . Since a considerable number of youth in the target areas are migrants from all parts of the country, they are likely to share same characteristics with the population of Ethiopian youth. Indeed, findings of this study based in this geographic coverage could therefore be generalized to cover the entire population of Ethiopian youth.

2.2 Sampling Design and Selection

To attain maximum sample size for this study, we employed a widely used sampling formula for generalized population (Gupta, 1998) . It lies:

$$\frac{Px1-Px Z^2}{E^2}$$

Where, P= proportion(0.5)

$Z = \text{Table Value}(\text{confidence interval}) = 1.96$

$E^2 = \text{Error}$

Thus, sample size = $\frac{0.5 \times 0.5 \times 1.96 \times 1.96}{0.45^2} = 474.2 \approx 480$

In view of the above formula and available resources, the study intended to cover about 480 youth, sufficient to cover young people in each of the following status: unemployed, outside of the labour force (i.e. inactive), in school or vocational training and employed. To ensure a sample size of 480 or more, all youth (15-29 years old) living in 480 households in the six target regions covered was included. It was expected that this would result in a sample of more than 480 youth, with sufficient numbers in each activity category. Since only a small proportion of youth was expected to be employed, it was necessary to over sample to ensure an adequate number of employed youth in the sample.

In each of the six areas, 80 dwellings were selected, of which 40 rural and 40 urban except Addis Ababa wherein 80 dwellings were selected due to its large and seemingly representative socio-demographic characteristics. The process of selecting the households was as follows:

- First, separate lists of municipality (urban) sub-cities and village (rural) woredas then kebelles were prepared, along with their population which was obtained from the Census 2007. The list of rural woredas excluded those rural woredas which were considered by the zonal (city administration) officials that do not best show youth unemployment dynamics to conduct the survey. From these two separate lists, two clusters each were selected by the method of probability proportionate to size (PPS).
- Second, in each selected rural and urban clusters, the study team first listed all households in the cluster and randomly selected 40 households. The interviewers listed all 15-29 year-old youth who were staying in the households selected in the cluster and tried to interview all of them. Thus this study included a total sample of 480 youth (Table 1).

Table 1 The youth sample by current activity

Place of Residaence	In School	Current Activity		Inactive	Total
		Unemployed	Employed		
Addis Ababa					
Urban(Lideta SS)	10	15	8	7	40
Urban (Arada SS)	10	15	8	7	40
Dire Dawa					
Rural (Melka Jebdu)	6	12	7	5	30
Urban (Kezira SS)	12	18	8	12	50
Oromiya					
Rural (Gorro Mena)	6	12	7	5	30
Urban, Adama(05, 06,07)	12	18	8	12	50
SNNPR					
Rural(Borecha)	6	12	7	5	30
Urban Awassa (Addis Ketema SS)	11	18	9	12	50
Amhara Region					
Rural (Zegie)	6	12	7	5	30
Urban (Hidar 29)	10	18	9	13	50
Tigray Region					
Rural(Enderta)	6	12	7	5	30
Urban(Hawilti)	12	18	8	12	50
	107	180	93	100	480

2.2.1 Selection of Key Informants/Discussants

a. Selection of Key Informants

Key informants were purposively selected for an in depth interview from each of the following groups of Key Informants. Accordingly, a total of 36 key informants participated in-depth interviews. This is as presented in the following table:

Table-2 Composition and Number of Key Informants

Key Informants	Number
Government	
Executives (key officials and experts at MOCYS, Regional BoYS, MoLSA , FMSEs Agency, Regional MSED Agencies),	11
Chambers of Commerce and Sectoral Association	6
Leaders of Youth Associations	5
Ethiopian Employers Association, Labour Association	2
NGOs/CSOs (CCRDA, SEPDA, REST, ENAD, Admas, FHRD, CRS, Afroflag, Hope Enterprise, ILO, UNDP)	12
Total	36

b. Number and Composition of Focus Group Discussions

A total of 16 FGD sessions were conducted with unemployed and marginalized youth (employed unemployed and underemployed youth, CSWs, OVC, street children and female domestic workers). Their composition was as follows:

Table-3 Composition and Number of FGDs

<i>Discussants</i>	<i>Number of FGDs</i>
Employed, underemployed and unemployed Youth	6
CSWs	3
OVC	3
Street Children	2
Female Domestic worker	2
Total	16

2.3 Data collection Methods

As the nature of the survey demands, both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection were used. Thus, a set of questionnaire, key informant interview, focus group discussion and desk review methods were used as major instruments of data collection.

2.3.1 Questionnaire

A set of structured questionnaire was used as one and the main source of data collection. It was developed in such a way that it cover items containing information about the socio demographic features of the respondents particularly that of the youth's sex, residence, education status, aspirations, their level of labor market participation; their status of relevant sector participation in youth labor market; their perception the root causes (Policy, practices, social etc.) of youth unemployment and marginalization and knowledgeability of the youth on their challenges and policy interventions and government efforts to tackle their challenges. The questionnaire had been prepared in English and later translated in to Amharic, Tigrigna and Oromeffa versions to suit the respondents' language command and level of understanding.

2.3.2 Key Informant Interview

Using standard key informant guideline, key informant interview was prepared to explore the magnitude of youth unemployment and marginalization in Ethiopia, most affected by unemployment and marginalization and how they are affected and their coping mechanisms in detail so as to substantiate the findings obtained in other means. In addition, key government, private and other stakeholders were asked about their understanding of youth unemployment and marginalization and effectiveness, efficiency and visibility of services available to the youth. Policy and program implications were also discussed.. The reason key informant interview was selected is that it provides an

opportunity to the investigators to question thoroughly certain areas of inquiry and it permits greater of responses, which is not possible through the other means.

2.3.3 Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

In order to explore the magnitude of youth unemployment and marginalization of the target population in depth, again, the group discussion method is also considered compatible to the nature of the study and is substantial to the quantitative and qualitative methods mentioned above. Therefore, the Focus Group Discussion was used to explore more open and a closer perspective of the subjects, which would be impossible to obtain in the other methods.

2.3.4 Desk Review

As such, a wide review of literature on the youth unemployment in Ethiopia was undertaken. The literature includes studies on the experiences of youth unemployment and marginalization in other African countries. Available national censuses, surveys, research papers, statistical data on Ethiopian youth, government and other related stakeholders policies and regulations, that relate to the sector, and occasional papers on issues relating to the delivery of services to the youth in the country was critically reviewed. This helped to triangulate findings made in other methods.

2.4 Pretest

Before giving the questionnaire to the selected subjects, a pilot test was conducted to check to revise and determine the specificity, relevance, and clarity of the items and to determine the reliability of the tests. Thus, the selected items (translated in to Amharic) were tried on 30 youth in Addis Ababa at youth multipurpose center of Family Guidance Association of Ethiopia. This site was selected because of its similarity with the way of life at the sites of the main study. The age of the participants ranged from 15- 29 with diverse ethnic and education and employment background. They are likely to share same characteristics with the typical population of the target youth.

The main purpose of the pilot test was test to improve the quality of the instruments since the instruments are prepared based on reviewed documents and available literature on youth unemployment and marginalization. Accordingly, the following changes were made after the pilot test:

- Some of the questionnaire items, which had been reversal phrased and require indirect interpretations, were replicated in to a direct form so that the respondents clearly understand them.
- Some items that ask the background characteristics of the respondents were found to be less relevant and were dropped. Instead, more relevant ones were added.
- The part which deals with SME conditions and challenges facing SME operators was reduced to a meaningful size avoiding less relevant items.

2.5 Data Collection Procedure and Analysis

For collecting data, 3 data collectors from each locality were recruited in addition to a team of two researchers for each field site go to the field for facilitation and supervision of the entire data collection procedure. All data collectors were recruited from youth

association from each locality. In fact, all regional to kebele level youth associations closely worked with the research team in identifying sample households. The main criteria for recruitment of data collectors were knowledge of target site, local language, a college diploma in related field and prior experience in the same task. Since data collectors participated in related study with the team just two months before, one-day data collection orientation was provided for the data collectors. Briefings like how to establish rapport in data collection, informed consent, how to simplify youth sensitive concepts was discussed between the researchers and the data collectors.

The data via the questionnaire was collected by the data collectors while the FGDs and KII's was conducted by the researchers with the support of data collectors so as to keep the quality of the data collected via the latter means. The period of key informant interviews was approximately an hour each with longest initial interview taking an hour and fifteen minutes. In these interviews, the purpose of the study was restated, and respondents were encouraged to speak out related issue out of the guideline which they consider important. After providing basic descriptive information about themselves, the respondents were asked open-ended questions about how they perceive youth, issues related to youth unemployment and marginalization and effectiveness, efficiency and visibility of services available to the youth, the role of stakeholders in youth employment creation and inclusion, challenges faced and lessons learned. Meanwhile, with each respondent's permission, notes were taken in Amharic language during the interviews. The respondents reviewed the interview notes and copies of the report in Amharic to check for accuracy of quotes and perceptions.

The period of FGD was approximately two hours with longest initial interview taking two and half hours. Each group had members from 8 to 10 but in some rural areas it may reach 12. A female or a male enumerator was present in each respective discussion to assist the researcher by taking notes and recording tape. Language of discussion was decided by the group's choice while individual participants were encouraged to use any language of their preference to expressed themselves.

In the quantitative data analysis, each variables was coded, sorted out according to its specific measure and was entered in to the computer for analysis. The statistical analysis was then made using the SPSS software for data analysis in percentage, mean, standard deviation and t-tests. Percentage, mean and standard deviation were used to describe the socio-demographic characteristics, status, perceptions, knowledge of youth unemployment and marginalization. T-test was used for testing the significant differences between genders and urban- rural comparisons.

The data collected through the interview and focus group discussion methods were analyzed using Colaizzi's procedural steps (1978) cited in (Merriam, 1988). All interviews were transcribed verbatim and then read several times individually to gain a feeling for the data. Significant statements, ideas and phrases were then highlighted on the transcript and notes were made. An initial list of key themes was created and codes were given to them. A word processing program was then used to cut and paste the significant statements, ideas and phrases in to themes. The key themes were then summarized, staying as closely to the participants' words as possible.

2.6 Ethical considerations

As the nature of the study demands, the following ethical considerations were strictly taken care of through out the research process. Communicating respectfully and openly with the respondent's throughout the data collection process, and providing a debriefing about the nature, findings, and value of the research, are essential components for obtaining informed consent. Utmost effort was made to make the survey team and the data collectors to be culture sensitive when data from rural cites are collected.

CHAPTER THREE

3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Before proceeding to examine Ethiopia's youth unemployment statistics, it may be useful to briefly consider some conceptual issues related to the youth, unemployment in general and youth unemployment in particular, the nature, causes and impacts of youth unemployment. This chapter, thus, considers definitional issues, types and causes of unemployment and models that attempt to explain them.

3.1 Who is Youth: Concept and Definition?

There is no universally accepted definition for youth. Consequently, the concept of youth has been understood and used differently by different governments, non-governmental organizations and the public in general (Mkandawire, 1996). In an attempt to standardize youth programmes, international organizations, in particular the United Nations and the (British) Commonwealth Association of Nations have come up with specific age categories to define youth. For instance, the United Nations uses the age category 15-24 years to define a youth while the Commonwealth uses the age category 15-29 years. Most countries have either adopted the UN or Commonwealth definition. Others define it as per the countries peculiar socio-cultural, economic and political perception and understanding.

In Ethiopian context, according to (MOLSA, 1998) the word 'youth' is broad and more inclusive than the word 'adolescence'. Youth embraces all young people in the age group of teen (teenagers) up to the beginning of maturity (about age 24). It then further categorizes this age group as age group 15 to 19 and 20 to 24 due to the relative and organic difference between the two age groups in terms of their overall developmental speed, maturity, behavior, world outlook, experience interest, attitude, etc.

Meanwhile, government organizations, NGOs and civic associations in Ethiopia and other countries adopt and use various age ranges for the concept "Youth" from the stand point of the purpose which they stand for and the activities they undertake. For example the United Nations (UN) defines youth as a person between 14-24 years; WHO, 10-24; and the Ethiopian Social Security and Development Policy, 15-24. Experiences of other countries indicate that different age ranges have been used in defining youth (Abraham and Hannah, 2005).

Taking the peculiar socio-cultural characteristics and the existing reality of Ethiopian youth in to consideration, Ethiopian Youth Policy defines youth as to include that part of the society who is between 15- 29 years of age. In this study the age group used thus will be 15- 29 as per that of Ethiopian Youth Policy.

3.2 What is Unemployment?

The concept of unemployment is quite controversial and its definition differs between and among developed and developing countries. The problem of defining unemployment has received attention in the literature as confirmed by Adebayo (1999.) Dantwala (1971) defined unemployment as a state in which people who can work are without jobs and are seeking for pay or profit. This definition gives rise to the problem of measurement, especially when we are interested in knowing the average rate of unemployment in the economy over a period of time. Falae (1971) considered such a definition too broad because some categories of people who are without work should not really be regarded as unemployed in any meaningful sense. Falae (1971) therefore pointed to the labour code prescription of lower and upper limits for the labour force that anyone who is unable to work is not counted as unemployed, even though he or she would love to work.

According to the Encyclopedia Americana (1995), however, unemployment literally applies to all persons without work and actively looking for work. Englama (2001) points out that the unemployment rate in an economy is the number of people unemployed expressed as a percentage of the total labour force. The total labour force is defined as the number of people employed plus the number of people unemployed within the age bracket of 18-60 years. Unemployment according to Adebayo (1999) exists when members of the labour force wish to work but cannot get jobs. Unemployment should however be seen as an indication of far more complex problems.

However, the common consensus reached for concerning unemployment is that a country's population is, for purposes of labour market analysis, divided into two categories: the economically active (working age) population and the economically inactive (non-working age) population (Borjas, 2004). The working age population is divided into persons in the labour force and persons outside the labour force. The labour force is divided into employed persons and unemployed persons. The unemployed consist of all persons of working age who are not working, are available for work, and are searching for work at prevailing wage rate(Mart,2006; ILO, 2002). This is the standard definition of unemployment and is the meaning attached to most of the reported statistics on unemployment in this study.

However, there is discussion as to whether this “narrow” definition is appropriate. Consequently, the “broad” definition, which relaxes the condition on “searching for work,” is used mainly in countries where a large proportion of the population is made up of discouraged workers or is engaged in subsistence agriculture and informal activities. Since many African economies are characterized by this condition, the relaxed definition would be more appropriate except where international comparisons are made with countries not in Africa (Wambugu,et al 2009). Therefore, persons without work, available for work but have not taken active steps to find work can be counted as unemployed.

Open involuntary unemployment arises when a person who is able and willing to work, is unable to secure a job. Disguised unemployment arises when the work given to a workforce is insufficient to keep it fully employed, which is, work is divided among

workers with each worker less than fully employed. This implies that some members of the workforce may be withdrawn without loss in output.

The employed persons, as well, can be divided into two groups: those that are fully employed and those that are underemployed. Underemployment means employment at less than the desired or normal working hours (for example less than 40hrs a week). In this case, an individual desires more hours to improve their standard of living but there is not enough work. Underemployment may be due to industrial dispute, lack of finance, lack of raw materials, breakdown of equipment and inadequate output demand. The underemployed population, thus, consists of all persons in paid or self-employment involuntarily working for less than the desired/normal hours of work determined for that activity. This is particularly termed as the visible underemployment. There is also an invisible underemployment means that workers are fully employed in activities where their productivity is abnormally low (potential underemployment) - or are employed but their earnings are not commensurate with specified norms, training, and work experience (Disguised underemployment). In many developing countries, open unemployment and underemployment are pervasive (World Bank Report, 2009).

The inactive labour force consists of all persons of working age who are outside the labour market. Inactivity may be voluntary (the person prefers to stay at home or to begin or continue education, or involuntary, the person would prefer to work but is discouraged). Discouraged workers are persons who give up searching for work and withdraw from active labour force. From this state of inactivity, a person can enter the labour market, and become either employed or unemployed.

3.2.1 Types of unemployment

Economists and policy makers distinguish between three kinds of unemployment: structural, frictional, and seasonal (cyclical) unemployment (Borjas, 2004; Todaro, 1992; Robert, 1993; Hollister and Goldstein, 1994; Sills 1995; Adebayo, 1999; Damachi, 2001). Each type can manifest as either open involuntary unemployment or is disguised unemployment.

In fact, frictional unemployment arises when workers and employers take time to find each other (to match). At any given time, there are workers changing jobs while others are leaving or entering the labour force. Since the flow of labour market information is imperfect, employers and workers are not matched instantaneously; it takes time to locate available jobs. Therefore, workers may be unemployed for a short period as they gather and evaluate job market information. Changes in labour supply and demand are not fundamental to this type of unemployment. It is important to note that search and matching activities that generate frictional unemployment play an important role in efficient allocation of labour.

Job search models provide a theoretical basis for frictional unemployment. In the job search model, it is assumed that wage offers to a potential worker differ across employers. The distribution of wage offers provides incentives to workers to 'shop' for the 'best' offer. The implication is longer unemployment marginal cost of an additional job search equals the marginal benefit. In this sense, job search is an investment. Any

factor that reduces the costs of unemployment increases the length of job search and unemployment spell.

As to the seasonal unemployment, it arises from seasonal variations, for example due to changes in climatic conditions, and particularly affects agriculture and other out-doors activities. As agriculture forms the greatest part of employment in developing nations, seasonal unemployment has the highest impact of all forms of unemployment. As an example, farmers may be fully employed during planting, weeding and harvesting, but unemployed at other periods.

Structural unemployment is another type of unemployment which mainly arises from various sources such as imbalance between the type of skills individuals are offering and the demand for skills by employers across sectors/regions of an economy and wage rigidity.

There are two aspects to unemployment due to imbalance between demand and supply. First, the number of job seekers with a given set of skills may exceed the number of available jobs for a particular skill category. Second, unemployment can also arise from skill mismatch, that is, the skills a job seeker has do not fit available jobs.

In structural unemployment whereby shifts in demand across sectors/regions of an economy could arise due to a change in consumer tastes, competition from substitute products, or new producers in other areas. The severity of unemployment will depend on the ease with which skills can be transferred to other industries or how quickly workers can upgrade/retool their skills. Older workers in declining industries are more susceptible to structural unemployment because they are less likely to make adjustments that would be necessary to remain employed.

Structural unemployment due to wage rigidity can be caused by a number of reasons. First, trade unions associated with wage premium and minimum wage laws impose a wage floor. Second, it can be due to implicit contracts (unwritten understanding) between workers and employers to ensure stable pay by adjusting employment instead of wages during economic downturns. Structural unemployment may also be explained by efficiency wages. The idea is that even in the face of unemployment, employers are unwilling to hire at lower wages because work effort of workers is positively related to the wage rate (Shapiro and Stiglitz, 1984). However, this generates involuntary unemployment (unemployed workers are willing to work at the market wage but jobs are insufficient).

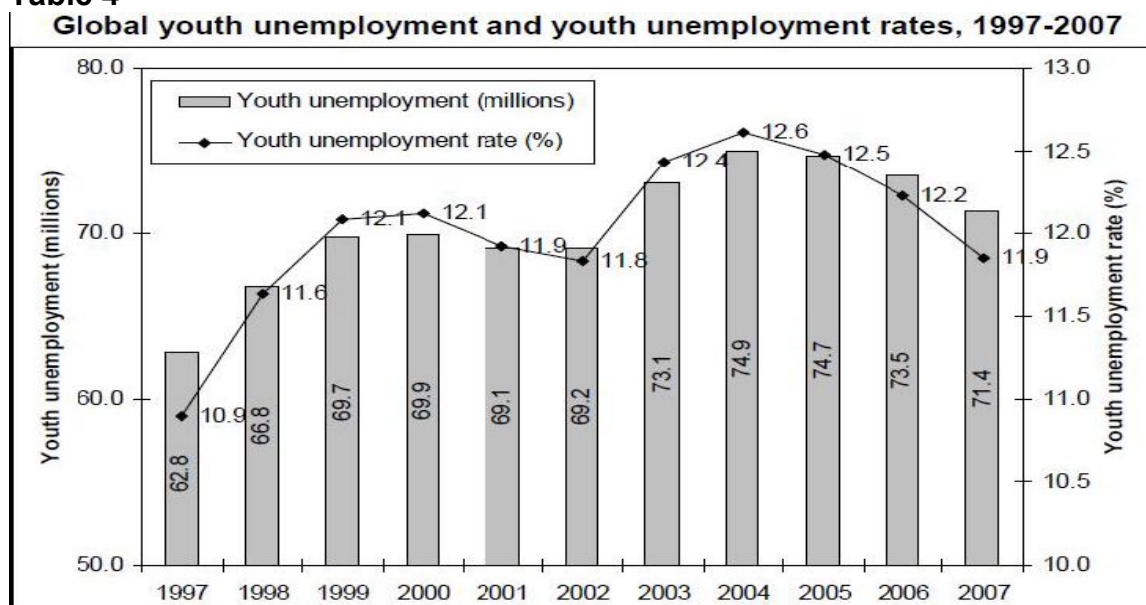
Youth unemployment according to Onah (2001) stands for the conglomerate of youths with diverse background, willing and able to work. This results in pressures of supply of labour over the demand for labour, thus causing joblessness. Given the lack of sufficient employment opportunities in the formal sector, young people are compelled to engage in casual work and other unorthodox livelihood sources, often of a criminal nature (Gibb and George, 1990). In absolute terms, it is estimated that there are presently about 138 million youths on the African continent (Chigunta, 2008). Therefore projections of population growth into the 21st century indicate that the proportion of youths in relation to the overall population will continue to grow over the next twenty years.

3.3 Global Perspective of Youth Unemployment

Youth unemployment has become a contentious issue through out the world. Today's world population counts an estimated 1.2 billion people at the ages of 15 to 24 years, an increase of 17% compared to 1995, or 18% of the world population. About 87% of these young people live in countries with developing economies.

From 1997 to 2004, there is an increasing number of unemployed youth (aged from 15 to 24 years). From 63 million in 1997 to 71 million in 2007, it increased 13.6 per cent. It reached its peak in 2004 of the unemployment rate was 12.6. However, this number declined in recent years. Youth occupy as much as 40.2 per cent of the total number of world's unemployed people while they only occupy 24.7 per cent of the total.

Table 4



Source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, April 2008; see Annex 1 for information on methodology.

In Africa, 200 million people are in this age range, comprising more than 20% of the population (United Nations 2007). In 2005, 62% of Africa's overall population fell below the age of 25. The still very high fertility rate along with a demographic transition that is slowly taking place in the region are likely to increase the pressure African countries face for job creation over the coming decades. The youth unemployment rate is much higher than that of adults in most countries of the world. An estimate of the International Labour Organization (ILO) in their World Employment Report (2008) indicated that at least 75 million young people are unemployed and that youth unemployment rates can be as high as three times adult rates. The question of employment opportunities is frightening as more young people are about to enter the labor market worldwide than ever before in the history of mankind. The estimate is that hundreds of millions of young people will try to enter the labor market in developing countries in 2010 and the ILO projects that this requires the creation of more than a billion jobs in order to give these new workers access to labor markets and reduce unemployment. This youth unemployment is further being fueled by the current economic recession.

A study by O’Higgins (2001) reported that although youth unemployment varies from one country to another, a few features are common to most of the nations investigated. First, it was found that youth unemployment was higher than adult unemployment in almost every country for which data was available. In most of these countries youth unemployment was double adult unemployment and, in certain cases, even three times the adult rates. A second common factor of youth unemployment across countries is that it is strongly linked to adult unemployment. It was also found that upsets in the aggregate labor market that have a direct effect on adult unemployment have a more pronounced effect on youth employment. Youth unemployment can therefore not be separated from the aggregate unemployment situation; the general context will always have an influence on youth unemployment. Further, a link was found between (un)employment and economic growth, indicating that output growth is a precondition for employment growth, although the picture for this is clearer in developed countries than in some of the developing countries.

The three to one ratio of the youth-to-adult unemployment rate (ILO 2006) both throughout the World and in Africa clearly points out the substantial difficulties of youth participation in the labor market. Yet, the youth employment elasticity to GDP growth is low and only a fifth of that observed for all workers (Kapsos 2005). As a consequence, youth made up 43.7% of the total unemployed people in the world despite accounting for only 25% of the working population. More than one third of the youth in the world is either seeking but unable to find work, has given up on the job search entirely, or is working but still living below the \$2 a day poverty line. In Sub-Saharan Africa, 3 in 5 of the total unemployed are youth (ILO 2006) and on average 72% of the youth population live with less than \$2 a day (Table 5).

Table 5 Incidence of Poverty among young people in sub-Saharan Africa(in %)

country	less than US\$ 2 per day
Burundi, 1998	85.7
Côte d’Ivoire, 1998	46.5
Cameroon, 2001	49.1
Ethiopia, 2000	70.7
Ghana, 1998	66.5
Kenya, 1997	54.4
Madagascar, 2001	81.7
Mozambique, 1996	75.4
Malawi, 1997	66.3
Nigeria, 1996	92.9
Sierra Leone, 2003	68.0
Uganda, 1999	93.8
Zambia, 1998	86.3
SSA-13 (mean)	72.1
SSA-13 (median)	70.7

Source: World Bank Survey-Based Harmonized Indicators Program (SHIP).

Note: A person is considered poor if per capita total annual household expenditure divided by 365 falls below the poverty line. The “\$2-a-day” poverty line—\$2.17 per day in purchasing power parity (PPP) at 1993 prices—is defined as 2.17 times the product of the 1993 consumption PPP exchange rate and the ratio of the average consumer price index for the year of the survey to the average consumer price index for 1993. CPIs and PPP exchange rates were respectively taken from World Development Indicators 2007 and PovCalNet (World Bank).

Thus, the current world trend, the developing countries reality and particularly that of the Sub-Saharan reality indicates that youth unemployment is a serious challenge that requires different sets of policy and program interventions.

3.4 Causes of Higher Youth Unemployment

The preceding review of the available data clearly suggests much higher unemployment rates among the youth than among the older persons. The recent surveys reviewed do not, however, provide the requisite evidence on the factors contributing to the situation. Generally, unemployment arises whenever the supply of labour exceeds the demand for it at the prevailing wage rate (Adebayo, 1999). Causes of unemployment can therefore be analyzed from both the supply and the demand sides of the labour market. The few available literature indicate that acceleration of population growth and relative mortality decline, lack of employable skill under expansion of education, rural-urban migration are among the prominent ones in Ethiopian context.

The problem of lack of any training or work experience is compounded by the acceleration of the rate of growth of the youth population. On the supply side, the continued high fertility and the decline in mortality have increased the size of the cohorts of new entrants into the labour force because of the higher proportions of survivors to the ages of entry into the workforce. The decline in mortality also affects the demand for additional workers; it slows down the rate of attrition of the ranks of the already employed and therefore the rate of recruitment required replacing the deceased workers. Albeit, lower mortality is welcomed by all and it augments the productivity of the workforce and of the investments in their skills and training. It also raises the capacity of families to take care of the needs of the youth during their search for work opportunities.

Rapid growth in Ethiopia's population and labour force relative to formal sector employment has meant that many workers either enter the informal sector, part of which could reflect disguised unemployment, or are openly unemployed. The increase in the youthful population and increasing labour force participation has led to labour supply outstripping demand. Consequently, unemployment, especially among the youth, has surged. In particular, the urban population increased considerably faster than the rate of job creation in urban areas. This results in higher levels of unemployment in urban areas and informal sector employment with low earnings. Meanwhile, Goldstein and Hollister (1994) pointed out that the effect of the accelerated growth of population on Ethiopia's unemployment problem is multifaceted. Firstly, it affects the supply side through a high and rapid increase in labour force relative to the absorptive capacity of the economy. Secondly, the increase in the number of children in the population presently implies a serious burden.

Other supply-side factors are what some experts describe as inappropriate school curricula and lack of employable skills. Several analysts argue that in so far as the formal sector is concerned, the skills that job seekers possess do not match the needs and demands of employers in Ethiopia (McGraith and King, 1995, Asmare, 2005). It is argued that Ethiopia's education system, with its western bias, does not just over supply the labour market with graduates and school leavers, but also does not produce the type

of skills demanded in formal employment. Oni (1994) observed that high unemployment incidence of secondary school-leavers is a reflection of improper coordination of the educational system. Lambo (1987), criticized the government expenditure policy whereby most of government projects (industries and public utilities) were concentrated in urban areas at the utter neglect of the rural areas because of its tendency to encourage mass exodus of rural skilled and unskilled labour from villages into the urban centers thus causing urban unemployment.

Another important problem faced by the young work-seekers is their inexperience and the preference of the employers for experienced workers. The importance of this factor was suggested many years ago by scholars yet still persists showing a majority of the urban unemployed to be new entrants into the labour force or those seeking work for the first time. The latter category is almost synonymous with the youth, who formed a large proportion of the new entrant unemployed (McGraith and King, 1995, Asmare, 2005).

The problem, however, was less acute in rural than in urban areas because the new entrants did not encounter as much difficulty in beginning work on the family farm or in the family premise. The continuing dominance of the agriculture sector and of self-employment in the rural employment structure still permits many new entrants in the countryside to take up the family vocation without any formal training. The Ethiopian rural situation is also no longer static and the rural youth with a modicum of high school or college education have also begun to look for urban-type work opportunities, particularly those with a junior level qualification (Ibid).

There is no doubt that education is a major factor in influencing employability. An international forum on youth unemployment concluded that barriers to education, a lack of appropriate education and a mismatch between skills gained through education and job opportunities are contributing factors to youth unemployment (Abdullah, 1998). The OECD maintains that the high rates of youth unemployment can be largely attributed to the fact that numerous young people leave school without the skills needed to enter employment. An International Adult Literacy Survey also found 'employment and unemployment are strongly related to levels of literacy proficiency'. Meanwhile, the nature of work opportunities sought by the youth has also been changing because of the considerable growth in the number of high school and college graduates.

Ethiopia has been accelerating higher education access these days. While this substantial growth of higher education has got a paramount importance for the country's overall economic growth, is also accompanied by increasing difficulties in finding suitable employment by graduates in a variety of courses. This shows that there are imbalances between the supply and demand for these different categories of highly educated manpower. Therefore rapid expansion of our educational system first acts directly to increase the supply of educated manpower above the corresponding demand for them and consequently contributes its quota to the problem of urban youth unemployment in Ethiopia (Ibid). Therefore, when expansion of higher education is thought, the supply-demand balance has to be seriously taken care of in a bid to minimize youth unemployment.

Still on the supply side, there is the rapidly growing urban labour force arising from rural-urban migration. Adebayo (1999) stated that rural-urban migration is usually explained in terms of push-pull factors. The push factors include the pressure resulting from man-land ratio in the rural areas, and the existence of serious underemployment arising from seasonal cycle of climate. The factors are further strengthened in Ethiopia by lack of infrastructural facilities, which makes rural life unattractive. The pull factors include a wide rural-urban income differential in favour of urban dwellers and a presumed higher probability of securing lucrative employment in the cities. Added to these is the concentration of social amenities in the urban centers. This implies that the rural areas are neglected in the allocation of social and economic opportunities.

According to Sarr (2000), the United Nations report (1999), noted that youth migrants in Africa are three times more in number than other migrants wherein Ethiopia is no exception. The report also added that the urbanization rate of the youth was 32 per cent in 1990, compared to less than 25 percent for the non-youth population. It is estimated that by the year 2010, over 50 percent of the youths in Africa will be residing in urban areas where job opportunities are limited to few modern sectors and establishments.

Research findings further indicate that in most developing countries, the youth unemployment rate is high in urban areas than in rural areas. In rural areas most of youth are employed in subsistence agriculture and family based livelihood activities such as handcraft, shops, fishing, seaweed farming and tailoring. Agriculture being the biggest employer of the rural population, its performance is suboptimal due to several factors, which include unfavourable weather conditions, low use of improved agricultural technologies, poor extension and marketing systems etc. This brings the shift of young people from the rural sector to urban informal sector, which is characterized with low income, poor working conditions and hence unemployment rate increase in urban areas. The biggest challenge of rural areas therefore is the high underemployment rather than the high unemployment rates.

The factors that seem to contribute to the high underemployment rates are inadequate education achievements for rural youth. The unemployed are mostly better educated than the underemployed and hence are more urban based. Other contributing factors are inadequate infrastructure base (roads, power, water supply etc) and poor communication systems, which are more rural phenomenon. Though there are diverse rural livelihood opportunities in rural areas, most youths find them unattractive and not appealing to be engaged in. Many regard farming as a 'dirty activity' due lack of proper facilities. This has resulted to the fact that agriculture is regarded as an employer of the last resort to young people.

There is gender disparity with regards to livelihoods opportunities in rural areas of most Africa countries, Ethiopia is not an exception. In Ethiopia, rural young women are mostly engaged in food crops production, seaweed farming, weaving, and pottery. On the contrary, young men are mostly found engaging in cash crops farming, livestock keeping, petty trade and working as casual laborers. In terms of workload, women work for longer hours than men and are much at disadvantaged in terms of educational achievement and access to basic services such as credit, information and market.

Studies indicate that a vast majority of youth, both from urban and rural areas, consider migration not only as a coping mechanism to escape unemployment, it is an opportunity for rural young people to feel a sense of pride, self-respect, and be viewed as leaders within their family and their broader community. Young people view migration as an avenue to improve their status, learn new skills, and transit into adulthood. As a consequence, migration continues to serve as the means to improve rural livelihoods.

Youth are an integral component of the migrant population, both in terms of volume, and the effects they have on both their points of origin and destination. Estimates are that 15 percent (approximately 26 million) of the migrant population are youth (Touray 2006). Rural youth are particularly disadvantaged; with inadequately developed education and skills, many find limited employment opportunities in the cities. Most face a future of low-wage employment, unemployment, underemployment, poverty, drugs, and crime. The arrival of rural migrants worsens the situation by expanding the pool of young urban job seekers, which reduces the pressure on employers to offer competitive incomes and work standards to their workers.

Urban areas are becoming extremely overcrowded and overburdened, putting pressure on insufficient infrastructures, schools, health facilities, sanitation and water systems. This escalating urbanization has created a new context of poverty in which urban centers are overtaxed and unprepared to absorb increasing youth unemployment. In absolute numbers, youth unemployment becomes more prevalent in urban areas than rural areas.

The situation is worse for young women—many who have migrated to escape forced and early marriage—as they face particular barriers to the labor market, much of which are attributable to cultural attitudes of men. They may find work in domestic settings and in small businesses. More commonly, many girls are exploited because they are young, easily manipulated, unaware of their rights, and afraid to expose their negligent employers. In the worst of situations, they work fifteen hours a day, are beaten, badly fed, poorly paid, and become sex slaves to pay for their basic needs.

To reduce the rate and negative consequences of rapid rural youth migration to urban areas in pursuit of better prospects, policy efforts that empower and integrate rural youth into diversified agricultural-based activities are necessary. If governments were to commit to this investment, the desire to migrate would diminish. Rural youth could evolve into agents of change with the capacity to improve their living standards, which is considered essential to promote sustainable rural livelihoods. In this respect, the United Nations recommends that programmes of integrated rural development and re-orientation of economic activity and social investments towards the rural areas need to be embarked upon to create an appropriate rural-urban economic balance.

CHAPTER FOUR

4 YOUTH IN THE NATIONAL CONTEXT

In this section, we examine Ethiopia's unemployment rates particularly the youth unemployment rate, labour characteristics, profiles and natures of Ethiopian youth unemployment together with tendencies and discuss explanations that are usually cited for the youth unemployment problem.

4.1 Overview of the Economic and Labour Market Situation Ethiopia

Ethiopia is a nation with a burgeoning population of young people. According to the 2007 Central Statistics Report, the total population is estimated at 79,221,000 of which 50.1 % male and 49.9 % female. About 17 % of the total population is urban and the remaining 83 % is rural. About 50 % of the population is between the ages of 15 and 54 and 4 % of the population is over the age of 60 which are economically active. Female workforce participation accounted for nearly 50 per cent of the total workforce (Statistical Abstract, CSA,1007). Twenty three percent of the urban population resides in the capital, Addis Ababa; the remaining urban population is distributed in 10 regions and administrative centers.

The economy is characterized by its dualistic nature: the traditional small holding subsistence agriculture and the modern sector which consists of public employment, manufacturing and service sectors.

The agricultural sector economic activities are dominated by subsistence crop and livestock productions. Exportable agricultural commodities including sesame, coffee, cotton, vegetable and spices are also cultivated in many parts of the country. In 2006/2007, the agricultural sector contributed 45 % to GDP and accounted for 80 percent of all exports, mainly coffee, oilseeds and processed and semi-processed hides and skins. Youth are of the main actors of the economic activity.

The modern economic activity is concentrated in urban areas. The sector includes all sizes of manufacturing agro processing industries, such as textile, beverage and food processing, construction, quarrying and service sector. The service sector activities are dominated by distributive and non production services including retail, hotel, health, education, banking and finance. In 2006/2007, manufacturing, mining, trade, tourism, construction, services and others made up 55 percent of GDP.

Despite significant achievements in poverty reduction and employment generation, the country still suffers widespread poverty, unemployment or underemployment, and social exclusion. Large inequalities persist between rural and urban areas, formal and informal economies, State and private sectors, women and men, youth and adults. Roughly 80 per cent of the population is rural-based, but the attractions of urban life – foremost among them the availability of wage employment – have brought immense pressures to bear on urban labour markets. The challenges faced by the government are, therefore, two-fold: to create sufficient employment opportunities in rural areas to slow the overwhelming influx of rural youth into the cities; and to assist those in cities to find suitable jobs. In the meantime, labour market institutions, employment services, unemployment security, and

labour market information systems remain underdeveloped and are in need of strengthening as well as updating.

Over 36 percent of the urban population lives below absolute poverty line and urban unemployment rate is estimated at 16 percent. 70.7 percent of youth (aged 15-24) live below 2 birr a day (World Bank, 2009). Unemployment is the highest in the age group 15-19 years and age group 20-24 which constitute about 40%. About 80 percent of employed youth work in the informal sector, many of whom are unpaid family workers. Unemployment rate for women is higher than men both in urban and rural areas.

Self employment represents about 42 % of the total employment in the country, followed by government or public sector employment (18 %). Private business employment accounts for about 15.7 % of the total formal sector employment. The informal sector contribution to the GNP was estimated up to 40 % and its share of total employment is estimated at 70 %.

Generally, the capacity of the Ethiopian economy is small to absorb the growing labor force entering the market at various levels of the system. Over the past ten years, the urban economy grew at an annual rate of approximately 2 percent per capita, significantly lower than the average urban population growth. The highest growth was registered within the service sector, banking and insurance (9 percent), health and education (8 and 7 percent respectively), transport and communication (7 percent). Within industry sub sector, construction grew at 8 percent while manufacturing growth was limited to 3 percent.

4.1.1 Activity status of working age population of Ethiopia

The working-age population in Ethiopia includes persons between 15 and 64 years. According to estimates by the LFS of 2006, the working-age population in 2005/06 was close to 29.4 million (Table 6). These estimates are based on the latest Integrated Labour Force Survey, and the latest national census by CSA (2007). The largest rise in working-age population was among the youth (15-29 years), which accounted for 21.5% of the working age population which is estimated at 17 million. This indicates that Ethiopia is a country dominated by youth population (table 6). This latest statistical figure indicates that the working age population has substantially increased in recent years.

Table 6 Distribution of population aged 15-64, by activity status (CSA, 2007, LFS, 2006)

Age Group	All Persons	Activity Status			Activity Rate
		Active	Non-Active	Not Stated	
All ages	34,151,046	28310061	5805092	35,893	82.9
10 – 14	6473821	4412254	2053854	7713	68.16
15 – 19	5258355	4192717	1061869	3769	79.73
20 – 24	4062811	3584740	475528	2543	88.23
25 – 29	3876744	3549251	322,454	5039	91.55
30 – 34	2969629	2754737	211,622	3270	92.76
35 – 39	2634666	2417922	216,721	23	91.77
40 – 44	1951767	1817521	134,246	0	93.12
45 – 49	1788409	1654593	133,147	669	92.52
50 – 54	1382964	1211515	168,950	2499	87.60

55 – 59	1027390	898,049	128,672	669	87.41
60 – 64	954605	760,325	193,565	715	79.65
65+	1769885	1056437	704,464	8984	59.69

Young people aged 15 to 34 accounts for a large percent of the overall population in Ethiopia. Those aged 15 – 29 who were engaged in economic activities accounted for 35 per cent of the total work force in Ethiopia.

4.1.2 Labour Force Participation Rates

A person in the working-age population is classified as employed, unemployed or inactive (not in the labour force). Those persons that are employed or unemployed are counted as labour force participants. According to LFS (2005) estimates, 32.2 million were in the labour force as opposed to the absolute size of the national labour force was estimated at 12.9 million people in 1984 (Table 7)

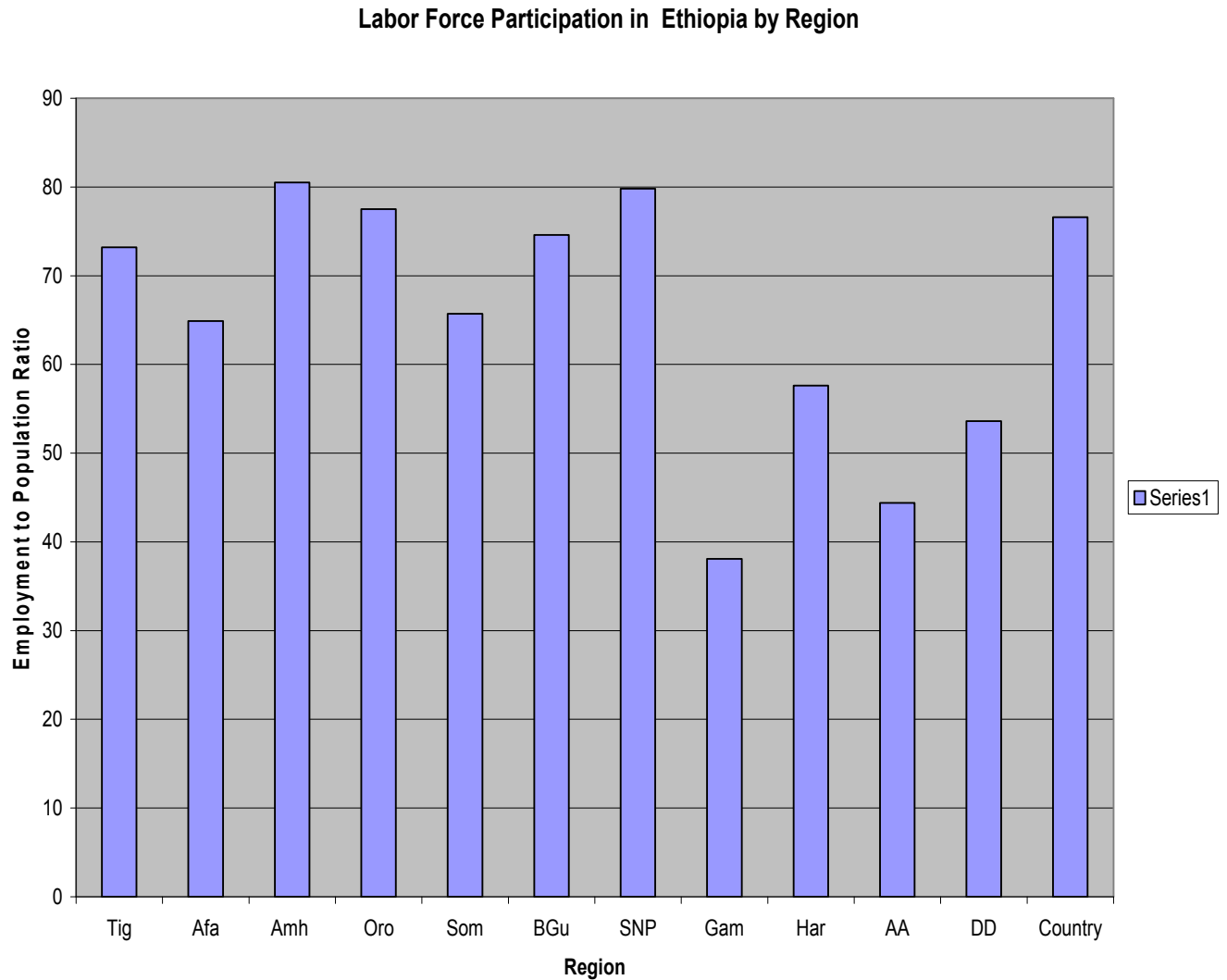
Population growth has resulted in an annual addition of about 2 million members to the labour force. With an annual average increase of 3.2 per cent, the labour force rate can be estimated at 40 million by 2010. Unless the demand for labour concomitantly expands, such fast growth in the supply of labour force exacerbates the inadequate employment situation in the country.

Table 7 Labour force participation in Ethiopia by sex and age i (LFS, 2005)

Age Group	Total Population (Aged 10+)			Total Employed Pop. (Aged 10+)			Empl't to Pop'n Ratio		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All Ages	41,018,088	19,908,690	21109398	31435106	16860263	14,574,843	76.6	84.7	69.0
10 – 14	7,581,474	3924398	3657076	4701962	2750,213	1951,749	62.0	70.1	53.4
15 – 19	6,682,197	3236178	3446019	4529957	2369406	2160,551	67.8	73.2	62.7
20 – 24	5,030,593	2245,948	2784645	3994400	1940589	2053811	79.4	86.4	73.8
25 – 29	4703,302	2079,790	2623,512	3984752	1933937	2050815	84.7	93.0	78.2
30 – 34	3526,121	1739901	1786,220	3109,768	1677311	1432457	88.2	96.4	80.2
35 – 39	3151,058	1516002	1635,056	2755208	1462279	1292929	87.4	96.5	79.1
40 – 44	2,311,866	1121,441	1190425	2079718	1097,201	982,517	90.0	97.8	82.5
45 – 49	2,094,089	997086	1097003	1860466	970,187	890,279	88.2	97.3	81.2
50 – 54	1,595,000	746,168	848832	1360611	712,185	648,426	85.3	95.5	76.4
55 – 59	1,189,716	599,221	590495	996,821	566,493	430,328	83.8	94.5	72.9
60 – 64	1,100,049	569,097	530,952	851,811	527,931	323,880	77.4	92.8	61.0
65+	2,052,623	1,133,460	919,163	1209,632	852,531	357,101	58.9	75.2	38.9

The labour force participation rates by region are presented in table 8. Labour force participation varies across regions in the country. The labour force participation distribution is highest and lowest in Oromiya and Gambella regions respectively. Labour force rates are higher in urban than rural areas. This clearly shows the inevitable employment dynamics difference among regions some are more potential to mobilize huge labour force than others.

Table 8 Labour force participation in Ethiopia by Region (LFS, 2005)



4.1.3 Ethiopia's workforce by Sector

In 2005/2006, 63.2 million (80.2 percent) of Ethiopian labour force was engaged in agricultural self-employment, 7.3 million in the informal sector employment and 2.7 million in formal sector employment. This was 50 per cent, 36 per cent and 14 per cent, of the employed labour force respectively (Pollin, et al., 2007). The largest category within the informal sector is paid employees. It should be noted that these workers are outside the industrial relations and labour regulation system. The authors also show that these workers generally have lower earnings than in the formal sector.

Table 9 Labour force participation in Ethiopia sector (LFS, 2005)

Major Industrial Divisions	Urban + Rural			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total Employed Population	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry	80.2	84.3	75.5	13.0	15.9	9.6	88.5	92.7	83.6
Mining & Quarrying	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2
Manufacturing	4.9	2.6	7.5	14.3	13.2	15.5	3.7	1.3	6.5
Construction	1.4	2.1	0.7	5.4	8.3	2.1	0.9	1.3	0.5
Wholesale & retail trade, Repair of Vehicles, Personal & Household Goods	5.2	3.9	6.8	21.8	20.3	23.4	3.2	1.9	4.7
Hotels & Restaurants	2.5	0.6	4.6	10.8	3.4	19.2	1.4	0.2	2.8
Transport & Communication	0.5	0.8	0.1	3.5	5.9	0.7	0.1	0.2	0.0
Financial Inter-mediation	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Real Estate, Renting Business & Activities	0.2	0.2	0.1	1.4	1.8	0.9	0.0	0.1	0.0
Public Administration, Defense, Com. Social Security	1.2	1.4	0.9	7.1	9.1	4.8	0.4	0.5	0.4
Education, Health and Social work	1.2	1.3	0.9	6.5	7.2	5.7	0.5	0.6	0.4
Other Social, Personal & Household Activities	1.4	1.8	0.9	7.6	10.3	4.6	0.6	0.8	0.5
Private Households with Employed Persons	0.8	0.1	1.6	5.9	1.1	11.3	0.2	0.0	0.3
Extra-Territorial Organizations and Bodies	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.7	0.9	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1
Not Stated	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0

4.2 Profile of Ethiopian Youth

4.2.1 Youth Demographic Trends

Ethiopia is a nation with a burgeoning population of young people. Population censuses and projections conducted in different years show that youth constitute a high proportion of the Ethiopian population. The latest Population censuses (table 10) indicates that youth comprise more 20 million which is close to 30% of the total population.

Table 10. Profile of Youth Population (15 – 29) of Ethiopia by Sex and Region (2007, Census)

Region And Age Group	Urban + Rural			Urban			Rural		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total (15-29)	20,893,473	10,216,255	10,677,218	4,730,034	2,302,975	2,427,059	16,163,439	4,383,789	8,250,159
Tigray	1,144,739	548,207	596,532	297,943	133,890	164,053	846,796	414,317	432,479
Afar	420,608	236,988	183,620	68,829	34,853	33,976	351,779	202,135	149,644
Amhara	4,854,892	2,381,031	2,473,861	871,816	422,211	449,605	3,983,076	1,958,820	2,024,256
Oromiya	7,387,256	3,599,742	3,787,514	1,322,504	672,671	649,833	6,064,752	2,927,071	3,137,681
Somali	1,347,643	757,722	589,921	199,732	109,736	89,996	1,147,911	647,986	499,925
Bens. Gum	200,866	95,802	105,064	37,966	18,381	19,585	162,900	77,421	85,479

SNNPR	4,069,916	1,928,711	2,141,205	603,068	311,772	291,296	3,466,848	1,616,939	1,849,909
Gambella	100,130	49,449	50,681	31,033	16,095	14,938	69,097	33,354	35,743
Harari	58,156	28,264	29,892	36,359	17842	18517	21797	10422	11345
A. Ababa	1,163,401	517,656	645,745	1,163,401	517,656	645,745	-	-	-
Dire Dawa	71985	55,614	59,569	58,143	28,070	44,978	27,862	13,271	9410

Although the majority (84%) of the youth population still resides in rural areas, the proportion of urban youth has shown some growth over the last two decades (14 per cent in 1984 compared to 17 per cent in 1994 and 18 per cent in 2007). Thus the proportion of youth living in urban centers is higher than the proportion of the total population residing in rural centers. This might reflect the higher propensity of youth to migrate. If rural urban migration continues with this rate, however, the UN estimates which says by 2025 almost half of all East Africans will be living in cities may fulfill (Hope 1998).

The absolute size of the youth population and the proportion of young people as compared to the total population have been growing over time. The number of youth population in 1984, 1994 and 2005 was 8.6 million (20% of the total population), 14.1 million (26%) and 20.7(28%) million respectively (Abraham and Hannah, 2005). The average population growth is estimated at 2.9 % and urban population growth is projected at 4.9 % percent per annum. Thus, over the past two decades, youth population increased by 7.3 per cent per year on average as depicted in table 11 below.

Table 11 Youth population (in millions) (CSA 1991, 1999. 2009)

	1984		1994		2007	
	In million	%of polulation	In million	%of polulation	In million	%of polulation
Youth	8.6	20	14.1	26	20.9	28.5

As to the civil status of the Ethiopian youth, the proportion of married youth of both sexes has declined from about 52 per cent in 1984 to 35 per cent in 1999 and close to 33 percent in 2007 . The proportion of married teenagers was about 32 per cent in 1984, and declined to 20 per cent in 1999 and further declined to 17 percent in 2007. The proportion of married girls is higher than that of married young men and the proportion of married youth is higher in rural areas than in urban areas; 17 per cent in urban areas compared to 39 per cent of the youth in rural areas (CSA 1991, 1999. 2009).

The current youth literacy rate is 57.4% which still is one of the least in Africa. Yet it is better than adult that of adult literacy rate which is 41.5%. Meanwhile, gender disparities are high; the illiteracy rate among female youths is 71 per cent compared to only 51 per cent among male youth. Thus, a larger percentage of urban young women remain illiterate, and a lower percentage achieves education beyond general education. However, the percentages for the completion of primary education and of general education are quite

similar between young men and women. Overall, it is evident that urban youth are better educated than their rural counterparts, and the gender gap in attainment has reduced.

The education curriculum that had been in use in our country until the recent past was crammed with subjects that would not help in making any significant contribution to the overall development of youth and has not taken into consideration the country's objective socio-economic conditions. This situation can be accounted for lack of flexibility of the type of education depending on the demand of the labour market and poor quality of education in public schools. Currently, however, education and training program that could temper out those problems have been established and are put under implementation. But, evidences indicate that the education and training system could not benefit the entire youth due to problems of implementation and shortage of capacity (NYPE, 2004, MOE, 2006).

4.2.2 Youth participation in the labor market

The Ethiopian youth participation in the labor market is characterized by an ever increasing dynamics. The activity rate for the youth was 64 per cent in 1984, 73 per cent in 1994 and 78 per cent in 1999 and 86.5 per cent in 2005. The participation rate of youth in the labour market increased significantly between 1984 and 1994 and slightly exceeded the participation rate for all age groups. The proportion of the youth in the total labour force increased from 24 per cent in 1984 to 33 per cent in 1999 and 39 per cent in 2005. Thus more than a third of the country's total labour force was the youth in 2005 as depicted in table 12 below.

Table 12. Youth Labour force participation in Ethiopia by sex and age in %(15 and29)

Regions	Total Youth Population			Total Employed Youth (15 – 29)			Empl't to Pop'n Ratio		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Country (15 – 29)	16,416,092	7,561,916	8,854,176	12,509,109	6,243,932	6,265,177			
15 – 19	6682197	3236178	3446019	4529957	2369406	2160551	67.8	73.2	62.7
20 – 24	5030593	2245948	2784645	3994400	1940589	2053811	79.4	86.4	73.8
25 – 29	4,703,302	2,079,790	2,623,512	3,984,752	1,933,937	2,050,815	84.7	93.0	78.2

As seen in the table above the participation of male youth exceeds the participation of female youth. Factors that explain the gender gap are underreporting of female participation in the labour force and the large proportion of women that marry at a young age. Moreover, discrimination against hiring of women contributes to this situation (World Bank, 2006).

4.2.3 Youth unemployment Trends

Comparing the available data of 1984, 1994, 1999 and 2005 of LFS(table 11 below), the data indicates that the rate of youth unemployment more than doubled between each period 4.92 %, 9.01% and 6.8% and 11.5 respectively .Moreover, unemployed youth accounted for 52 per cent, 67 per cent and 57 per cent of total unemployment in 1994, 1999 and 2005 respectively. This shows the increasing trend of youth unemployment in Ethiopia (table 13).

Table 13: Trends of Youth Unemployment Rate in Ethiopia (1994 – 2005)

Description	1994	1999	2005
Total Unemployment			
No. of unemployed people	770,842	2,198,789	1,653,686
Unemployment Rate (%)	2.91	8.06	5.0
Teenage Unemployment (15-19 year olds)			
No. of unemployed people	179,447	493,576	183,924
Unemployment Rate (%)	4.33	11.36	7.2
Young Adults Unemployment (20-24 year olds)			
No. of unemployed people	219,168	452,460	529,560
Unemployment Rate (%)	6.58	12.72	8.4
Youth Unemployment (15-29 year olds)			
No. of unemployed people	519,925	1,260,177	1,004,595
Unemployment Rate (%)	4.92	9.01	6.8

Like the entire population, the majority of youth live in rural areas. Rural participation rates were much higher than urban participation rates. Available data further indicate that Open youth unemployment appears to be characteristic of urban centres, and rose steadily between 1999 and 2005. In contrast, the youth unemployment rate in rural areas was only 0.7 per cent in 1984, 1.2 per cent in 1994 and 7.2 per cent in 1999 and 7.6 in 2005. Unemployment rate for women is higher than men both in urban and rural areas. The average employment rate is 56 percent (LFS 1984, 1994,1999,2005) .

To conclude, despite significant achievements in poverty reduction and employment generation, the country still suffers widespread poverty, unemployment or underemployment, and social exclusion. Large inequalities persist between rural and urban areas, formal and informal economies, state and private sectors, women and men, youth and adults. Roughly 80 per cent of the population are rural-based, but the attractions of urban life – foremost among them the availability of wage employment – have brought immense pressures to bear on urban labour markets. The challenges faced by the government are, therefore, two-fold: to create sufficient employment opportunities in rural areas to slow the overwhelming influx of rural youth into the cities; and to assist those in cities to find suitable jobs. In the meantime, labour market institutions, employment services, unemployment security, and labour market information systems remain underdeveloped and are in need of strengthening as well as updating.

CHAPTER FIVE

5 UNEMPLOYMENT ALLEVIATION POLICIES AND INITIATIVES

One objective of this study is to assess the service available to the youth particularly related to alleviation of youth unemployment and marginalization. To identify appropriate interventions, policies and programmes, it is important to take stock of policy, regulatory and operational efforts by stakeholders in addressing the problem of unemployment. This section reviews and assesses national and international initiatives of various stakeholders. The section begins with a brief description of the stakeholders' responsible for unemployment alleviation policies and initiatives in Ethiopia followed by a systematic analysis to implement the corresponding policies and programs. The stakeholder analyses are expected to inform stakeholders' engagement strategies.

5.1 Stakeholder Analysis

The study tried to identify key unemployment stakeholders and assess their interests. There found numerous national and international stakeholders. The primary stakeholders include: the Federal Republic Government of Ethiopia; Youth Associations, Chambers of Commerce and Sectoral Associations; Employer Associations, International Labour Organization (ILO); and youth themselves. Other stakeholders are NGOs, CSOs, faith-based organizations, educational and training institutions, and communities. *Appendix Vi* presents a detailed list of the broad primary and secondary stakeholders.

5.2 Youth Unemployment Related Policies, Strategies and Alleviation Initiatives

The development of youth human resources is seen as a decisive factor for the achievement of industrialization and modernization by the government. This has given rise to a variety of special policies for youth in the fields of health and physical education, employment promotion and income generation, education and training, mobilization and utilization of human resources; and international integration.

Based on the national policies and available working environments, there found numerous initiatives that the government and the other stakeholders have put in place to tackle youth unemployment and to avail services for the youth. Most initiatives exclusively directed towards the youth, perhaps because youth unemployment is viewed as a larger problem. It should be borne in mind that so many organizations and agencies are involved in unemployment alleviation initiatives that it would be impractical to complete a census of all the initiatives. Therefore, this section attempts to summarize a few key policies and initiatives.

5.2.1 National Youth Policy of Ethiopia and sector Initiatives

Youth all over the world increasingly emerges as a specific social category, which is laden with risk and uncertainty. The pronounced difficulties young people experience in terms of their socio-economic, political and cultural inclusion in an ever more volatile world are the subject of wide-spread concern at both the national and international level.

Since the ways in which these challenges are addressed by policies will not only shape the present but profoundly determine the future of any country, the need for an adequate policy relating to young people arises as one of the highest priorities of a society. Every country thus needs effective strategies able to help young people to make the right choices, protect them from exploitation and neglect and ensure their participation in all spheres of society. To address some of these issues more seriously and to take a strong stand in support of their young people, each country is urged by UNESCO to develop a long-term, consensus-based, integrated and cross-sectoral youth policy.

The Ethiopian National Youth Policy was endorsed at the 100th Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Council of Ministers regular meeting that was held on March 12, 2004. It emphasizes creating an enabling environment for the young in participation of the democratization and the development effort of the country, to build the capacity of the young so as to make them more employable, to create network between the young and different groups of the society, etc. The National Youth Policy of Ethiopia aims at "enabling youth to participate in an organized manner, in the process of building a democratic system, good governance and development endeavors and benefit fairly from the outcomes." It, as well, states MSEs to be the main employment creation instruments for the youth. The Policy, several measures to tackle youth unemployment are highlighted. These include:

- Encouraging companies to offer temporary employment, internship and volunteer opportunities to the youth;
- Encouraging the establishment of agricultural production and cottage industries, and informal sector employment;
- Encouraging the government, civil society organizations and the private sector to provide friendly micro-finance credit facilities and to develop business incubators and mentorship for the youth;
- Imparting accessible and affordable education and vocational skills; and,
- Building entrepreneurial and business and leadership capacity of the youth

Other plans include job creation for the youth in sports, youth-led government ministries and youth-led departments. The government also plans to develop rural infrastructure and introduce agricultural demonstration farms to encourage the youth to seek employment or self employment in the rural areas as opposed to looking for employment in the urban areas.

The Ministry of Youth, Culture and Sports was established to represent and address concerns of the youth in Ethiopia to utilize their full potential. The mandate of the Ministry is to (i) design policies and programmes; (ii) facilitate training of youth with the main focus being the revival of youth polytechnics and providing training in leadership and entrepreneurship skills; and (iii) coordinate youth organizations in Ethiopia to ensure orderly structures, collaborations and networking. The Ministry's strategic themes are: employment, empowerment and participation.

Document review indicated that while the policy is quite ideal and accommodative to address youth unemployment and marginalization challenges, there is significant capacity constraints on the part of the implementing sector bodies (MYSC , regional bureaus and lower level offices) to do so. In addition, it:

- Lack of implementation capacity

- Lack of infrastructure to reach out the youth
- Budget constraints as Ethiopian youth population are too huge.

5.2.2 SME strategy and Initiatives

The important role of micro and small-scale enterprises as a source of income and employment to poor households is a widely acknowledged fact in many developing countries.

The role of Micro and Small Enterprises to the creation of jobs and to the alleviation of poverty has also increasingly been appreciated by many developing countries. MSEs in these countries are the predominant features of their economy. Detailed surveys in a number of these countries suggest that as many as a quarter of all people of working age are engaged in micro and small enterprise activities (Mead and Liedholm, 1998). In addition, micro and small enterprises are the basis for large industrial development. It is these small industries that did develop to medium and large size factories in many of the today's industrialized nations. Of particular interest is the process of expansion of these enterprises from very small to medium size, as it is when they become medium sized, that growth-oriented small and medium enterprises make their most tangible contribution to economic growth and job creation (UNCTAD, 2000). It was found out that the issues of Small-Scale Enterprises (SSEs) have stimulated so much interest among donor agencies, governments, non-governmental organizations, policy makers, development analysts, etc. to the extent that all are very much concerned with the promotion and development of SSEs (Andu-Alem, 1997). In recent years, investment in the agricultural sector has led to productivity gains. Furthermore, the Ethiopian government has focused on creating micro and small enterprises, based on their potential to create employment opportunities, as spelled out in the Industrial Development Strategy of the country. To this end, the micro and small enterprises strategy was ratified and came to implementation.

The strategy paper emphasizes that small business is to be designated a priority sector for the government, in terms of policy formulation, direct support from its own resources and in the mobilization of external resources. The strategy addresses the major constraints, which have made it difficult for small business growth on their own, and hence it focuses on support areas. The support areas that the strategy paper incorporates are:

- Creating an enabling legal framework. This implies that the government is committed to pass a number of enabling proclamations that are meant to formally recognize the importance given to the micro and small enterprises sector and to facilitate policy implantation in different areas.
- Streamlining regulatory conditions. This is based on the viewpoint that in appropriate or unduly restrictive legislative and regulatory conditions are often regarded as critical constraints on micro and small enterprises' access to market and as obstacles to their growth.
- Other specific support areas/programmes. In addition to creating a favorable legal environment for the sector, the government is entitled to launch a series of support programmes to help these businesses overcome the specific commercial obstacles they face and exploit available opportunities effectively.

The strategy emphasizes that as the MSE sector is highly diversified and characterized by an enormous number of problems at various degree and complexity, it is not possible to

address the whole range of MSEs operating in different sectors at the same time. Thus, it is necessary to target certain groups of MSEs for the support programmes. Even though, the identification and selection of priority target beneficiary MSEs depend on the specific conditions about the potentials of the regions, it is believed that, as identified by the Federal and regional ReMSEDA, the following criteria shall be the main yardsticks for prioritizing the target MSEs.

- MSEs which are based on local raw materials and/or labor-intensive (local resource based)
- MSEs which have greater intra and inter-sectoral linkages (particularly those having higher linkage with agriculture)
- MSEs, which are engaged in import substitution and with a potential for export.
- MSEs engaged in activities that facilitate and promote tourism, etc.
- MSEs engaged in activities, which does not affect but rehabilitate the environment.
- MSEs engaged in activities and having a potential of creativity on the process of production and providing services.
- MSEs engaged in activities and having a potential of creativity on the process of production and providing services.

The vastness and complexity of the small and micro enterprises sector combined with serious financial and human resource constraints with respect to support programs and policies, necessitates focuses on target measures and beneficiaries. This implies that support measures have to be sectorally differentiated and packaged (in terms of finance, technology, information, training, market outlet, etc.) to address the various problems of MSEs. Such target support packages will be designed by the regional agency in collaboration with other partners/stakeholders, the private sector, NGOs and the public at large. One of the strengths of this strategy is its being accommodative to collaboration of other stakeholders.

The Strategy identifies the important role that these enterprises could play in absorbing the young people graduating from schools and colleges. The Federal Micro and Small Enterprise Development Strategy Agency (FeMSEDA) oversees the promotion of micro and small enterprises development, while the direct support and promotional activities are carried out by institutions established at the Regional States (ReMSEDA). Over the past few years the Regional Governments have promoted MSEs by providing training and counseling, finance and credit facilities, organizational support, production and marketing space, market facilities and raw material supplies (FMSEDO 2008).

MSE's currently constitute 90 per cent of industrial employment. (Appendix xii presents some data for six Regional States regarding two of the crucial forms of support (credit facilities and working space) provided to MSEs to accelerate their development mainly since 2004. Addis Ababa, Amhara, Tigray, Oromia, South, and Dire Dawa Regions together provided multi-million dollars in credit to small and micro enterprises. In addition, the MSE Development Agencies have undertaken market support, business development services, training and counselling support for micro and small enterprises.

Document review indicated that the policy is quite comprehensive, ideal and accommodative to address youth unemployment and marginalization challenges.

Regional MSEDAs' agencies have extended their structures to the kebele level and have been successful in addressing the youth unemployment challenges. However, the implementation leaves much to address the huge youth unemployment problems. The agencies and the implementation have the following bottlenecks:

- Rigid project package which do not accommodate the flexible nature of market
- Youth are too dynamic to bind by the strict rules and regulations of the agencies.
- Project duplication
- Lack of implementation capacity
- Serious resource constraints

5.2.3 TEVT strategy and Initiatives

In order to better prepare youth for the labour market situation, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) has been provided as one key unemployment alleviation strategy. VET is an "Education which is mainly designed to lead participants to acquire the practical skills, know-how and understanding necessary for employment in a particular occupation or trade or class of occupations or trades" (UNESCO, 1997). Since the end of the Second World War such education has been provided in the wide range of settings by multiple providers, both in public and private sectors in many countries through out the world in order to produce a work force to facilitate development.

When we consider its trend, TVET used to enjoy a favorable position in the 1960s and 1970s in the post-colonial sub-Saharan Africa. International development agencies, particularly the World Bank, had also played a significant role in popularizing the TVET system in various African countries. Nevertheless, in the following decades TVET has come under strong criticism, and both national and international support has declined considerably. Yet a number of unprecedented developments in the last decade such as globalization processes, technological change and increased competition, have made the role of TVET even more crucial. Consequently, in recent years, TVET has come back to claim a place of importance on the agendas of many international organizations and donor agencies" (Altinyelken, 2007). In low developed Sub-Saharan African countries, the percentage of poor people in population has rather increased in 2000s after the adoption of the poverty reduction frameworks. And also the level of unemployment in youth, who have completed basic education, has up risen in comparison with the level of unemployment in whole population. This means that population with the completion of basic education has not been efficiently absorbed into the labor market and the expansion of basic education is not enough to produce capable and employable workforce. For these reasons, World Bank recognizes the importance of balancing between the expansion of basic education and enhancement of TVET. International Labor Organization: ILO, and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization: UNESCO also announced overall TVET support policy. World Bank, ILO and UNESCO approach TVET improvement from different aspects: macro economy, labor and ideal education respectively.

Likewise, Ethiopia, an African country suffering under deep-rooted, severe poverty, has renewed its interest in TVET. Here, it is considered a key to enhancing economic competitiveness and for contributing to social inclusion, decent employment and income

and poverty reduction. Hence, in early 2000s, the national TVET strategy was set, and a radical reform program was undertaken to improve efficiency and effectiveness of TVET delivery system by mainly re-organizing the system structure. The overall objective of the National TVET Strategy is stated as “to create a competent, motivated, adaptable and innovative workforce in Ethiopia contributing to poverty reduction and social and economic development through facilitating demand-driven, high quality technical and vocational education and training, relevant to all sectors of the economy, at all levels and to all people.” This is more specifically stated as the National TVET Strategy aims to:

- Create and further develop a comprehensive, integrated, outcome-based and decentralized TVET system for Ethiopia.
- Strengthen TVET institutions in view of making them Centres for Technology Capability, Accumulation & Transfer.
- Create a coherent framework for all actors and stakeholders in the TVET system
- Establish and capacitate the necessary institutional set-up to manage and implement TVET in ensuring quality management system (QMS)
- Improve the quality of TVET (formal and non-formal) at all levels and make it responsive to the needs of the labour market
- Facilitate the expansion of relevant TVET offers which are crucial to national development
- Strengthen the private training provision and encourage enterprises to participate in the TVET system
- Empower women and rural people through skills development
- Ensure equal access of women and people with special needs to TVET
- Strengthen the culture of self-employment and support job creation in the economy, in particular in the emerging regions
- Develop a sustainable financing system for TVET with efficient and cost-effective delivery systems and management structures
- Build the necessary human capacities to effectively manage and implement TVET

For guiding the development and implementation of the TVET system, the following guiding principles are also stated in the TVET strategy.

- Demand orientation i.e. consideration of responding to the competence needs and qualification requirements in the labour market.
- Quality relevance: Striving for the highest quality and relevance of TVET provisions.
- Equal access and equal opportunity: Increasing access to learning opportunities for all target groups while ensuring quality.
- Pathways: Creating the possibilities of career progression and continuation of learners.
- Flexibility responding to the changing occupational requirement and accommodating different demands of various groups.
- Life long learning: Extending opportunities for all time learning.

- Gender sensitivity: Providing access to females to all TVET programs.
- Contributing to fight against HIV/AIDS: Awareness creation and training about preventive measures in all programs.
- Contributing to environmental protection.

In 2005, the Ethiopian and German governments jointly launched an ambitious reform program: The Engineering Capacity Building Program (ecbp), as a cooperative development project, aimed at accelerating industrial development and the improvement of local conditions for private sector development in Ethiopia. Reform of TVET system is one of the major four missions of ecbp. This radical and overall five year TVET reforming strategy was designed and disclosed in 2007.

In PASDEP plan, the following two topics are considered as central ways to fight against poverty:

- Commercialization of agriculture
- Economic growth through private sector development

Thus, PASDEP expects TVET to produce work force for the success of the plan implementation. The initiative played a crucial role in producing youth with practical skill to fit the labor market and to create their own enterprises. Although it requires an empirical assessment, many scholars believe the TVET strategy to lack explicit measures tackling major constraints on the ground level, including problems such as low settlement rates of human resources, and transient labor and skills.

Besides, Ethiopian TVET delivery system had had negative reputation on its output in the past. TVET graduates were considered as technicians with low caliber mainly because of the lack of proper facilities and skilled teaching staff. Although the strategic direction of TVET was to meet its output and market needs, the strategy resulted in serious mismatch between them. Hence many of TVET graduates remained incompatible to the labor market. To alleviate the situation, Ethiopian government commenced the technical teacher training department in Addis Ababa University and Kotobe Teacher Training College in 1970s, and conducted holistic TVET reform program in early 2000s. However, according to the report from Ministry of Education (2007), the situation is still the same. It says that Ethiopian TVET delivery system provides low quality and low relevant training to trainees. As a consequence, workforce produced lacks competency and demand in the labor market.

In 2007, Joint Review Mission took place to review the overall progress of the over all Education Sector Development Program (ESDP) implementation for the last 10 years with special attention to the question in how far the education system in Ethiopia is demand driven and how this could be improved. With regard to TVET, Joint Review Mission examined current situation and reports the results as follows:

- In most of the regions demand for TVET admission was reported to exceed supply, to a considerable extent in general.
- The Student to Teacher Ratio has been steadily increasing nationally, which indicates worsening of quality. Thus growth of the number of teachers is superior to the increase of enrolment
- Adding to the inadequate conditions in terms of classroom space, equipment and materials the situation regarding teachers is worrying. Difficulties in getting

qualified teachers was reported and teachers were said to often be professionally under-qualified and technically ill-equipped to carry out the intended trainings, a serious problem for education where 70% is supposed to be practical training. Also qualified teachers were said to be insufficiently prepared. Weaknesses were said to be more in particular on the pedagogical and practical levels.

- At TVET institutions, the levels of information, preparation and implementation of the new outcome-based modular curriculum are different and at least part of institutions is not yet prepared to play the role that is expected from them. The changes that are foreseen and that need to be properly managed are far reaching and an intensive involvement of institutions and through explanation preparation of staff are required in order to prepare them for the new role they are expected to play. Activities have been undertaken to prepare institutions but apparently this has not been sufficient and attention is needed for the improvement of the management of the change process.
- The traditional TVET curriculum favors theoretical instruction and it is not workplace and labor market oriented.
- The apprenticeship, an unquestionably world of work oriented element, does not have satisfactory results because it is not properly fleshed out in practice, partly due to employer's attitude to not create the appropriate conditions for gathering good work experience.
- Educational linkage between first cycle secondary education and TVET is hardly present.
- Between TVET and the World of Work official and institutionalized mechanisms at high level between TVET and the World of Work which would enhance demand orientation are not present yet.
- The preparedness of students entering from general secondary education into TVET is considered insufficient by TVET staff in particular for the subjects of English and mathematics.
- The availability of adequate and appropriate instruction materials and equipment is insufficient in many public TVET institutions, more in particular in the technical fields.
- The "white collar" professions are in high demand and have the highest reputation in society. Common disdain of TVET and blue-collar works, poor image of both TVET training and TVET teachers and ignorance of job opportunities restrict students from considering vocational education and training as a viable option. This perception of TVET is a significant obstacle for the development of TVET into a high quality education tool in support to Ethiopia's development

In conclusion, the main development objective of the Ethiopian Government is poverty eradication. Hence, the country's development policies and strategies are geared towards this end. The government's policy initiative to foster TVET in a bid to eradicate poverty in general and to foster youth employment creation in particular is quite commendable yet the practical implementation leaves too much to be desired. This is mainly due to the low quality of technical and vocational trainings. Graduates are not skilled enough to create jobs on their own; nor are they fit for employment. The implication is that unless need based quality manpower is produced and the economy concomitantly expands to absorb the increasing number of young graduates, young educated unemployment could

prevail as a new feature of the youth labour market in Ethiopia. Therefore, the sector requires revision and multisectoral effort.

5.2.4 The National Labour Code

In line with the transformation to a market-oriented economy, the government of Ethiopia has adjusted its labour and employment policies with a view to providing a more enabling legal framework. The Labour Code was drafted in 1993 and contains a chapter on employment that sets out the right to work as well as freedom from discrimination on the basis of sex, race, social class, or religion. It also stipulates the rights and responsibilities of both workers and employers in matters regarding labour recruitment, job placement, labour contracts, and collective bargaining, payments of wages and salaries, and dismissal. The principles of tripartism are also let out in the Labour Code, in which the government takes responsibility for the legal system, policy measures, tools and instruments as well as labour inspection. Moreover, the Code was revised in 2002 incorporating emerging issues. By so doing, the government has shown its commitment to consider the employment issues of the youth. This could be mentioned as conducive environment for youth employment and protects kind of marginalization.

5.2.5 Government's ICT Initiative for Youth Development

In the context of rapidly developing technology and increasing global and inter-continental competition, it is imperative that the Ethiopian labour force is offered the opportunity to develop appropriate skills in the information technology (IT) sector. This applies especially to young people who are likely to make use of such skills throughout their educating and working lives and who can therefore contribute greatly to the overall process of economic development. Consequently, human resource development among Ethiopian youth has figured high on the national agenda, as evident in the Youth Development and Growth Package.

In recent years, as a result of the government's 'renovation' (economic liberalization) policy, the Plan to Accelerate Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP) and increased international investment and trade, Ethiopia has started to apply information technology in various socio-economic areas, with priority given to IT development in government programmes. Schools and universities are developing their own curricula in this respect, concentrating on both encouraging and facilitating the application of computer skills and offering courses in programming and software development. In order to stimulate the interest of young people in IT, the government has organized a variety of programmes that invite young people to apply their skills and talent towards technological innovation. However, Ethiopia still has a long way to go in the area of the information technology and infrastructure which entails multi-stakeholder collaboration.

5.3 Initiatives by local NGO/CSOs and affiliates of international NG)/CSOs

There are numerous local and international NGOs/CSOs and Agencies operating in Ethiopia. Although, the NGO/CSO registration as per the New Proclamation is under way, their exact number is pending. A considerable number of these organizations, however, are involved in initiatives/activities that could have a positive impact on youth unemployment in Ethiopia. As a point of departure, we tried to review a few functioning through out the nation and in the study target area.

5.3.1 Initiatives by local NGO/CSOs

5.3.1.1 Ethiopian Youth Associations

There exist already established membership based youth associations in all of the nine regions and the two chartered cities(Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa), being Youth Youth Association (TYA) and Addis Ababa Youth Associations(AAYA) the oldest. These civic society associations have more than 10 million youth members and have recently established, among others, an Ethiopian Youth Federation at Federal level to better facilitate their network and to make their voice heard aloud. Despite little differences, these associations aimed at:

- Improving the participation of the youth in good governance and human rights;
- Promoting self employment through improved access to credit;
- Reduction of the vulnerability of the youth by facilitating improved skill and participation in education;
- Enhancing the role of the youth in empowerment and democratization;
- Mitigating the spread or prevalence of HIV/AIDS and improving the health status of youth;
- Mobilizing the youth for development and environmental protection activities;
- Improving the physical and psychological conditions of the youth;
- Building the implementing capacity of the organization;

The youth associations envisioned to see their respective regions with productive, responsive, healthy, self-confident; and capacitated youth generation. Their mission is generally to improve the livelihood of member youth using and respecting its own association to protect and promote social, political and economic right of the youth reserved in the constitution through participatory youth development initiative program approach aiming to develop the well-being of targeted youth, reduce the levels of vulnerability to problems, improve the health status and strive to satisfy its psychological and physiological needs on a sustainable basis.

Being youth employment creation and economic empowerment the centre, the main activities of these associations include: promotion of good governance, democracy and human rights, cultural promotion and behavioural change, HIV/AIDS/STI Prevention, care and control,FP/RH mobilize youth for environmental protection and overall capacity building of the youth.

With minor differences among regions, the strong qualities of the associations include trust by members, strong link with government and other national and international non-governmental stakeholders, continuous growth in the membership of the associations, commitment of elected and non elected officials, effective utilization of manpower particularly volunteer youth in local economic empowerment, peer training and advocacy, and effective implementation of IGAs for unemployed youth. Poor financial and manpower capacity, significantly low membership base in urban areas as compared to that of rural areas due to poetical stereotype; continuous draught and natural disasters and widespread landless youth in rural areas are their main constraints which challenge their sustainability and good will.

In conclusion, despite their short-comings, youth associations can be reliable partners in the youth employment and overall development endeavors.

5.3.1.2 Relief Society of Tigray(REST)

As customary rules of land use limit access to land for the rural youth, the Relief Society of Tigray (REST), promotes reversing this cultural norm and, instead, embraces the paradigm shift to empower rural young people through improved labor productivity.

REST's mission is to fight food insecurity, reverse environmental degradation, and reduce youth unemployment. REST developed a program that established soil and water conservation structures on hillside land and then distributed the land to landless youth, which comprised about 25 percent of the population. The organization had three objectives to empower landless youth who are utter victims of youth unemployment:

- To support landless youths in income generating activities through seedling plantation and beekeeping;
- To contribute to ending soil and land degradation through environmental conservation and natural resource management; and
- To decrease migration to urban areas.

The results of this project were encouraging. The whole community constructed the water and soil structures, while the youth created their own bylaws for the long-term management of the project. They received land ownership certificates, thus motivating them to develop the land and improve its sustainability. The youth were able to support their families while remaining in their communities, thus, providing them with a sense of dignity and self-respect. Most importantly, these youth created self-employment and did not resort to urban migration as a survival strategy.

The REST program supports the argument that agricultural development is one of the most promising sectors for rural youth employment and the optimal means to keep them in their communities. At the local level, governments, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), and the private sector can follow REST's example by engaging young people in building rural infrastructure, which provides unemployed youth with valuable, practical skills that could be transferred to other employment situations. At the same time, the general community could benefit through improved access to food production, water, and markets to sell their goods—all of which would combat the shackles of poverty.

In youth employment creation, REST follows a holistic approach to directly tackle the causes and consequences of poverty in general and rural youth unemployment in particular, including the sectors of demography, economy, education, and health care. A sustainable solution aimed at improving rural youth unemployment and underemployment, especially in the context of Ethiopia's booming population growth, is imperative to reduce urban migration and its consequential marginalization.

The most critical challenges facing REST's program sustainability are an increasing demand for limited amounts of land, a growing number of landless youths, and severe droughts.

This project, however, could remain an inspiration and model for others. The lessons learned were valuable—the need to build capacity of youth groups, the importance of building partnerships with local groups and NGOs, and targeting the youth with interventions to unemployment.

5.3.2 Initiatives by International NGO/CSOs/Agencies

Most of the initiatives by international organizations involve the provision of funds and other resources to various projects and programmes that address the problem of socio-economic development, including youth unemployment.

5.3.2.1 World Bank

The World Bank and its agencies, including International Development Agency (IDA) and the International Finance Corporation (IFC) are involved (mainly as funders) in projects and programmes that have a great potential of reducing unemployment in Ethiopia. According to its Country Assistance Strategy (CAS), the World Bank's assistance to Ethiopia is guided by several themes, which include: strengthening public sector management and accountability, reducing the cost of doing business, improving the investment climate, reducing vulnerability of communities, and investing in people through support of projects that provide social services, such as health and education.

5.3.2.2 United Nations (UN)

The United Nations through its various agencies – including UNDP, UNESCO, and UNIDO - is involved in international initiatives that address the unemployment problem both directly and indirectly. A key initiative is UN's Millennium Campaign.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

The UNDP, sometimes in collaboration with other organizations, has been involved in many projects in Ethiopia under its "Expanded Opportunities Projects." Under these projects, UNDP has supported various sectors and subsectors by providing funds, training and capacity building with a view to improving access to livelihood resources. Some of the activities encompass: creating market access opportunities for local entrepreneurs, and investment promotion e.g. in the "Linking multi-Sector to External Trade" Project

and the “Enhancing Foreign Direct Investment” project in which UNDP commissioned the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. The typical initiative in youth employment creation is the DELCAP project targeted as employment creation via local economic development in Amhara, Tigray, Oromiya and SNNPR regions.

United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO)

UNIDO was established in 1966 and became a specialized agency of the United Nations in 1985. The organization mobilizes knowledge, skills, information and technology to promote productive employment, a competitive economy and a sound environment. The main focus is on promoting growth in the small and medium enterprise sector - the key generator of wealth in most developing countries. Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

International Labour Organization (ILO)

The main aim of the International Labour Organization (ILO) is to promote rights of work, encourage decent employment opportunities, enhance social protection, and strengthen dialogue in handling work-related issues.

One of ILO’s broad programmes is its decent work agenda, which is clearly relevant for youth labour investment and employment creation in Ethiopia. The ILO operationalizes its decent work agenda through Decent Work Country Programmes (DWCPs). The DWCPs focus on the respective countries’ priority areas, which include: (i) Poverty reduction through creation of decent work opportunities for young women and men; (ii) Reducing the incidence of child labour; (iii) Mitigating the socio-economic impact of HIV/AIDS at the workplace; (iv) Entrepreneurship for disabled women, labour laws and HIV/AIDS at the workplace; and (v) Gender equality at work. The ILO’s regional programme aims at enhancing the capacity of African nations to influence favourable economic policies. These include advocating for the implementation of policies favouring the poor and development and protection (against HIV/AIDS) of human resources. The ILO also has useful labour statistics and publishes its research results; which are important for policy makers. These include: the World Employment Report, Yearbook of Labour Statistics; Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM); and the International Labour Review. The ILO produces Codes of Practice and training manuals covering topics such as enterprise development, gender issues, international migration, labour law, child labour, and workers’ rights. The ILO International Institute for Labour Studies in Geneva promotes policy research and public discussion on emerging issues of concern to the ILO and its constituents, which include; labour, business and government.

CHAPTER SIX

6 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF SURVEY DATA

6.1 Introduction

There were a total of 480 respondents, 235 female and 245 male, between 15 to 29 years of age, participated in this youth unemployment and marginalization study recruited from four different regions and two federal city administration of Ethiopia. The chosen age range includes youth who are still in school, employed, unemployed and inactive. The objective of the study is to find out what exactly is the employment situation of Ethiopian youth in the selected locations.

In this chapter we will provide a descriptive summary of the respondents and their families. This chapter will be divided into eight sections consisting of Respondent's personal background, 'Respondent's family background' 'Education' and 'Employment status', 'Perceptions and work aspirations of youth,' 'Guidance, Counseling and support for Youth', and 'Youth challenges and Knowledge of way out'. The section on the respondent's background will mainly cover their age, place of residence, cause and preference of urban residence, ethnicity, marital status, number of children and number of siblings. The section on the respondent's family background covers topics such as parents' education and occupation, household income, number of family members involved in work. On education, we will specifically discuss respondent's level of education, age of stopping education, and the reasons for stopping education. With regards to employment status, we will discuss youth employment status. As to work aspirations and perception of youth, we will discuss the view of respondents about the level of education needed to obtain a good job, the goal of respondents, and preference of occupation and sector. The section on guidance counseling and support for the youth will discuss their experiences in career choice and looking for a job, with questions ranging from average time spent on the job search to methods used, obstacles encountered, decision-making patterns and types of assistance or training needed. The section on knowledgeability of the Ethiopian youth on their challenges and policy interventions will discuss youth's most critical challenges, youth knowledgeability of current government efforts to tackle their challenges and finally their perceptions on causes of unemployment, key actors, youth exclusion and marginalization.

Findings from Focus Group Discussions and Key Informant Interviews will be presented at the eighth section of this chapter

6.2 Background of respondents

6.2.1 Individual characteristics of the respondents

In terms of age structure, as a consequence of the relatively high fertility rate of the country, the proportion of youth, both male and female, in the younger age groups was larger (Table 14). As for the distribution of youth across regions, since an equal number of households had been selected from each target region, the difference in the proportion of youth from each target region may be indicative of the difference in the number of

persons per household. It seems to be highest in Addis Ababa and lowest in Tigray. With regard to the place of residence, the sample included almost an equal proportion of rural and urban females. However, the male sample included a higher proportion of urban residents. This is probably a reflection of more male youth migrating to urban areas for work or to seek work (Table 14).

The diversity of the Ethiopian population in terms of caste and nationality was also reflected in the sample. However, Tigre and Sidama were slightly over represented compared to their proportion in the total population. On the other hand, nations of Oromo and Amhara were under represented in the sample (Table 14). This was mainly due to the selection of the target regions, and it should be reminded that this study was not a national survey intended to reflect the nations and ethnic diversity of the target group.

Table 14 Distribution of youth by their individual characteristics

Background Characteristics	Female (%) (N=235)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=480)
Age			
15-19	43.2	44.9	44.0
20-24	36.6	35.9	36.3
25-29	20.2	19.3	19.8
Region			
Oromiya	12.3	12.8	12.4
Amhara	13.2	13.9	13.6
Tigray	11.6	11.8	11.7
SNNPR	13.7	13.9	13.7
Dire Dawa	13.4	13.5	13.2
Addis Ababa	28.2	29.9	29.1
Others	6.9	6.7	6.5
Place of Residence			
Rural	50.7	43.6	47.5
Urban	49.3	56.6	52.5
Ethnicity			
Oromo	20.9	19.3	20.1
Amhara	25.0	24.3	24.7
Tigrie	15.0	14.9	15.0
Sidama	10.5	10.0	10.3
Somali	5.6	6.4	6.0
Wolayita	7.6	7.1	7.4
Gurage	5.4	5.5	5.5
Others	9.7	11.9	9.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

6.2.2 Urban Residency Status and Perceptions among Respondents

As depicted in table14 above, 52.5 percent (252) of the respondents were urban dwellers. These respondents comprised youths who had lived in the cities for varying lengths of

time. Table 15 contains a summary of the years of permanent residency by employment status.

Table 15: Distribution of the Sample According to Length of Urban Residency (N=250)

Length of Time (Yrs)	Unemployed			Employed		
	Female)	Male (%)	Total (%)	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)
1-5	38.2	37.8	36.6	8.9	31.2	26.9
6-10	30.4	25.3	29.9	8.5	17.9	11.5
11-15	21.9	15.2	19.5	15.8	13.5	15.3
16-20	4.2	2.9	6.7	14.4	12.7	14.3
21-25	3.9	1.2	4.6	15.6	12.6	12.6
26-30	2.2	0.4	2.6	36..5	12.6	19.5

NB. 2 cases considered missing

There had been a consistent growth in the population of youth in the target towns for three decades now. The last 15 years however witnessed a very sharp increase in youth population as Table 16 shows that over 72 percent of the sample had lived in the city for the past fifteen years. This period coincides with the age of the towns except Addis Ababa and Adama(once was a capital) as a capital city for the corresponding regional states. It is also important to note that the population of unemployed youth also grew tremendously in proportion to the total youth population within the residency time ranges. In the case of unemployed youths there was no clear trend even though it appeared that those who lived in the town for only 1-5 years had the largest proportion of employed youths. What is clear, however, is that the older population, in this case represented by those who lived in the town, for 26 years and above, had much higher ratios of employed youths in their sub-sets when compared to other subsets.

Majority of the respondents were youths who moved into the town from their rural communities in search of means of livelihood. Quite a number migrated from other towns or rural areas and resettled in these towns. Table 16 presents the reasons why the respondents preferred to live in the towns despite very unfavorable employment situations. The results showed that an overwhelming majority of the respondents preferred urban residency because of the apparent greater job opportunities in cities. Poor physical infrastructures and social amenities was another strong reason why more than 57 percent of the respondents preferred to live in the urban centers notwithstanding the difficulties they encountered in securing employment. It appeared that majority of the unemployed youths found consolation in the availability of several basic social and physical infrastructures in the city. This implies that lack of job opportunities and lack of infrastructural facilities were two mutually reinforcing problems that informed the youths' preference for urban residency. Therefore, the unfettered growth of urban unemployment through rural-urban migration has been a direct consequence of government's lopsided effort to promote both social and economic development of urban areas at the expense of balanced development of both rural and urban areas. What has been may appear quite obvious, but the fact remains that rural-urban migration is a crucial factor in youth unemployment because younger people are more mobile than adults.

Table 16: Reasons for Urban Preference

Reasons for Urban Preference	Female	Male	Total
Lack of security in the village	23.2	17.7	21.7
Poor social and physical infrastructure	47.3	57.7	53.8
Lack of job opportunities	75.4	72.7	74.7
Marital reasons	6.9	6.6	6.6
Family dispute	7.5	7.2	7.5
Communal dispute	3.2	5.9	4.8
Poor quality of education	21.3	21.8	21.5
Used to urban life	15.9	16.3	16.1
General dislike for village life	30.2	28.6	29.6
Others	6.0	5.00	5.5

Note: Multiple responses were recorded. The percentage were based on the Urban sample size of 252.

6.2.3 Household characteristics of the respondents

Nearly two-thirds of the respondents were unmarried, but the proportion was much higher for male respondents than female respondents (Table 17). This is because women usually marry earlier. Their mean age of marriage was 17.7 years, while it was 20.2 for men in the sample.

With regard to the total number of children, 22 percent of the married respondents did not have any child. Over two-fifths (42 percent) had one child, followed by one fourth (25 percent) with two children and 8 per cent with three children. Respondents with four or more children were very low (only 3 per cent). Because women marry earlier than men, the proportion of women with children was higher in comparison to the male respondents, for all numbers of children.

There is a considerable difference between marital status in rural and urban respondents which is characterized by more early marriage in rural areas than urban areas.

Table 17 Distribution of youth by marital status, number of children, spouse's activity and mean age at marriage

Characteristics	Female (%) (N=231)	Male (%) (N=242)	Total (%) (N=473)
Marital Status			
Unmarried	55.5	76.1	65.0
Married	44.5	23.9	35.0
Mean age at marriage (in years, only for those married)*	17.7	20.2	18.5
Number of Children (only for married respondents)*			
0	18.5	28.5	21.6
1	40.7	46.0	42.3
2	27.5	18.6	24.7
3	9.0	5.7	8.0
4 or more	4.3	1.1	3.3

Spouse's Activity (only for married respondents)*			
Work for salary or wage	57.0	7.7	38.1
Engaged in home duties	2.3	78.5	26.3
Work as self-employed worker	17.9	2.3	13.0
Looking for job	9.5	3.4	7.6
Work as unpaid family member	6.3	4.2	5.7
Works in foreign country	0	0	0
Attend education training	2.3	2.7	2.4
Other	2.0	1.2	1.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Generally, the respondents had two or three siblings. However, one-third of the respondents had four or more siblings, i.e. they were from relatively large families (Table 18).

Table 18 Distribution of youth by number of siblings

Siblings	Female (%) (N=235)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=480)
Do you have any brothers or sister ?			
Yes	98.7	98.2	98.5
No	1.3	1.8	1.5
Number of siblings			
0	1.3	1.8	1.5
1	8.3	14.5	11.2
2	23.8	26.6	25.1
3	22.6	21.1	21.9
4	15.8	15.3	15.5
5	12.9	10.4	11.8
6 or more	15.3	10.4	13.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

6.2.4 Education level of respondents

6.2.4.1 Schooling status

Nine per cent of the respondents had never attended school. The majority of these were young women (74 per cent), revealing the persistence of a gender gap in education, especially in rural areas.

Nearly one-half (48 per cent) of youth were currently enrolled in school, 27 per cent had left education before completion, and 15 per cent reported that they had finished education (Table 19).

6.2.4.2 Education level attained

Secondary (31 per cent) or second cycle primary level (26 per cent) education was the most commonly attained level of education. Few had postgraduate (0.4 percent) or vocational education (10 per cent). Few females had attained bachelor level or above. Proportionately more males had a higher level of education. Similarly, males were more likely than females to have received vocational education (Table 19). By age group, one-half of the respondents (51 per cent) of the 15-19 years age group, 29 per cent of the 20-24 years age group, and one-fifth (20 per cent) of the 25-29 years age group had completed secondary-level education. Fifty six per cent from the 15- 19 years age group, 31 per cent from the 20-24 years age group, and 12 per cent of the 25-29 years age group had completed second cycle primary level. Those completing the Masters level, quite naturally only from the older groups above 25 years of age, were very few.

6.2.4.3 Age when stopped education/training and reasons for stopping

Those respondents reporting to have had already left or had finished education were asked about the age when they stopped education. The sample mean age of stopping education was 16.62. There were no significant differences between females and males in terms of mean age at which they stopped education (Table 19).

One in four (24 per cent) respondents said that they stopped education because of economic reasons. However, such economic constraints seem to have affected young men more than young women (23 per cent versus 17 per cent). Following that, one fifth (20 per cent) reported that they stopped education because they did not enjoy schooling.

Eighteen percent of the respondents stopped education because they failed examination, and the other 18 percent for getting married. Young men and young women seem to have different reasons for stopping education. Young women respondents seem to stop education to get married (29.9 per cent), while young men seem to leave education due to economic reasons (34.4 per cent). The second most important reason for stopping education for young women was failure in examinations (20.4 per cent), while for young men which was due to lack of interest for schooling (20.0 per cent) (Table 19).

Table 19 Distribution of youth by respondents' status in education, level of education, mean age at stopping education/training, and reasons for stopping

Education	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)
Status of Education			
Never attended	12.8	5.4	9.4
Left before completion	30.3	23.9	27.4
Currently enrolled	42.0	55.9	48.3
Finished	14.9	14.9	14.9
Total	Female (%) (N=235)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=480)
Level of Education Attainment			
First Cycle Primary(1- 4)	3	11	24
Second Cycle Primary(5- 8)	7	21	28
General Secondary Education	6	16	22

Advanced Diploma(12+2, 12+3)	1.6	1.5	1.4
Bachelor	11.4	17.7	14.4
Masters	0	0.4	0.4
Vocational school	0.6	1.5	1.1
Total	Female (%) (N=149)	Male (%) (N=155)	Total (%) (N=304)
Mean Age of Stopping Education/Training (Yrs)	17	17	17
Reason for Stopping Education Training			
Economic reasons	16.8	34.4	24.1
Did not enjoy schooling	15.9	25.7	20.0
Failed examination	20.4	14.9	18.1
To get married	29.9	1.2	17.9
Wanted to start working	1.7	10.6	5.4
Other *	15.3	13.2	14.4
Total	100.0 (N=38)	100.0 (N=49)	100.0 (N=87)

Secondary level refers to the completion of grade 10 to completion of preparatory.

* Others include: parents did not want to continue schooling, finished course, due to health problem, and due to insecurity.

6.2.4.4 Working status during education (schooling)

Those respondents who had ever attended school were asked whether they worked while they studied. Eighty eight per cent of youth reported that they did not work while they studied. Among the 12 per cent of youth who worked, its share was higher for male than for female respondents: 60 per cent for male and 30 per cent for female. Fifty per cent from the age group 20-24 responded that they worked while they studied, compared to 21 per cent from 15-19 and 28 per cent from the 25-29 years age group.

In terms of the type of work they did, one-fourth (25 per cent) of the respondents had paid jobs in a private company, 18 percent as teachers, and 15 percent in their family business. There was not much difference between young men and women in working for private companies while studying. The differences however existed among those who taught, as they were mostly male (Table 20).

Table 20 Distribution of youth by working status during study and type of work

Work status and type	Female (%) (N=9)	Male (%) (N=49)	Total (%) (N=58)
Working Status During Study			
Worked	9.3	15.1	12.0
Did not Work	90.7	84.9	88.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Type of Work			
Paid work in registered private company	25.2	25.6	25.5
Work status and type	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)
Teacher (private tutor)	11.5	27.2	17.8

Work in family business	8.7	19.9	15.4
Paid work in NGO	9.7	4.5	6.6
Internship/apprenticeship in private company	4.9	7.1	6.2
Work on farm	2.9	5.1	4.2
Paid work in public company	5.8	3.2	4.2
Worked in shop/house	1.0	6.4	4.2
Other*	14.7	16.5	15.9
Total	100.0 (N=9)	100.0 (N=49)	100.0 (N=58)

6.3 Family background

6.3.1 Parent's Education and Occupation

All the respondents were asked to state the level of schooling completed by each parent and their occupations. There was a difference between fathers' and mothers' level of education, with the fathers attaining a much higher education level than the mothers. Thirty three percent of the young respondents' fathers were illiterate, whereas over half (67 per cent) of their mothers were illiterate. Thirty two percent of the respondents' fathers had completed secondary level, compared to only 14 per cent for their mothers. Thirty per cent of fathers and 27 per cent of mothers were either literate or had completed the primary level. Fifteen per cent of the fathers in comparison to 2 per cent of mothers had completed an intermediate or higher level (Table 21).

There were also differences in the occupations of fathers and mothers. A high percentage of fathers were agricultural workers (39 per cent) compared to 22 per cent of the mothers. The majority of mothers (62 per cent) were engaged in household responsibilities, but very few fathers reported this as an occupation. It should be noted that while less mothers had reported officially working in agriculture, in many rural families the extension of household responsibilities include unpaid family work in agriculture. So the reported figures here may underestimate women's involvement in agriculture. Fourteen percent of the fathers' and 5 per cent of the mothers' occupation was business. Fourteen per cent of the fathers' occupations were professional, technical assistant, administrative work or managerial work, but only about 2 per cent of mothers had this occupation (Table 21).

Table 21 Parent's education and occupation

Characteristics	Female (%) (N=235)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=480)
Father's Education			
Illiterate	24.1	22.2	23.2
Literate and Primary	28.3	31.2	29.7
Secondary	31.9	31.1	31.5
Intermediate or higher	14.9	14.4	14.7
Other/Don't know	0.8	1.2	1.0
Mother's Education			
Illiterate	58.3	56.2	57.3

Literate and Primary	25.0	26.6	25.6
Secondary	14.3	14.3	14.3
Intermediate level or higher	2.5	2.3	2.4
Other/Don't know	0	0.7	0.3
Father's Occupation			
Agricultural work	49.9	47.7	48.9
Professional, technical assistant, administrative or managerial	13.9	14.8	14.3
Business	14.0	14.0	14.0
Housework	0.1	0.9	0.5
Other*	22.2	22.6	22.4
Mother's Occupation			
Housework	60.0	64.6	62.1
Agricultural work	23.4	20.7	22.2
Business	6.2	4.5	5.4
Professional, technical assistant, administrative or managerial	1.4	1.5	1.5
Other*	9.0	8.6	8.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Others include factory production worker, armed forces, home-based worker, teacher, unemployed, outside the labour force, parent deceased, daily wages, driver, works abroad, sewing, does nothing, don't know and other.

6.3.2 Household income

In terms of household income, more than one third (39.7%) of the respondents' average monthly income was below five hundred birr. Besides, 76.2% of the respondents lived on less than 1000 birr a month. As the income of the majority of the respondents fluctuate from month to month, it became difficult for them to manage to do so. A descriptive statistics computed for this proportion of the cases show that their average income ranges from 150.00 to 2650.00 birr with the mean and standard deviation of 325.27 and 26.71 respectively.

6.3.3 Number of Persons in Household

The majority of respondents were from large-sized families (6-10 members), which usually consisted of nuclear families. More than one-third of the respondents came from relatively large families with more than eight members, which often formed extended or joint families (Table 20). The t- test result of the number of persons in household between urban and rural areas of the respondents, with 95% confidence interval and 194 degree of freedom revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between rural and urban at both 0.05 and 0.01 levels. And the mean of rural respondents is higher than the urban respondents by 3.53. This shows that youth from rural areas are from larger families than their urban counter parts.

The household sizes and dependency ratios of respondents who were either married or heads of households were measured. It was found that such respondents headed households that were about 5 persons in number on the average. However, unemployed

household heads reported an average of about 4 persons, while the employed had over 5 persons.

The respondents reported very high dependency ratios which included their urban and rural dependants. Both employed and unemployed had an average household dependency ratio of about 70%. There is no doubt that a high dependency ratio could be a serious hindrance to self-employment and profitable income diversification, because of high expenditures on family welfare. It could also deter a benefactor from taking advantage of human capital development opportunities that can enhance his/her labour market participation. These and related issues have been elaborated upon by von Braun et al, (1989) and Lahiri, (1989).

Table 22 Income and family size of the respondents

Family Size	Female (%) (N=233)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=478)
Total Household Income Per Month			
Less than 250	11.9	14.1	12.9
250 to 500	26.9	24.3	25.8
500 to 1000	36.0	36.7	36.3
1000 to 1500	12.9	12.4	12.7
1500 or more	12.2	12.5	12.4
No. of Persons in Household			
1-3	3.8	6.0	7.0
4-6	31.7	43.7	42.6
5-7	22.5	13.4	12.9
8-10	39.2	28.9	29.1
11 or more	8.8	8.0	8.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

NB. 2 cases considered missing

6.3.4 Number of persons involved in work

More than one-half of the respondents were from a single earner family. However, less than one-half (45 per cent) of the respondents were from families which had two or more earning members (Table 22).

6.3.5 Number of household members seeking work

In this survey the respondents had been asked about the number of persons in their household who were unemployed (without work and actively looking for work). Nearly two-thirds of the respondents replied there was no one in the family who was looking for a job. One fifth (21 per cent) responded that one household member was actively looking for work, and 14 per cent responded that two or more of the household members were looking for work (Table 22).

Table 23 Distribution of youth by number of household members currently working and seeking work

Characteristics	Female (%) (N=234)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=479)
Number of household members working			
0	1.1	1.5	1.3
1	55.6	51.6	53.8
2	25.5	27.9	26.6
3 or more	17.9	18.9	18.4
Number of unemployed household members			
0	66.3	63.4	65.0
1	20.2	21.5	20.8
2 or more	13.4	15.2	14.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

NB. 1 case considered missing

6.4 Perceptions of youth and work aspirations

6.4.1 Educational requirement to get a good job

All respondents were asked about their perception of the lowest level of education or training needed to get a decent job. Forty one per cent responded that this would entail a Bachelor's degree at the least. Another 26 per cent of the respondents reported that at least a Master's degree was needed to get a decent job. Finally, 10.6 per cent thought a secondary education was sufficient to get a decent job. Proportionately more males than females thought that a Master's level of education was needed to get a decent job. It should be noted that very few respondents (4.8 per cent) thought that undertaking vocational training would give them a decent job (Table 24).

Table 24 Youth perception regarding lowest level of education needed to get a good job

Lowest Level of Education Needed	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)
Primary	1.0	0.5	0.8
Lower secondary	2.0	0.9	1.5
Secondary	13.1	7.7	10.6
Diploma(12+2 or 10+3)	15.1	12.0	13.7
Bachelor	41.3	41.1	41.2
Masters degree	22.7	30.5	26.3
Vocational training	3.9	5.8	4.8
Other/Don't know	0.8	1.5	1.1
Total	Female (%) (N=234)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=479)

NB. 1 case considered missing

6.4.2 View on the Relevance of the education system

Asked to what extent they consider the existing education system is relevant, the majority of the respondent (62%) at least agreed that the education system was to blame – for its failure to impart them with relevant skills. Most important, 90% of the youth at least affirmed the importance of technical skills in helping one to get a job. They therefore suggest that in search for solutions to the problems facing Ethiopian youth, it is important to review the gaps within the current education system. In particular, the contents of the curriculum and its relevance should be reviewed periodically with a view of making it applicable in the world of work (Table 25).

Table 25 Youth perception regarding the relevance of the education system

Relevance of the education system	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)
Was the education system relevant for youth employment?			
Yes	12.0	15.4	13.8
No	88.0	84.6	86.2
Total	100	100	100
Reasons for its irrelevance	15.1	12.0	13.7
Does not equip us with relevant technical skills	91.2	90.1	90.2
Too theory oriented	22.7	30.5	26.3
Does not integrate with employers requirement	21.3	36.8	29.2
Other/Don't know	16.2	9.3	13.8

NB: Since the question was a multiple answer question, the percentages do not add up to 100

6.4.3 Goal in life

Young men seem to have a more materialistic view of life than young women. More young women aspired for a good life as a goal while more young men emphasized the need for money and success in work (Table 26).

Table 26 Most important goals of youth

Important Goal	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)
Having a good family life	43.4	16.8	31.2
Having lots of money	14.3	36.3	24.4
Being successful in work	16.6	24.8	20.4
Making a contribution to society	17.4	13.2	15.5
Other*	8.2	9.0	8.6
Total	Female (%) (N=235)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=480)

* Others include: participating in local community affairs and upholding religious faith.

6.4.4 Qualities in finding a good job

Respondents were asked about the three most useful qualities needed to find a good job. The following qualities ranked the highest in the total sample as one of the three most important qualities the respondents felt needed for finding a good job: good general

education (79.8 per cent), followed by completion of appropriate training (56.3 per cent) and information technology skills (49.6 per cent). There was not much difference between male and female responses and between urban and rural responses (Table 27).

Table 27 Qualities needed to find a good job

Qualities needed to find good job	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)
University degree	83.2	75.8	79.8
Having completed appropriate training	59.0	53.1	56.3
Information technology skills	46.0	53.9	49.6
Command of languages	26.1	24.6	25.4
Total	N=235	N=245	N=480

Note: Since the question was a multiple answer question, the percentages do not add up to 100.

Asked about their opinion, many believed that they should possess an undergraduate university degree or at least a general secondary school completion in order to get a good job. That most young people surveyed expressed their worries about being able to find a job and many want to continue their education reflects a tight labour market as well as young people's frequent lack of preparedness for new skill requirements. In addition to these general obstacles, women and men also believe that employers look for characteristics related to age and sex. While young workers may be at a disadvantage compared to older workers, the evidence from the survey is not conclusive. Furthermore, while there are definite expectations related to gender, workers generally appeared to believe that opportunities for training were either the same for women and men, or were in fact better for their own sex. This may be traced to the possibility that many women and men work in workplaces where one sex predominates. Still, in a labour market where work experience and maturity are highly valued and where women are believed to be industrious but unable to work long and arduous hours due to family responsibilities, it is often the youngest women who miss out on decent employment opportunities.

This finding may imply paper qualification syndrome by the sampled youth. By 1981, the Jobs and Skills Programme for Africa (JASPA), with headquarters at that point in Addis Ababa, was well into a multi-country study on the paper qualification syndrome (PQS) and the unemployment of school leavers. The PQS, however, contributed to unemployment because higher education qualifications produced greater aspirations, frustration and unemployment since educated persons were not prepared to accept lower-level jobs.

6.4.5 Preference of type and sector of work

Government or public work was the most preferred work (70.2 percent) for both young women and men. This is probably due to job security, compensation packages and relevant benefits or the respondents do not develop entrepreneurial thinking. Only 4.7 percent of the respondents replied that they would like to start their own business. This attitude was more prevalent among males but also quite noticeable among females (Table 42). Of the types of work, young men seem to be more inclined towards working in private companies (8.2 per cent), whereas young women were more inclined to work on the farm (6.4 per cent) or in a family business (4.5 per cent). Preferred sectors of work

were quite varied. Female respondents tended to be more traditional in their preference of sectors, such as trade, education and health, than males (Table 28). This probably reflects the limited job opportunities available to females. In general, women have more limited job options as a result of prevalent social norms regarding acceptable work for women.

In this regard, Lubyova (2001) observed a substantial waiting behaviour among the unemployed population in developing countries with particular reference to Sri Lanka. Education has also been associated with a choosy attitude in job seeking among youths (Manning and Jananhar, 1998; Echebiri, 2001). Unemployment that has to do with job preferences is referred to as search unemployment. It is best explained as a situation in which people who are unemployed do not take the first job on offer but search for better paid employment (Stanlake and Grant, 1999).

Table 28 Type of work and sectors preferred among youth

	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)
Type of Work			
Work for Government or public sector	71.1	70.3	70.2
Start own business	2.6	7.2	4.7
Work for private company	5.6	11.3	8.2
Work on farm	9.4	3.0	6.4
Work for family business	6.2	2.4	4.5
Other*	11.1	11.0	10.9
Total	100.00 (N=235)	100.00 (N=245)	100.00 (N=480)
Sector			
Wholesale and retail, trade and repair	17.0	16.4	16.7
Education	15.5	11.0	13.4
Health	15.0	8.5	12.0
Public administration and defense	6.2	13.5	9.6
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	11.4	5.7	8.8
Finance/insurance	7.4	7.8	7.6
Construction, mining and manufacturing	2.8	12.4	7.2
Transport, storage and communication	2.1	7.0	4.3
Private household service	5.9	0.7	3.5
Other community, social and personal services	3.5	2.4	3.0
Don't know	6.2	3.2	4.8
Other**	7.1	11.3	9.1
Total	100.00 (N=235)	100.00 (N=245)	100.00 (N=480)

* Others include: work for non-profit organization, work for multinational cooperation, happy with current type of business/would not change, do not wish to work, and not sure.

** Others includes: hotels and restaurants, happy with current sector/would not change, sewing, electricity, gas and water supply, real estate, renting, and business activities.

A further investigation by age group (Table 29) reveals that the younger groups preferred the Government/public sector jobs compared to the older ones who preferred starting their own business. Similarly, and this is related to age, the unmarried preferred the Government/public sector jobs in contrast to the married ones who preferred starting their own business. An interesting scenario also emerges from the level of educational

attainment – the percentage of youth opting for government/public sector jobs increased with the level of educational attainment. The level of household income, however, did not seem to have any bearing on the choice between the two types of work.

Table 29 Selection of two major types of business by individual characteristics

Type of business the youth would prefer to work in			Total %
Start own business		Work for the Government/public sector	
Age group			
15-19 yr.	19.8	80.2	100.0
19-24 yr	38.1	61.9	100.0
25-29 yr	53.3	46.7	100.0
Sex			
Female	30.8	69.2	100.0
Male	34.4	65.6	100.0
Marital Status			
Unmarried	23.8	76.2	100.0
Married	51.9	48.1	100.0
Total Household Income			
Less than 250	27.3	72.7	100.0
250 to 500	34.8	65.2	100.0
500 to 1000	31.8	68.2	100.0
1000 to 1500	28.3	71.7	100.0
1500 or more	39.0	61.0	100.0
Level of Education			
Never attended	84.5	15.5	100.0
Primary	78.9	21.1	100.0
Lower secondary	52.7	47.3	100.0
Secondary (9-10)	43.2	56.8	100.0
Intermediate	27.1	72.9	100.0
Bachelor	27.2	72.8	100.0
Masters	30.0	70.0	100.0
Vocational school	37.4	62.6	100.0

6.4.6 Source of money

Two-thirds of the male respondents and over one-half of female respondents were dependent on their parents as the main source of money. This is to be expected as most of them were not working. For one-third of the female respondents, their partners were the source of money. For those who were working, their jobs were the main source of money (Table 30).

Table 30 Source of money for the youth

Source of Regular Money	Female (%) (N=235)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=480)
Parents or family	55.5	66.9	60.7
Regular job	9.6	32.0	19.8
Partner	34.4	0.4	18.8
Other*	0.6	0.8	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

* Others include: work in informal economy and training allowance or educational grant.

6.4.7 Youth Perceived Future

This study sought the views of the youth regarding their future. The majority of them (64.5%) held the view that their future was bright and promising. Thus, despite their challenges, the majority of youth feel optimistic about their future. Only 31.7% held the view that their future was dim or bleak. Those who consider the challenges as persistent are likely to despair and could experience a negative feeling of hopelessness. Of concern to note is that over one third of the youth appeared to have given up; this is the category most likely to be lured into crime. Efforts should be made to redeem youth from falling into a situation of hopelessness (table 31).

Table 31. Youth Perceived Future

Perceived Future	Female (%) (N=232)	Male (%) (N= 243)	Total (%) (N=475)
Bright and promising	64.5	66.9	64.5
So so	3.1	1.3	4.8
Dim or bleak	31.7	32.4	31.7
Don't know	0.6	0.8	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

NB. 5 cases considered missing

6.5 Guidance, counseling and Support for Youth

6.5.1 Received advice or guidance on training and education

The educational choices of Ethiopian youth are also influenced by the type of information about the job market to which they have access. The study revealed that many did not receive any counseling or advice with regard to their options for training and education (table 46). Whether employed youth did not seek advice when they were in school or had just left school, or whether this advice was not available because on average they left school earlier and more often without a diploma requires further investigation. Those who replied, 'yes' indicated to get the service from teachers, family or friends. This figure implies that neither guidance service exists for youth nor the youth seek the service. This requires further investigation. As well, there is no difference in response between male and female, and rural and urban respondents. This indicates that youth guidance is an issue to be considered for all youth in the country.

The ILC, at its Sixtieth Session in 1975, adopted the Human Resources Development Convention and Recommendation (No. 142 and No. 150) whose heavy emphasis on vocational guidance and vocational training was particularly relevant to the young.

A good number of the provisions of the Recommendation addressed children and young people in particular. It requested Members to extend the scope of their vocational guidance systems to helping children and young people at school gain an understanding of the world of work and the employment and career opportunities that might be open to them as well as the associated requirements. Children and young people who had never been to school or who left early should be given information on a broad range of occupations and employment opportunities in these occupations, as well as guidance on how they might gain access to them. The Recommendation also stressed the need to inform young people of the importance of general and vocational education in relation to existing employment prospects and economic and social development trends. Ironically, the Ethiopian youth in this study did not receive received advice or guidance on training and education even three decades later after the Convention.

Table 32 Youth who have received advice or guidance on training and education

Have you ever received advice or guidance training and education?	Female (%) (N=235)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=480)
No	88.2	90.1	89.8
Yes	11.8	9.9	11.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Yes by whom?			
Professional guidance officer	0	0	0
Family/relative/friend	88.6	90.1	89.8
Teacher	1.2	9.0	8.6

NB: Since the question was a multiple answer question, the percentages do not add up to 100

6.5.2 Career or job counseling

Eighty nine percent of the respondents expressed that they have never received career or job counseling. There is no significant difference between men and women and rural and urban respondents (table 33).

If young women and men had received any advice at all, it was usually from immediate family members or relatives. There is no Centers of Employment Services in Ethiopia at all. This shows that employment promotion centers and other private or semi-private institutions are either unavailable or if they exist still underdeveloped. Given that the overwhelming majority of respondents said that they would like to receive such advice (87 per cent of men and 84 per cent of women), it appears there is a large unexplored market for educational and career advisory services.

Table 33 Youth who have received career or job counseling

Have you ever received career or job counseling?	Female (%) (N=235)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=480)
Yes	11.8	9.9	11.5
No	88.2	90.1	89.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Such assistance to job-seekers is all the more urgent since the in-school and unemployed youth participated in FGD were generally not optimistic about the possibility of finding a job. Almost the entire sample said they thought it would be difficult for them to find a job. Widely accessible and affordable guidance on training and educational choices, followed by job counseling, would certainly make the process of finding a job more manageable and successful for young women and men in Ethiopia.

6.5.3 Gender-related obstacles

Most of the respondents believed they faced gender-related difficulties (table 34). One-third of both women and men among the job-seekers and self-employed responded that it was easier for women to find jobs in the current labour market. This might be related to the existence of job opportunities in the particular areas of study and training in which women traditionally form the majority, such as reception, waitress, salesmanship, accounting and sewing. It could also refer to positive images of industriousness, skillfulness, and obedience that are associated with women's traditional gender roles (to which young women may or may not conform). Women were also said to receive more favors, to communicate with more ease, and to be more suitable (which is likely to refer to employers' preferences for women for professions traditionally regarded as suitable for women).

Table 34 Comparing women's and men's job opportunities

	Female (%) (N=230)	Male (%) (N=239)	Total (%) (N=471)
Easier for women than for men	34	33	33
Easier for men than for women	8	16	12
No difference between sexes	49	37	44
Depends on:	4	8	6
-Job qualifications	3	8	5.5
-Individual capacity	1	-	
Do not know	5	6	

NB. 5 cases considered missing

NB: Since the question was a multiple answer question, the percentages do not add up to 100

Twice as many women as men responded that women face additional difficulties compared with men, which points to the (perceived) existence of discriminatory attitudes against women or the burden of women's greater household responsibilities.

In urban areas, too, more youth believed that women have a harder time than men finding a job (29 per cent versus 17 per cent), though the most frequent answer was that there were no differences between women and men (34 per cent).

6.5.4 Assistance needed

Young job-seekers not only perceive differences in treatment of men and women, but also between older and younger people. A majority of male and female respondents in especially among female employees believed that they were at an advantage in the job market compared to those aged over 25. Rural-urban differences did not play a role in this regard.

When asked what type of support or assistance they needed to get a satisfactory job, most job-seekers replied that they needed better labor market information. This most likely refers to information to prepare them for the job market, such as in what sector they should search, what types of jobs to apply for and what the requirements are. Almost as many mentioned that they needed the help of an employment service, presumably for job placement.

Table 35 Need for support or assistance in getting job

Support Request	Female (%) (N=235)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=480)
Labour market information	29	36	27
Vocational training and labour law training	19	16	20
Entrepreneurship training	20	29	24
Assistance with training free of charge	7	10	5
Entering university	4	4	4
Practical experience before working	13	19	17
Employment services	29	18	32
Information through vacancy advertisement	2	5	1
Family, relative, friend	3	3	3

NB: Since the question was a multiple answer question, the percentages do not add up to 100

6.6 Knowledgeability of Youth

6.6.1 Youth's Knowledgeability on Current Government's efforts to tackle Their Youth Unemployment Challenges

This study further wanted to establish whether the youth are informed about the efforts being put to tackle the challenges they faced. For example, how much they did know of the Ministry of Youth, Sports and Culture in general and Bureaus/offices of Youth and Sports at their local level administration in particular. Findings of this study show that

majority (70%) of the sample was aware of the creation of the MOYSC or local BOYS/Offices and what it was meant to do. They reported that this government body was expected, inter alias, to unite and help the youth (table 36).

Interestingly, when asked about the impact of the MOYSC or local BOYS/OFFICES, an overwhelming majority (92.1%) reported not to have felt the Ministry's or local Bureaus/offices impact on their lives. What were the perceived shortcomings of the MOYSC or local BOYS/Offices or local Bureaus/offices? The following were identified as the perceived shortcomings of the MOYSC or local BOYS/offices that constrained it from making positive impact on the lives of the youth:

- MOYSC or local BOYS/offices had not focused on the problems of the youth
- MOYSC or local BOYS/offices had not facilitated access to information by the youth
- Failure by the MOYSC or local BOYS/offices to involve the youth in decision making processes

Due to these shortcomings, about half of the respondents (54%) felt that the MOYSC or BOYS/offices had not improved their situation; another 63.1% was not aware of activities that the MOYSC or local BOYS/offices or local Bureaus/offices had undertaken to improve their plight. These findings suggest serious gaps between the operations of the MOYSC or local BOYS/offices and the youth, who are the key client of the ministry. The MOYSC or local BOYS/offices should act and formulate a friendly framework of operation that should bring back the youth on board.

70 percent of the respondents do not have any information about the National Youth policy and its implication to the youth in the country.

Table 36 Youth's Knowledgeability on Current Government's efforts to tackle Their Youth Unemployment Challenges

	Female (%) (N=235)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=480)
Do you know the presence of MOYSC or local BOYS/Offices which exclusively work on youth affairs?			
Yes	51	89	70
No	19.2	39.8	30
Do you know the activities of BOYS/Offices?			
Yes	11.2	25.7	36.9
No	87.8	74.3	63.1
Does the work of BOYS/Offices have any impact on your situation?			
Yes	2	9.8	6.4
No	95.9	90.1	92.1
Do not know	1.1	1.9	1.5
Does the work of BOYS/Offices have improved your situation?			
Yes	26.8	31.4	29

No	55	52.1	54
Do not know	18.2	16.5	27
Do you have any information about the National Youth Policy of Ethiopia?			
Yes	19.7	34.9	30
No	81.4	65.1	70

6.6.2 Youth's Views on How to tackle their Challenges

The study further sought to establish from the respondents how the challenges facing the respondents could effectively be tackled. The following are suggested means of addressing challenges facing the respondents in the order of priority:

- Employment creation for the youth
- Involvement of youth in decision making
- Extending infrastructure countrywide to reach out the youth
- Educate youth

The suggested strategies bring out several critical issues of interest to scholars and policy makers. First, the youth affirm that their most acute problem is unemployment. Two, there is a strong feeling among the youth that they are rarely involved in making key decisions affecting their life chances. Third, the youth are willing to be engaged at all levels in search of solutions to their problems.

6.6.3 Youth's views on limitations of the MOYSC or local BOYS/offices

The study further sought the views of the youth concerning the limitations faced by the MOYSC and local BOYS/offices. The limitations were ranked as follows (from the most popular to least popular):

- Lack of proper understanding of the youth and their needs
- Lack of implementation capacity
- Lack of infrastructure to reach out the youth
- Insufficient budget
- Irrelevant policies

The biggest challenge facing the MOYSC or local BOYS/offices appears to be that of understanding the youth and their needs. Accordingly, the MOYSC or local BOYS/offices are required to invest heavily in improving their corporate image among the youth.

Asked what the MOYSC or local BOYS/offices should do to enhance acceptability, most respondents expressed that the MOYSC and local BOYS/offices should project their willingness to work with the youth as partners. This should be the entry point. They should create multiple avenues and forums for connecting the youth and its officers or representatives. In such forums, the youth would be engaged actively in the identification of their felt needs as well as in the formulation of appropriate strategies to address such needs. In addition, through such forums, the youth would access information required to enhance their understanding of the Ministry's or bureaus' vision, mission and operations.

6.7 Unemployment, Marginalization and Key Actors

6.7.1 Perceived causes of youth unemployment

The unemployed youth respondents were asked about their perception of the causes of youth unemployment. It was found out that 49 percent of urban respondents indicated the inability of the economy to generate adequate jobs while 37.8 percent of rural respondents mentioned access to work on as number cause for unemployment. Poor extension and marketing system was mentioned by rural respondents (27.6 percent) as the second serious of unemployment. There is no significant difference between urban and rural respondents on other causes (table 37).

Table 37 perceived causes of youth unemployment by urban/rural segment

Causes of Unemployment	Urban (%) (N=100)	Rural (%) (N=80)	Total (%) (N=280)
Inability of the economy to generate adequate jobs	49.2	28	38
Lack of technical skills	28.6	21.6	26.3
Lack of experience	31.5	35.3	33.7
Discrimination of the youth	26.2	15.2	23.4
Irrelevant education system	13.1	12.3	12.5
Inaccessibility to useful information on time	27.9	24.3	17.2
Poor extension and marketing system	3.1	27.6	17.3
Shortage of land access to work on	3.2	37.8	22.2
Other	17.4	10.7	16

NB: Since the question was a multiple answer question, the percentages do not add up to 100

6.7.2 Youth's views on performance of key actors to tackle Unemployment challenges

The point of departure for this study is that youth face many unemployment and related challenges that adversely affect their lives. Who should be involved in tackling these challenges and to what extent have different actors addressed the challenges? This study attempted to measure the perceptions of respondents' on selected items related to the role of key actors in tackling the challenges.

As reported by the respondents, the key actors who spearhead efforts to tackle the problems faced by youth in Ethiopia are: Ethiopian government (73.6%); NGOs and CSOs(41.5), youth themselves (37%) and Parents (14.7%) (table 38). The Ethiopian government was viewed as the leading actor and was identified by about half of the sample. We further sought to measure the adequacy of government's efforts in addressing challenges faced by the youth in Ethiopia.

Table 38 perceived key actors to curb youth challenges

Perceived key actors	Female (%) (N=235)	Male (%) (N=245)	Total (%) (N=480)
Ethiopian Government	87.7	64.2	73
CSO's and NGO's	36.2	45.9	41.6
Youth themselves	30	35.4	37.3
Parents	9.5	4.3	14.7

NB: Since the question was a multiple answer question, the percentages do not add up to 100

Study's finding show that majority of the youth (63%) held the view that the Ethiopian government had not put adequate efforts to address the challenges faced by the youth; only 37.3% affirmed that the government efforts were adequate.

Indeed, 80% of the sample at least agreed that the Ethiopian government had not done its best in addressing the problems of the youth. *In* particular, the government was emphatically faulted for its failure to keep its promise of creating employment for the youth. Further, 78% of the youth shared the view that the existing Ethiopian youth policies are not adequate to cope with the problems facing the Ethiopian youth. Overall, these perceptions suggest that although the Ethiopian government has put appreciable efforts to address the problems faced by the Ethiopian youth (including creation of a youth ministry, formulation of a national youth policy and initiation of a special youth package), a lot more need to be done to meet the high expectations of the youth. In particular, a lot more should be done to create employment opportunities for the youth.

Besides the government, parents are also expected to support the youth – especially in their efforts to become self-reliant. However, a popular view of the respondents was that parents neglected the youth immediately after the latter joined the world of work. More specifically, 62% of the sample at least supported this view. This finding suggests a need to engage parents and educate them on why they should continue assisting the youth even after school. The MOYSC and local BOYS/Offices should create appropriate forums and bring key actors together to share such ideas.

6.7.3 Youth's views on the problem of exclusion and marginalization

Asked about if youth are marginalized in the labour market, the majority of the respondents (60 percent) responded 'yes' while 21 and 7 percent said 'no' and 'do not know' respectively. The recurrent response participants gave to the how of marginalization is that they are not duly acknowledged, they are considered as problem makers and not be part of the solution at all. In addition, a young person's subjective realizations of the felt difficulties are not usually acknowledged and he/she is not invited to working close together with him/her.

6.8 Findings from Focus Group and Key Informant Discussions

6.8.1 Findings of the Focus Group Discussions

Focus Group Discussions (FGD's) were also conducted to capture qualitative responses from selected groups of youth in both urban and rural areas. The issues discussed in the FGD sessions mainly focused on the following six core areas. These are: causes of youth unemployment in Ethiopia, problems being faced by youth in either finding a job or establishing own work, problems being faced by women in either finding a job or establishing own work, problems being faced by youth from poor and disadvantaged groups in either finding a job or establishing own work, the challenge of marginalization, policy/program of actions needed to be adopted and who should be responsible for the actions.

Major findings

The FGD results do not show much variation in the perception of youth from rural and urban areas with regard to the various issues discussed. Some variation in the perception, however, was observed among youth belonging to disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged groups. While detailed findings of the discussions have been presented in *Annex 1*, the following sections briefly present the views and perceptions of the participants.

6.8.1.1 Perceived Causes of youth unemployment in Ethiopia

Most of the participants in the FGD sessions in all study areas, irrespective of their social groupings, living place or gender perceived that poverty, lack of quality education/skill development training, high population growth and mismatched economic activities were the major causes of youth unemployment in Ethiopia.

Youth belonging to non-disadvantaged groups also perceived that discriminatory practices (such as social discrimination and favoritism) of employers were one of the reasons for high unemployment of disadvantaged youth. Similarly, youth from disadvantaged groups perceived that unfair recruitment practices of employers, low access of disadvantaged youth to the urban economy and deep-rooted traditional beliefs among the disadvantaged youth had also resulted in high youth unemployment, notably of the disadvantaged groups in Ethiopia.

6.8.1.2 Problems Faced by Youth to Find a Job or Establishing Own Work

Youth belonging to non-disadvantaged groups pointed out one crucial problem/constraint faced in starting their own work; that is, lack of financial resources/loan facilities. In addition, the following points are also mentioned as major challenges for the disadvantaged youth:

- High level of illiteracy/lack of good education/lack of vocational training
- High social discrimination practices in their areas
- No access to information and communication
- Rural areas being marginalized while initiating economic activities

A number of solutions to address the unemployment problem were suggested by youth from disadvantaged as well as non-disadvantaged groups. These include: youth should be encouraged to find self-employment rather than trying to find salaried jobs; easy access to loan facilities should be made for starting own work; and provision should be made for adequate training facilities. In addition to these, youth from disadvantaged groups also gave other solutions to address the unemployment problem in their areas. These include:

- The existing social discriminatory practices should be eliminated;
- The Government should come up with appropriate policies and programs to address youth unemployment and
- Employers should eliminate discriminatory practices in providing employment opportunities for male and female youth.

6.8.1.3 Problems being faced by women in finding employment or starting their own work

Discrimination between sons and daughters within the family, low level of education or lack of education, and lack of self confidence among women were regarded by both disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged youth as the main problem/constraints being faced by women in getting a job or starting their own work. In addition, the low age of marriage for women was also perceived as one of the main problems/obstacles being faced by women in rural areas.

Regarding solutions to the problem/obstacles, both groups of young people agreed that society should change their discriminatory practices between young males and females. Implementation of special educational programs to raise women's status and provision for an employment quota for women was suggested as the solution by youth from non-disadvantaged groups. Youth from disadvantaged groups also suggested the following steps for addressing the problems:

- Programmes aimed at raising the status of women should be implemented
- The Government should promote equal participation of males and females in economic activities
- Eliminate discrimination between males and females at the family level
- Women should have easier access to loans for starting own work

6.8.1.4 Problems being faced by youth from the poor and disadvantaged groups in getting employment or starting their own work

In response to the question regarding the problems being faced by the poor and disadvantaged youth in getting employment or starting their own work, most of the participating youth of both groups in the study areas perceived lack of access to resources as the root cause of the problem faced by them.

The participants felt that due to poverty and lack of access to resources, these youth have not been able to acquire an adequate level of education or training to compete in the labour market. The participants also felt that due to high illiteracy/lack of education, youth from poor and disadvantaged groups are still deeply rooted in their traditional value system. Thus, due to lack of education on the one hand and limited or no access to

financial resources on the other, these youth have also not been in a position to start their own work.

6.8.1.5 The Challenges of youth marginalization

Participants underscored in their discussion that the tragedy that engulfs marginalized youth is that while their energy, creativity, and resilience are not adequately recognized by government, civil society, and international actors, their many assets may be well recognized by those who seek to manipulate them. Drug and gang operators and others seeking to exploit the youth labor all appreciate at least some of what youth potential can readily provide. All too often, they work on marginalized youth with few competitors. Social, economic, and perhaps even political alienation, together with the dangers of HIV/AIDS, prostitution and trafficking, form an explosive cocktail for youth living on the margins of the target cities.

Participants also felt that what urban youth seek—access to capital and targeted nonformal education— is often not what government, non-government and international investors are prepared to provide. Indeed, a disjuncture has surfaced between the central foci of national and international development activities and youth at the forefront. Even though youth are flocking to cities in pursuit of better attention, most development efforts are simply not targeting them sufficiently or effectively.

Regarding solutions to the problem/obstacles, both groups of young people agreed that programs featuring youth participation are a necessary but clearly insufficient method for supporting the marginalized youth. Moreover, support for youth in targeted, appropriate ways should lie at the core of government and donor investments. Inclusion is the key. Youth from all backgrounds— but particularly those from the marginalized majority — should be viewed as a resource for providing advice and direct input on how to support them.

In general, most of the FGD participants in all study areas felt that the Government should urgently come up with adequate policies and programmes that are focused on improving the current educational status and employment opportunities for these youth. Most participants also felt that in order to improve the current situation, the Government should implement programmes such as, special education/training for youth from poor and disadvantaged groups, making provision for easy access to loans and other financial benefits and creating an environment that enables youth from these groups to freely participate in social and economic activities.

6.8.2 Findings of the Key Informant Interview

Key informant Interviews (KII's) were also conducted to capture qualitative responses from selected government office stakeholders, the private sector and NGO/CSO stakeholders. The issues discussed in the KII sessions mainly focused on the following five core areas. These are: causes of youth unemployment in Ethiopia, problems being faced by youth in either finding a job or establishing own work, problems being faced by women in either finding a job or establishing own work, services given to the youth, challenges faced in youth employment service provision, disadvantaged groups in either

finding a job or establishing own work, policy/program of actions needed to be adopted and who should be responsible for the actions.

The following are main challenges Summarized by sector:

TEVT

- Adequate access to affordable vocational training is a serious challenge. Young people state that private vocational training is too expensive and that there are not enough spaces in the public centers or that these slots are meted out through nepotism and corruption.
- Vocational training is often not connected to current or emerging labor market demand, and does not build in the assumption that many youth will have to create their own businesses because the formal sector is not yet robust enough to absorb them.
- Institutional linkages between employment opportunities and supply of trained workers need to be made more efficient. Coordination efforts through employment centers, guidance counselors and training centers need to be more effective in bridging trained candidates to job opportunities.
- Vocational training capacity is weak: curriculum, pedagogy, equipment, and learning materials all need to be updated and upgraded for 21st century competitiveness.

MSE Development and Credit Provision Sectors;

- Limited fund is available to address youth demand
- Youth entrepreneurship within Ethiopia is underdeveloped and therefore relatively high misuse of micro-credit services by the youth which consequently leads to bad debt.
- Knowledge and opportunities around savings among children and youth is absent as most banks are not promoting savings programs to young people.
- There is a lack of financial institutions in rural areas. The rural savings and loan cooperatives are not sufficient and have multiple of problems
- There is a challenging trend in Ethiopia's financial sector: a growing banking segment that continues to focus on a small but wealthy portion of the population.
- There is little practical learning and little adult/youth mentorship, apprenticeships and coaching. Adults need to learn to work in partnership with youth and support them in transition from education to work. Policy and institutional support is needed to develop practical mechanisms for this to succeed.
- With a few exceptions, a 'culture of youth entrepreneurship' is neither widely recognized nor promoted. There are many youth entrepreneurs who feel that either their intentions are not considered trustworthy or that their ideas are not taken seriously.
- The MSME formal sector is under-developed and entry is highly regulated.
- Despite government's meticulous commitment, there still is a low supply of economically accessible entrepreneurial training and resources for youth.
- The stigma around youth entrepreneurs in the informal economy prevents Ethiopian society from working with them and building upon their already developed entrepreneurial skills.

- There are limited opportunities for youth to become entrepreneurial in rural settings.
- General lack of entrepreneurial skill and dynamism
- Traditional and underdeveloped business sector
- Low diversification of businesses/ domination of petty trading
- Dispersed fragmented and unorganized micro and small operators
- Lack of capital and financial resources for internal operation
- Lack of basic business management skills
- Insufficient skills and skilled workers
- Absence of collaboration and cooperation among MSEs
- Socio-cultural attitudes and low awareness towards quality, standard, safety, etc
- Low demand for training, consultancy, etc services even if provided free

It was found out that there was little or no communication network among different government bodies, local NGOs, INGOs, UN Agencies stakeholders in their endeavor to curb youth unemployment and marginalization. There was also found out that there was some duplication of efforts. The causes mentioned for these include:

- Lack of information on the existence, roles and responsibilities of different actors
- Lack of understanding and information on the overall youth services and the problems faced
- Existing gaps in coordination between different interventions
- Lack of communication between different actors

CHAPTER SEVEN

7 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Summary of Findings

Main Findings

- Youth in general attend school but about one-tenth of them were still deprived of educational opportunities. Deprivation of school opportunities was higher among female youth and among the rural youth.
- Youth generally stopped education/training at about 17 years. They usually stopped education because of economic reasons. Lack of an enjoyable environment in the school was also a significant reason, especially for male youth.
- Quite a few female youth stopped education because of marriage or failure in examinations. Very few youth had the opportunity to study full time. Most of them worked while they studied. Employment while in school was usually in private enterprises or as private teachers (tutor) in urban areas while farming was by rural participants.
- The majority of the urban youth are immigrants from rural communities in search of means for livelihood. Despite high unemployment challenges in urban areas, they prefer to reside in urban areas. Their main reasons for urban preference are lack of food security in rural village, poor social and physical infrastructure, lack of job opportunities, marital reasons, family dispute, communal dispute, poor quality of education, used to urban life and general dislike for village life.
- Vocational training was still not perceived by youth as education that will help them get a good job. Youth generally felt a higher academic degree was required to obtain a good job.
- Female youth gave more emphasis to good family life whereas male youth gave priority to earning money or success at work.
- The most frequently mentioned quality identified by youth as necessary to obtain a good job was university education.
- Because of job security, government or public sector work was the most preferred type of work. However, there were no clear preferred sectors. The agriculture sector, which is the largest employment sector in the country, was one of the least preferred sectors identified by youth. In general, youth preferred to work in the non-agricultural sector.
- Unemployment was quite rampant among the youth. Almost one-third of the youth in the surveyed labor force were unemployed. The unemployment rate was higher among female youth. Female youth usually withdraw from the labour force after marriage. As a result, almost one-half of female youth were out of the labour force.
- There exists considerable rural unemployment. This is due to shortage of land access for the youth, reduction of land fertility, and lack of infrastructure that makes life attractive in rural villages, poor extension and marketing system.
- The most frequent explanations of the causes of unemployment in Ethiopia include: rapid population growth, poor dissemination of labor market information, skills mismatch, structural reforms, unbalanced economic growth, high costs of labor, lack of technical skills, lack of experience, discrimination of the youth

- particularly women, poor integration of the education system with labour market, inaccessibility to useful information on time, poor extension and marketing system Shortage of land access to work on.
- . The study affirmed that despite their numeric strength, the youth strongly feel marginalized at all levels of decision making. Accordingly, the youth constitute a category of our population that is continuously grumbling.
 - There is hardly any *Center for Employment Services in Ethiopia*. Ethiopian youth neither get any career or educational counseling services nor do they know the relevance of guidance and counseling.
 - Rural women face hardships to get employment than urban women and rural men.
 - Both rural and urban youth urgently need support in their endeavor of searching for jobs. These supports include: labour market information, vocational training and labour law training, entrepreneurship and life skill trainings, assistance with training free of charge, entering university, practical experience before working employment services.
 - Most of the youth know that there is a government body who exclusively work on their affairs but the majority of them believe this body leaves too much to change their situation of unemployment and marginalization.
 - Most youth have never heard of the Youth Policy which is meant to address their unemployment and marginalization issues.
 - The government of Ethiopia, international organizations and the private sector are aware of the seriousness of youth unemployment. At this point, however, only older projects are operating, and at levels that will not make a dent in the problem. The government of Ethiopia has the following agencies dealing generally with unemployment, including youth unemployment: MOLSA/BOLSA, MYSC/BOYS and MOFED/BOFED. International organizations such as the UNDP, GTZ, World Bank, and ILO have programs dealing with poverty alleviation, poor urban areas and vocational training, but none of them is specifically targeted at uneducated and unemployed youth. Only youth associations and few local NGO/CSOs incorporate youth unemployment and marginalization related initiatives in their programmes.
 - There found hardly any private sector initiative to the youth with regards to unemployment and marginalization.
 - Government has put in place policies and initiatives and many of the current and past policies have a bearing on employment creation. Additionally, there are a few initiatives, local and international, aimed at direct job creation, skills development and provision of credit facilities.
 - The recent efforts by the Federal and regional governments of Ethiopia to address the problems faced by the youth through policy and program plans are appreciable; but much more still remain to be done. What should be emphasized is effective implementation of these plans and policies by the government. Planning without implementation has remained a major concern of the youth.
 - Youth believe that the Ethiopian government, NGO/CSOs, youth themselves, and parents are the key actors to curb their challenge of unemployment and marginalization
 - Youth marginalization takes place mainly due to failure to acknowledge the youth as partner and labeling the youth as “problem creator”.

7.2 Conclusions

- Youth unemployment is still a serious problem and needs to be addressed with multisectoral and multi-stakeholder approach. Despite its initiatives and commitment to curb youth unemployment and marginalization, the Government should urgently form a high-level commission to chart a plan of action to address the problem of youth unemployment. The assistance of specialized agencies such the International Labor Organization and NGO's should be sought in developing such a plan of action. Successfully addressing the youth unemployment problem would also help mitigate the current the poverty problem in the country.
- Since there is no system currently in place for a successful school/college to work transition, the youth in Ethiopia represents the bulk of the unemployed and underemployed; and the majority working in MSEs-both formal and informal. Besides, there is no program or an organization working to link the school-living young with the world of work or with business world. Consequently, the young face multi-faceted challenges as they are less welcomed by the labour market due to various reasons including level of aggregate demand in the economy, the employment intensity of the growth, the regulatory and administrative environment for enterprises, their work experience, and the availability of entrepreneurship options.
- The results of the Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) reveal that prevailing discriminatory practices towards women, the poor and disadvantaged groups have resulted in limited access to employment opportunities for youth of these groups. The Government and all stakeholders should, therefore, take immediate action to make equity and social inclusion an integral part of the social and economic development plan/programme.
- The study reveals that lack of an adequate level of education/training has resulted in limited access to employment opportunities of youth in general and those from poor and disadvantaged groups in particular. Therefore, efforts should be made to raise the educational level of the youth. Further, it should be ensured that the type of education being provided to the youth match the skills that are in demand in the labour market.
- The study reveals that although vocational education/training helps in the ease of transition of youth to a regular or career job, vocational education/training is still held at low esteem by the youth. Therefore, efforts need to be made to change the views held by youth toward vocational education/training.
- Generally youth prefer non-agricultural jobs to jobs in the agricultural sector. Nonagricultural sectors are so far more productive (in terms of labour productivity) than agricultural sector. Therefore, future emphasis should be in promoting nonagricultural sectors, especially in the formal sector, as they are more productive and offer better working conditions and compensation packages to their workers. The informal sector, on the other hand, has a very low productivity and thus, employment in this sector may not be very helpful in reducing poverty in the country.

7.3 Recommendations

Achieving decent work for young people is a critical element for Ethiopia. Currently, national priority areas are to ensure peace, development and democracy, increase economic growth, reduce poverty and unemployment and achieve sustainable development. Additionally, Ethiopia is undergoing a period of peace, development and democracy building which will hopefully result in economic stability and growth. There will be a considerable need for adaptability of both workers and employers to these new circumstances. The Government's recognition of youth unemployment issue and showing commitment in ratifying youth policy and various youth growth packages is commendable. Yet, it is important to recognize that there is no one approach or 'prescription' for addressing the youth employment challenge. Indeed there are a variety of interventions which are needed and which involve many actors. Some of these interventions will relate specifically to youth but many others relate to improving the functioning of the labour market in general. Additionally, while government commitment and policy coordination are essential, the Government cannot do it alone. There is a need for a strong involvement of the social partners, youth groups and the mobilization of all other relevant actors within civil society.

The following provides some suggestions for review and consideration by the national actors:

Strengthening the policy environment

- Ethiopia needs to make employment promotion more central to economic policy making. This can be done through adopting a more employment-intensive growth. Sectoral development policies have an important role in employment creation. Certain sectors are important to youth employment because of the type of skills required (e.g. information technology, industry, construction) and for their high elasticity in creating new jobs. Employment promotion policies need to put equal emphasis on labour demand and labour supply as well as bridging the supply of labour with demand.
- There is a need to enhance collaboration between CSA, policy makers and researchers to improve labour market statistics for addressing issues related to youth unemployment and underemployment especially the dynamics (exit, entry, duration) of unemployment and self-employment.

Reducing Unemployment via rural- urban migration:

To avoid the negative consequences of excessive rural-urban migration by improving conditions in rural migrants' areas of origin programs should be designed by:

- Improving micro-credit provision with group collateral provisions
- Promoting opportunities for multiple and non-farming livelihoods, including trade and business
- Promoting rural development as key centers of services and economic opportunities for surrounding rural population to avoid adverse effects of excessive migration to cities

- Promoting affirmative actions for women including in education, skills training, access to training, legal rights to land including through certification, right to property on divorce, and the effective implementation of the family code.
- Promoting access to resources by the youth, particularly access to land and other communal resources.

Creating employment through the development of the rural nonfarm sector

In creating employment through the development of the rural nonfarm sector, the rural nonfarm sector should integrate farming into the national and international value chains helping to transfer value addition to rural areas in the early stages of economic development. At this stage activities of the rural nonfarm sector are closely linked to agriculture, the main employer of the rural labour force. Rural nonfarm enterprises are located mainly in the countryside and are related to the provision of agricultural inputs and services, crop processing and distribution. A dynamic agricultural sector is therefore associated with more rural nonfarm activity. In the second stage of rural nonfarm sector development rural-urban links become stronger, with workers commuting from rural areas to small towns for employment, and agro industries grow rapidly, although farming is still important. The third stage sees greater emphasis on rural-urban links, more employment in non-agricultural activities and a move towards commercial agriculture.

Making education and training more market relevant:

Since very few students in the survey have benefited from vocational training, young people can be encouraged to consider vocational training courses by improving its image and enhancing the quality of training provided. Vocational training streams within the school system should not be viewed as for those who are not able to continue with the academic streams, but rather, as a choice and based on an awareness of future employment options. It is important to modernize the national qualifications framework and skills certification procedures in order to facilitate flexibility through life-long learning or mobile training units as examples. Additionally, it is essential to introduce portable skills and competencies as part of the national qualifications framework. In terms of gender equality in skills development, it is important to diversify the courses offered to women in the vocational training field. Both women and men should be free to choose their training rather than be bound by an institutional set up based on social stereotypes of acceptable jobs for either men or women.

Another area is strengthening the role of the private sector in guiding vocational training policies and programmes in order to make them more market driven and introduce new forms of training which involve employers such as on-the-job training and apprenticeship programmes.

Equipping young people for labour market integration:

It is essential to support activities that help bridge the output of the educational system and labour market demands. This includes introducing mentoring programmes, training on soft skills, job search methods, as well as placing career counselors both at schools and universities. Students and job seekers are not always informed about their options of

either study fields or jobs. Hence, the role of a counselor can prove to be vital in supporting young men and women to make decisions about their future.

Promoting job creation programmes:

Direct short-term job creation can compensate for shortcomings in the private sector to create jobs. Wage subsidies or paid apprenticeship programmes are one way to achieve this. Such measures can be introduced by the Government. These types of measures do not only support young people through job placement but also support the employers who have been badly affected by the conflict. One of the intended results of such programmes is therefore to encourage the private sector to grow and to also invest in young employees' development and training. Another form of short-term direct job creation is through public works programmes. These programmes can target disadvantaged young people with limited skills. Public investments in infrastructure remain one of the few means at the disposal of the Government to directly create jobs and opportunities. Worldwide experience has shown that greater employment content can be achieved without increasing the level of investments, and the resulting products can be of the same quality and delivered a time.

Public investments provide a great opportunity to improve participation and governance through appropriate local-level planning, improved contracting and procurement systems and procedures for transparent management and implementation. Additionally, these programmes are the cornerstones for building capacity at decentralized levels and thus assisting the Government's decentralization process.

Promoting self employment

The informal economy in Ethiopia is the refuge sector for the marginalized; the unskilled and unplaced young workers who are all attempting to survive through petty trading and production of goods and services. It is also the sector where poverty and the working poor are concentrated. Promoting self employment through institutional, financial, and capacity-building support is crucial for improving productivity, incomes, and other decent work deficits.

Measures to expand small-scale enterprise and micro finance opportunities within sectors with a potential for employment and income generation include the following:

1. creating an enabling regulatory environment for the growth of small enterprises;
2. developing business development services which include access to finance and information, training, information on technology, improving market access among other support services and improving the existing ones;
3. putting in place institutional mechanisms for finance and management;
4. Strengthening national and local capacities to undertake policy reform and to provide expanded services for starting and expanding micro and small enterprises;
5. Integrating programmes in vocational schools and colleges to create linkage between educational institutes and industry so as to give young people the chance to explore the opportunities of self-employment through the practical and direct involvement of local businesses. The experience of other countries in entrepreneurship development shows this can prepare the ground for young men and women to take enterprise creation as a career option.

6. Giving the same attention to the provision of working premises to privately operating young entrepreneurs similar to the cooperatives in provision of working premises and other business infrastructures to be make them more competitive and contribute more in employment, creating market for local inputs, and skill transfer.
7. Inculcating a national movement are required to make our culture conducive for the development of entrepreneurship and emergence of innovative youth.
8. The financial institutions should be made user friendly by including counseling service and lowering the interest rates for the young MSE owners, especially for those who are operating privately.

Nevertheless, it is important to highlight here that not all young people can be suitable for this type of job generation since it requires continuous support and an enabling policy environment. Therefore, unskilled and vulnerable young women and men may face additional burdens if they do not succeed. As such, while promoting this type of job generation may be attractive it is important not to look at it as the panacea of job generation, and to carefully develop programmes to identify the right target groups and develop the appropriate supportive environment.

Ensuring inclusion and equal opportunity

The results of this study confirmed the serious gap in employment rates and transition to work between males and females. While labour force participation rates of women have increased over the last decades this has not necessarily been matched by equity in job quality. In addition, as this survey has shown that the early age of marriage for women seriously hinders transition to work and that women tend to be constrained by a limited choice in occupations. There is increasing evidence that increasing equity can produce major economic dividends and contribute towards greater efficiency, poverty reduction and economic growth. Conversely, inequality slows economic growth. Active measures to promote equality on the part of Ethiopia can help to make full use of the country's human capital and unleash untapped creativity and innovation. In Ethiopia, there are currently many short and long-term measures aimed at promoting equality at work, yet more efforts are needed. Some of these are in the following areas:

- Improve the quality, timeliness, and duration of skill training offered through Centers for Employment Services and other state-funded institutions, so that they meet employers' demands. This also includes research on future skills needs in both rural and urban areas of the country, as well as for overseas employment. Development of an active network between CESs and employers or employers' organizations at local and regional level could facilitate such improvements and would also help with the placement of young job-seekers in enterprises.
- Prepare a national counseling policy with implementation strategy, institutional arrangement and infrastructure for the youth. It should offer gender-sensitive counseling, guidance and other forms of support for young people while in secondary school, vocational school or university. This support would help young people to understand better the requirements of the job market, and would assist them in making appropriate choices with regard to education, training courses, and careers. Career counseling centers should

ideally be accessible to all young people under 30, rather than only those still enrolled in educational institutions. The private sector may play an important role in this regard.

- Facilitate the development of an efficient and effective system of placement for apprenticeship, which would link young job-seekers with enterprises that are hiring young workers. Care should be taken to ensure that enterprises comply with any existing legislation or policies about the payment of workers during periods of on-the-job training or apprenticeship, in line with international conventions. Special programmes would be necessary for drop-out youth and other target groups, and gender sensitivity of the system should be ensured.
- Continue attempts to make secondary, vocational and university education accessible to an increasing number of qualified young people, and avoid early drop-out – especially among girls and young women – in order to reduce the number of the youth who enter the job market without the necessary skills.
- Enable greater cooperation among government, NGOs and CSOs such as the Youth Associations, the Women’s Associations and school groups, in order to strengthen their knowledge about youth employment and justice issues.

Creating partnership among government, the private sector and NGO/CSOs on Youth Employment issues

Employers and employers’ organizations:

- Develop and implement equal opportunity policies, and develop procedures to handle complaints.
- Initiate school-visit programmes, to introduce young people to sources of information about the labor force and career planning.
- Establish job fairs at secondary and vocational schools or universities as a means for recruitment of highly skilled workers and for information dissemination about required technical or professional skills.

Recommendations for equipping employers and other stakeholders:

- Establish a platform where collaboration between industry and training institutions can be harnessed to help the youth acquire some experience.
- Provide approaches and tool kits to replicating private sector initiatives to support youth employment.
- Support the establishment of observatories to conduct ongoing data gathering on private sector youth employment.
- Support Government initiatives to promote private sector youth employment, such as taxation incentives and other Government-led incentive schemes.
- Organize and support youth employment events focusing on all job categories, which tend to be limited to professional job categories, in order to address the stated need from private sector companies in Ethiopia to participate in such events.

Worker and Employer Associations:

Although Worker Associations have not received much attention in the study report, they too have an important role to play in stimulating their youth members in their career development and help youth potential employees with employability skill. Since many

young people are introduced to the work of unions and workers' associations during secondary school and university or their first years in the workforce, these organizations are in an excellent position to undertake the following:

- Raise awareness about equality of opportunity and assist in the establishment of internal complaints procedures within enterprises.
- Act as a source of information regarding education and training opportunities for employees.
- Facilitate mentoring programmes in order for youth apprentice to learn from and be inspired by successful older workers.

Proposal for Immediate program Interventions

- Impact evaluation should be built into unemployment alleviation programmes (e.g. training programmes, public works) to gauge their impact.
- The government, employers, trade unions and education institutions should conduct skills gap analysis and find effective ways of disseminating this information. This will stem skills mismatch.
- Review labour market regulations to ensure they do not make it difficult for employers to adjust their workforce when economic conditions demand.
- Review the tripartite relationship between the social partners (chambers of commerce, government and employers) to ensure that they share the same objective of promoting economic growth with social protection. The Danish labour market model could be studied closely to see how social partners can work together. The viability of exporting various categories of labour from Ethiopia to countries that have a labour shortage should be considered. If viable, the government should formulate policies and regulations to encourage labour migration and put in place mechanisms and incentives to attract remittances and investment inflows without high costs and complications. Mechanisms should also be put in place to protect Ethiopians working abroad.

Country Experience Recommended

The following youth employment creation methods have been recommended for Ethiopian context as per the findings of the study:

1. Apprenticeship in Nigeria

An example of the attempt at linking education and training at the workplace is the Nigeria's National Open Apprenticeship Scheme in Nigeria under the Ministry of Labor and Productivity's National Directorate of Employment. Under the scheme vocational education and training in more than 100 occupations are provided to unemployed young people. The program uses production facilities such as workshops and technical instructors of private industries, government institutions and, by way of a subcontracting arrangement, wayside craftspeople and trades people (informal sector operators). Unemployed young people and school-leavers can train for six months to three years under reputable master craftspeople. To enhance trainees' theoretical understanding of the trade in which they are involved, theory classes are organized every Saturday to complement the practical training received. Since the scheme's inception in 1987 nearly 600,000 unemployed young people have received training, and 400,000 of them have started their own micro enterprises.

2. New Zealand's Model of Multi-stakeholder Collaboration

Create a coordination mechanism to coordinate and promote collaboration among stakeholders for joint approach in addressing unemployment to reduce fragmentation of efforts to fight unemployment. A good example of coordination is New Zealand's Model of engaging the business community with educational institutions. Some aspects of the relationship are: (i) industrialists sit in as members of the boards of educational institutions and provide input into curricular and (ii) teacher - and student - placements in industries during school holidays to sensitize teachers on the skills. These and other coordination arrangements can be developed and implemented in Ethiopia.

3. The SENAI Model in Brazil

Brazil is one country whose vocational technical training model is extensively copied. This system has worked for decades and has been exported to other Latin American countries as well as to Africa.

The Brazilian SENAI was created in the early forties, ushering a long sequence of similar institutions in just about all countries of the hemisphere. In essence, SENAI-type institutions are funded through a payroll tax of around 1 percent. The SENAI, SENA, SENAC, SENATI, INCE, INA, INACAP, as these independent institutions are known in the various countries... in most cases fall under the responsibility of the ministries of labor, rather than education and are much closer to the productive sector than regular academic schools. They also benefited from a set of very interesting and robust teaching methods, the "methodical series," which provided solid materials to the thousands of vocational schools spread around the continent. Since they were detached from academic schools, these institutions catered to students after they left them. As schooling levels in the region increased, they were able to readjust their offerings to meet the needs of students with more education. They also shifted from pre-employment training to a much larger share of programs offered to improve the skills of those already in the labor force. For that reason, the sharp distinction which is often made between pre-employment and the upgrading of skills is not as important because the training institutions are the same and they tend to adjust their offerings according to market conditions.

4. Yes-South Africa

Another outstanding project is the Youth Enterprise Society (YES) in South Africa:

The YES program was initiated by Ohio State University in 1989 at the insistence of South Africa's youth and their teachers. It is an extra-mural activity that runs throughout the year. Students in grades 7 and above are enrolled. The mission of YES is 'to empower young people, through enterprise, to become masters of their own destinies. Or, put another way, to help more and more young people to become business creators rather than simply job seekers'. It thus seeks to help alleviate unemployment by encouraging young people to consider entrepreneurship as a career option. Participants develop business competencies through a range of activities. Schools provide their premises, teachers serve as advisors/facilitators, and young men and women, along with community leaders, educationists, business leaders together contribute to "create awareness and interest in free-market entrepreneurship as a career option amongst young people", demonstrating the high potential of partnerships between the public education sector and multiple stakeholders for achieving effective education and training. (ECA 2002, 12)

5. YES-Kenya

YES-Kenya is a national multi-stakeholder network involved in promoting youth employment in Kenya. The network was established in 2002. YES Kenya's vision is to facilitate the full and relevant employment of youth so that they can realize their full potential as individuals and collectively as members of society through economic, political and social action. It works with various stakeholders, including the Government of Kenya, to ensure sustainable livelihood for youth through advocacy for employment creation policies and programmes. The network is currently working on capacity building programmes in partnership with other development partners and collaborating institutions. The objectives of YES-Kenya are to: build the capacity of at least 20 per cent of the young people (youth) in Kenya, influence all relevant legal and policy making processes in Kenya to ensure they are pro-youth employment, enhance networking and strategic partnerships at local, regional and global levels and mobilize resources to build the internal capacity of YES-Kenya.

The achievements of the network include: YES-Kenya has been a key partner in developing Kenya's Youth Policy and has, therefore, increased youth participation in decision making. YES-Kenya has received recognition from the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development and participates in the roundtable set by the Ministry to encourage cross-sectional collaborative development of unemployed youth.

6. Brahmin Bank of Bangladesh

Brahmin Bank of Bangladesh was founded by Professor Muhammad Yunus in 1979. The success of this bank is a prime example of the success of micro financing and rural employment creation in many developing countries. In this system, a group of around 5 women in rural areas (solidarity) whom want to borrow money from the Brahmin Bank for business enterprises is made. Then one of the members of this group borrows a quite small amount of money, normally around 500 US\$ for her business, such as to buy hens, goats, cows or raw materials for handmade crafts. If this borrower could return the entire amount of the money, then another member could then borrow money from the Brahmin Bank. If some trouble of an accident happens to the borrower and she cannot return the money, the other members try to help her solve that problem. Professor Yunus pointed out that this collaboration activity for solving problems is a key success factor for micro finance. Even though they do not request any collateral from the borrower, their collectability of the money they lend is more than 90%. This model of micro finance, as well, helped to accelerate entrepreneurs and assists the SME sector's development, especially development of micro industry enterprises and family businesses (so called rural industrialization). Brahmin Banks do not only provide finance to poor people of rural areas but they also try to provide new business opportunities such as establishing cellular phone companies and lending of cellular phones to rural people to support communication in their business development.

7. PSI program of YEN-WA

The Youth Employment Network for West Africa (YEN-WA) has implemented document tested youth unemployment and marginalization curbing initiative called Private Sector Initiative(PSI), a multi-stakeholder platform for business action on youth

employment in several countries of the West Africa. The purpose of PSI is to facilitate private sector involvement in creating opportunities for youth employment. With the progress made towards improving the business environment in West Africa, youth are turning to the private sector to gain meaningful employment. From small and medium scale entrepreneurs, to professional service careers, to jobs in big business involved in industry and telecommunications, the private sector is becoming a driver to job security for youth and economic development in West Africa. The 3 areas of Private Sector Initiative (PSI) are: Knowledge management, network building, and brokering partnerships. This initiative has been effective in creating jobs for millions of youth in West Africa.

8. Self Help Group (SHG) of India

The SHG is an informal association of like - minded people with a common objective of working together for their economic and social development as well as for the overall village development. Each SHG would be made to consist of 15 - 20 members who are homogenous and related by affinity. This self-help approach aims to reintegrate marginalized people like vulnerable youth or street children through social, economic and political empowerment. The SHG will give us a good opportunity to provide small business skill, saving, loan and Vocational training for the youth. As they are homogeneous group it will be easier to teach them peer education.

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Appendix i Result of FGD

Summary of findings of Focus Group Discussion among general groups and disadvantaged groups

Issues discussed	Findings of FGD among general group	Findings of FGD among disadvantaged/marginalized group
1. Causes of unemployment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Poverty · Lack of infrastructural base (e.g., education, transport, communication etc.) · Lack of quality education/skill · development training -youth are not in a position to compete in the labour Market/no access to vocational training facilities · No access to media such as newspapers where most of the vacancies are announced; no access to internet · Employment opportunities confined Within the capital city and some major urban areas High growth of population/no development activities taking place to accommodate the rapidly growing labour force · Quality of education provided by the government colleges is not as good as private education institutions situation (the number of displaced population is rising and most of them have migrated to the major urban centres and this has also resulted in high unemployment · New economic activities are virtually non-existent and existing business/industrial establishments are also crumbling down) · Very difficult to find a job without Strong recommendation of someone in high places · Social discrimination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Lack of education/high level of illiteracy · Poverty · High population growth · Ongoing conflict and political instability · Lack of skill development training · Lack of technical know-how · Lack of basic infrastructure · Very low level of new economic activities · Closing down of the existing industries Employment opportunities centered around the capital and few market areas · The recruitment process adopted by the employers is not fair · Low level of access to urban centres · Youth are still deeply rooted in traditional beliefs
2. Problem being faced by youth either to find a job or establishing own work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Frequent strikes and bandhs · Lack of loan facilities, lack of collateral to draw loan from banks to start own work · Ongoing conflict and unstable political situation has resulted in high unemployment of youth <p style="text-align: center;"><i>What should be done?</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Lack of education/high level of illiteracy/ lack of vocational training · Lack of financial resources · Lack of infrastructures like roads, etc. · Ineffective advisory support and market system High discriminatory practices in the society · No access to information and

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Self-confidence should be built up among youth · Youth should be encouraged to be self employed rather than looking for salaried job · Easy loan facilities should be made available for youth to start their own work · Provision of adequate training facilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> communication facilities · Lack of industrial and other entrepreneurial activities · Rural areas being sidelined in economic activities · Lack of self confidence among youth · Lack of vocational training/skills · Lack of agricultural technology (e.g., irrigation, fertilizers etc.) · Lack of loan facility for agricultural activities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Access to market for the products (whether agricultural or industrial products) · Priorities should be set for local production · Settlement of ongoing conflict and political instability · Priorities for employing youth in their own locality 	<p><i>What should be done?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Education/training should be employment generative/vocational training to youth · Eliminate discriminatory practices in the society · Raise the level of confidence of youth · Provision of information and communication facilities · Easy access to market to dispose of Own products · Initiation of cooperative savings facilities · Provide easy access to loans to start self employment · Appropriate government policies and programmes addressed at youth employment · Provision of agricultural technology · Training to youth on modern agriculture techniques · Reduce high population growth rate · Employment opportunities should match youth skill · Encourage youth for self employment · Promote the establishment of medium and small-scale industries · Eliminate social discrimination in employment opportunities

<p>3. Problems faced by the poor and disadvantage-ed groups</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Discrimination between sons and daughters · Low level of education and employment · Lack of self-confidence · Lack of resources · Too busy with household chores · Discrimination between men and women by the employers What should be done? · Discrimination should be eliminated · Priority should be given to female employment · Provision of employment quota for women job seekers · NGOs should implement programmes that are beneficial to women · Special educational programmes should be implemented for women that will also boost their self confidence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Social discrimination between men and women · Lack of programme directed at raising the status of women · Women being too busy with household chores · Lack of economic independence · Lack of self confidence · Lack of access to employment opportunities · Lack of education · Marriage of women at very young age (women end up being too busy with their household chores including in bearing and rearing children) What should be done? · Raise the level of self confidence among women · Women should be unified to achieve the common cause · Society should change their discriminatory attitude towards women · Programme aimed at women should be prioritized · Women should have easy access to loans to start their own work · Make provision of compulsory education to girls · Promote equal participation of men and women in economic activities · Initiate programme to create development activities for the marginalized youth · Make provision for easy access to loans for the marginalized to start their own work · Promote late marriage of girls · the marginalized should be encouraged to continue their traditional work providing different facilities including market for their products · the marginalized should be encouraged to freely participate in social and economic activities of the community · the marginalized youth should be provided with free scholarships · Poor and marginalized group themselves should take initiatives · Family and society · Government · Political parties · I/NGOs · Employers
<p>5. Who should Be responsible?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Youth themselves should take initiative · Family members · programmes for youth employment I/NGOs 	

Issues Discussed	Findings of FGD among general group	Findings of FGD among disadvantaged group
4. Problems faced by the poor and disadvantaged groups	<p>Poor</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Inability of the Government to identify people who are really poverty stricken · Inability to compete in the labour market · Lack of education/training · Strong belief in traditional values · Lack of access to resources What should be done? · Provide special education/training (free of charge) · Access to market for marketing their products · Make provision for easy loans · Raise the level of self confidence Disadvantaged group · Lack of education · Strong belief in traditional values · Still following traditional life style · Lack of resources to adopt new technology · Discriminatory practices among themselves What should be done? · Raise consciousness · Create education/training opportunities/make provision for scholarships, free text books etc · Government should adopt policies and programmes to create employment opportunities and to raise the living condition of disadvantaged groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · awareness among women · Make provision for quota system for women who want to work in the organized sector · Families should encourage their women members to participate in economic activities · Women should be provided with skill development training <p>Poor · Lack of education · No access to economic resources · High level of discrimination among poor · No specific government policies for employment of poor</p> <p>What should be done? · Government should identify poor groups for policy and programme implementation</p> <p>Poor people should be provided with appropriate training/vocational skills</p> <p>Poor people should have access to loan facilities</p> <p>Disadvantaged group · Lack of education/training · Lack of resources · High level of discrimination in society · No special employment programmes aimed at disadvantaged groups · No access to information/communication facilities</p> <p>the marginalized groups lag far behind the general population in terms of training/education etc. What should be done? · Improve educational status of poor and marginalized groups · Provide loans/capital resources for creating self employment · Provide education/skill development training that promotes higher employment · Eliminate social discrimination · Implement awareness creating programmes against discrimination · Implementation of programmes specially aimed at davit groups · Create accessibility to resources for the marginalized · Make provision for modern agricultural technology · Make provision for information and communication facilities · Introduce development programmes solely aimed at the marginalized population · Conduct training and skill</p>

Summary of Findings of FGD among the Unemployed Youth

Observations

General observations for all unemployed groups are as follows:

- All are concerned about their status as unemployed and feel frustrated about that.
- They have a sense of defeat about not being in any job and thus without an identity
- They want to get jobs but feel they have no such openings.
- They feel that their lack of education and vocational skill is their handicap.
- They think that jobs come by contacts and “*tiwewiq*” (*approach*) and right contacts.
- Some do believe that one has to pay bribe for secure government jobs.
- They want to get trainings and qualification essential for getting job.
- They feel that they have some hope in future
- Lack of capital is the hindering factor for many to start some small scale enterprise
- They are more pessimistic about future but some are optimist.
- Most of them are highly motivated to do any study or training for getting entry into any job
- They believe that job brings respect to their personal and social image

Assorted Group (mostly school drop-outs)

- Lack of qualification is the main problem.
- No right kind of contacts for procuring entry into any job
- Feel poverty as the main curse.
- They are motivated by other's stories, but have not own success.
- Feel frustrated.
- Want to get any respectable job
- Inability to get job without any proper diploma or training.
- Some want some amount of capital to start some small business or enterprise like a shop etc.
- Gender differences in choice of vocational ambitions like boys want to be computer work, electrician, and shop work, auto-mechanic etc., whereas women want beauty saloons and tailoring work.
- They think were not lucky in getting job

Educated Unemployed

- Feel discrimination in jobs.
- Feel there are no jobs without contacts.
- Feel that there is rural discrimination for jobs.
- Feel vocational need for jobs
- Want more and free education in TEVT colleges.
- Want that jobs be given when just out of TEVT colleges or universities.
- Most of the members in this group were optimistic about getting jobs in future
- They had much debate about plain graduation vs. technical education
- Their discussion focused on government vs. private sector jobs
- They do not see any hope from traditional employment exchanges in their goal for getting jobs
- They rely more on new avenues, rather than regular ways of getting job
- Some want to do something different like taking some enterprising work, but lack resources
- They look for new avenues rather than traditional government jobs for which they have almost no hope

Women

- Want to learn vocation skills in part time courses.
- Want equal jobs like men.
- They have seem some successful women who earn adequately and that becomes their role model
- Want to have their own earnings but at the same time take care of their household and homely life.
- Want part time jobs like schools, nursing, beauty parlors, etc.
- Women feel very helpless about not having any access to capital or a place where one could initiate her small-scale business like beauty saloon, tailoring shop.

Appendix ii List of key Informants

S.N	Name of Participant	Organization
1.	Yirga Wolde	Youth Association, Tigray
2.	Degefaw Mekonen	Youth Association, Amhara
3.	Tatek kassahun	Youth Association, Addis Ababa
4.	Teshome	Youth Association, SNNPR
5.	Yasin Mohammed	Youth Association, Oromiya
6.	Abdurhaman Mohammed	Youth Association, Dire Dawa
7.	Tegenu Mezemir	FeMSEDA
8.	Tigist Negash	ENAD
9.	Samuel and Torba	Bureau of Youth and Sports, SNNPR
10.	Yayeh Addis	Bureau of Youth and Sports, Amhara
11.	Mulugeta G.	Bureau of Youth and Sports, Tigray
12.	Wasyihun Abreham	Bureau of Youth and Sports, Dire Dawa
13.	Habiba	Bureau of Youth and Sports, Oromiya
14.	Bisrat Tenaw	Bureau of Youth and Sports, Addis Ababa
15.	Biyadigilign Admitew	ReMSEDA, Amhara
16.	Michiel A.	ReMSEDA, SNNPR
17.	Wro. Sosina	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
18.	Sisay Gemechu	BOLSA, SNNPR
19.	Muuz	MoFED, Tigray
20.	Sintayehu Zeleke	BOLSA, Amhara
21.	Lijalem N.	MoFED, Oromiya
22.	Desalegn Birhane	BoFED, Amhara
23.	Ermiyas Abay	ReMSEDA, Dire Dawa
24.	Mulugeta, Birhanu Gezu, Nardos Mekasha	CRDA(Tigray, Amhara, SNNPR, Dire Dawa)
25.	Mr. Sukumar Misrha	UNDP
26.	Kusiya Bekele	SEPDA
27.	Kidane T/wold	REST
28.	Seifu Asres	Admas
29.	Assefa Getaneh	FHRD
30.	Sr. Maria P. Colombo	CRS
31.	Assefa	Chambers of Commerce and Sectoral Association, Bahr Dar
32.	Getachew Ayenew	Chambers of Commerce and Sectoral Association, Ethiopia
33.	Ma. Philmon Jote	Chambers of Commerce and Sectoral Association, SNNPR
34.	Yegzu Girma	Afroflag
35.	Hilawe Yoseph	ADA
36.	Mrs. Christina	ILO

Annex iii: Questionnaire (English Version)

A study on youth unemployment and marginalization in Ethiopia initiated by Christian Aid and CRDA

Introduction and Briefing sheet

Code-----

Place-----

Date-----

Dear respondents,

We are currently doing a research on youth unemployment and marginalization in Ethiopia initiated by Christian Aid and CRDA. The purpose of this questionnaire is thus to investigate and explore the challenges and dynamics of youth unemployment and marginalization in Ethiopia including the services available to youth by key stakeholders in this regard; and to design relevant youth empowerment policy, program and make recommendation to the stakeholders. More specifically, it tried to determine the magnitude and identify youth unemployment and marginalization in Ethiopia; to identify particular youth groups (sex, residence, education status, etc) most affected by unemployment and marginalization and how they are affected; determine the level of labor market participation of the youth, the status of relevant sector participation in youth labor market; explore the root causes (policy, practices, social etc.) of youth unemployment and marginalization and recommend possible interventions. Your response is highly invaluable to get input for the study. The questionnaire may take about an hour.

Thank you for sparing your precious time to fill in this questionnaire. Please feel free to respond what you know or feel. If there are questions which you don't understand, please feel free to ask for clarification.

Please put(✓) on the blank spaces provided. Remember that more than one response can be given for multiple choice items.

N.B. The interviewer is here to help you should you have any clarification and fill in the questionnaire if you have any literacy difficulties.

1. Background Information

1.1. Age

15- 19-----

20- 24-----

25-29-----

1.2. Region -----

1.3. Your birth Place-----

1.4. Place of your residence-----urban----- rural-----

1.5. Have you changed your residence from rural area to urban

Yes----- No-----

1.6. If your answer for item 1.5 is 'yes', what were your reasons for moving:

- Lack of security in the village-----
- Poor social and physical infrastructure -----
- Lack of job opportunities -----
- Marital reasons -----
- Family dispute -----
- Communal dispute-----
- Poor quality of education -----
- Used to urban life -----
- General dislike for village life-----
- Others (please specify)-----

1.7. How long have you lived in this place?-----

1.8. What is your nationality (Ethnic Background)?-----

1.9. What is your employment status?

- (a) Employed -----
- (b) Unemployed-----
- (c) Student(technical/vocational/higher education)-----
- (d) Inactive(marginalized)-----

1.10. What is your marital status?

- (e) Single-----
- (f) Married-----
- (g) Widowed -----
- (h) Separated-----

- If your response for item 1.9 is married, how long have you been married?-----

1.11. Do you have any child/ren? Yes----- No-----

- If your response for item 1.10 is “yes”, how many child/ren do you have?-----
- What is Spouse’s Activity (only for married respondents)

- Work for salary or wage-----
- Engaged in home duties-----
- Work as self-employed worker-----
- Looking for job-----
- Work as unpaid family member-----
- Works in foreign country-----
- Attend education training-----
- Other-----

1.12. Do you have any brothers and/or sisters ?

Yes ----- No-----

- If your response for 1.12 is yes, how many?-----

1.13. What is your educational status:

- a) Illiterate-----
- b) Can read and write-----
- c) Primary education(1-4 grade)-----
- d) Primary education(5-8)-----
- e) Vocational (TEVT)-----
- f) College diploma-----
- g) Degree-----

- h) Masters Degree-----
 - i) Others(please specify)-----
- 1.14. Have you ever dropped out of your education?
 Yes----- No-----
- If your response for your item 1.14 is yes, what was your reason?
 - Economic reasons-----
 - Did not enjoy schooling-----
 - Failed examination-----
 - To get married-----
 - Wanted to start working-----
 - Other *-----

- 1.15. Have you worked during study?
 Yes----- No-----
- If your response for your item 1.15 is yes, what was the type of work?
 - a) Teacher (Private tutor) -----
 - b) Work in family business-----
 - c) Paid work in NGO-----
 - d) Internship/apprenticeship in private company-----
 - e) Work on farm-----
 - f) Paid work in public company-----
 - g) Worked in shop/house-----
 - h) Other*-----

2. Family background

- 2.1. What is the educational status of your father?
- i) Illiterate-----
 - j) Can read and write-----
 - k) Primary education-----
 - l) Vocational (TEVT)-----
 - m) College diploma-----
 - n) Degree-----
 - o) Masters Degree-----
 - p) Others/do not know (please specify)-----

- 2.2. What is the educational status of your mother?
- a) Illiterate-----
 - b) Can read and write-----
 - c) Primary education-----
 - d) Vocational (TEVT)-----
 - e) College diploma-----
 - f) Degree-----
 - g) Masters Degree-----
 - h) Others/do not know(please specify)-----

- 2.3. What is your father's Occupation?
- a) Agricultural work-----
 - b) Professional, technical assistant, administrative or managerial-----
 - c) Business-----
 - d) Housework-----
 - e) Other*-----

- 2.4. What is your mother's Occupation?
- a) Housework-----
 - b) Agricultural work-----
 - c) Professional, technical assistant, administrative or managerial-----
 - d) Business-----
 - e) Other*-----

- 2.5. How much is your household average income per month?
- a) Less than 250

- b) 250 to 500
- c) 500 to 1000
- d) 1000 to 1500
- e) 1500 or more

- 2.6. How many persons do live in the household?-----
 2.7. How many persons are employed in the household?-----
 2.8. How many persons are unemployed in the household?-----

3. Perceptions of youth and work aspirations

3.1. What level of education do you think is required to get a job?

- a) Primary education-----
- b) Vocational (TEVT)-----
- c) College diploma-----
- d) Degree-----
- e) Masters Degree-----
- f) do not know-----
- g) Other-----

3.2. do you think the current Ethiopian education system is relevant for youth employment?

Yes----- No-----

- If your response for item 3.2 is no, what is/are your reason/s?-----
 - a) Does not equip us with relevant technical skills-----
 - b) Not market oriented-----
 - c) Encourages rote memorization-----
 - d) Don't know-----
 - e) Other -----

3.3. What is the most important goal in your life?

- a) Having a good family life-----
- b) Having lots of money-----
- c) Being successful in work-----
- d) Making a contribution to society-----
- e) Don't know-----
- f) Other/ -----

3.4. What qualities do you think are required to get a good job?

- a) Good general education-----
- b) Having completed appropriate training-----
- c) Information technology skills-----
- d) Command of languages-----

3.5. What type of work do you prefer?

- a) Work for Government or public sector-----
- b) Start own business-----
- c) Work for private company-----
- d) Work on farm-----
- e) Work for family business-----
- f) Other-----

3.6. What sector of work do you prefer?

- a) Wholesale and retail, trade and repair-----
- b) Education-----
- c) Health-----
- d) Public administration and defense-----
- e) Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing-----
- f) Finance/insurance-----
- g) Construction, mining and manufacturing-----
- h) Transport, storage and communication-----
- i) Private household service-----
- j) Other community, social and personal services-----
- k) Don't know-----
- l) Other-----

3.7. Where do you get money from?

- a) Parents or family-----
- b) Regular job-----
- c) Partner-----
- d) Other-----

3.8. How do you view your future as youth of Ethiopia?

- a) Bright and promising-----
- b) So so-----
- c) Dim or bleak-----
- d) Don't know-----

4. Guidance, counseling and Support for Youth

4.1. Have you ever received advice or guidance training and education?

Yes----- No-----

- If your response for item 4.1 is yes, by whom?
 - a) Professional guidance officer-----
 - b) Family/relative/friend-----
 - c) Teacher-----
 - d) Other-----

4.2. Have you ever received career or job counseling?

Yes----- No-----

4.3. How do view of job opportunities available for male and female youth?

- a) Easier for women than for men-----
- b) Easier for men than for women-----
- c) No difference between sexes-----

4.4. How do you view of job getting job depend?

- a) Job qualifications-----
- b) Individual capacity-----
- c) Relatives and acquaintances-----
- d) Ethnic background-----

e) Do not know-----

4.5. What support or assistance do you need in getting job?

- a) Labour market information-----
- b) Vocational training and labour law training-----
- c) Entrepreneurship training-----
- d) Assistance with training free of charge-----
- e) Entering university-----
- f) Practical experience before working-----
- g) Employment services-----
- h) Information through vacancy advertisement-----
- i) Family, relative, friend-----
- j) Other (please specify)-----

5. Knowledgeability of Youth

5.1. Do you know the presence of MOYSC or local BOYS/Offices which exclusively work on youth affairs?

Yes----- No-----

5.2. Do you know the activities of BOYS/Offices?

Yes----- No-----

5.3. Does the work of BOYS/Offices have any impact on your situation?

Yes----- No----- Do not know-----

5.4. Does the work of BOYS/Offices have improved your situation?

Yes----- No----- Do not know-----

5.5. Do you have any information about the National Youth Policy of Ethiopia?

Yes----- No-----

5.6. How do you think youth tackle their Challenges?

6. Unemployment, Marginalization and Key Actors

6.1. What do you think are the causes of youth unemployment?

- a) Inability of the economy to generate adequate jobs-----
- b) Lack of technical skills-----
- c) Lack of experience-----
- d) Discrimination of the youth-----
- e) Irrelevant education system-----
- f) Inaccessibility to useful information on time-----
- g) Poor extension and marketing system-----
- h) Shortage of land access to work on-----
- i) Other-----

6.2. Do you think that youth are marginalized?

Yes----- No-----

- If your response for item 6.2 is yes, by whom?

- How? What are the manifestations of youth marginalization?

6.3. Who do you think is/are supposed to curb unemployment and/or marginalization problems of youth?

- a) Ethiopian Government-----
- b) CSO's and NGO's-----
- c) Youth themselves-----
- d) Parents-----
- e) Other(please specify)-----

Appendix IV: FGD Guideline (English Version)

Introduction: Youth introduce themselves

Key question

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Tell us about the most important accomplishments thus far in your lives? | - Name and where
- Probing questions
- What assets, skills, knowledge allowed you to do this?
- Where did you obtain these skills? |
| 2. What are today's most pressing issues or realities that prevent youth from making positive gains? Are youth marginalized? How? By whom? | - Does violence and crime affect your lives? Are some places more dangerous than others?
- Are there any problems unique to either males or females? |
| 3. Are today's youth motivated to become employed? | - Why or why not?
- What is the least amount of money per hour youth will readily work for?
- What options do they have? |
| 4. How and where do most youth you know earn money? | - Do you and your colleagues earn money working in formal or informal jobs?
- How would one typically go about finding a job? |
| 5. In your daily lives, what resources/programs currently exist to positively support young people? | - What policies or programs exist for young people or their parents?
- Do any of these mentioned programs work together? |
| 6. If you were to design a program for youth in this country: (a) what key areas would it address? (b) What are your ideas on how such a program would look like?
Method: (a) key areas and (b) key ideas are written on large index cards and group works to rank importance. | - Which key areas/resources/ policies should a youth program focus upon?
- What could this program look like: youth centers, internships, increased formal educational opportunities, sports/leisure projects? |

Marginalized Youth Focus Group Protocol

Inquiry themes	Key questions	Lens/Probing questions
<p><u>Human condition</u></p> <p>Poverty vulnerability</p>	<p>1. How would describe your situation, employment status and livelihood?</p> <p>2. How would you describe poverty? What does it mean to you? What does vulnerability mean to you?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To what extent do you feel marginalized? Why? Livelihood related aspects; social, political, cultural, economic aspects; Acceptance, access to services. - Are there others who are more marginalized? Why?
<p><u>Social Position</u></p> <p>Power Relationships Change Causes</p>	<p>3. What is your participation and role in society (family, community, formal and informal institutions)?</p> <p>4. Who and what are contributing to your vulnerability? Who and what are contributing to your powerfulness?</p> <p>5. What are the causes of marginalization?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To what extent to do you participate? When? With whom? Degree of influence at different levels. - Constraints to your participation/role? - To what extent do you have power and influence in relation to these groups? Why? Why not? - Are there others who have less power and influence? Why? - How can you increase your power and influence? Who and what can support you? What are the constraints? - Social? Environmental? Human causes?
<p><u>Enabling environmental</u></p> <p>Institutions Governance policies</p>	<p>6. How do you envision your situation in 5 years time?</p> <p>7. Who and what could help you to achieve your goals? Who and what could hinder you?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What opportunities exist to achieve this vision (individual, community support, policy support, institutional support...)? - What constraints exist to achieve this vision (individual, community support, policy support, institutional support)? - What is your role, roles of others in increasing powerfulness/reducing vulnerability? Who are your role models for change?

Appendix V: Interview Protocol (English Version)

1. What is the purpose and function of your organization?
2. What do you see as the main goals of your organization in relation to youth employment? Are they being achieved?
3. Where do you feel your organization has had the greatest success and how has it impacted youth?
4. Are there national policies related to youth and youth programs? If so, do national policies have a strong influence on how local programs you operate?
5. What role and to what extent can parents, communities, churches, schools, and health facilities play in assisting youth?
6. From what sources does your funding come?
7. How are your funds coordinated? How much is devoted to youth?
8. Do you have a multi-sectoral approach and what mechanisms are used to manage this approach?
9. What have been the shortcomings? Do you feel that there were any explicit factors that contributed to these shortcomings?
10. Have there been any other particular constraints or challenges to the organization's success in relation to youth employment and curbing their marginalization?
11. Do you think that you were able to reach your primary youth target?
12. Are there other groups that were not specifically targeted under your project that could benefit from your activities?
13. How do you allocate your resources and in what ways, if at all, were youth are included in the project design, implementation, and review processes?
14. How do you measure the effectiveness activities and what is the extent of your youth status related data collection efforts?
15. To what degrees to collaborative efforts take place with other organizations and what other types of partnerships would be beneficial in the future?
16. Do you believe the youth employment intervention project(s) and its impacts are sustainable? What factors support sustainability and what factors make sustainability a challenge?
17. Do you believe that your project could be replicated in other parts of the country?
18. What are your thoughts regarding donor coordination for youth employment and curbing marginalization programs in Ethiopia?
19. While considering the full range of youth employment are curbing marginalization programming in Ethiopia with USAID, Christian Aid, CRDA and other international donors, what do you feel are the most significant gaps that are not being addressed to meet the needs of youth?
20. Can you speak generally about how youth are perceived in Ethiopia? Are youth marginalized? Is it more difficult for female youth? How?
21. What do you think are the main causes of youth unemployment and marginalization?
22. Can you provide specific examples of how societal barriers have affected the youth?
23. Do you have any other comments or observations related to your own activities on youth?

Appendix VI: Stakeholders Analysis

*The study of Youth Unemployment and Marginalization in Ethiopia, 2010
By GYD United Consulting PLC, Addis Ababa*

S.N	Stakeholders	Interests	Potential Impact on youth	Areas of Interventions(Relative priority)	Capacity Gaps
1.	Government of Ethiopia	Reduce unemployment Improve standard of living	Positive or negative	Policy formulation Regulation Dispute resolution Provision of labour market information	Lack of data Weak monitoring and evaluation (M&E) Limited resources
2.	Trade Unions /Chambers of Commerce/	Maximize workers welfare	Positive and/or negative	Improvements in economic and social conditions of workers Dispute settlement Maintenance of good relations between employees and employers Worker training and education.	Weak M&E
3.	Employer Associations	Cheap labour	Positive	Cost of doing business	Resource constraints
4.	ILO	Promote worker rights Reduce unemployment	Positive	Promotion of worker rights Creation of job opportunities Enhanced social protection Social dialogue	
5.	Workers & the Unemployed	Maximize welfare gains Increase in job opportunities	Positive, Negative or Neutral	Trade union members	Skills limitations or mismatch
	Secondary stakeholders				
6.	United Nations other agencies	Reduce unemployment	Positive	Funding public and private sector projects and programmes	
7.	The World Bank	Reduce unemployment	Positive	Funding public and private sector	

8.	The European Union	Increase jobs	Positive	Funding public and private sector projects and programmes	
9.	NGOs/CSOs	Increase employment	Positive	Establish job creation initiatives Funding community projects and programmes	
10.	Development Agencies	Increase jobs	Positive	Establish employment creation projects and programmes Funding public and private sector projects and programmes	