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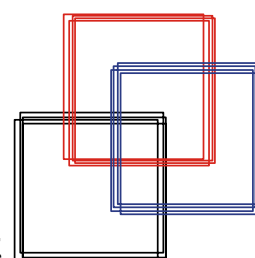
The MasterCard
Foundation

Youth and rural development: Evidence from 25 school-to-work transition surveys

Sara Elder, Hein de Haas, Marco Principi
and Kerilyn Schewel

April 2015

Youth Employment Programme
Employment Policy Department



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Preface

Youth is a crucial time of life when young people start realizing their aspirations, assuming their economic independence and finding their place in society. The global jobs crisis has exacerbated the vulnerability of young people in terms of: (i) higher unemployment, (ii) lower quality jobs for those who find work, (iii) greater labour market inequalities among different groups of young people, (iv) longer and more insecure school-to-work transitions, and (v) increased detachment from the labour market.

In June 2012, the International Labour Conference of the ILO resolved to take urgent action to tackle the unprecedented youth employment crisis through a multi-pronged approach geared towards pro-employment growth and decent job creation. The resolution “The youth employment crisis: A call for action” contains a set of conclusions that constitute a blueprint for shaping national strategies for youth employment.¹ It calls for increased coherence of policies and action on youth employment across the multilateral system. In parallel, the UN Secretary-General highlighted youth as one of the five generational imperatives to be addressed through the mobilization of all the human, financial and political resources available to the United Nations (UN). As part of this agenda, the UN has developed a System-wide Action Plan on Youth, with youth employment as one of the main priorities, to strengthen youth programmes across the UN system.

The ILO supports governments and social partners in designing and implementing integrated employment policy responses. As part of this work, the ILO seeks to enhance the capacity of national and local level institutions to undertake evidence-based analysis that feeds social dialogue and the policy-making process. To assist member States in building a knowledge base on youth employment, the ILO has designed the “school-to-work transition survey” (SWTS). The current report, which explores the relationship between youth employment and rural development in developing countries, is a product of a partnership between the ILO and The MasterCard Foundation. The Work4Youth project entails collaboration with statistical partners and policy-makers of 28 low- and middle-income countries to undertake the SWTS and assist governments and the social partners in the use of the data for effective policy design and implementation. This report will contribute to the dialogue on how to address discrepancies between the supply and demand of youth labour more effectively in order to ensure that young people are better equipped to transition to quality employment.

It is not an easy time to be a young person in the labour market today. The hope is that, with leadership from the UN system, with the commitment of governments, trade unions and employers’ organizations and through the active participation of donors such as The MasterCard Foundation, the international community can provide the effective assistance needed to help young women and men make a good start in the world of work. If we can get this right, it will positively affect young people’s professional and personal success in all future stages of life.

Azita Berar Awad
Director
Employment Policy Department

¹ The full text of the 2012 resolution “The youth employment crisis: A call for action” can be found on the ILO website at: www.ilo.org/ilc/ILCSessions/101stSession/texts-adopted/WCMS_185950/lang--en/index.htm.

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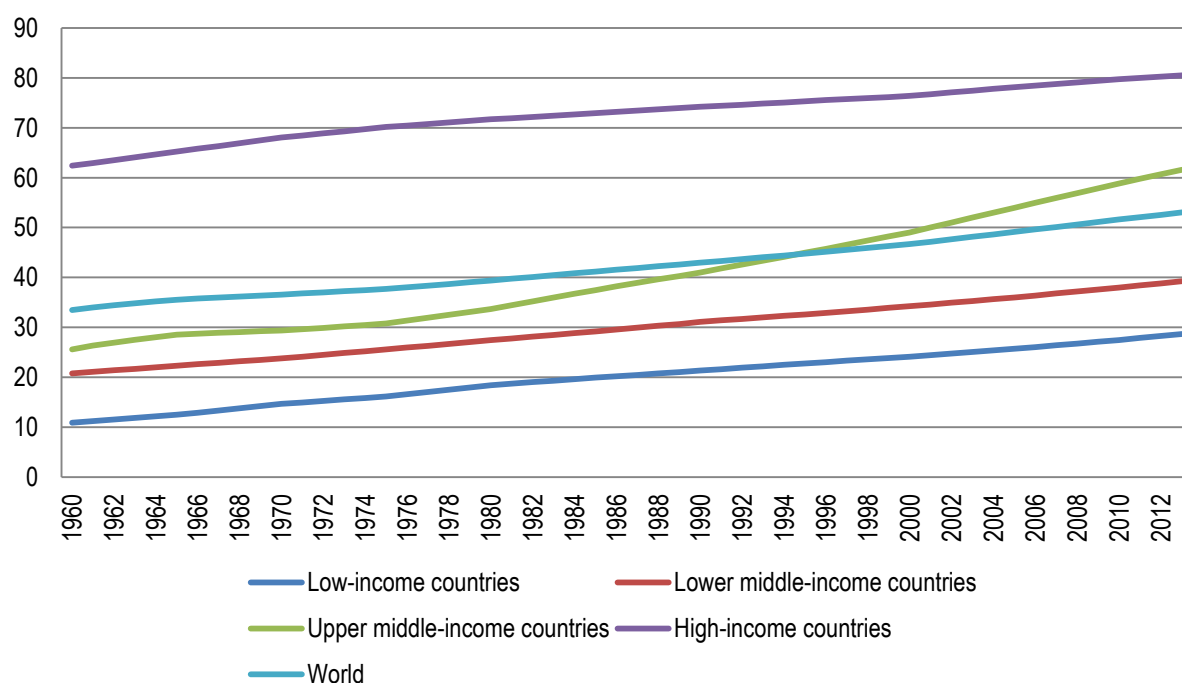
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1. Introduction

1.1 Background and objectives

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) estimates that 3.4 billion people, corresponding to about 46 per cent of the global population, were living in rural areas in 2014 (UN, 2014a). Africa and Asia remain mostly rural, with 40 and 48 per cent of their respective populations living in urban areas, but are urbanizing at a faster pace than the other regions. The most urbanized regions are North America (with 82 per cent living in urban areas in 2014), Latin America and the Caribbean (80 per cent) and Europe (73 per cent). On average, the shares of urban population have increased by 74.4 per cent and 53.1 per cent, respectively, over the past decade. Figure 1.1 shows that the proportion of the world's population living in urban areas reached a majority share around the mid-2000s, increasing from 34 per cent in 1960 to 53 per cent in 2013.

Figure 1.1 Urban population by income groupings, 1960–2013 (% of total)



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators database.

At the country level, there is a clear correlation between the level of economic development and the rural–urban population distribution. Populations in higher income countries remain substantially more urbanized than those in low-income countries. In other words, urbanization appears to be an intrinsic part of broader development processes. Economic diversification through the growth of industrial and service sectors, demographic changes, internal migration, increasing levels of education, improvements in transport and communication infrastructure and concomitant socio-cultural change are all interlinking factors in the process of rapid urbanization.

Economic diversification is not a phenomenon which is restricted to urban areas. Many rural areas are “de-agrarizing”, and so too are rural livelihoods. In almost all rural areas of the developing world, households draw on multiple activities inside and outside agriculture. In this context, rural-to-urban (alongside international) migration and remittances have become recognized as one of the main elements of the livelihood

strategies open to rural households, often combined with other strategies, such as local non-farming activities (de Haas, 2010; Ellis, 1998; McDowell and de Haan, 1997; Scoones, 1998). We therefore need to broaden our understanding of rural livelihoods in the developing world to avoid automatically restricting the analysis to agriculture or natural resources (Bebbington, 1999).

Because of the increasing share of non-agrarian income and urban migration, the lines between rural and urban livelihoods have become increasingly blurred. Urban migrants often maintain strong economic links with family back home, and the fact that an increasing number of families in rural areas receive income earned in cities (remittances) illustrates that, instead of viewing the world in terms of separate rural and urban sectors, families and households often straddle both (de Haas, 2010; Lucas and Stark, 1985).

The livelihood strategies involved in rural–urban migration exemplify the extent to which rural and urban development are intertwined. Yet this is not always, or indeed necessarily, a positive interaction. If corruption is rife, if good public schooling and health care are absent or scarce, and if urban and rural unemployment levels are high, the poor are much less likely to be able to escape from their vulnerable conditions and are simply transferring their insecure existence from one area to the other. In this context, much depends on the quality of employment. If migrants are unable to achieve stable employment with relatively secure incomes above subsistence levels in urban areas or depend structurally on occasional jobs in the informal sector, the strategy for improved livelihood will have failed.

This study aims to test hypotheses generated from current literature regarding rural development and broader prospects for rural livelihoods. Are vulnerabilities in youth employment in low-income countries unavoidable regardless of area of residence (as suggested in the previous paragraph) or does rural development hold out some hope for more stable and prosperous futures for youth populations? This report assesses the labour market conditions of youth in rural and urban areas and offers insights into the conditions of successful labour market transitions in low- and middle-income countries. The ability of rural youth to achieve successful transitions depends on several factors, but most notably on the quality of schooling, the match between schooling and labour market demands, economic opportunity and the protection of workers' rights and the prevention of abuse. Not only do youth need to find a job, and preferably one that corresponds to their level of qualifications, they also aspire to develop the foundation for a lasting, stable employment relationship that helps them to progress in life.

Government policies have an important role to play in providing the conditions for rural income diversification, which appear to be crucial for poverty reduction in rural areas. From the perspective of young people, it is important to study the conditions under which the success of school-to-work transitions can be judged successful in rural areas or, in other words, whether the transition enables them to find a decent job. On a macro level, the question is why are some countries more successful in terms of improving livelihood potentials for youth in rural areas, and what role can governments play in providing favourable conditions for promoting this development, particularly through their educational and labour policies? Hopefully, the results of this study will support governments, social partners and other organizations in designing adequate instruments to assist the transition of young people into decent employment in rural areas, as elsewhere.

1.2 Structure of the report

This report begins with a broad overview of trends in urbanization in the context of economic development, and their consequent impact on prospects for youth in rural areas (section 2). In section 3, after establishing the context of labour markets in developing economies, we examine in detail the geographic division in education, quality of employment and transition outcomes for youth, concluding that rural disadvantages are still very much evident. Section 4 provides a more detailed portrait of labour markets in rural areas in a low-income region, namely sub-Saharan Africa. The aim is to look for signs of rural diversification and improving labour market prospects for youth in the region. Finally, section 5 presents the main findings and conclusions of the research, as well as undertaking a cursory examination of policies to promote better livelihoods for youth in rural areas.

1.3 Data sources

This report uses data from the ILO school-to-work transition surveys (SWTS). These household surveys of young people aged 15–29 years were conducted in 28 countries, with rural/urban distinctions available in 25 countries, between 2012 and 2013 under the “Work4Youth” (W4Y) project. This partnership between the ILO Youth Employment Programme and The MasterCard Foundation aims to strengthen the production of labour market information specific to youth and to work with policy-makers on the interpretation of data, including on transitions to the labour market, for the design or monitoring of youth employment policies and programmes. A second series of surveys will be conducted in approximately 24 countries in 2014–15. National reports summarizing survey results, as well as the data itself (raw and tabulated), are available on the W4Y website.²

Box 1. Regions, income grouping and countries covered by the SWTS

Regional groupings:

Asia and the Pacific: Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, Samoa, Viet Nam

Eastern Europe and Central Asia: Armenia, Kyrgyzstan, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the Republic of Moldova, the Russian Federation, Ukraine

Latin America and the Caribbean: Brazil, Colombia, El Salvador, Jamaica, Peru

Middle East and North Africa: Egypt, Jordan, Occupied Palestinian Territory, Tunisia

Sub-Saharan Africa: Benin, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi,

Income groupings:

Low-income countries: Bangladesh, Benin, Cambodia, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Nepal, the United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda

Lower middle-income countries: Armenia, Egypt, El Salvador, Kyrgyzstan, the Republic of Moldova, Peru, Samoa, Ukraine, Viet Nam, Zambia

Upper middle-income countries: Brazil, Colombia, Jamaica, Jordan, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Peru, Tunisia

High-income country: Russian Federation

² The ILO Work4Youth website is: www.ilo.org/w4y.

The study covers the 25 SWTS countries that allow for stratification between rural and urban areas (excluding Colombia, Peru and Samoa). The urban–rural distribution of the samples is presented in table 1.1. In most of the countries, the SWTS was implemented by the national statistical office. Only in Brazil, Nepal, the United Republic of Tanzania, Ukraine and Zambia, did private institutions implement the surveys. The average sample size was 3,700 persons aged 15–29, with the smallest (1,158 youth) in the Republic of Moldova and the largest (9,197 youth) in Bangladesh. The surveys were conducted from mid-2012 to the third quarter of 2013. National weights have been applied in all countries except Madagascar, where only structural weights were available. See Annex II for more details on implementation partners and sample sizes by country.

Table 1.1 SWTS countries by geographic distribution of sampled youth populations, 2012/13

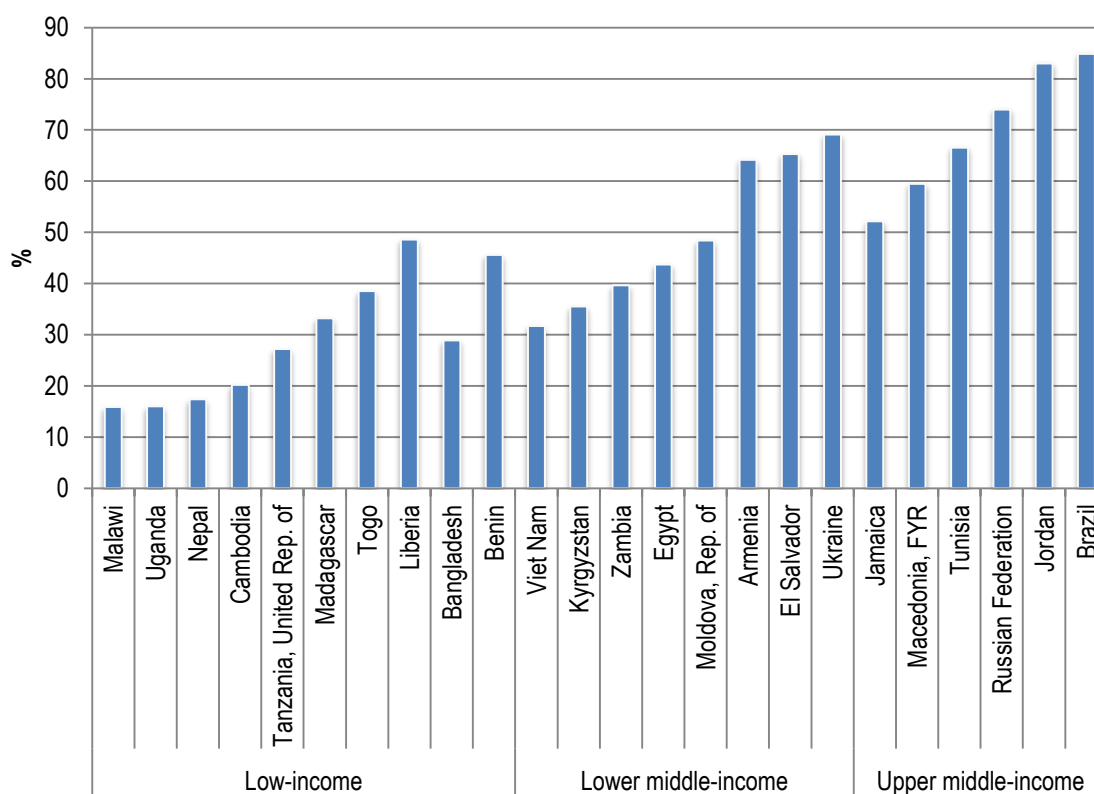
Country	Urban (%)	Rural (%)	Total sample size (no.)
Armenia	80.0	20.0	3 216
Bangladesh	23.0	77.0	9 197
Benin	43.2	56.8	6 917
Brazil	85.3	14.7	3 288
Cambodia	24.8	75.2	3 552
Egypt	41.5	58.5	5 198
El Salvador	57.4	42.6	3 451
Jamaica	53.6	46.4	2 584
Jordan	81.9	18.1	5 405
Kyrgyzstan	34.5	65.5	3 930
Liberia	54.6	45.4	1 876
Macedonia, FYR	54.4	45.6	2 544
Madagascar	25.6	74.4	3 295
Malawi	14.4	85.6	3 102
Moldova, Rep. of	45.1	54.9	1 158
Nepal	20.5	79.5	3 584
Occupied Palestinian Territory	83.4	16.6	4 320
Russian Federation	70.5	29.5	3 890
Tanzania, United Rep. of	26.8	73.2	1 988
Togo	41.6	58.4	2 033
Tunisia	66.5	33.5	3 000
Uganda	25.7	74.3	3 811
Ukraine	69.8	30.2	3 526
Viet Nam	29.5	70.5	2 722
Zambia	41.6	58.4	3 206

2. Urbanization and socio-economic development

Figure 2.1 presents the shares of urban population (all ages) in the 25 SWTS countries grouped according to their income levels.³ The urban distribution of the total population based on the World Bank, World Development Indicators, closely matches the sampled distribution of urban youth presented in table 1.1 with four exceptions: in Armenia and Uganda, the urban youth samples are under-represented compared to the total (differing by nearly 16 percentage points and 10 points, respectively) while the urban youth samples were slightly over-represented in El Salvador and Madagascar (by approximately 8 percentage points).

The comparatively wealthier and more industrialized countries are also the countries with the highest shares of urbanization. The share of urbanization is in excess of 70 per cent in three of the six upper middle-income countries (Brazil, Jordan and the Russian Federation⁴), and above 50 per cent in the remaining higher income countries (Jamaica, FYR Macedonia and Tunisia). The share of urban population remains below 50 per cent in all ten low-income countries, as well as in five (of eight) lower middle-income countries. In Cambodia, Malawi, Nepal and Uganda, it is still the case that more than 80 per cent of the populations are living in rural areas.

Figure 2.1 Urban population, SWTS countries by income groupings (% of total), 2013



Note: Russian Federation is a high-income country.

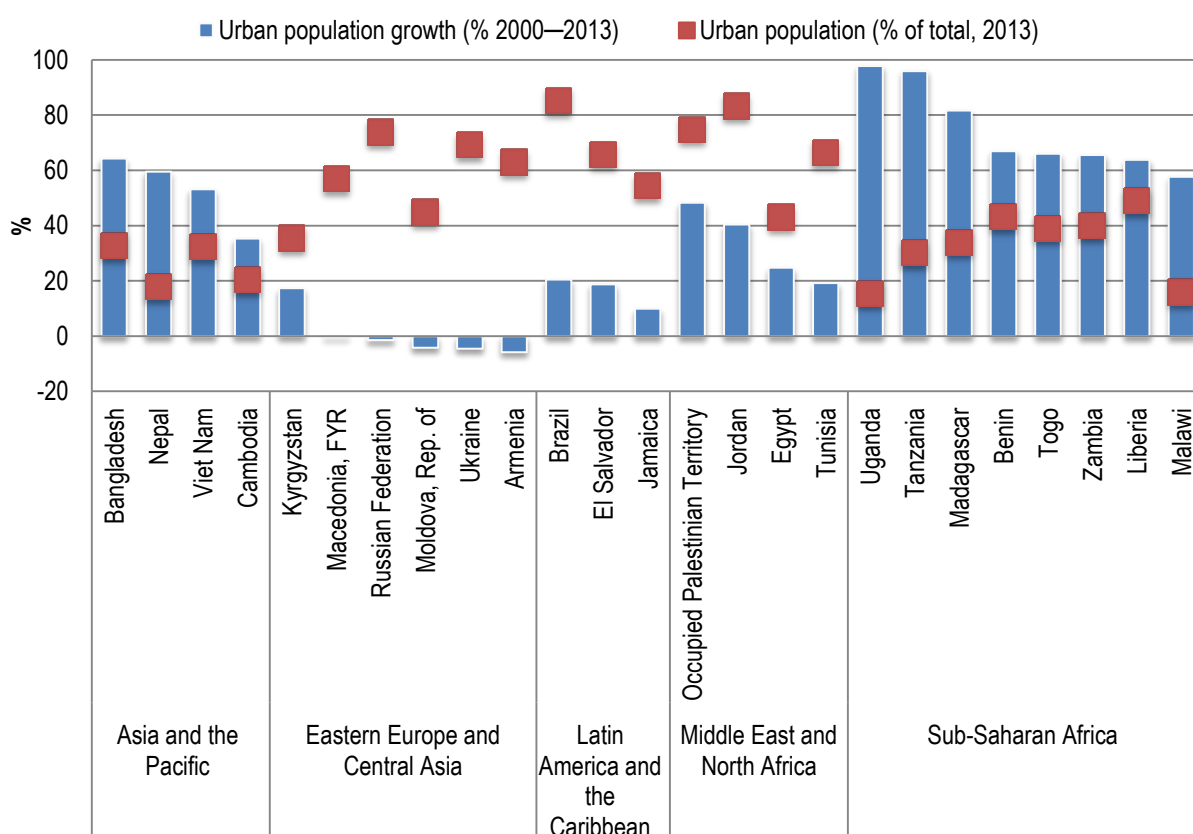
Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators database.

³ Income levels are according to World Bank income classification, July 2014.

⁴ For ease of comparison, the Russian Federation – a high-income country – is grouped with the upper middle-income countries in this report.

The countries showing the largest increase in urban populations over the period 2000–2013 in figure 2.2 are the countries starting from the lowest base, thus implying a degree of convergence. All eight sub-Saharan Africa countries, for example, still had larger rural than urban populations in 2013, but with urban population growth rates in excess of 50 per cent, it appears they could soon reach the urbanization levels of wealthier regions, such as Eastern Europe and Central Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean and the Middle East and North Africa (between 50 and 70 per cent). In fact, in Eastern European and Central Asian countries there was a trend of de-urbanization, with Armenia, Republic of Moldova, Russian Federation and Ukraine all showing slight losses in the share of their urban populations over the period.

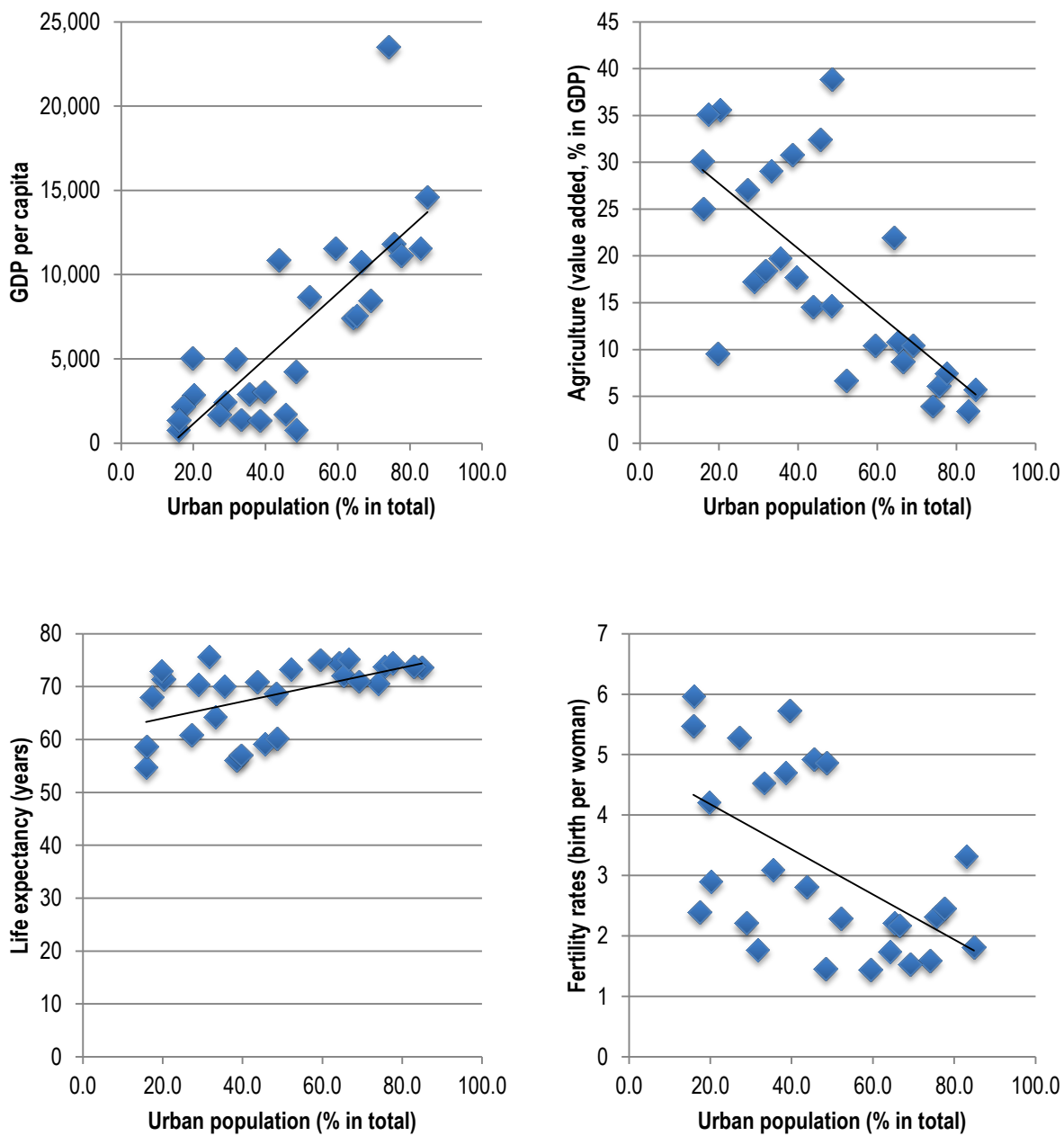
Figure 2.2 Urban population growth, 2000–2013, and urban population, 2013, in SWTS countries by regional grouping



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators database.

The series of charts in figure 2.3 relates the shares of urban populations to other socio-economic indicators (data per country are shown in Annex I, table A.1). The first figure confirms the close connection between the income of the country and its degree of urbanization. Likewise, there is a strong negative relationship between the importance of the agricultural sector to gross domestic product (GDP) and the size of urban populations in the countries. Life expectancy and urbanization are positively related, with countries that have higher urban shares showing higher life expectancy. Fertility shares, in contrast, are lower in countries with large urban rates.

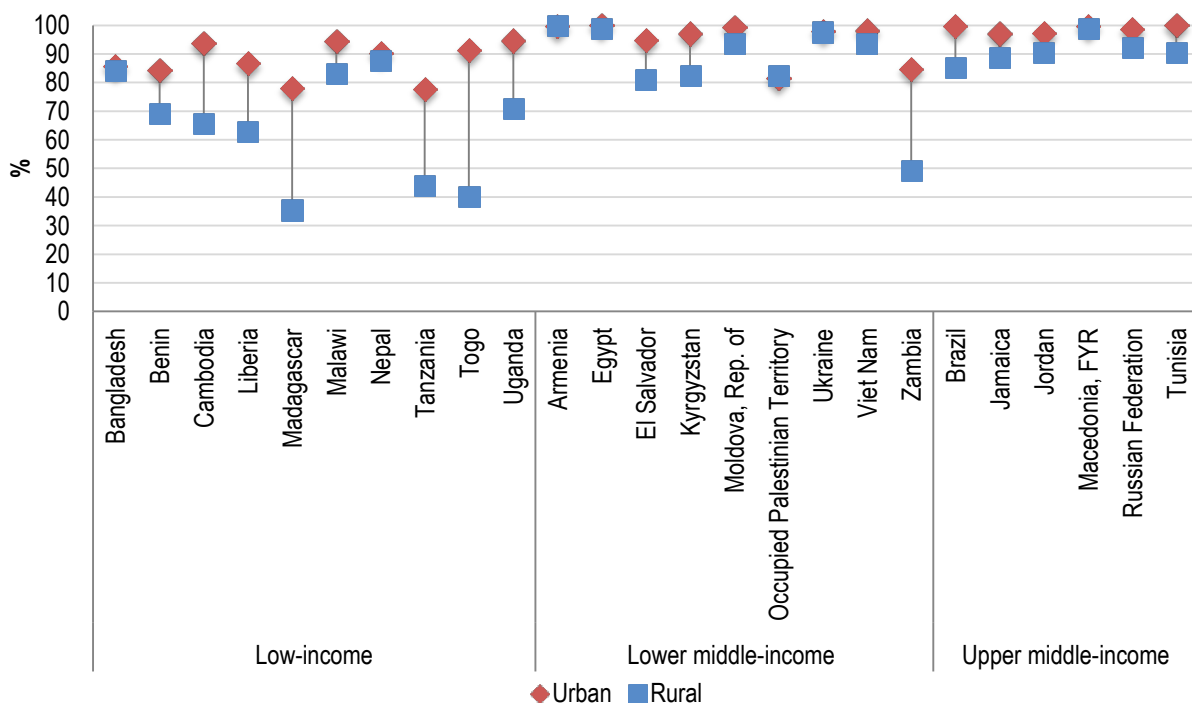
Figure 2.3 Share of urban population and GDP per capita, agriculture value-added, life expectancy and fertility, 25 SWTS countries



Note: Data by country are shown in Annex I, table A.1.
 Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators database.

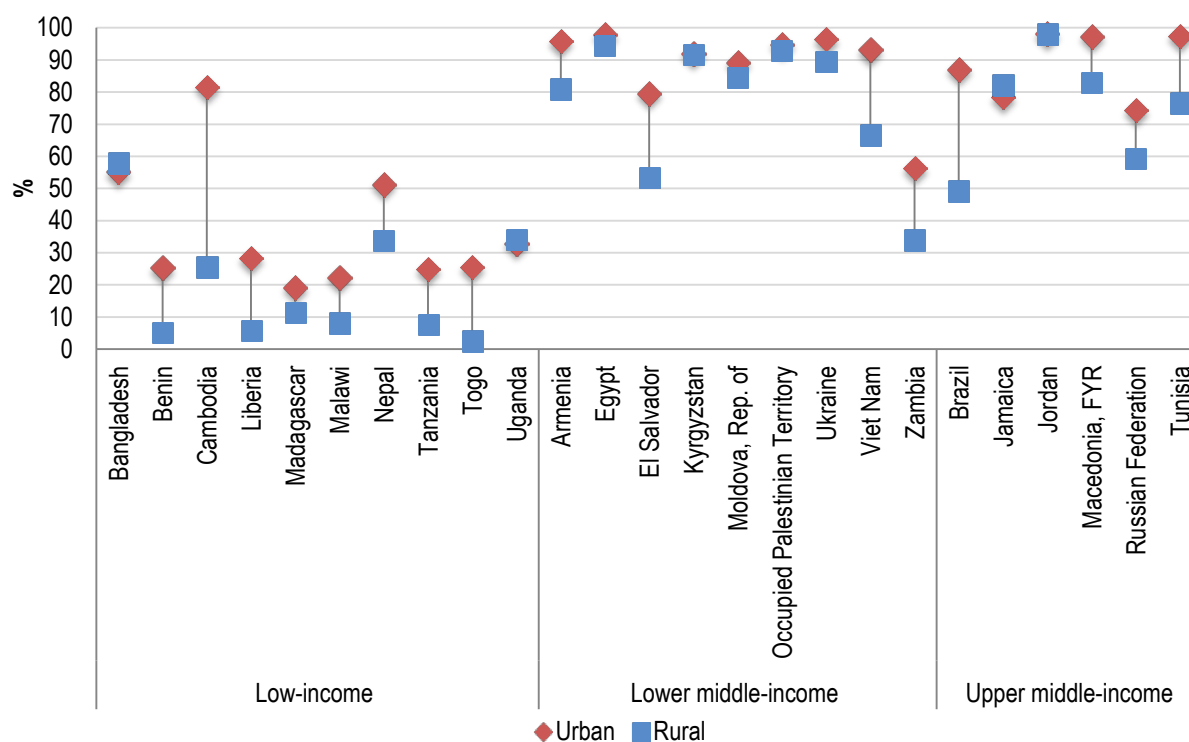
Taken together, the figures show the strong degree of interconnection between urbanization and the development process, with depopulation of rural areas a seemingly inevitable side effect of economic restructuring, which is typical of modern capitalist development. The largely rural countries remain among the poorest with the lowest level of human development. Access to roads, improved water sources and sanitation facilities in combination with the poverty rates provide additional proxy indicators for human development. Figures 2.4 and 2.5 reflect the gaps in provision of basic needs (clean water and sanitation) available to the rural and urban populations, particularly in the low-income countries. Regarding access to improved sanitation facilities (figure 2.5), it is interesting to note the greater equity in access in many of the lower middle-income countries in contrast to some of the upper middle-income countries. So, issues of human development remain a serious concern among rural populations in less developed countries, and there is no doubt that poverty, poor nutrition and sanitation, lack of access to quality education and inadequate infrastructure impede rural youth's prospects of gaining stable employment with sufficient earning potential. The human development vulnerabilities translate into labour market vulnerabilities, as will be further demonstrated in section 3.

Figure 2.4 Improved water sources by area of residence (% of population with access), 2012



Note: Improved water sources is defined as the percentage of the population using an improved drinking water source. Improved drinking water sources include piped water on premises (a piped household water connection located inside the user's dwelling, plot or yard) and other improved drinking water sources (public taps or standpipes, tube wells or boreholes, protected dug wells, protected springs and rainwater collection).
Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators database.

Figure 2.5 Improved sanitation facilities by area of residence (% of population with access), 2012



Note: Improved sanitation facilities is defined as the percentage of the population using improved sanitation facilities. Improved sanitation facilities include flush/pour flush toilets (to piped sewer system, septic tank or pit latrine), ventilated improved pit (VIP) latrines, pit latrines with slab and composting toilets.

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators database.

3. Youth labour markets in rural and urban areas

3.1 Labour markets in developing countries

GDP growth over the past fifty years is positively correlated to a shrinking agriculture sector and an increase in the relative size of the industrial sectors. This relationship has been interpreted in the literature (erroneously perhaps⁵) as a signal of industrializing economies involved in a “catching up” process (Cazes and Verick, 2013, chapter 2). However, there is no significant association between GDP growth, labour force participation and unemployment, as one might have expected. This seems to indicate that decreasing labour force participation and increasing unemployment, particularly among women and youth, are structurally embedded phenomena intrinsic to developing economies with growing industrial and, in a later stage, service sectors.

Declining labour force participation among youth can be explained by a greater number of years spent in schooling and the greater structural complexity of labour markets in countries with higher levels of development. Higher levels of specialization make achieving a match between labour supply and labour demand more difficult, often resulting

⁵ See ILO (2005), chapter 4.

in an increase in levels of temporary employment and periods of unemployment between graduation and finding stable employment (ILO, 2015a, chapter 3). Competition for scarce jobs is reflected in the consistently higher unemployment rates in urban than rural areas and the longer labour market transitions of youth.⁶

With decreasing levels of absolute poverty and increasing levels of education (UN, 2014b), people are also likely to be less motivated to accept certain unattractive jobs at the bottom end of increasingly segmented labour markets. In other words, it could be said that in middle-income countries more people can *afford* not to work and, in particular, graduates from middle-income backgrounds may prefer not to work than to do jobs which they may see as demeaning, dangerous or culturally unacceptable. This is most strongly reflected in the very high unemployment rates (and discontent) among young graduates in the Arab world, especially among young women, and elsewhere (cf. Fargues, 2004; Barcucci and Mryyan, 2014).

Still, it is important to point out that many countries have not yet reached the middle-income level and that lower income countries maintain a dualistic economic structure that combines a small formal segment with a large non-formal segment. As a result, the employment problem manifests itself not in high unemployment but in high incidence of underemployment hidden in self-employment and casual wage employment outside the formal segment (Ghose et al., 2008). The poor are typically those who remain outside the formal segment and work as self-employed and casual wage labourers especially in rural areas.

Drawing on the SWTS data of 25 countries, the remainder of this section analyses the extent to which rural and urban labour markets for youth are distinct and/or partially overlapping. The micro-evidence of the SWTS data will allow us to gain more in-depth insight into the rural–urban divides in educational attainment and youth labour outcomes, along with more contextual factors associated with different school-to-work trajectories and the varying extent to which young people are able to find stable or satisfactory employment in rural and urban settings after finishing education.

3.2 The geographic divide of youth in educational attainment

3.2.1 Educational access

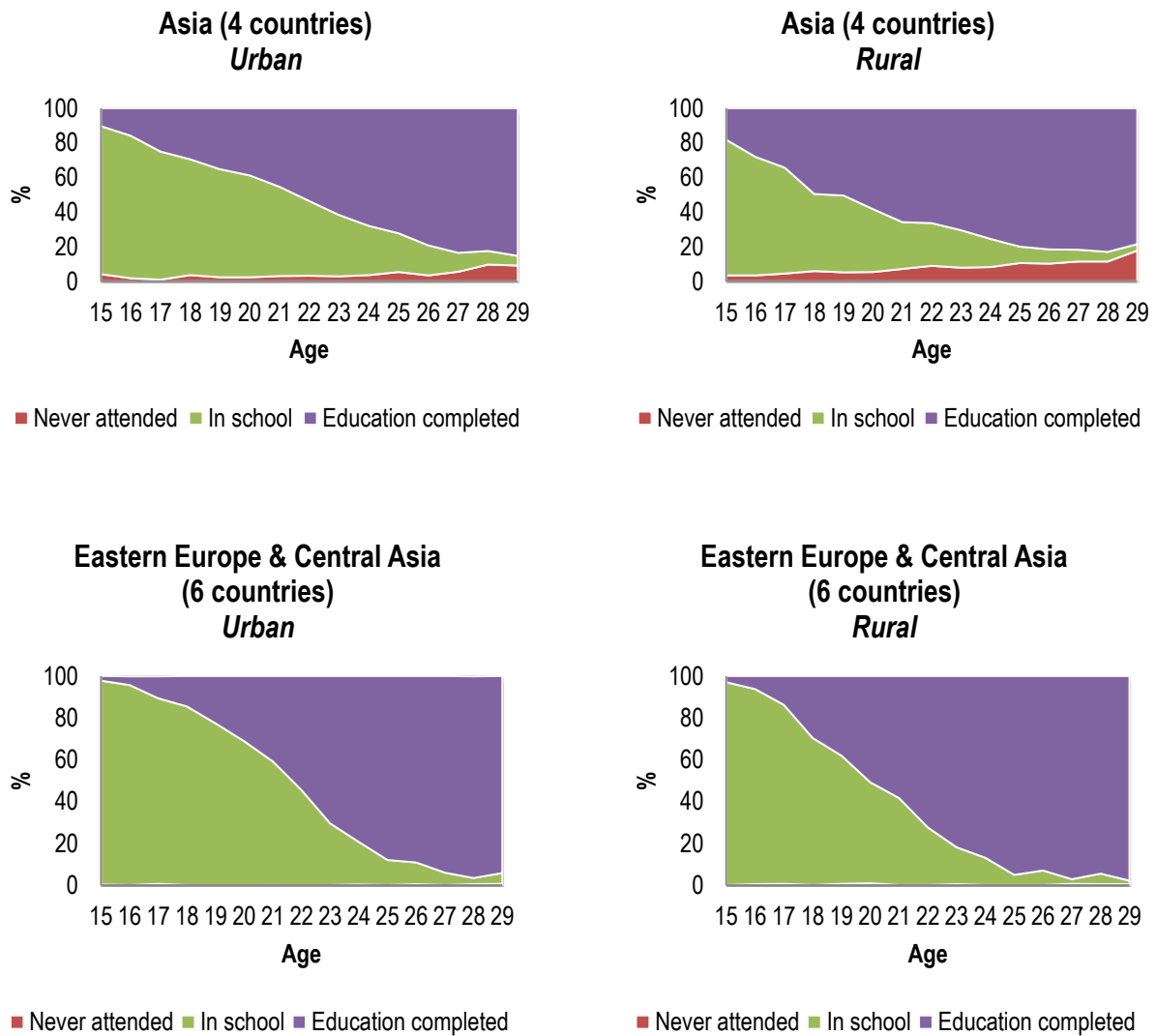
The series of charts in figure 3.1 reflects the mixed results across regions in terms of access to education. In the Eastern European and Central Asian countries surveyed, 15-year-old youths were almost universally in school (only 2 and 3 per cent had already completed their education in urban and rural areas, respectively). The SWTS countries in Latin America and the Caribbean and the Middle East and North Africa also demonstrated their success at keeping youth in school, but still one in seven youth in rural areas of the two regions had left school by the age of 15.⁷ By the age of 17, 14 per cent of youth were already out of school in rural areas of Eastern Europe and Central Asia, 28 per cent in the Middle East and North Africa, 31 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa, 34 per cent in Asia and

⁶ Confirmed in all national SWTS reports to date. Reports are available at www.ilo.org/w4y.

⁷ See Sparreboom and Staneva (2014) for a detailed assessment of educational outcomes of youth based on the SWTS datasets.

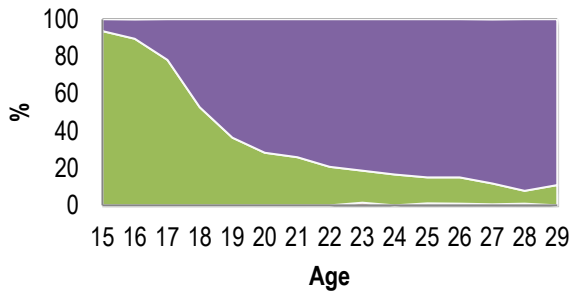
41 per cent in Latin America and the Caribbean.⁸ Lest the latter region be judged as the least successful in educating its youth beyond the age of 17, it is important to note that 4 and 7 per cent of 17-year-old youth in rural Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, respectively, never attended school at all (see box 2 on the challenges facing adolescents). The corresponding share in Latin America was 1 per cent.

Figure 3.1 Educational status of youth by region and area of residence (% of youth population)



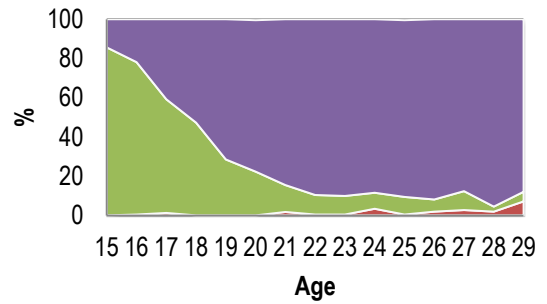
⁸ It is important to bear in mind that the regional and income-based figures presented throughout the report are based on simple averages of the small number of countries with available SWTS data. Regional and income-based references in the remainder of the report should therefore be interpreted with care.

**Latin America & Caribbean
(3 countries)
Urban**



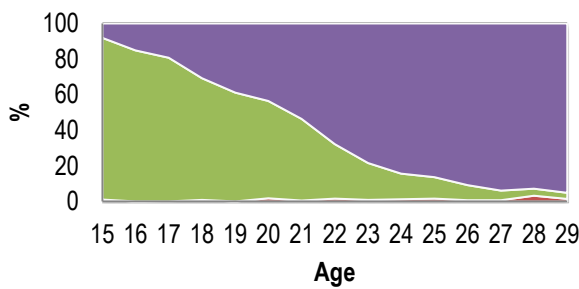
■ Never attended ■ In school ■ Education completed

**Latin America & Caribbean
(3 countries)
Rural**



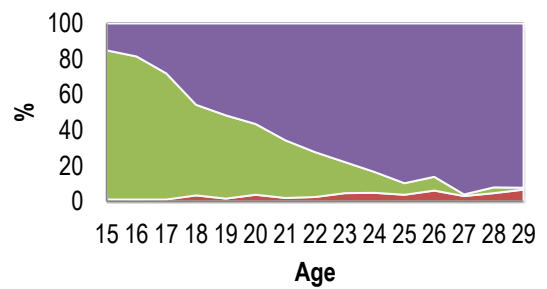
■ Never attended ■ In school ■ Education completed

**Middle East & North Africa
(4 countries)
Urban**



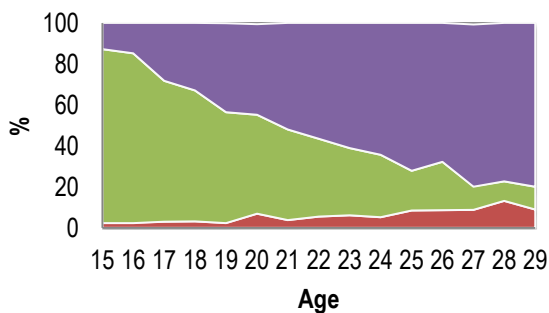
■ Never attended ■ In school ■ Education completed

**Middle East & North Africa
(4 countries)
Rural**



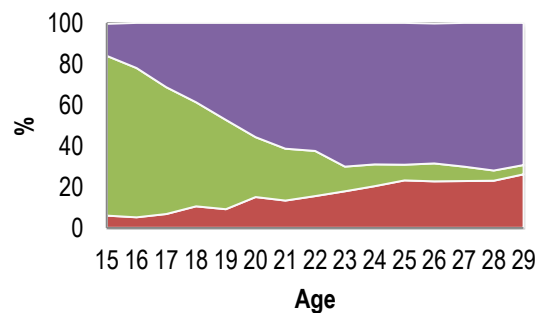
■ Never attended ■ In school ■ Education completed

**Sub-Saharan Africa (8 countries)
Urban**



■ Never attended ■ In school ■ Education completed

**Sub-Saharan Africa (8 countries)
Rural**



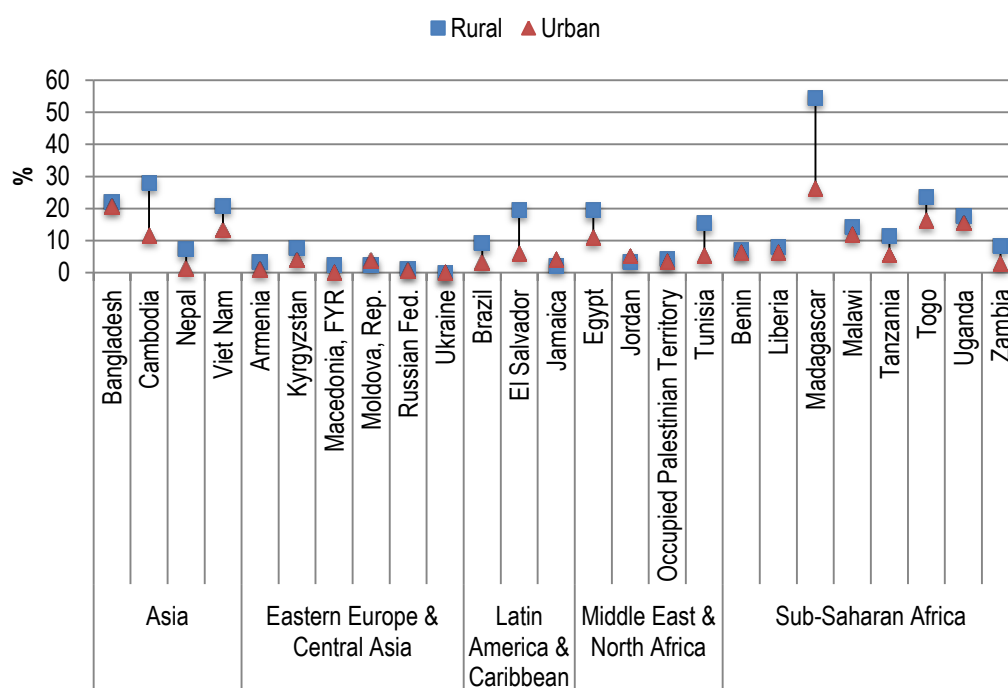
■ Never attended ■ In school ■ Education completed

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data from 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Box 2. Activities of adolescents (aged 15–17)

Youth in the age range 15–17 are of interest in terms of both child labour and youth employment since working youth within this age band qualify as “child labourers” if engaging in hazardous work (according to ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182). Ideally, these adolescents would remain in school; however, they fall beyond the minimum working age in most countries and are therefore legally authorized to work. The figure below estimates the shares of youth aged 15–17 who engage in work as their primary activity (i.e. without combining work with school attendance). Particularly striking is the fact that shares of working adolescents are consistently higher among those living in rural areas. Shares are 20 per cent or higher among youth in rural areas in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Egypt, El Salvador, Madagascar, Togo and Viet Nam. The share in rural Madagascar is particularly shocking at 54.7 per cent.

Box Figure 1. Employed and not in school, adolescents aged 15–17, by area of residence (% in 15–17-year-old population)



Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc. see Annex II.

A forthcoming ILO world report on child labour estimates that the majority of young workers in the age group 15–17 are engaged in some form of hazardous work (ILO, forthcoming). While the SWTS datasets do not allow us to calculate hazardous work for all countries – due to the lack of detailed sectoral distribution data – the countries with available data are presented in the table here as a share of the youth population (15–17). Results are worrying in Bangladesh, Brazil, Togo, Uganda and Viet Nam. As hazardous work translates into higher incidence of work-related illness and injury in most countries, there are significant economic motivations to strengthen global action to promote prevention of injury and better protection of vulnerable young workers.

	Bangladesh	Brazil	Jamaica	Kyrgyzstan	Moldova, Rep. of	Russian Fed.	Togo	Uganda	Viet Nam
Share of hazardous employment in total population*	16.7	12.5	1.8	4.6	2.6	6.3	14.6	11.9	24.3

Note: * See ILO (forthcoming) for definitions.

Progress in education is evident in all regions in the fact that far fewer 15-year-olds stated that they had never attended school compared to 29-year-olds. As many as 26 per cent of 29-year-olds in rural areas of the sub-Saharan African countries had no education.

The share in rural Asia was 18 per cent. Most importantly, in the context of this report, the charts confirm that in all regions, youth stayed in school longer in urban areas than in rural areas. The region showing the least distinction between urban and rural areas is Latin America and the Caribbean, although it is important to remember that the assessment is based on just three countries (Brazil, El Salvador and Jamaica).

3.2.2 Educational attainment

Table 3.1 shows the highest level of education completed by the youth population according to urban/rural residency. Low levels of education are most common in sub-Saharan and South-East Asian countries and in Egypt and the Occupied Palestinian Territory. While some countries, such as Brazil and Peru, combine near-universal primary education with relatively low shares of young people with higher education degrees, other countries, such as Egypt and the Occupied Palestinian Territory, combine relatively high shares of youth at both the lowest and highest levels of educational attainment. Former Soviet republics, such as Armenia, Kyrgyzstan and Ukraine, have very high completion rates of secondary and higher education, reflecting a legacy of strong public investment in education.

Table 3.1 Educational attainment of youth by area of residence

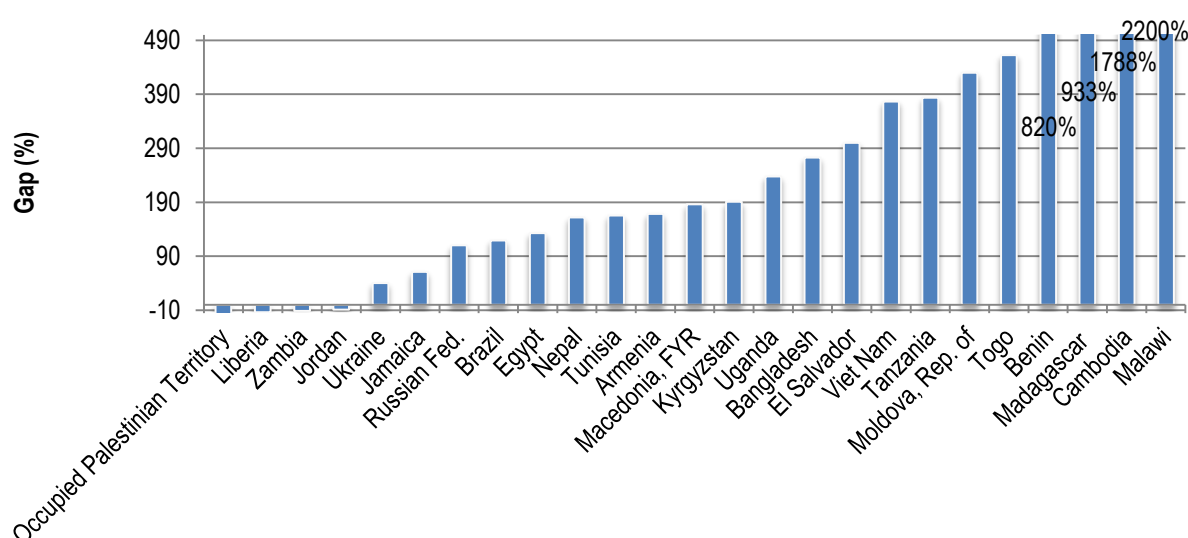
Country	Rural				Urban			
	Less than primary	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	Less than primary	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
Armenia	0.0	0.1	85.3	14.6	0.8	0.2	59.8	39.2
Bangladesh	20.0	39.6	39.3	1.1	15.1	35.2	45.6	4.1
Benin	69.9	21.7	8.0	0.5	36.3	32.3	26.7	4.6
Brazil	1.1	49.6	46.2	3.1	0.0	32.0	61.2	6.8
Cambodia	16.8	52.2	30.2	0.8	6.5	36.5	42.0	15.1
Egypt	19.9	22.3	46.0	11.8	12.1	17.3	43.0	27.5
El Salvador	4.0	72.7	22.3	1.0	2.9	50.2	42.9	4.0
Jamaica	1.2	15.2	76.8	6.7	0.3	13.1	75.9	10.8
Jordan	2.1	45.1	29.3	23.4	3.3	51.3	24.2	21.3
Kyrgyzstan	1.6	15.4	71.2	11.8	0.8	14.0	50.9	34.3
Liberia	43.3	35.1	19.5	2.2	25.7	16.0	56.5	1.9
Macedonia, FYR	1.9	31.0	56.3	10.8	5.0	14.0	50.1	30.9
Madagascar	23.3	50.0	26.4	0.3	12.7	40.2	44.0	3.1
Malawi	56.6	30.3	12.8	0.3	35.4	28.7	28.9	6.9
Moldova, Rep. of	1.6	2.3	86.4	9.7	0.0	0.9	47.6	51.4
Nepal	21.3	35.1	34.9	8.7	10.0	20.1	47.0	22.8
Occupied Palestinian Territory	21.0	30.2	23.9	24.9	20.9	32.0	28.3	18.7
Russian Federation	1.4	13.8	66.8	17.9	0.6	4.5	57.3	37.6
Tanzania, United Rep.	7.1	38.1	54.2	0.6	7.0	38.7	51.3	2.9
Togo	36.3	39.4	23.4	0.8	13.6	31.3	50.6	4.5
Tunisia	6.6	56.4	28.4	8.7	1.7	36.5	38.7	23.1
Uganda	59.0	30.1	7.2	3.7	29.4	38.4	19.7	12.5
Ukraine	0.0	2.0	63.7	34.3	0.0	1.5	50.3	48.2
Viet Nam	10.8	24.5	60.4	4.3	5.8	16.4	57.3	20.5
Zambia	6.4	26.7	65.1	1.8	4.2	16.7	77.5	1.6

Note: Data are presented for youth with completed education only. Secondary includes secondary general, secondary vocational and post-secondary vocational. Tertiary refers to completed university or postgraduate level education.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

We see a more consistent and intuitive pattern when we compare the rural–urban gaps in higher educational achievement (figure 3.2). With the exception of Jordan, Liberia, the Occupied Palestinian Territory and Zambia, there is an urban bias in higher education. On the one hand, this may partly reflect the concentration of higher education institutions in urban areas and wider opportunities for higher skilled occupations in urban areas. On the other hand, it also reflects the higher poverty and lower education levels of parents in rural areas, both of which influence the decision-making processes and incentives regarding keeping children in school.⁹ It is no coincidence then that the geographic education gaps are highest in the low-income countries, such as Cambodia, Madagascar, Malawi and Togo, where tertiary education shares in urban areas are at least 500 per cent higher than in rural areas. As we will see in the analysis of employment and economic structures, rural economies in wealthier societies tend to be less exclusively agrarian and more diverse, and therefore generally offer more employment possibilities for higher educated populations than in low-income countries, where specialized, highly skilled jobs are almost exclusively located in urban areas.

Figure 3.2 Urban-to-rural gap in tertiary educational attainment among youth (%)

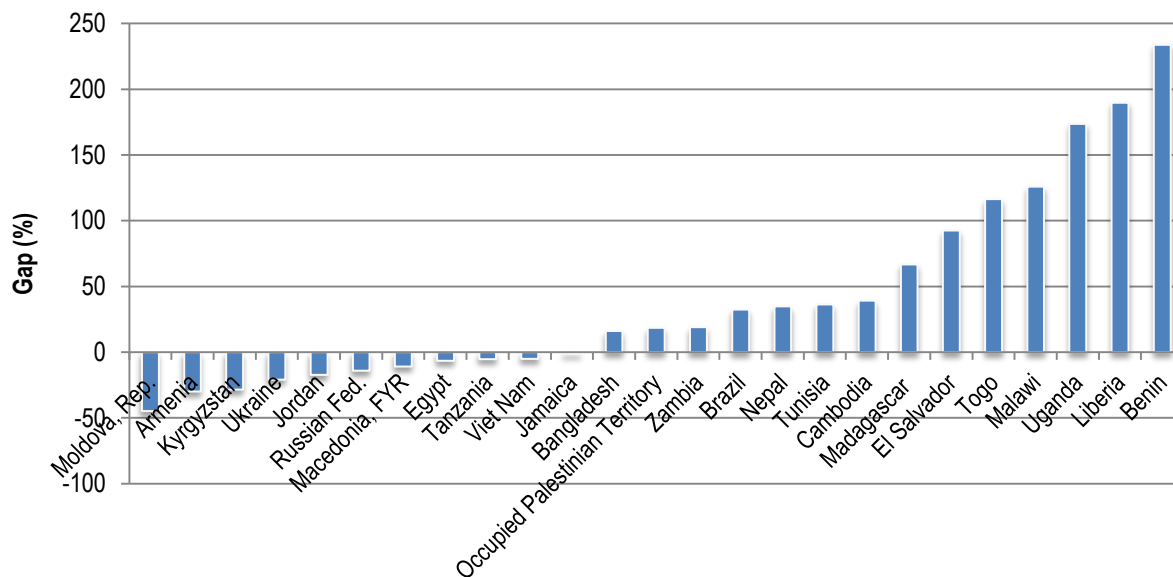


Note: For reasons of scale, the final four bars are cut off at 500 with per cent gaps shown in the data labels. Data are presented for youth with completed education only. Tertiary educational attainment refers to completed university or postgraduate level education.
Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

A slightly different picture emerges when exploring urban and rural biases in secondary education (figure 3.3). Just over half of the 25 countries maintain an urban bias in the completion of secondary education (as the highest level attained) among youth. The former Soviet republics, Armenia, Kyrgyzstan, the Republic of Moldova and Ukraine, show the largest negative gaps, demonstrating that youth in rural areas are more likely to complete their education at the secondary level than youth in urban areas. In these countries there is a greater concentration of higher education institutions in urban areas, while secondary education opportunities are more evenly distributed between urban and rural areas, probably reflecting the concentration of government investment in secondary or vocational education there.

⁹ ILO (forthcoming) discusses the determinants of education choices within households and nearly all national reports of the SWTS demonstrate the correlation between parental and youth levels of education.

Figure 3.3 Urban-to-rural gap in secondary educational attainment among youth



Note: Data are presented for youth with completed education only. Secondary educational attainment includes secondary general, secondary vocational and post-secondary vocational education.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

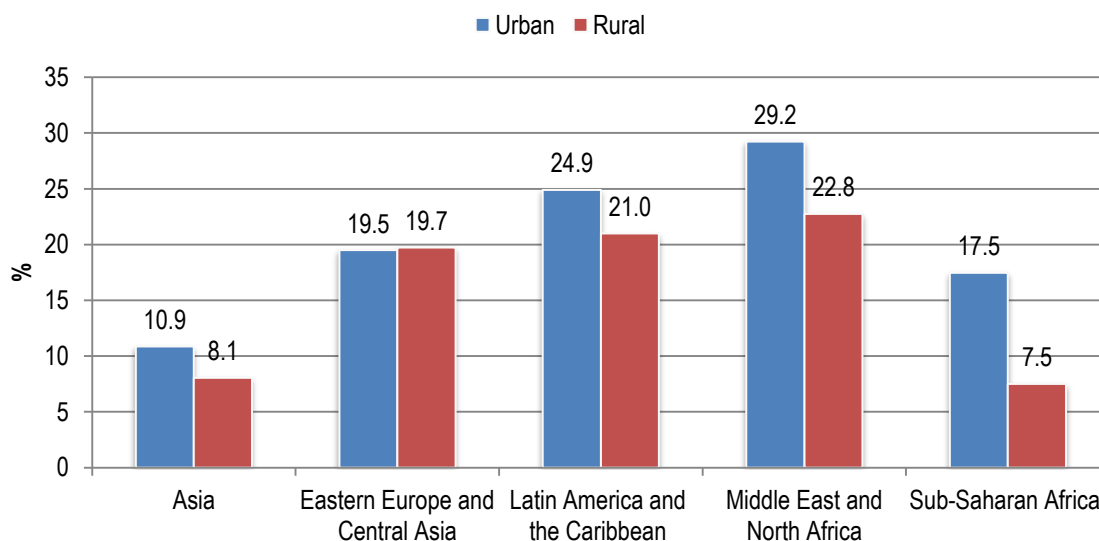
3.3 The geographic divide in youth labour market outcomes

3.3.1 Unemployment

For most countries and regions, youth unemployment rates are higher in urban than in rural areas, but gaps are more significant in sub-Saharan Africa (figure 3.4). On average across the 25 countries, the urban unemployment rate of young men was 17.8 per cent compared to 23.5 per cent for young women (figure 3.5). For rural unemployment, the rates were 12.7 per cent for men and 19.7 per cent for women. This means that urban unemployment is, on average, 6 percentage points higher among women than among men, and this gap increased to 7 percentage points in rural areas. In other words, the obstacles facing young women in finding work exist as both an urban and a rural phenomenon to an almost equal extent. Female labour market disadvantages seem to relate to conservative social norms determining the role of women and to discrimination in the labour market.

Of course, when we consider gender gaps at the regional level, we find areas of divergence. Female youth unemployment rates are massive in both urban and rural areas of the Middle East and North Africa (44.9 and 42.2 per cent, respectively) with male rates in the region falling to half of these levels. The extremely high urban and, particularly, rural unemployment gaps in countries such as Bangladesh, Jordan, the Occupied Palestinian Territory and, notably, Egypt seem to indicate that socio-cultural factors play a significant role in women's access to employment. In sub-Saharan Africa, in contrast, youth unemployment rates are lower, as are gender gaps in unemployment rates.

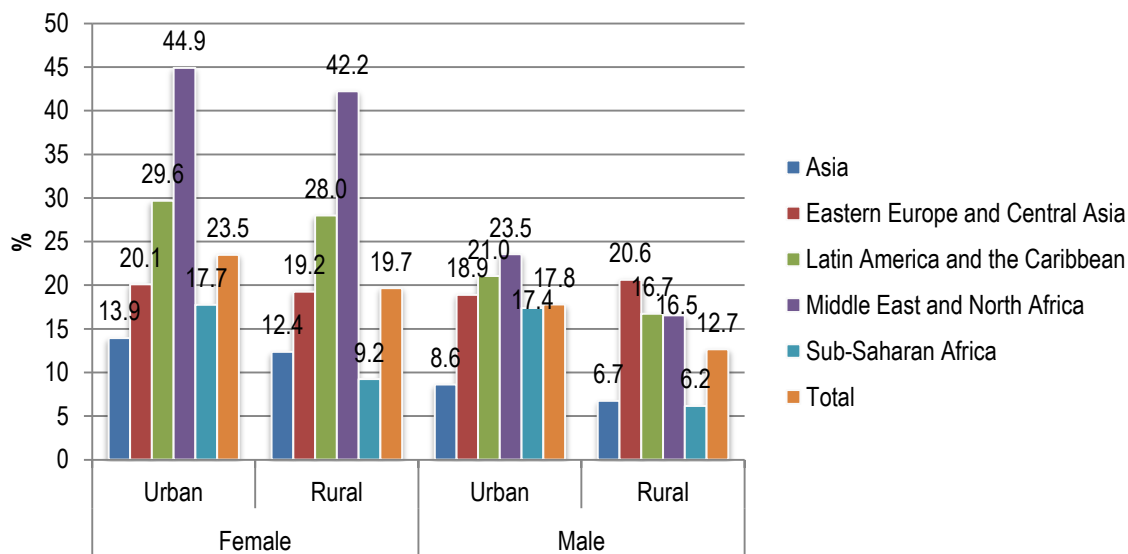
Figure 3.4 Youth unemployment rate (strict definition) by region and area of residence (% of labour force)



Note: Rates are averages of available country results in each region (Asia: three countries, Eastern Europe and Central Asia: six countries, Latin America and the Caribbean: three countries, Middle East and North Africa: four countries, sub-Saharan Africa: eight countries. Country data are shown in Annex I, table A.2.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Figure 3.5 Youth unemployment rate (strict definition) by sex, region and area of residence (% of labour force)



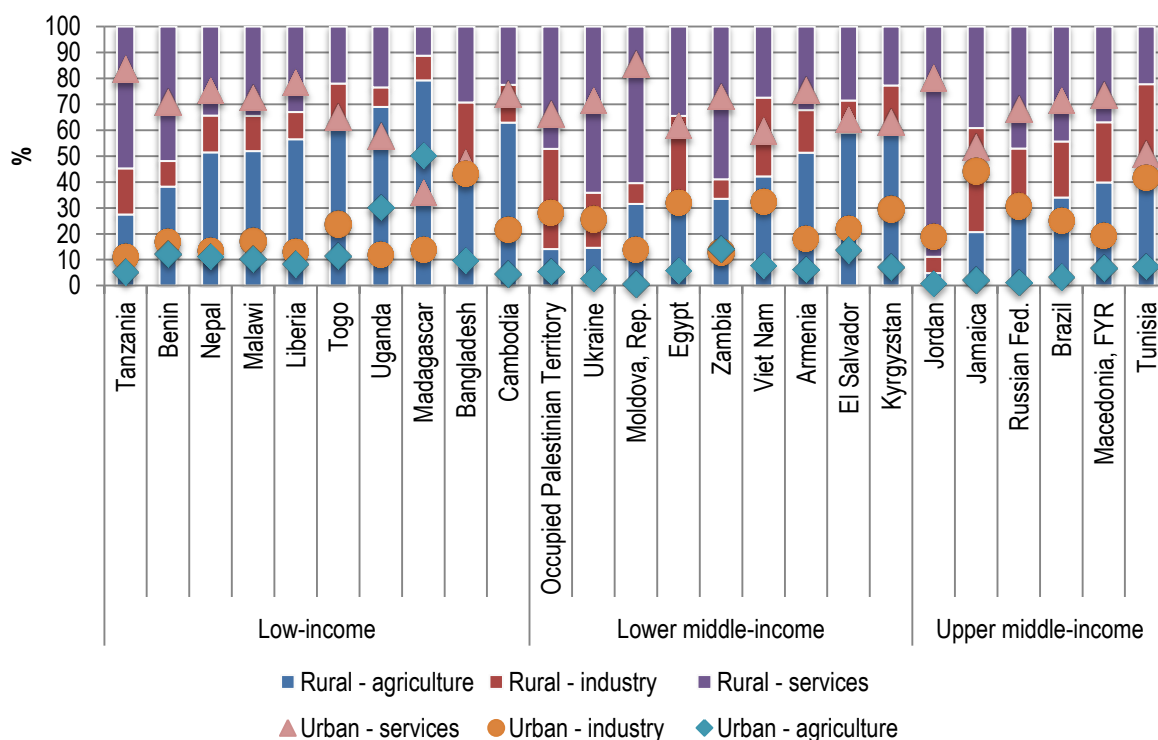
Note: Rates are averages of available country results in each region (Asia: three countries, Eastern Europe and Central Asia: six countries, Latin America and the Caribbean: three countries, Middle East and North Africa: four countries, sub-Saharan Africa: eight countries. Country data are shown in Annex I, table A.3.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

3.3.2 Employment by sector and occupation

If we look at youth employment by broad sector in rural and urban areas across the surveyed countries, a number of consistent patterns emerge. First, not surprisingly, agriculture is less important in urban than in rural areas. However, in a number of sub-Saharan and South-East Asian countries and in El Salvador, agriculture still contributes 10 per cent or more of *urban* youth employment (figure 3.6).

Figure 3.6 Youth employment by sector, income grouping and area of residence (% in total youth employment)



Note: Country data are shown in Annex I, tables A.4 and A.5. Industry is divided into manufacturing and non-manufacturing industry (construction, electricity and gas, mining and water supply) in the country tables.

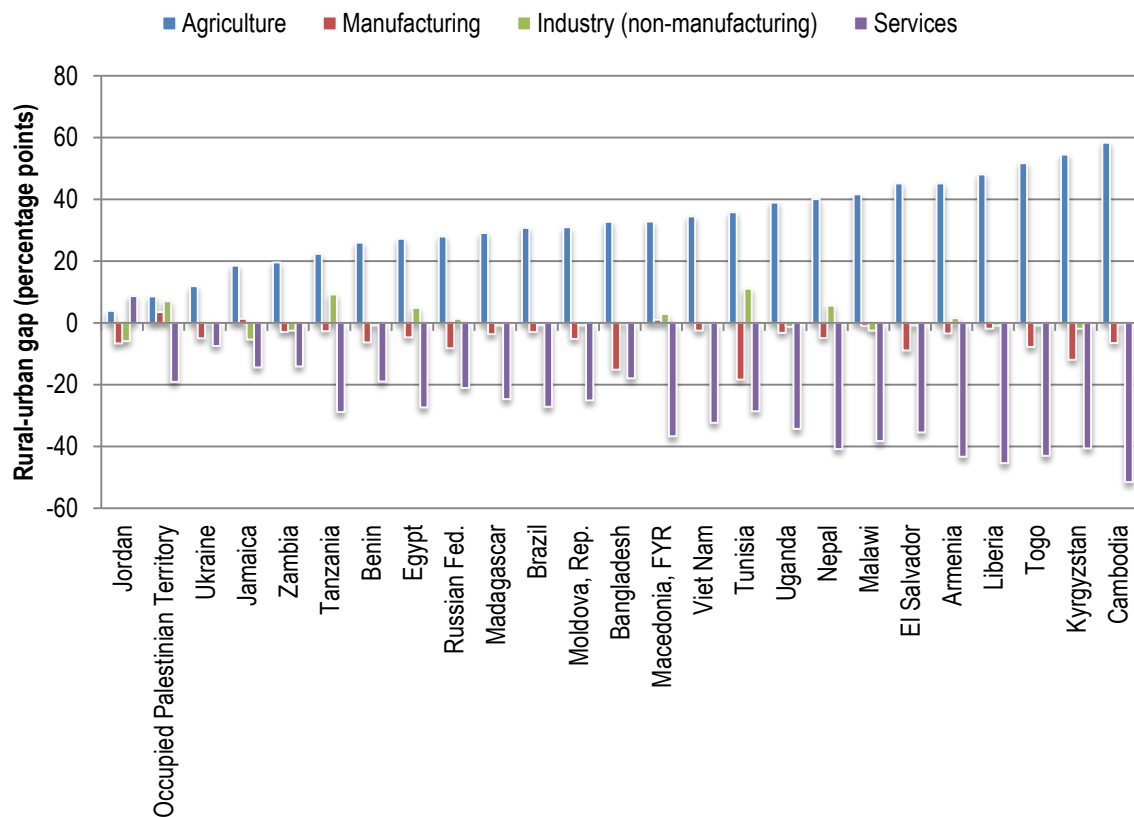
Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Second, the relative importance of industry in rural and urban areas tends to be higher in middle-income countries. An exception here is Bangladesh, where 28.4 per cent of employed youth in rural areas were working in industry and 43.1 per cent in urban areas. Still, a great deal of variation exists between countries. For instance, among upper middle-income countries, employment in industry is low in Jamaica and Jordan compared to Brazil, FYR Macedonia and Tunisia, which boast relatively large industrial sectors in both urban and rural areas.

Third, the service sector employs over half of urban youth in all countries except for Bangladesh (47.3 per cent) and Madagascar (36.0 per cent). In many countries, it employs over two-thirds of all youth. Youth employment in the service sector is consistently higher in urban areas than in rural areas (figure 3.7). The same is true of employment in manufacturing, but there are a few exceptions (FYR Macedonia, Jamaica and the Occupied Palestinian Territory) and even more exceptions when taking into account non-

manufacturing industries,¹⁰ where slightly higher numbers were engaged in rural than in urban areas in Armenia, Egypt, FYR Macedonia, Nepal, the Occupied Palestinian Territory, the Russian Federation and the United Republic of Tanzania.

Figure 3.7 Rural-to-urban gap in sectoral distribution of youth employment (percentage point)



Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Perhaps the most striking result here is the relatively low importance of the agricultural sector as a source of youth employment even in rural areas. In only half of all surveyed countries were more than half of rural youth employed in agriculture, and these tended to be the poorest, least developed countries in the sample. This corroborates the idea that, alongside processes of development, the rural sector also becomes more diverse and that fewer and fewer youth will be employed in agriculture per se. In rural areas, shares of youth employment in the industrial sector (manufacturing plus non-manufacturing) ranged from 6.3 per cent in Jordan to as high as 40.2 per cent in Jamaica (Annex II, table A.5). The average share among the 25 countries was 18.9 per cent. The average share in agriculture was still double this (averaging 42.2 per cent), but youth employment in services came a close second at 38.9 per cent.

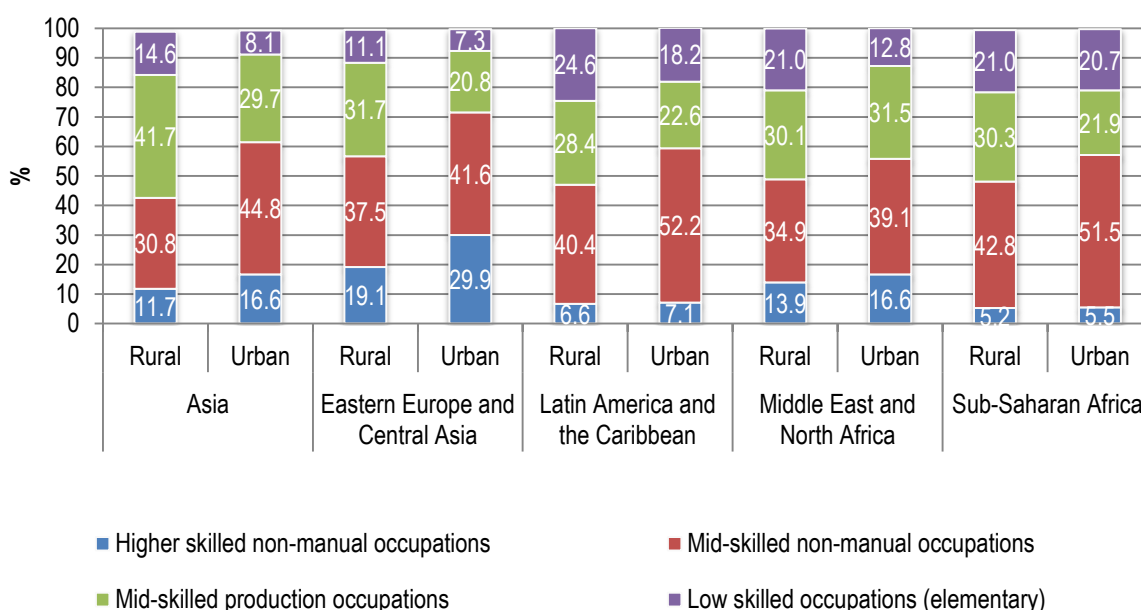
On the one hand, this reveals the limitations of youth employment policies that rely solely on the development of the agrarian sector or believe that agrarian development can keep young people “down on the farm” (Rhoda, 1983). These policies are incompatible with the broader structural economic shifts associated with mechanization, infrastructure, increasing access to education and urbanization. On the other hand, while structural macro-processes of urbanization and associated rural-to-urban migration of education- and job-

¹⁰ Construction, electricity and gas, mining and water supply.

seeking youth are to some degree inevitable, the fact that rural economies are becoming more diverse shows that the rural sector will continue to play a vital role in economic development and youth employment.

Figure 3.8 provides insight into the occupational structure of rural and urban areas among youth. We exclude youth working in the agriculture sector to demonstrate more clearly the diversification beyond agriculture and also because of challenges in identifying agricultural occupations (as discussed further in section 4). Highly skilled and mid-level skilled non-manual occupations among young workers are more highly concentrated in urban areas in all regions. In contrast, shares of youth in low-skilled (elementary) and production occupations (plant and machine operators and crafts workers) are higher in the rural areas of all the regions.

Figure 3.8 Youth non-agricultural employment by occupation class, region and area of residence (% of non-agricultural employment)



Note: Occupations (based on the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08)) are grouped as follows: highly skilled non-manual occupations include legislators, senior officials and managers and professionals; mid-level skilled non-manual occupations include technicians and associate professionals, clerks and service workers, shop and market sales workers; mid-level skilled production occupations include skilled agricultural and fishery workers,¹¹ crafts and related trades workers and plant and machine operators and assemblers; and low-skilled occupations include elementary occupations and the armed forces. Country data are shown in Annex I, table A.6.

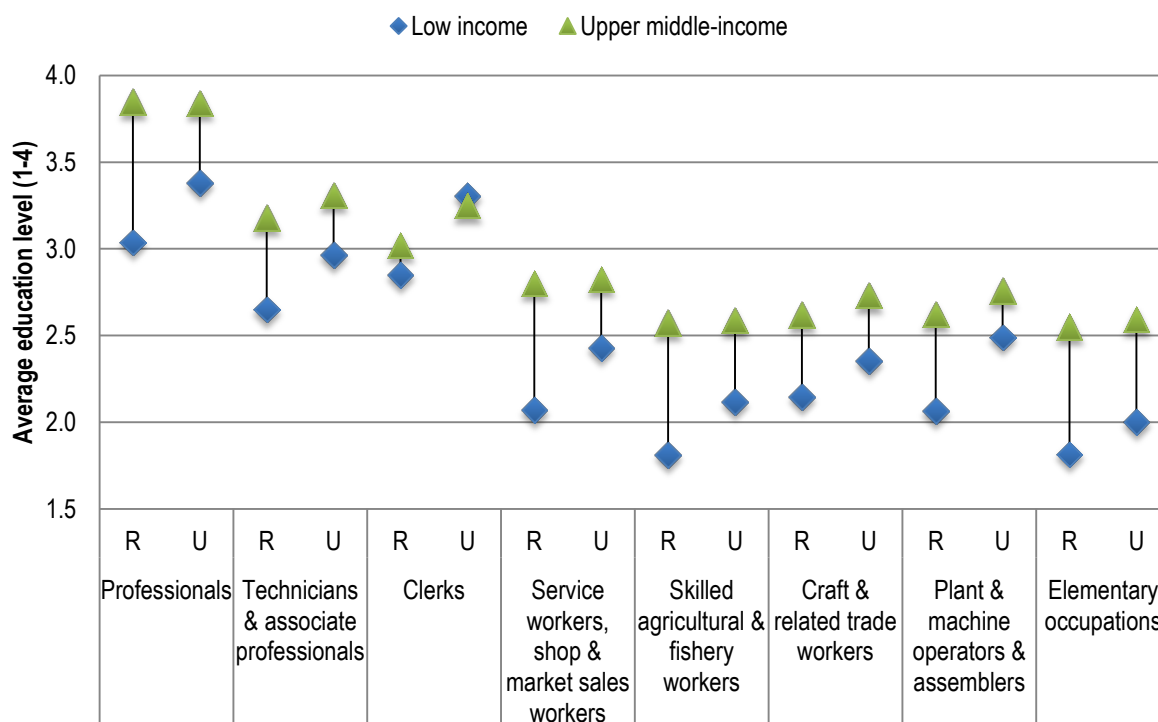
Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

The education levels of working youth are also consistently lower in rural areas, regardless of the expected level of skills (figure 3.9). For example, whereas a young professional would normally be expected to hold a tertiary degree (level 4), young professionals working in low-income countries are typically undereducated, having completed, on average, only secondary education. However, more young professionals in urban areas (low-income countries) are “better matched” to their jobs than in rural areas

¹¹ The fact that any responses fall within the occupation of skilled agricultural and fishery worker, despite the exclusion of workers in the agricultural sector, demonstrates the imperfections of the enumeration and coding process in implementing household surveys. Fortunately, the inconsistencies in this case proved to be nominal, with the exceptions of rural Benin and Liberia. See the country data in Annex I, table A.6.

(with average education levels of 3.4 and 3.0, respectively). These figures reflect the extent of undereducation in low-income countries, which can have a severe impact not only on the labour productivity of the countries but also on the wages of the young workers. Young sales workers in rural areas of low-income countries are mostly educated to the primary level only (2.1, on average), while the majority of their counterparts in upper middle-income countries have completed the secondary level (2.8, on average).¹² In the low-income countries there is also a larger differential in the average education levels of youth working in rural and urban areas compared to the middle-income countries.

Figure 3.9 Average education levels of working youth by occupation and area of residence, low-income and upper middle-income countries



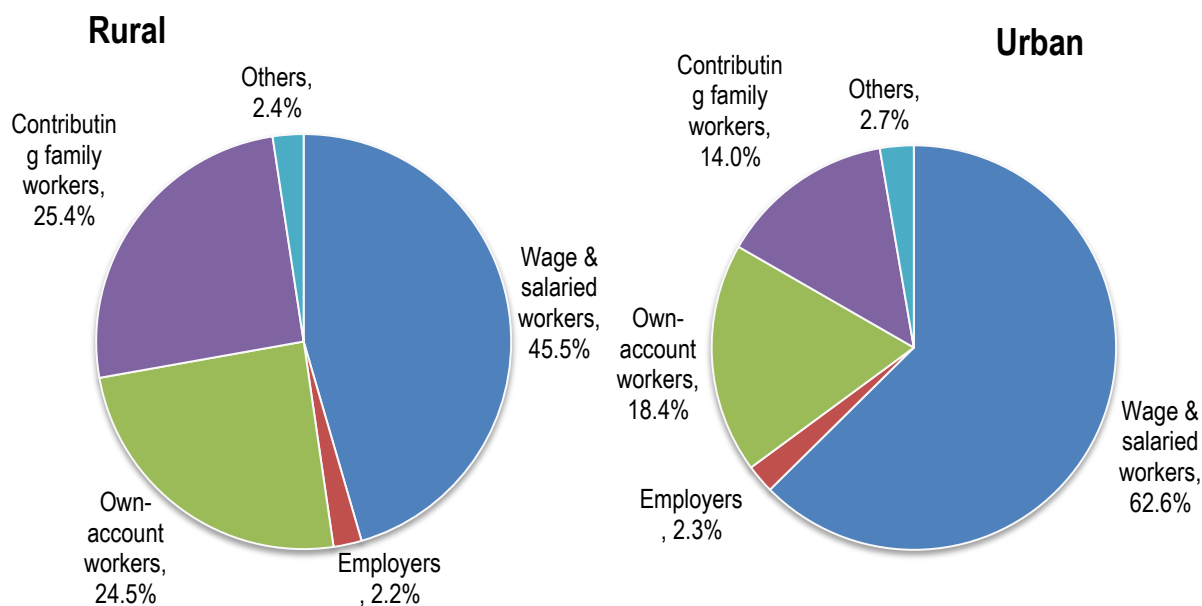
Note: R = rural areas. U = urban areas. Average education levels are calculated according to the following scales: 1 = no schooling or completion below the primary level; 2 = completion of the primary level; 3 = completion of the secondary level; 4 = completion of the tertiary level. Data are presented for youth with completed education only. There are ten low-income countries among the SWTS countries and six upper middle-income countries (five plus the Russian Federation); see figure 2.1. Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

3.3.3 Status and stability of employment

Self-employment among youth is more prevalent in rural than in urban areas: 24.5 per cent were engaged in own-account work (25-country average) compared to 18.4 per cent in urban areas (figure 3.10). Working in a family establishment or farm (contributing family work) is also more common among youth in rural areas. A total of 25.4 per cent of young workers were in contributing family work in rural areas; nearly double the share in urban areas (14.0 per cent).

¹² See Sparreboom and Staneva (2014) for a more detailed assessment of education results and job mismatches from the SWTS datasets.

Figure 3.10 Status in employment (youth) by area of residence, average of 25 countries (% in total employment)



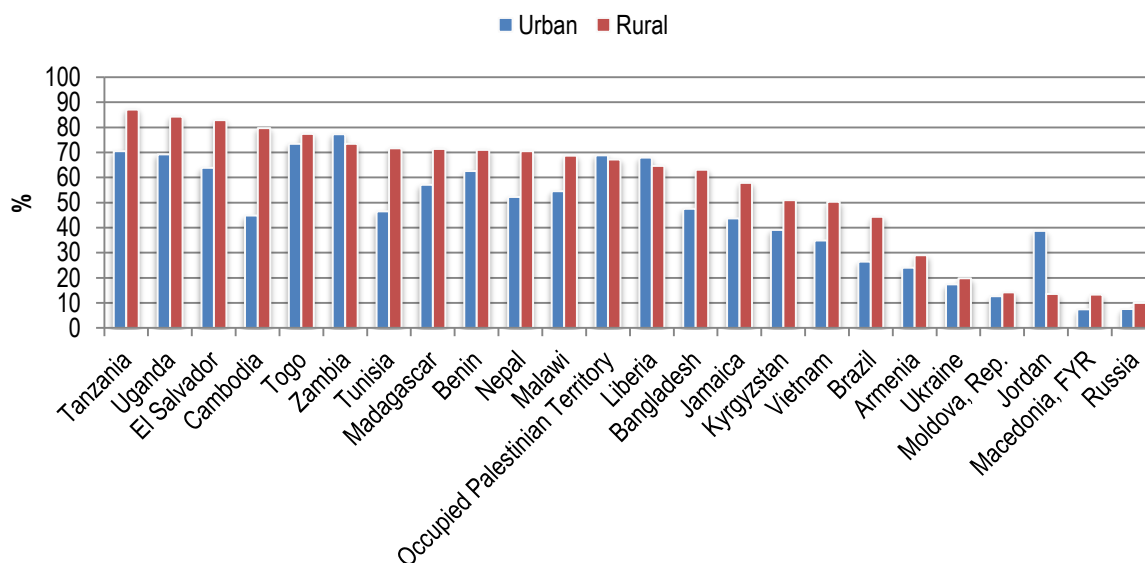
Note: "Others" include members of producers' cooperatives, which are not classifiable by status.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

The categories of status in employment (defined according to the International Classification of Status in Employment – ICSE) can be further developed to provide a clearer sense of the degree of stability offered by the job. The two categories deemed to be characterized by inadequate earnings, difficult conditions of work that undermine workers' fundamental rights or other characteristics symptomatic of decent work deficits are own-account workers and contributing family workers (Sparreboom, 2011). Reflecting the degree of vulnerability, the two categories are added together to generate a "vulnerable employment rate", an indicator included in the employment target of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Using the results in figure 3.10, we note that one-half (49.9 per cent) of young workers in rural areas are categorized as being in vulnerable employment compared to one-third (32.4 per cent) in urban areas.

It is important to note that even paid employment is not a guarantee of stability. The nature and length of contracts vary, and numerous national reports in the *Work4Youth* publication series have already pointed out that in these countries a majority of youth have no formal contract at all. Rather, they are engaged on the basis of an oral agreement. In our sample, half of the countries showed an incidence of oral agreements (among paid workers) greater than 50 per cent in urban areas, rising to over two-thirds of the countries when looking at rural areas (figure 3.11). In all but a handful of countries, the tendency to favour oral agreements over written contracts is greater in rural than in urban areas.

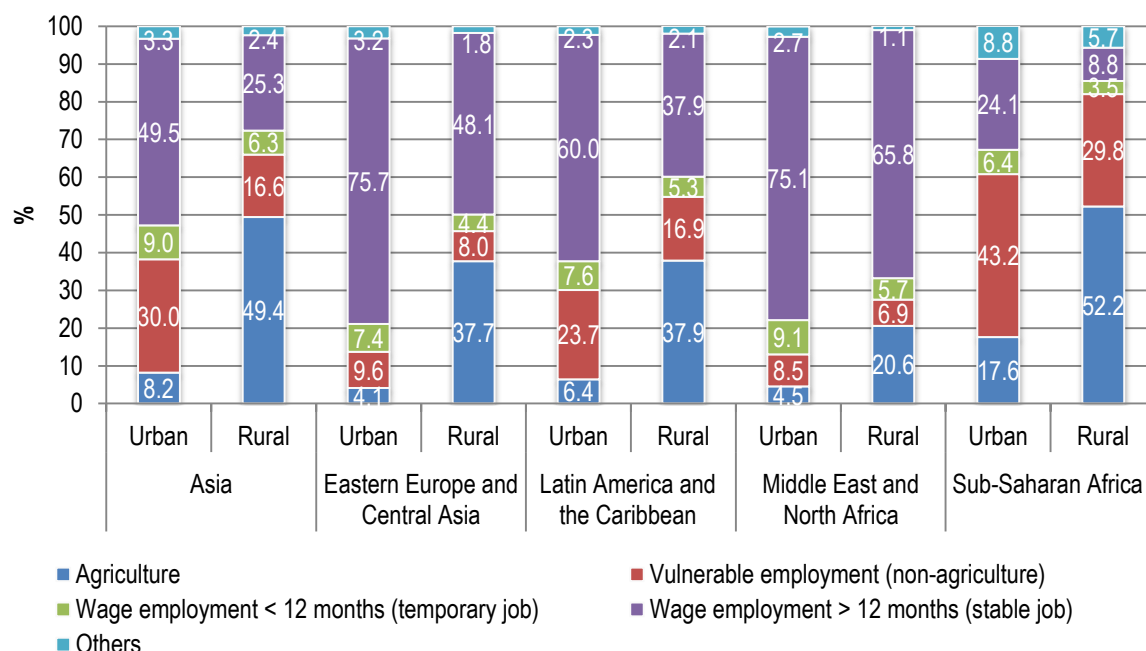
Figure 3.11 Youth paid employment based on oral agreements by area of residence (% of total paid employment)



Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

In figure 3.12, paid youth employment – indicating receipt of a wage or salary – is divided according to contract (or oral agreement) lengths of less than 12 months or 12 months or longer. Employment in agriculture is kept as a separate category, with the assumption that in lower income countries it is also largely precarious in nature (see section 4). Vulnerable employment (non-agriculture) and “others”, which includes employers and the non-classified, serve as the final categories.

Figure 3.12 Youth employment by type of engagement, region and area of residence (% in total employment)



Note: Rates are averages of available country results in each region (Asia: three countries, Eastern Europe and Central Asia: six countries, Latin America and the Caribbean: three countries, Middle East and North Africa: three countries, sub-Saharan Africa: eight countries). Country data are shown in Annex I, table A.7. Egypt is excluded due to an anomaly in the questionnaire. “Others” include employers and persons not classifiable. Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

The attainment of a stable job – wage employment with duration of 12 months or longer – proves to be an elusive goal for youth in general, but clearly more so for youth living in rural areas. At best, 65.8 per cent of young workers in rural areas of the Middle East and North Africa had attained a stable job,¹³ followed by 48.1 per cent of young workers in rural areas of Eastern Europe and Central Asia.¹⁴ At the other extreme is sub-Saharan Africa, where only 8.8 per cent of youth in rural areas has a paid job with duration greater than 12 months, compared to 24.1 per cent in urban areas. Vulnerable employment in the non-agricultural sector is more common in urban than rural areas, with the size of the geographic gap closely related to the relative importance of agriculture to the region.

Prospects for stability within paid employment can be further tested by determining the shares of paid employees who are engaged on a “casual” basis, either due to engagement in seasonal or occasional jobs or because the work is considered task-based. The assumption here is that large shares of casual labourers signal surplus labour and widespread underemployment in the economy (Sparreboom and Albee, 2011, p. 68). The precarious nature of employment for the casual labourer and lack of access to social protection is similar to the situation of workers in own-account and contributing family work (the categories of vulnerable employment).

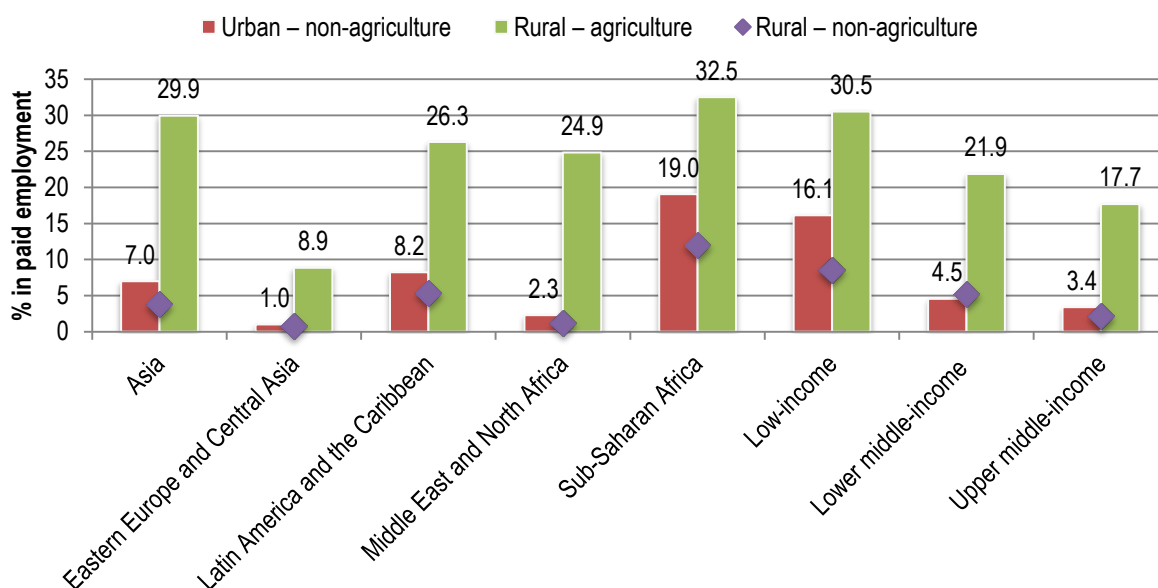
In which sectors is casual labour more likely to be found among young workers? Figure 3.13 illustrates that casual labourers are consistently more likely to be engaged in the agricultural sector than the non-agriculture sector and, consequently, this situation affects rural areas more than urban areas. Differences across the sectors can be large; for example, in Asia only 7.0 per cent of young paid workers qualify as casual labourers in the non-agricultural sector while the share in the agricultural sector is 29.9 per cent. Sectoral differences are also significant in Latin America and the Caribbean and the Middle East and North Africa. In sub-Saharan Africa, the share of young workers engaged in casual labour is the highest among all the regions in both sectors (19.0 and 32.5 per cent in the non-agricultural and agricultural sectors, respectively). When examined across income levels, there is a consistent decrease in shares of casual labourers as income levels increase.

Adding the share of casual labourers in total employment to the shares in vulnerable employment presents an even more pessimistic portrait of prospects for stable employment in rural areas among developing countries. In rural areas, the expanded measure of precarious employment among youth comes to 53.7 per cent (49.9 per cent vulnerable plus 3.8 per cent casual). In urban areas, the share is 35.2 per cent (32.4 per cent vulnerable plus 2.8 per cent casual).

¹³ Bearing in mind the extremely high youth unemployment rates in the region, at least it is reassuring to know that the few youth who do attain work have the advantage of securing work of long duration; attainment of a decent wage is another matter (see Barucci and Myrnan, 2014 and Sadeq and Elder, 2014).

¹⁴ The inclusion of Kyrgyzstan in the region Eastern Europe and Central Asia increases the average share of youth engaged in agriculture and vulnerable employment and decreases the share with a stable job. Excluding Kyrgyzstan from the regional average generates a share of 53.2 per cent of young workers with stable jobs in rural areas and 77.8 per cent in urban areas.

Figure 3.13 Young casual labourers by area of residence and income and regional grouping (% in total paid employment)



Note: Rates are averages of available country results in each region (Asia: three countries, Eastern Europe and Central Asia: six countries, Latin America and the Caribbean: three countries, Middle East and North Africa: three countries, sub-Saharan Africa: eight countries). Egypt is excluded due to an anomaly in the questionnaire. Casual labourers are defined as paid employees with contract/agreement durations of less than 12 months who give as the reason for the limited duration of the contract or agreement seasonal work, occasional work or work based on a fixed task. A further check was made to exclude those who stated that their payment period was greater than one month.

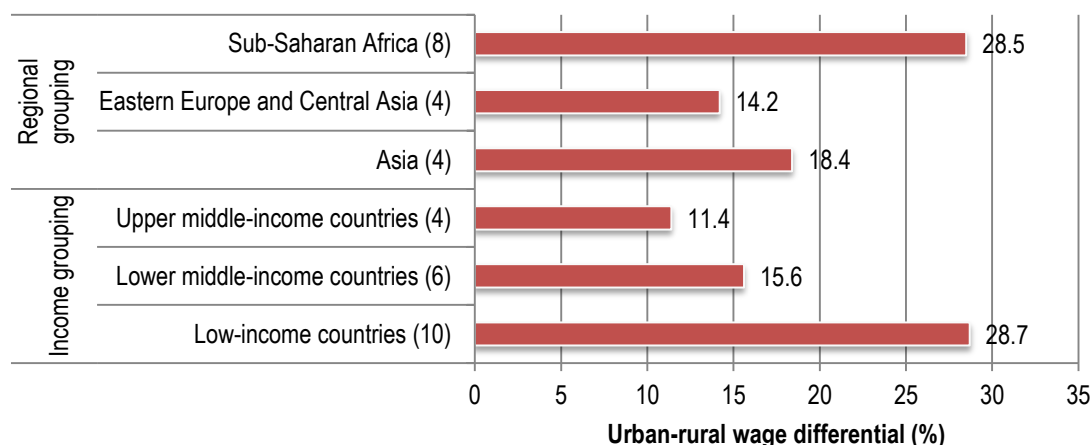
Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 24 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

3.3.4 Wages

One of the most common motivations behind urban (or external) migration is the assumed higher wage potential of urban areas and indeed the expectation of higher urban wages is borne out by the SWTS datasets. It is important to bear in mind, however, that we are only able to measure nominal wages. Adjusting for costs of living in urban and rural areas could generate different results. Urban wages for youth (average monthly wages¹⁵) were, between 11 and 16 per cent higher than wages in rural areas in the lower and upper middle-income countries and nearly 29 per cent higher in low-income countries (figure 3.14). The lack of equity in wages between urban and rural areas proved to be most pronounced in sub-Saharan Africa (among the available regions), which had a wage differential of 28.5 per cent). The countries showing the largest urban–rural wage differentials for young workers – where wage gains were between one-third and two-thirds in urban areas – were Cambodia, El Salvador, Liberia, Malawi and Togo (data not shown).

¹⁵ Monthly wages of employees and daily, monthly or other time-specific earnings of own-account workers were converted into weekly rates for comparability. Contributing (unpaid) family workers are excluded from the calculation.

Figure 3.14 Urban–rural wage differentials for young workers by income and regional grouping



Note: Urban–rural wage differentials are calculated as the urban average monthly wage of young workers minus the rural average monthly wage divided by the urban wage multiplied by 100. The numbers in parentheses are the country count per grouping. Latin America and the Caribbean and the Middle East are not shown in the regional groupings since reliable wage data were available for two countries only per region.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 20 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

3.3.5 Outlook for migration

Many young workers signaled a willingness to relocate in order to find work, particularly to urban areas (27 per cent of all respondents; 25-country average) but also overseas (13 per cent). As table 3.2 shows, migration aspirations were consistently higher among the unemployed. Gender gaps in willingness to migrate abroad were lower in South-East Asian and higher income countries compared to the low-income countries and Arab countries. In FYR Macedonia, in fact, many more women than men aim to move abroad.

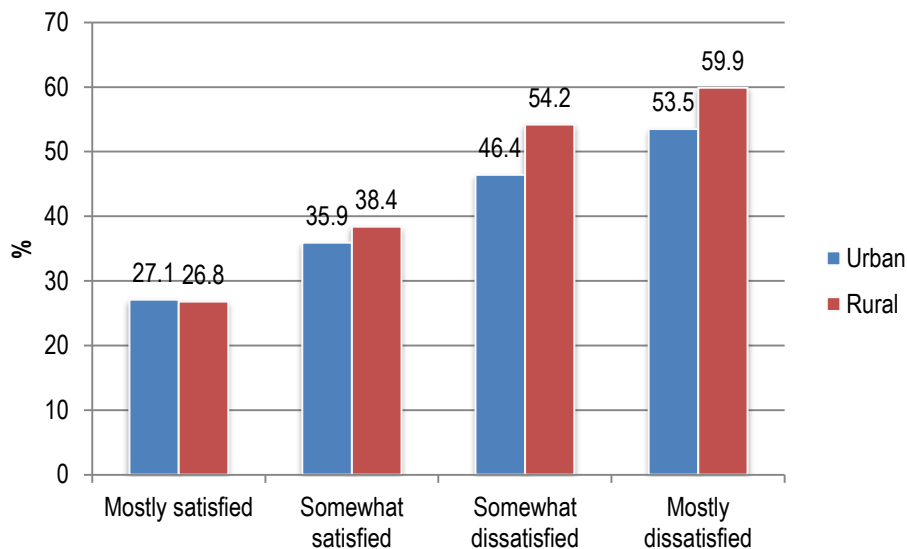
Table 3.2 Employed and unemployed youth that would consider moving by area of residence and sex (%)

	Employed youth				Unemployed youth			
	Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Asia	24.8	16.9	34.0	22.6	46.3	27.8	60.7	38.1
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	29.5	23.3	38.0	28.4	49.7	37.1	49.4	39.4
Latin America and the Caribbean	65.7	62.2	67.0	63.4	70.5	71.4	76.5	72.5
Middle East and North Africa	23.8	10.6	28.5	13.0	27.6	9.1	33.8	11.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	48.5	41.9	50.0	42.9	69.2	56.4	65.9	63.0
Total	38.5	31.0	43.5	34.0	52.6	40.4	57.2	45.0

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Openness to the idea of migration as an option for a better future is closely linked to the young person's sense of job satisfaction, as is demonstrated in figure 3.15.¹⁶ A strongly dissatisfied working youth in a rural area was more than twice as likely to express their willingness to migrate as youth who expressed satisfaction with their job.

Figure 3.15 Employed youth who would consider moving by level of job satisfaction and area of residence (%)



Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 22 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Perspectives on rural development and migration often tend towards two extremes. On the one hand, some development initiatives operate under the assumption that rural–urban migration is harmful, and young people should stay in rural areas to contribute to rural development. Others see rural–urban migration as inevitable and economically rational, and place relatively little emphasis on the importance of developing economic opportunities in rural areas. A more realistic approach would be to try to strengthen healthy economic growth within rural areas, while at the same time acknowledging that rural–urban migration will inevitably accompany this process. Given the underdevelopment of rural educational facilities in many countries, rural youth often have to migrate to towns and cities in order to study, particularly for higher education purposes. Even as educational opportunities increase in rural areas, higher level specialized jobs are concentrated in cities and in more highly developed countries. But even for the lower skilled, migration to the city or abroad often arises from a deliberate decision to improve livelihoods, save money for investments and help to reduce fluctuations in the family income, which had previously been largely or entirely dependent on climatic vagaries (Bebbington, 1999; de Haas, 2010; McDowell and de Haan, 1997; Stark, 1991). Under favourable conditions, income from migration (remittances) can be used to invest in agrarian and non-agrarian economic activities in rural areas.

¹⁶ In the SWTS, young workers are asked to rate their level of satisfaction on the current job (very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, somewhat unsatisfied, very unsatisfied). Forthcoming research from the Work4Youth team will argue that the measure of job satisfaction is too subjective to facilitate reliable interpretation.

3.3.6 School-to-work transitions

In national publications of the SWTS, the ILO has been following a definition of the labour market transition that mixes objective elements relating to the status of employment and stability of the contract with a subjective element of the respondents' sense of job satisfaction. Using this framework, the youth population can be divided into three stages of transition. A young person who has "transited" (completed their labour market transition) is defined as one who is currently employed in (i) a stable and satisfactory job, (ii) a stable but non-satisfactory job, (iii) a satisfactory but temporary job, or (iv) is self-employed and satisfied with their job. A young person is considered "in transition" if he or she is either (i) currently unemployed (relaxed definition), (ii) currently employed in a temporary or non-satisfactory job, (iii) currently self-employed and unsatisfied, or (iv) currently inactive and not in school, with the intention of looking for work later. A young person who has "not yet transited" is one who is either still in school (inactive students) or currently inactive and not in school (with no intention of looking for work) (see ILO, 2013a, chapter 5).

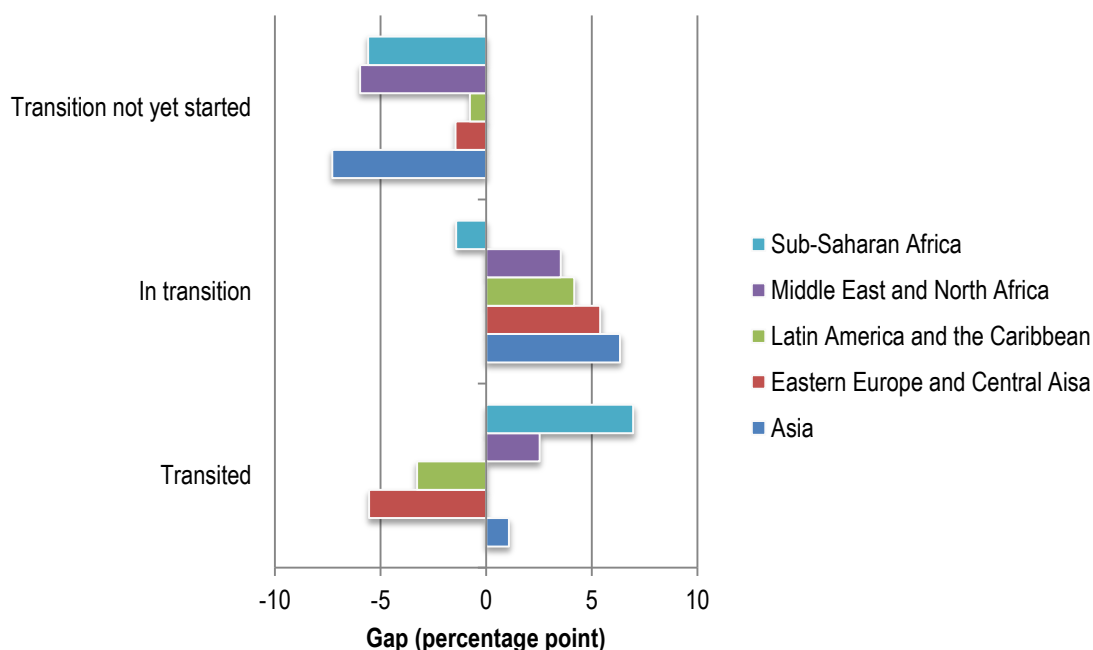
With higher unemployment rates in urban areas, it is reasonable to expect to find higher shares of youth remaining in transition in urban areas, but the balance could be disrupted if large shares of the self-employed – a stronger rural than urban phenomenon – claim dissatisfaction with their jobs. Figure 3.16 details the categories of transition by region with the aim of identifying trends in transition results, although admittedly the framework does not lend itself to normative analysis, as the end result of youth remaining in transition or who have not yet started the transition is unknown.¹⁷ First, we note that a greater proportion of youth who have not yet started their transition are located in urban than in rural areas. This result confirms the previous evidence on the continuing imbalance of educational opportunities across geographic locations. Another factor is the higher tendency towards inactivity (inactive non-students) among young women in rural areas.

Second, it appears that more youth remain in transition in rural areas. In the subsection below we will unravel the causality – are more youth unemployed in rural areas (previous evidence to the contrary) or is it a matter of more engagement in non-satisfactory temporary or own-account jobs? Only in sub-Saharan Africa was a greater share of youth to be found in the category "in transition" in urban than in rural areas.

Sub-Saharan Africa again stands out in terms of the weight of completed transitions in rural areas. Differences are not large – 33.2 per cent transited in urban areas, on average, among the sub-Saharan African countries compared to 40.0 per cent in rural areas – but significant enough to note as an indication of differences regarding what a labour market transition implies in the (mainly) low-income countries of sub-Saharan Africa and in rural and urban labour markets. Options that preclude early labour market participation in rural areas of low-income countries, such as participation in education or training or lengthy periods of unemployment during which no income is being generated, are extremely limited. Most youth in rural areas of low-income countries are forced by economic necessity to engage in some form of income generation. Only a handful will ever attain a stable job and few will express dissatisfaction with their lot of self-employment when that is, in general, the only form of work available to them in rural areas. Section 4 below will expand on forms of employment in rural sub-Saharan Africa, providing evidence of the extremely limited scope for "quality" jobs, regardless of the increasing diversity of sectors in rural areas.

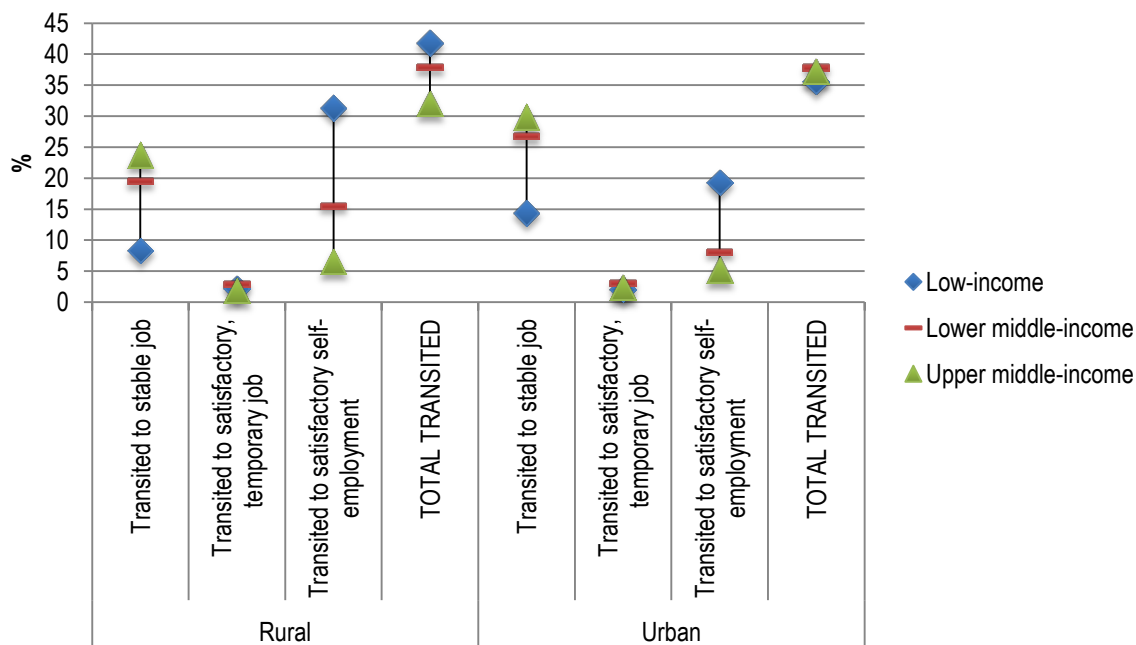
¹⁷ Rosati et al. (forthcoming) includes a modelling approach to determining results on completion of the transition.

Figure 3.16 Rural-to-urban gaps in stages of labour market transitions by regional grouping (percentage points)



Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II. Country results are shown in Annex I, table A.8.

Figure 3.17 "Transited" youth by subcategory, area of residence and income grouping (% of youth population)



Note: Russian Federation is included among the upper middle-income countries.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

The likelihood that a young person will successfully complete their labour market transition to a stable job is dependent on the availability of stable jobs as an option in the area of residence. It should come as no surprise, therefore, that very few labour market

transitions of youth in rural areas of low-income countries lead to a stable job. Rather, at best, a young person can hope to end up in satisfactory self-employment. Figure 3.17 confirms that only 8.3 per cent of the youth population in rural areas of low-income countries had completed the transition to a stable job compared to 31.3 per cent who were in a satisfactory self-employed job. Opportunities were more readily available for those living in urban areas, yet still only 14.3 per cent transitioned to a stable job compared to 19.2 per cent who were self-employed. Labour market transitions look significantly different among youth in upper middle-income countries. In these countries, with more formal labour market institutions, the young person can realistically aim to transition to stable employment (noting that 23.7 per cent of youth in rural areas had managed to attain a stable job and 29.8 per cent in urban areas).

4. Labour market dynamics of youth in rural areas of sub-Saharan Africa

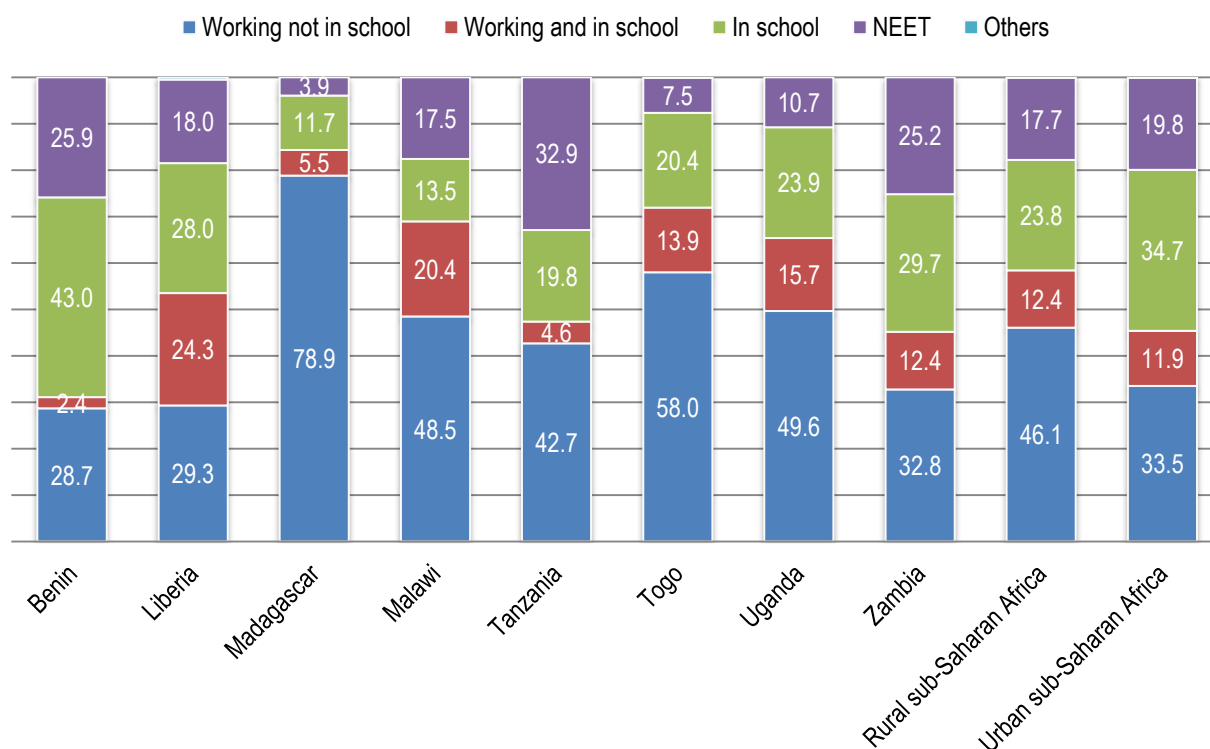
Recalling section 2, the largely rural countries remain among the poorest with the lowest level of human development. Nonetheless, the economic and development processes are far from static; change in rural livelihoods is occurring rapidly. While the broad drive towards urbanization has led to a rapid growth of towns, cities and megacities in low- and middle-income countries over the past decades, it has also fundamentally transformed rural livelihoods. Processes such as the mechanization of agriculture, concentration of land ownership and population growth have resulted in a decrease in the number of rural people working in agriculture and the income share of agriculture in rural areas. This section aims to investigate the hypothesis that rural livelihoods have become less narrowly focused on agrarian income alone. We do so in an examination of the eight SWTS countries in sub-Saharan Africa, as the region maintaining the highest shares of youth rural populations.

4.1 Overview of youth employment in rural areas of sub-Saharan Africa

Youth labour force participation in rural areas of the eight sub-Saharan African countries is the highest among the SWTS regions. Employed youth corresponds to 58.6 per cent of the total youth rural population and the unemployment rate averaged 7.5 per cent. The share of youth currently engaged in education was 36.2 per cent, of which 12.4 per cent were also employed (figure 4.1). Those neither in employment nor in formal education or training (NEET rate) totalled 17.7 per cent. For comparison purposes, the distribution of main activity status is also shown for urban sub-Saharan Africa. The main differences remain the higher education enrolment rate in urban areas, which is reflected in the lower employment rates.

The proportion of youth already working in rural areas varied widely across countries: employment to population ratios (EPRs) ranged from 31.1 per cent in Benin to 84.4 per cent in Madagascar. Low EPRs in Benin, Liberia, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia reflect higher levels of school enrolment and higher incidences of youth neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET). To put the NEET rates into a broader context, it is important to disaggregate results in order to determine whether the economy suffers primarily from the challenges of unemployment or exclusion from education or whether both factors have an equal impact. Elder (2015) demonstrates that, in the sub-Saharan African countries, the proportion of NEETs who are inactive non-students greatly outnumbers the proportion who are unemployed.

Figure 4.1 Main activity status of youth in rural sub-Saharan Africa (% of youth rural population)



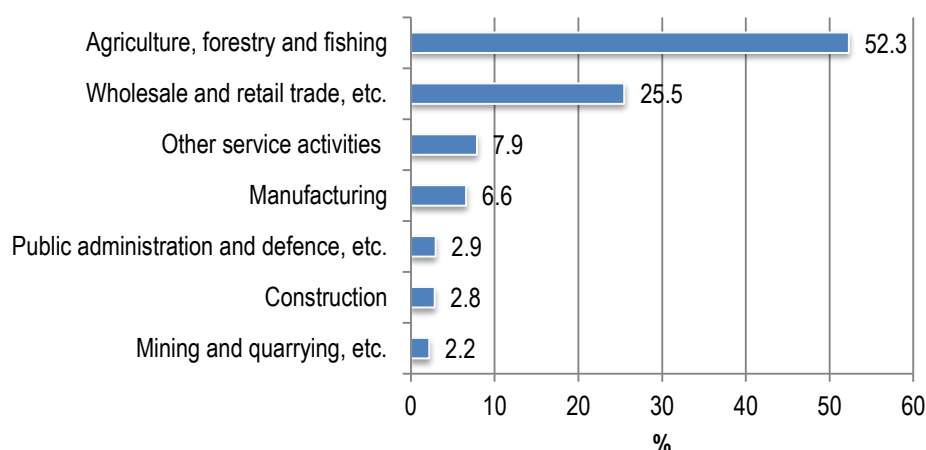
Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

The EPR of rural young women in the region was slightly lower than that of young men, at 56.5 and 60.3 per cent, respectively, while the unemployment rate of young women was higher (8.2 per cent compared to 6.2 per cent for young men). Female youth neither in employment nor in education accounted for 23.6 per cent of the female rural population; double the male share of 11.8 per cent. Gender disparities are also evident in access to education: 29.2 per cent of rural women in contrast to 43.3 per cent of young men were currently attending school.

4.2 Employment structure in rural sub-Saharan Africa

Employment in rural areas in sub-Saharan Africa remains concentrated in the agriculture sector, although some countries now also show equally large – or larger – shares of youth engaging in the services sector (e.g., Benin, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia). Figure 4.2 shows the regional average of sectoral employment of youth. While half of youth remain in the agricultural sector (52.3 per cent), one-quarter (25.5 per cent) of youth are attempting to earn a living through trade- or sales-based activities (wholesale and retail trade, transportation and storage, accommodation and food service activities). The two sectors together accounted for more than two-thirds of total youth employment in the eight countries of rural sub-Saharan Africa. The remaining jobs were distributed across other service sector activities (7.9 per cent), manufacturing (6.6 per cent), public administration (2.9 per cent), construction (2.8 per cent) and mining (2.2 per cent). A general conclusion can be drawn that there is some diversification away from agriculture but it remains to be seen whether service-based activities can offer young workers the possibility of achieving stable or profitable livelihoods.

Figure 4.2 Sectoral distribution of youth employment in rural sub-Saharan Africa (% of total employment)



Note: For full titles of abbreviated sectors, see table 4.1. Categories that account for less than 2 per cent of the total are included with “Other service activities”. These include: Information and communication, Financial and insurance activities, Real estate activities, Professional, scientific, technical, administrative and support service activities and Not elsewhere classified (adding 2.1 per cent to the 5.8 per cent of “Other service activities”). Source: Authors’ calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Employment in the industrial sector remains underdeveloped in the rural areas. At most, manufacturing engaged 13.9 per cent of youth in rural Togo – primarily in the production of textiles – followed by 10.2 per cent of youth in rural Malawi, primarily in rubber processing (table 4.1). Employment in the mining sector accounted for 4.3 and 6.5 per cent in Liberia and the United Republic of Tanzania, respectively, and for 2.4 per cent in Madagascar, while for the other SWTS countries in the region it remains below 1 per cent. Employment within higher skilled sectors – namely information and communication and professional, scientific, technical, administrative and support service activities – is nominal (at most, 3.1 per cent of rural youth in Liberia in the former sector and 3.8 per cent of rural youth in Zambia in the latter), confirming the assumptions of very limited job prospects for youth who invested in higher levels of education.

Table 4.1 Youth employment by sector in rural sub-Saharan Africa (%)

Sector	Benin	Liberia	Madagascar	Malawi	Tanzania, United Rep. of	Uganda	Zambia	Togo*
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	38.2	55.6	79.0	51.9	27.5	69.0	33.6	63.5
Mining and quarrying and other industrial activities	0.4	4.3	2.4	0.2	6.5	0.5	2.7	0.6
Manufacturing	7.7	4.4	5.7	10.2	3.6	4.7	2.6	13.9
• Manufacture of food products, beverages and tobacco products	1.3	3.0	2.4	2.7	0.5	1.4	0.8	4.1
• Manufacture of textiles, wearing apparel, leather and related products	3.0	0.0	1.2	0.6	2.2	0.8	0.0	7.1
• Manufacture of wood and paper products; printing and reproduction of recorded media	0.4	0.5	1.6	0.6	0.0	0.5	0.0	2.2

Sector	Benin	Liberia	Madagascar	Malawi	Tanzania, United Rep. of	Uganda	Zambia	Togo*
• Manufacture of chemicals and chemical products	1.0	0.4	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.1
• Manufacture of rubber and plastics products, and other non-metallic mineral products	0.2	0.0	0.3	5.7	0.1	1.6	0.0	0.0
• Manufacture of basic metals and fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.4	0.5
• Other manufacturing; repair and installation of machinery and equipment	1.1	0.0	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.4	1.1	0.0
Construction	1.8	1.6	1.2	3.2	7.6	2.3	2.1	2.8
Wholesale and retail trade, transportation and storage, accommodation and food service activities	38.2	22.4	7.4	28.3	44.7	16.8	33.5	12.6*
Information and communication	0.3	3.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.5	–
Financial and insurance activities	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4
Real estate activities	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Professional, scientific, technical, administrative and support service activities	2.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	3.8	–
Public administration and defence, education, human health and social work activities	2.8	1.2	1.9	1.5	2.0	3.9	4.7	5.5*
Other service activities	8.4	5.7	1.4	4.3	7.5	2.1	16.3	0.5
Not elsewhere classified	0.1	1.5	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.0	–

Note: – = Not applicable. * The classifications for Togo are not strictly comparable: the category wholesale and retail trade, transportation and storage, accommodation and food service activities is the sum of (i) wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles, (ii) hotels and restaurants and (iii) transport, storage and communication, while the category public administration and defence, education, human health and social work activities is the sum of (i) public administration, education, health and social work and (ii) community, social and personal services. Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

4.2.1 Vulnerable employment in rural areas

Youth working in agriculture mainly operate in small, unincorporated family businesses as self-employees or as contributing family workers without pay. In other words, vulnerable employment – own-account work or contributing family work – remains the dominant employment status among rural youth in the agriculture sector with shares in total rural employment ranging from 68.1 per cent in Zambia to 93.7 per cent in Benin (figure 4.3). The agricultural sector also has a component of wage employment, but the average share among the eight countries was 9.7 per cent of young workers, 3.7 per cent in temporary paid work and 5.9 per cent in stable work.

Vulnerable employment is the principal status also among rural youth in the non-agricultural sector, with two exceptions: the United Republic of Tanzania (48.6 per cent) and Zambia (47.0 per cent). In the two countries the comparatively lower shares of vulnerable employment in the non-agricultural sector is offset by comparative larger shares of temporary paid employment (10.2 and 11.2 per cent, respectively). This could imply then only a minimal improvement in the labour market situation of young workers outside the agricultural sector; as some workers are simply moving from precarious self-employment to precarious paid employment.

Figure 4.3 Youth employment by status in rural sub-Saharan Africa, agricultural and non-agricultural sector, by country (% of total employment)



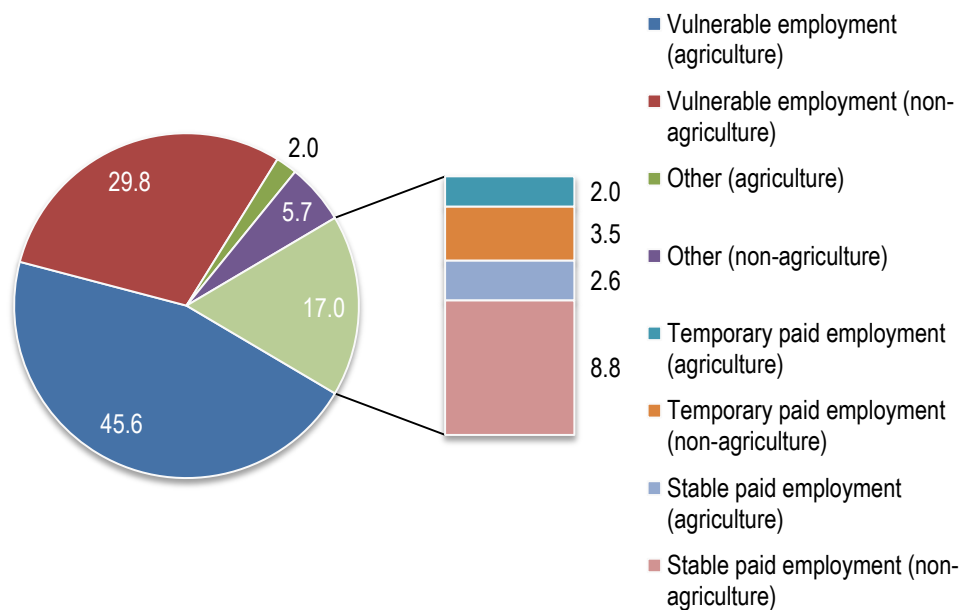
Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Figure 4.4 gives an overall picture of youth by status in rural sub-Saharan Africa. Three in four working youth (75.4 per cent) are categorized as being in vulnerable employment – 45.6 and 29.8 per cent in the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors, respectively. Fewer than two in ten working youth (17.0 per cent) receive a wage for the job they do, whether their employment is temporary or of longer duration. The figure does not paint an optimistic picture of youth employment in rural sub-Saharan Africa. What is clear is that neither agriculture nor the sectors outside of agriculture – primarily petty services – offer an alternative to precarious work.

In rural sub-Saharan Africa, employment for young women is mainly distributed between contributing family workers (33.0 per cent) and own-account workers (46.9 per cent; figure 4.5). Like women, approximately half of all young men are engaged in own-account work (44.5 per cent) but men are less likely to be contributing family workers (25.3 per cent). Young men also have a better chance than young women of obtaining paid work (21.4 per cent compared to 12.0 per cent of young women). In Madagascar, the gender gaps in share of contributing family workers were particularly pronounced; the female share (rural) in contributing family work was as high as 66.6 per cent compared to 43.4 per cent for young men (see Annex I, table A.9). In most cases, rural youth work in the family establishment or farm in accordance with the expectations of the family. Approximately seven in ten (69.9 per cent) cited “required by family” as the motivation in the eight countries (table 4.2). The second most frequently cited motivation to engage in

the family business was the inability to find a wage or salaried job (15.9 per cent on average), which carries overtones of reluctance on the part of the young worker.

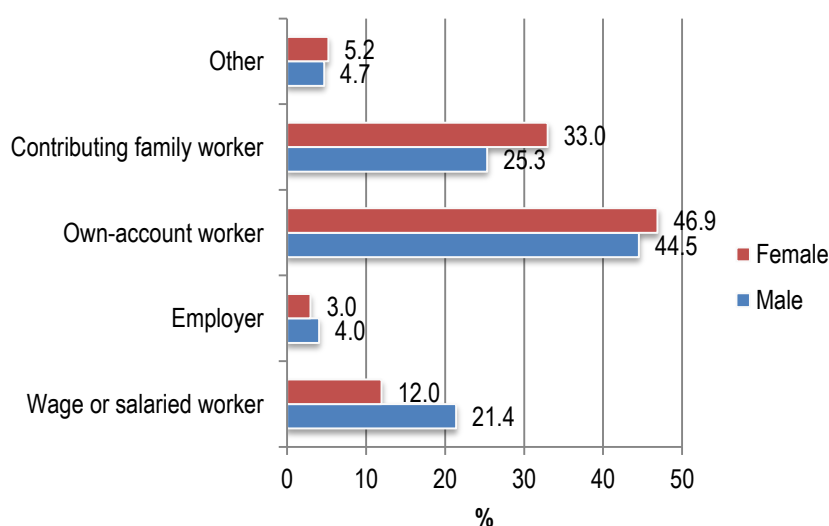
Figure 4.4 Youth employment by status in rural sub-Saharan Africa, agricultural and non-agricultural sector, regional average (% of total employment)



Note: Temporary paid employment is based on a contract or agreement of less than 12 months' duration and stable employment, a contract or agreement of greater than 12 months' duration.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Figure 4.5 Youth employment by status and sex in rural sub-Saharan Africa, regional average (% of total employment)



Note: Other include members of producers' cooperatives and not classifiable.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

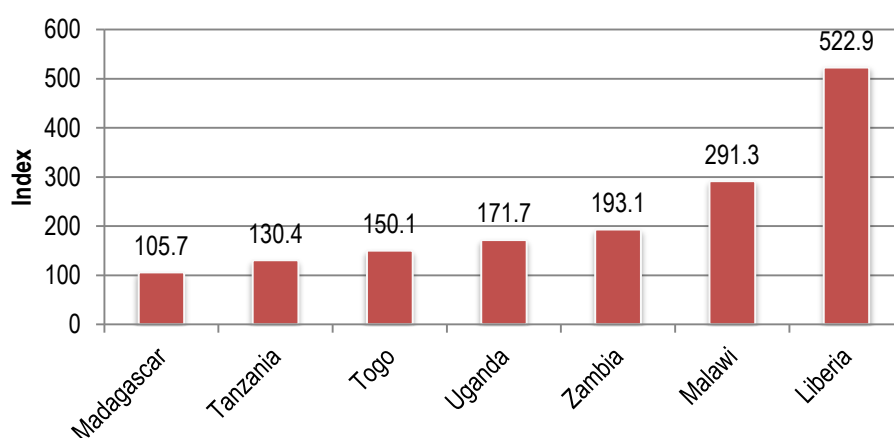
Table 4.2 Reason for engaging in contributing family work, rural youth in sub-Saharan Africa (% of contributing family workers)

Country	Could not find a wage or salaried job	Required by the family	Learning the family business	Other	Total
Benin	11.7	77.2	9.0	2.1	100
Liberia	5.5	71.1	16.7	6.7	100
Madagascar	16.7	77.8	2.4	3.1	100
Malawi	15.0	71.1	8.7	5.2	100
Tanzania, United Rep. of	30.9	51.8	13.1	4.2	100
Togo	16.7	72.6	4.9	5.9	100
Uganda	11.1	73.2	11.6	4.2	100
Zambia	19.3	64.7	9.8	6.1	100
Average	15.9	69.9	9.5	4.7	100

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Earning potentials prove to be higher for rural youth engaged in wage employment compared to those in own-account work (figure 4.6). The largest difference was found in Liberia where the paid worker earned, on average, five times more than the own-account worker. Only in Benin did the data show higher monthly earnings for the rural own-account worker compared to the paid employee.

Figure 4.6 Wage index of rural youth in paid employment (average monthly income of own-account workers = 100)



Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Does staying in school bring rewards in terms of attaining paid employment in rural areas, and hence a chance to earn better wages? The results of the SWTS show that it does. Figure 4.7 demonstrates the employment status by level of education. More than two-thirds of youth in rural sub-Saharan Africa with a tertiary degree (67.7 per cent) end up in paid employment rather than own-account or contributing family work. In fact, the most highly educated youth are five times more likely to have a paid job than rural youth with a primary education or less and three times more likely than youth who ended their education at the secondary level. Contributing family work, in contrast, is seen to be the domain primarily of the least well-educated. The 10 per cent share of contributing family workers among tertiary level graduates reflects the unusually large share found in Zambia only (23.1 per cent, primarily women; see Annex I, table A.10).

Figure 4.7 Employed youth by level of completed educational attainment, status in employment and sex, rural sub-Saharan Africa, regional average (%)



Note: Categories do not sum to 100 because two status categories – members of producers’ cooperatives and not classifiable – are not shown.
 Source: Authors’ calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

In an investigation of where the more highly educated youth living in rural areas find work, we arrive at the unfortunate conclusion that options beyond the education sector are few and far between. Table 4.3 shows the sectoral distribution of university graduates working in rural areas in five countries.¹⁸ Except for Uganda and Zambia, young higher level graduates are concentrated almost exclusively in work within retail and trades or in the education sector. Youth with a high level of education in most countries of rural sub-Saharan Africa struggle to find suitable work in the agricultural or industrial sector.

Uganda and Zambia do slightly better in this regard, with a wider spread of possible sectors and representation of graduates in agriculture (Uganda), industry and specific services sectors beyond education (both countries). Broken down by sex, it is notable that young male higher level graduates benefit from a wider range of options than young women in the two countries. In Uganda, for example, the education sector absorbs seven in ten young female graduates (70.6 per cent compared to 42.4 per cent among men) and young women are represented in six sectors compared to nine sectors for men (see Annex I, table A.11). Female employment among graduates is even more restrictive in rural Tanzania, with young women represented in only four sectors compared to nine sectors for young male higher level graduates.

¹⁸ Sector results at the two-digit level according to the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC) are not available for all countries.

Table 4.3 Youth employment by detailed sector, tertiary graduates in rural sub-Saharan Africa (% in total employment)

Two-digit ISIC	Benin	Madagascar	Malawi	Uganda	Zambia
Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities	–	–	–	13.1	–
Fishing and aquaculture	–	–	–	–	–
Other mining and quarrying	–	–	–	1.4	–
Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment	–	–	–	–	3.0
Construction of buildings	–	–	–	3.1	6.2
Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	19.5	16.6	–	2.7	–
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	–	18.1	–	3.3	23.7
Land transport and transport via pipelines	–	–	–	–	–
Food and beverage service activities	–	–	–	1.6	10.7
Telecommunications	–	–	–	–	4.2
Financial service activities, except insurance and pension funding	–	–	–	4.0	–
Other professional, scientific and technical activities	–	–	–	–	7.8
Services to buildings and landscape activities	5.9	–	–	–	–
Office administrative, office support and other business support activities	–	–	–	–	5.1
Education	74.6	65.4	85.1	59.7	20.3
Human health activities	–	–	14.9	7.7	10.9
Residential care activities	–	–	–	1.8	–
Social work activities without accommodation	–	–	–	1.6	8.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Note: – = No response.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in five countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

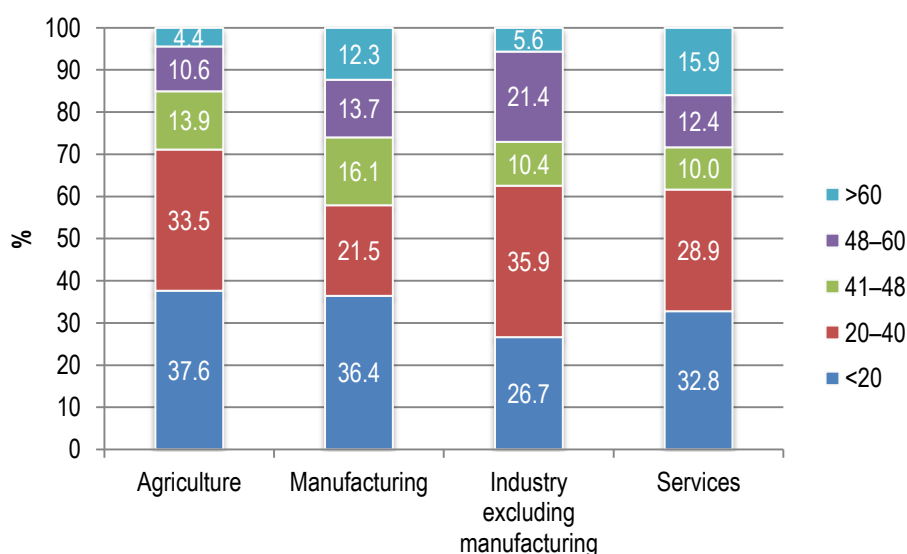
For purposes of comparison, we have reproduced the sectoral distribution of tertiary graduates working in rural Cambodia, Jamaica and Kyrgyzstan in Annex I, table A.12, which further highlights the incapacity of the sub-Saharan African economies to absorb the highly skilled youth in rural areas. The case of Kyrgyzstan is particularly interesting. This is a country that is primarily rural in population (65.5 per cent), like the countries in sub-Saharan Africa, and with a large agriculture base (61.7 per cent of youth employment in rural areas is in agriculture). Yet, in stark contrast to the sub-Saharan African countries, 11.8 per cent of youth living in rural areas in Kyrgyzstan had completed tertiary education, and these graduates are scattered throughout a wide variety of sectors (26 in total) in rural areas; the point being that young graduates do not need to leave rural areas to find work. In rural Kyrgyzstan, 16.5 per cent of young graduates work in agriculture, 6.8 per cent in construction, 9.3 per cent in an area of manufacturing, and there is a wide selection of options within the services sector. Cambodia and Jamaica also reflect employment options for young graduates in the manufacturing sector and services beyond education in rural areas. Public administration as an option for absorbing higher skilled youth in rural areas is conspicuously absent in sub-Saharan Africa. Either public institutions in the region are too weak to provide jobs in general, or the few available jobs are held by adults.

4.2.2 Underutilization in rural areas

Short working hours in developing economies can reflect the informality of the labour market and the lack of standard employment arrangements. Many vulnerable workers pick up work where and when they can, so that cumulative hours per week are low and reflect

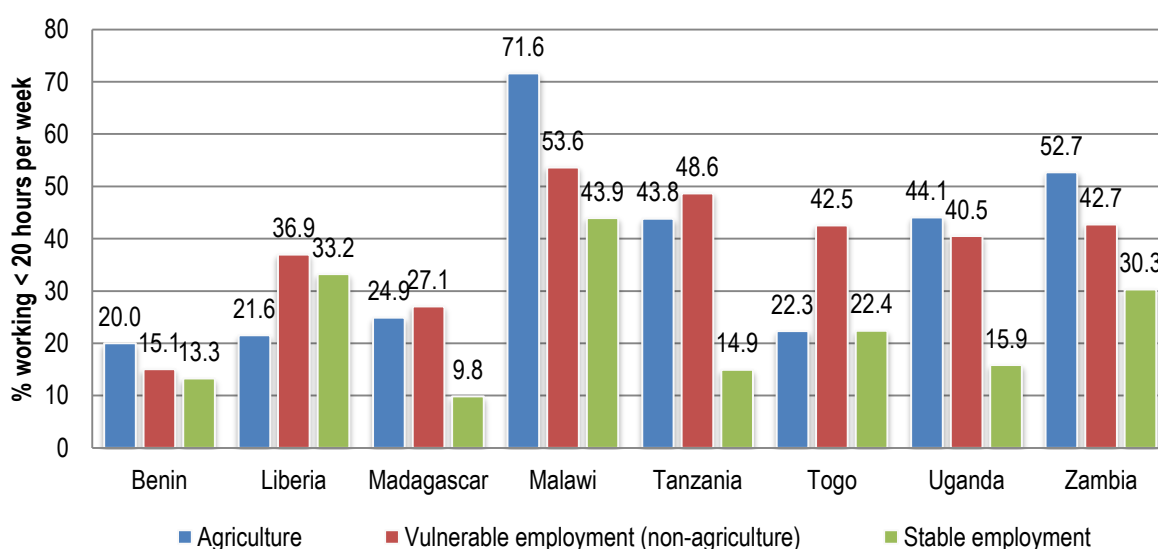
the additional precariousness of income generation. Among the sub-Saharan African countries, more than one-third of young rural workers in agriculture and manufacturing worked less than 20 hours in the reference week (37.6 and 36.4 per cent, respectively) (figure 4.8). At the country level, Malawi stands out as a country where short hours of work seem to predominate among the majority of youth in rural areas and particularly for youth involved in agriculture (71.6 per cent; see Annex I, table A.13). Analysing the occurrence of short working time by type of employment in figure 4.9, we note that rural youth engaged in jobs defined as stable (in paid work with a contract duration greater than 12 months) are less likely to be working short hours than youth in jobs in non-stable jobs in either the agriculture or non-agriculture sectors.

Figure 4.8 Youth employment by hours worked per week and sector in rural sub-Saharan Africa, regional average (% of total employment)



Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Figure 4.9 Short time work by type of employment in rural sub-Saharan Africa (% of youth working less than 20 hours per week)



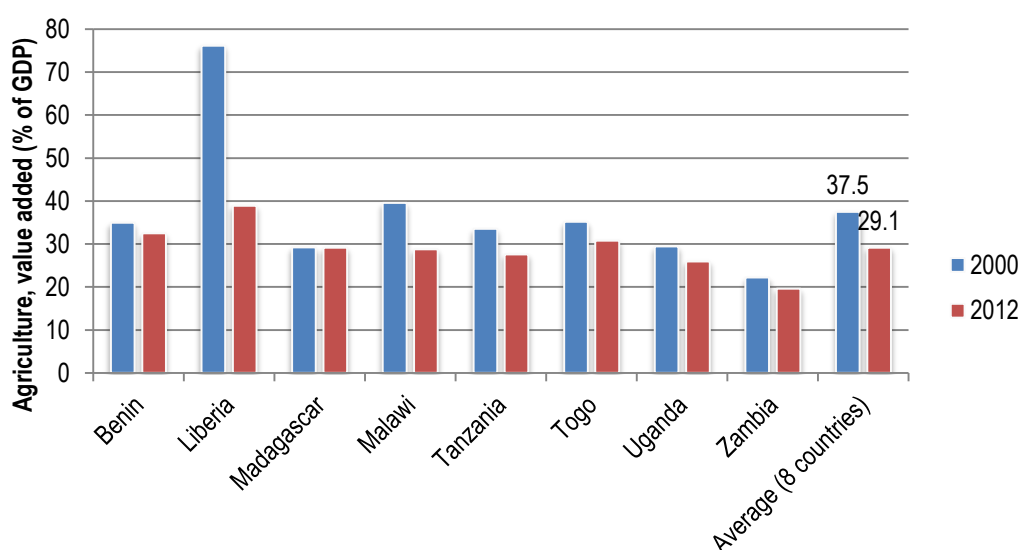
Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

4.3 Productive employment in agriculture?

The SWTS countries in the region are strongly dependent on agriculture in terms of employment and contribution to GDP. Although the region saw an overall reduction in agricultural value added between 2000 and 2012 of 8.4 percentage points, the agricultural sector still accounted for 29.1 per cent of GDP in 2012 (figure 4.10). It also provided the majority of jobs, providing on average 62.6 per cent of the total employment in the region.¹⁹

Productivity is low – and even decreasing – as is competitiveness with international markets, reflecting the dominance of small family farms and primary engagement in subsistence farming, limited technical capacity, lack of credit and tools and overuse of labour (Filmer and Fox, 2014). As a result, the eight SWTS countries remain net importers of food products. Food insecurity and high dependence on food staples from external markets remains a significant obstacle to the growth potential of the region. The issue is not helped by the fact that the price of locally produced food commodities remains consistently higher than those which are imported (ibid.).

Figure 4.10 Agriculture value added, 2000 and 2012 (% of GDP)



Note: For Benin, the latest year data is 2010; for Madagascar, 2009 and for Togo, 2011.
Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators database.

We reviewed previously the higher tendency towards short-time work in the agricultural compared to the non-agricultural sectors in the previous sub-section. Section 4.2.1 highlighted the dominance of vulnerable employment, the scarcity of stable jobs (2.7 per cent) and the lack of skilled labour in the sector. Still, additional investigations are required in the search for evidence of productive employment in the agricultural sector (potential “good practices”) in rural sub-Saharan Africa.

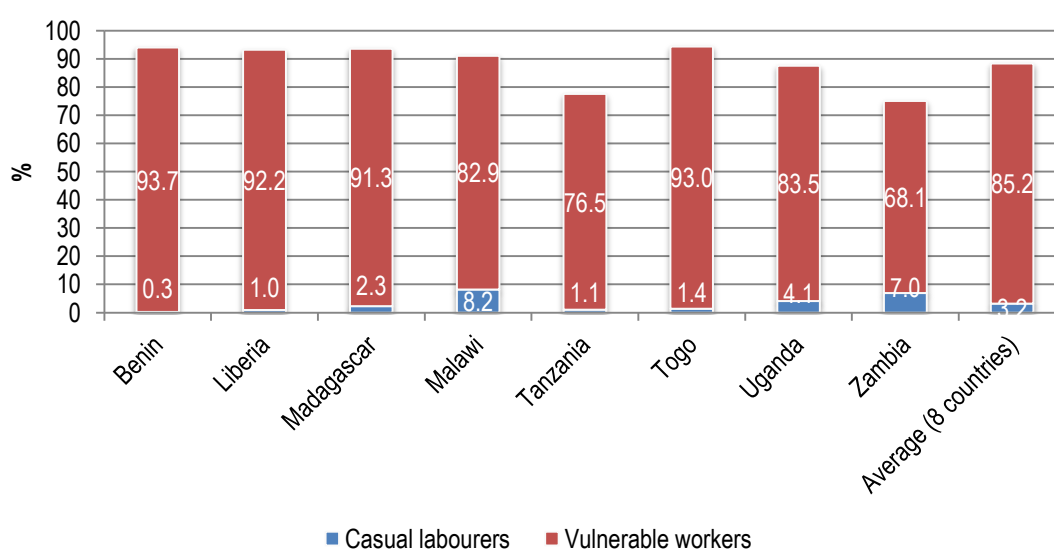
Decent employment is not easy to pinpoint. One could look at the indicator of stable employment, on the assumption that an increasing share of stable jobs in the agriculture sector implies a degree of formalization and security. In this regard, the United Republic Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia are the countries which show higher shares of young

¹⁹ Calculation based on the ILO’s Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM) database.

workers in the agriculture sector in stable jobs (see figure 4.3), although the highest share of the three (Zambia) remains low in relation to middle-income countries at 13.3 per cent.

One can also consider the shares of casual versus non-casual labour in agriculture, with casual labour defined as those working in paid employment with duration less than 12 months for reasons of seasonal, occasional or task-based engagement. In the rural agricultural sector in the eight sub-Saharan African countries, nearly nine in ten (88.4 per cent) young workers are stuck in precarious, low-productivity employment, either as casual labourers, own-account workers or contributing family workers (figure 4.11). Benin stands out as a country that appears better able to minimize the use of casual labour in agriculture, although the figure may be deceptive since the survey was carried out in December, which is not a peak period for agricultural work. Reference periods in Malawi and the United Republic of Tanzania also reflect non-peak periods for agricultural work and may therefore minimize casual labourer share in the agricultural sector. In any case, it is hard to point to Benin as a good example when the shares of vulnerable workers are added to the picture. Only the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia seem to be showing any success in improving the shares of young agricultural workers with non-casual paid work, i.e. agricultural work that is likely to be more productive in terms of both yields and returns to the employee.

Figure 4.11 Casual and vulnerable youth employment in agriculture in rural sub-Saharan Africa (% in total employment)



Note: Casual labourers are defined as paid employees with contract/agreement durations of less than 12 months who give as the reason for the limited duration of the contract or agreement seasonal work, occasional work or work based on a fixed task. A further check was made to exclude those who stated that their payment period was greater than one month. Vulnerable workers are the sum of own-account workers and contributing family workers.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in eight countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

In general, our review of rural sub-Saharan Africa has shown that, despite high levels of employment with respect to the average in SWTS countries, the labour market in the sub-Saharan region fails to guarantee sustainable livelihood opportunities to the majority of youth living in rural areas. The rural labour market is characterized by poor quality informal jobs in a restricted number of industries. Most of the jobs are located in the agricultural and trade sectors, which provide more than 70 per cent of employment in the region. The majority of youth are in vulnerable employment, which consists of self-employment and contributing family work. Wage employment opportunities are scarce and are often not accompanied by employment benefits or participation in a social security scheme.

The SWTS is not the ideal tool for assessing productive work in agriculture. It does not allow for identification of crops or crop yields, access to land, natural resources, etc. One can attempt to extract the size of the enterprise in terms of number of employees for larger scale farms but sample sizes do not allow for significant results. In short, while the SWTS does allow us to paint a general picture of areas where productive employment in agriculture in rural sub-Saharan Africa does *not* exist – the majority of the sector, unfortunately – it does not allow us to draw conclusions about where productive employment *does* exist. Fortunately, there is a growing body of literature on investment in rural agriculture with the aim of improving livelihoods for youth. Some sources and examples of good practices will be highlighted in the following section.

5. Conclusions and policy implications

5.1 Conclusions

This report aims to investigate the SWTS datasets for evidence of diverging potentials for decent employment in urban and rural areas, looking specifically for signs of fundamental transformations of rural sectors within the development process. Judging by the literature, one can presume that the processes of economic and human development – so called “modernization” – are impacting employment prospects for youth in rural areas, particularly through sectoral diversification beyond the agricultural sector.

The pace of development affects young people specifically as they face a rapidly changing situation in terms of education and labour market opportunities compared to their parents’ generation. The SWTS data confirms the findings of other studies (Barro and Lee, 2013), which show that the share of young people with completed secondary and, more recently, higher education is increasing in developing countries. While young women in rural areas, in particular, remain disadvantaged in terms of education, these gender and geographic gaps seem to decrease relatively quickly in line with increasing levels of socioeconomic development. However, while gender gaps in education seem to narrow, women remain severely disadvantaged in terms of access to stable and regular work in most of the surveyed countries. Particularly in rural areas, precarious working conditions continue to prevail for young women, although it is important to point out that in the low-income countries young men in rural areas fare little better.

The SWTS datasets provide a unique opportunity to investigate which contextual and individual factors explain different labour outcomes across and within countries and between rural and urban sectors. However, a significant limitation in our analysis was that the SWTS surveys, as the primary source of information in this report, reflect a single point in time (either 2012 or 2013). This means that the analysis does not allow for the presentation of changes over time. Still, in the light of the general trends in economic development and resulting urbanization, this report is able to confirm some blurring between rural and urban areas in terms of sectoral distribution of employment; however, many countries – especially the low-income countries in sub-Saharan Africa – have a long way to go in the diversification of rural economies beyond agriculture and petty trades.

Why do some countries and regions struggle more than others to provide meaningful employment opportunities for youth? Why are young university graduates among the rural youth in Kyrgyzstan – a primarily rural, agricultural-based economy like the sub-Saharan African countries – both numerous and able to find work across 26 sectors while the few graduates in most sub-Saharan African countries can make their livelihood only as teachers or as small-scale traders? Why are the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia starting to show better progress than the other countries in both education and employment prospects for youth (although these are still very limited in scope)?

Access to roads and the pace of infrastructure development surely has something to do with it. Gollin and Rogerson (2010) found positive complementarities between improvements in agricultural productivity and transportation in rural Uganda and results of numerous other evaluations – mostly showing positive correlations – are available in Kingombe (2011). The Rural Access Index (RAI) measures the percentage of the rural population with “access” to the transport network. Adopted in 2004 as a key transport headline indicator, the RAI focuses attention on the critical role of access and mobility in reducing poverty in developing countries. The RAIs for Kyrgyzstan, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia, respectively, were 76 per cent, 38 per cent and 64 per cent, while the majority of sub-Saharan African countries scored below 32 per cent.²⁰ The supply of water and timely irrigation facilities is another important starting point for productivity and employment growth in rural areas (ILO, 2005, box 3.11). The point here is that state policy and investment decisions toward infrastructure and education systems remain key factors in the pace of rural development. In the case of Kyrgyzstan, for instance, the Soviet legacy of education may still play a role in the greater extent of employment diversification.

Regardless of the pace of rural development and the reasons behind it, it remains questionable whether rural labour markets are providing “better” opportunities for young people. More generally, access to stable paid employment remains the main challenge in most surveyed countries in both rural and urban areas. While most lower skilled youth end up in vulnerable employment, educated youth will eventually find stable paid employment (at least in the middle-income countries), although this may be preceded by a long period of unemployment.²¹

It is crucial to define rural development as the capacity of rural populations to build sustainable livelihoods, to increase their resilience to economic and environmental shocks and to prevent such shocks from pushing people into absolute poverty. The links between poverty reduction and rural development are well known (e.g. World Bank, 2008; Anríquez and Stamoulis, 2007). A realistic approach to rural development would be to strengthen healthy and sustainable economic growth within rural areas, while at the same time fully recognizing that rural–urban migration will inevitably accompany this process. Given the underdevelopment of rural educational facilities in many countries, rural youth often have to migrate to cities in order to study, particularly for higher education purposes. It makes sense to increase investments in educational facilities in rural areas – all the more because the analysis of the SWTS data demonstrates that education is a dominant factor in determining the quality of work that young people attain.

The following subsection looks at various policy approaches to rural development, citing specific examples when possible. With a substantial and growing literature on the topic of youth and rural development already in place,²² we concentrate less on the well-defined principles for dictating action and more on current practices.

²⁰ The World Bank, available at <http://www.worldbank.org/transport/transportresults/headline/rural-access.html>.

²¹ Unemployment rates among more highly educated youth are higher in the Asian region, the Middle East and sub-Saharan Africa. In the former Soviet republics and in the Latin American region, youth unemployment rates are higher among the less skilled.

²² Vargas-Lundius and Suttie (2014) and ILO (2012a) provide excellent summations of reasons and means for “Investing in young rural people for sustainable and equitable development”.

5.2 Policies to promote better livelihoods of youth in rural areas²³

5.2.1 Investment and sectoral policies

There is significant potential to improve countries' productive transformation through change within the agricultural sector. Under favourable circumstances agricultural productivity gains can provide rising incomes for those employed in agriculture, with positive spill-over effects beyond this sector. Raising overall growth, productivity and labour demand in agriculture are powerful means for reducing rural poverty (ILO, 2005). The World Bank (2008) has observed that improving productivity and incomes among smallholder farmers is the most effective way of reducing poverty.

Having said this, technological change in agriculture often requires the development of manufacturing industries for fertilizers, irrigation equipment, engineering and agricultural machinery. In addition, investment in infrastructure is essential to improve agricultural productivity through, for instance, better water management, and also to connect rural areas to markets in order to improve the logistics related to agriculture. In addition, while such agricultural transformation *can* go along with improved employment conditions, it also tends to coincide with declining levels of employment in agriculture.

Attention is increasingly being placed on a path of development based on the exploitation of the full agricultural potential, increasing agro-industrial value added and employment along the entire agribusiness value chain in agriculture, industry and services (Koira, 2014). However, this cannot reverse the overall trend towards the de-agrarization of rural economies observed in this report. Therefore, the promotion of the non-farm economy is also increasingly being recognized as a driver of economic growth and a source of opportunities for young rural people (IFAD, 2010; ILO, 2005; World Bank, 2008).

Examples of policy approaches to sectoral development and public investment:

- *Brazil:* According to Yumkella et al. (2011), agribusiness in Brazil has blossomed in terms of global competitiveness and productivity as the result of channelled investment in technology and innovation. This was spearheaded by the private sector with the commitment of public resources, including rural credit and one of the largest public investment programmes in agricultural research in the developing world. The tremendous benefits in terms of yields, productivity and diversification of crops have helped Brazil meet domestic demand and improve exports in this sector.
- *India:* The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA) links direct income transfers through public works programmes with investment in rural water management, irrigation, soil improvement and access to roads.
- *Indonesia:* Throughout the 1970s, the Government channelled windfall oil revenues into investments in agriculture and rural development, resulting in a Green Revolution (ILO, 2014, p. 27).
- *The Philippines:* The Philippines Development Plan (chapter 4) lays out a comprehensive sectoral approach to agricultural development.

²³ For a full history of ILO interventions in the area of rural development, see ILO (2015b).

- *Zambia:* An ILO-led UN Joint Programme assists the Zambian Government to promote decent employment opportunities for rural youth in the soybean value chain. The programme is part of the Government's efforts to fulfill its commitments under the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP).

5.2.2 Education and training policies

Skills are central to improving employability and livelihood opportunities, reducing poverty, enhancing productivity and promoting environmentally sustainable development. The productive and sustainable transformations of rural areas stagnate in the face of skills shortages (World Bank and IMF, 2015). Rural disadvantages in education are highlighted in this report, as is the limited scope for employment among those youth remaining in rural areas who did manage to complete their education. While the SWTS highlights the room for improvement in educational attainment in rural areas in general, IFAD (2010) goes further to note the neglect in many developing countries of agricultural education and training specifically.

Examples of policy approaches that promote investment in skills development for productive agriculture and rural livelihoods:²⁴

- *Benin:* The Songhai Centre trains vulnerable youth to become agricultural professionals. Its graduates are functional entrepreneurs trained in agricultural production, agribusiness with accompanying technological services, renewable energy, housing and community infrastructure.
- *Brazil:* The National Rural Learning Service (SENAR) in Brazil is responsible for providing professional training and training in life skills for rural men and women and their families.
- *Zimbabwe:* The ILO's Skills for Youth Employment and Rural Development project improves the quality of informal apprenticeship by training master crafts persons and linking them to apprentices. It also addresses shortcomings in systems of informal apprenticeship.
- *Sub-Saharan Africa:* The Women Barefoot Solar Engineers of Africa is an offspring of the Barefoot Approach whereby women from rural Africa, many of them grandmothers and illiterates, receive training at the Barefoot College in India on the fabrication, installation and maintenance of solar-powered household lighting systems. Upon graduation, the women become Barefoot Solar Engineers, using their skills to supply their local, poor communities with clean, low-cost household lighting from solar energy. The Barefoot Approach is spreading across Africa, Asia and Latin America.

²⁴ For examples of policies to promote expanded educational access, improved quality of education and training and school-to-work transitions, see Sparreboom and Staneva, 2014.

5.2.3 Labour market policies and social protection

It is not possible to achieve economic diversification without active measures to tackle poor working conditions and informality in agriculture and casual non-farm jobs (ILO, 2014). While enforcement of labour standards requires a fine balance between enforcing standards and providing incentives to employers that offset increased costs, the ILO (2003) confirms that social protection mechanisms are achievable in the realm of self-employment and agriculture. In many developing countries, state-run social protection coverage focuses on organized sectors of public and industrial employment, leaving the vast majority of rural populations that operate in the informal economy unprotected (ILO, 2012b). Social protection interventions can alleviate credit, liquidity and savings constraints and provide the greater certainty that poorer households require for investing in agriculture and riskier income-generating activities. Evaluations of interventions in rural agriculture have been shown to generate positive indirect impacts on the human capital development of children (use of education services, health visits, information on disease prevention and nutrition) and the reduction of adverse risk-coping strategies (Tirivayi et al., 2013).

Employment services also have an important role to play in rural areas, especially when matching young jobseekers with opportunities available to them in the rural communities. It is also vital to help young people understand the purpose of job centres and how they can assist them in finding employment that suits their background and experience.

Examples of labour market policies for youth in rural areas and social protection mechanisms for rural workers:

- *China:* In the early 2000s, the Chinese Government introduced a heavily subsidized health insurance scheme for rural residents, a second insurance scheme for urban residents not eligible for coverage under the programme for formal-sector workers, and a complementary programme to help very poor households cover the costs of enrolment and co-payments in these two new insurance schemes (Wagstaff et al., 2009).
- *Cambodia and Lao PDR:* Cambodia's National Employment Agency (NEA) and Lao's Employment Services Job Centres (ESJCs), with the support of the ILO, are currently strengthening their presence in the provinces and in their main municipality, to improve their outreach to rural youth.
- *Malawi:* The national and local governments, local organizations and communities, came together with the support of the ILO's International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) to establish an effective child labour monitoring and response system in rural districts. Community-based organizations conduct surveillance and identification of working children and children at risk, and transfer the information to District Child Labour Committees (DCLCs) for analysis and referral to competent services.

5.2.4 Youth entrepreneurship and financial inclusion

Access to finances and, particularly, insurance remains one constraint to risk reduction among poor families in rural areas. The situation is particularly serious in much of rural Africa, where a combination of agricultural risk, inadequate information for borrowers, cumbersome legal procedures and high transaction costs means that many financial service providers are reluctant to engage with poor farmers and business people (ILO, 2008). In recent years, microfinance programmes (credit, savings and, to a lesser extent, microinsurance and leasing services) have expanded and may be potential means of

addressing rural poverty and promoting income generation in rural areas, although their effectiveness has been subject of debate (cf. Roodman, 2012).

Examples of policy approaches to entrepreneurial support for rural youth:

- *FYR Macedonia:* The National Strategy for Reduction of Poverty and Social Exclusion 2010–2020 in FYR Macedonia includes the implementation of rural development policies, which provide preferential access to funds and an increased level of support for the investments of young farmers.
- *Malaysia:* The My Kampong My Future (MKMF) programme of the Ministry of Agriculture and Agro-based Industry is an initiative that aims to create a modernized farming model in rural areas. MKMF aims to involve rural youth in the creation of a high-value agriculture-based economy, applying a mentoring concept “mentor–mentee” whereby an anchor “agro-preneur” provides guidance to mentees in the development of their businesses (MPC, 2014).
- *Sierra Leone:* Dozens of Financial Services Associations (FSAs) have been established with support from the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD). They support the design of community-owned and operated financial solutions. The centres employ only young people.
- *Sub-Saharan Africa:* The United Nations Capital Development Fund (UNCDF) and The MasterCard Foundation has designed a region-wide competitive programme that will reach 200,000 youth with demand-driven financial services. The programme will select ten microfinance institutions to receive technical assistance to innovate, deliver and document financial services to youth.

Box 3. ILO Rural Policy Briefs

The ILO Programme on Rural Development through Decent Work has developed series of “action-oriented, synthetic leaflets providing guidance to practitioners on how to make select sectors, technical areas and population groups engines of rural growth, job creation, poverty alleviation, crisis resilience and equitable development”. A selection of the *Rural Policy Briefs* that are relevant to issues identified in this report include:²⁵

- Investing in youth for rural transformation
- Gender dimensions of agricultural and rural employment: Differentiated pathways out of poverty
- Cooperatives for people-centred rural development
- Addressing informality for rural development
- Value chains for rural development
- Boosting local economies in rural areas
- Agriculture: An engine of pro-poor rural growth
- Empowering rural communities through financial inclusion
- Empowering rural workers, employers and communities through International Labour Standards.

Other useful resources of the Programme include a *Toolkit on Poverty Reduction through Tourism in Rural Areas*, *Learning from Catalysts of Rural Transformation* and numerous others. See www.ilo.org/rural for more information.

²⁵ The ILO *Rural Policy Briefs* are available at: http://ilo.ch/employment/units/rural-development/WCMS_158637/lang--en/index.htm

5.2.5 Rights at work

The Right of Association (Agriculture) Convention (No. 11), adopted in 1921, states that agricultural workers have the same rights of association as industrial workers. The Rural Workers' Organizations Convention, 1975 (No. 141) encourages the establishment of rural organizations. However, rural agricultural workers still face legal and even physical challenges to becoming organized. Violations of the right to freedom of association among agricultural workers are frequent (such as restrictions and anti-union practices, and even physical violence). The Labour Code sometimes (such as in Costa Rica) excludes workers in micro-agricultural and livestock enterprises from the scope of the labour law (ILO, 2003). The relevant convention for inspection of labour rights in agriculture is the Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention, 1969 (No. 129). Monitoring the enforcement of rights at work in the context of rural employment remains difficult and expensive, especially given the seasonal and temporary nature of agricultural work (ILO, 2013b, chapter 4).

Rights regarding access to land and natural resources, safety in migration and gender equality also qualify as aspect of rights at work. For additional information on policies in these areas, readers are referred to Vargas-Lundius and Suttie (2014).

Examples of policy approaches to the extension and enforcement of legal provisions in rural areas:

- *China:* The Labour Contract Law, adopted in 2007 and in force since 2008, extended the scope of the work of labour inspectorates to all domestic workplaces, and all workers within them, including rural migrant workers.
- *Portugal:* A large awareness-raising campaign promoted the importance of compliance with workplace safety and health standards in improving both productivity and competitiveness of the agriculture sector, as well as workers' well-being. The campaign was organized by the Labour Inspectorate, the Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Education and farmers' associations of employers and trade unions of agricultural workers.
- *Romania:* Labour inspectors schedule follow-up visits specifically in the agriculture sector to verify that the recommendations provided during the first visit have been implemented.

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Annex I. Additional tables

Table A.1 Urban population, GDP per capita, agriculture, value added, life expectancy and fertility

Income grouping	Country	Urban population (% of total)	GDP per capita	Agriculture (value added, % GDP)	Life expectancy at birth (years)	Fertility rates (birth per women)
Low-income countries	Bangladesh	28.9	2 405	17.2	70.3	2.2
	Benin	45.6	1 716	32.4	59.1	4.9
	Cambodia	20.2	2 839	35.6	71.4	2.9
	Liberia	48.6	796	38.8	60.2	4.9
	Madagascar	33.2	1 384	29.1	64.2	4.5
	Malawi	15.8	753	30.1	54.7	5.5
	Nepal	17.3	2 155	35.1	68.0	2.4
	Tanzania, United Rep. of	27.2	1 685	27.0	60.8	5.3
	Togo	38.5	1 337	30.8	56.2	4.7
	Uganda	16.0	1 357	25.0	58.6	6.0
Lower middle-income countries	Armenia	64.2	7 418	21.9	74.4	1.7
	Egypt	43.7	10 872	14.5	70.9	2.8
	El Salvador	65.2	7 572	10.8	72.1	2.2
	Kyrgyzstan	35.5	2 920	19.7	70.0	3.1
	Moldova, Rep. of	48.4	4 223	14.6	68.7	1.5
	Ukraine	69.1	8 478	10.4	70.9	1.5
	Viet Nam	31.7	4 998	18.4	75.6	1.8
	Zambia	39.6	3 043	17.7	57.0	5.7
Upper middle-income countries	Brazil	84.9	14 574	5.7	73.6	1.8
	Jamaica	52.2	8 670	6.7	73.3	2.3
	Jordan	83.0	11 539	3.4	73.7	3.3
	Macedonia, FYR	59.4	11 558	10.4	75.0	1.4
	Russian Fed.	74.0	23 504	3.9	70.5	1.6
	Tunisia, United Rep. of	66.5	10 736	8.7	75.1	2.2

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators database.

Table A.2 Youth unemployment rate, employment-to-population ratio and labour force participation rate by area of residence (%)

Country	Youth unemployment rate (strict)		Youth employment-to-population ratio		Youth labour force participation rate	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Armenia	34.5	13.1	28.7	38.4	43.9	44.2
Bangladesh	8.0	11.0	39.2	37.5	42.6	42.2
Benin	16.4	4.4	23.1	31.1	27.6	32.5
Brazil	18.3	15.3	54.9	48.3	67.2	57.0
Cambodia	3.0	1.9	66.0	76.7	68.1	78.2
Egypt	19.5	13.2	41.2	48.7	51.2	56.1
El Salvador	25.2	12.4	39.6	44.7	53.0	51.1
Jamaica	31.2	35.2	43.1	36.2	62.6	55.8

Jordan	24.9	20.6	29.8	30.4	39.7	38.2
Kyrgyzstan	8.2	2.3	46.8	64.3	51.0	65.8
Liberia	27.3	9.3	50.4	54.9	63.2	59.1
Macedonia, FYR	41.0	46.0	29.3	26.4	49.6	48.9
Madagascar	3.2	0.8	62.8	84.4	64.9	85.0
Malawi	17.1	6.5	51.8	68.9	62.5	73.7
Moldova, Rep. of	7.8	21.5	41.0	24.1	44.5	30.7
Nepal	27.6	17.4	29.3	40.9	40.5	49.6
Occupied Palestinian Territory	38.5	29.1	23.6	27.6	38.5	39.0
Russian Fed.	10.2	15.0	53.9	52.9	60.1	62.3
Tanzania, United Rep. of	28.5	19.0	33.3	47.4	46.5	58.5
Togo	16.3	2.5	48.9	72.0	58.4	73.8
Tunisia	34.0	28.2	28.0	37.4	42.5	52.1
Uganda	7.6	4.1	56.4	65.4	61.1	68.2
Ukraine	15.3	20.5	46.6	40.4	55.0	50.8
Viet Nam	4.9	2.0	60.3	65.7	63.4	67.0
Zambia	23.5	13.5	41.1	45.2	53.7	52.2

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Table A.3 Youth unemployment rate by sex and area of residence (% of labour force)

	Female		Male	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Armenia	39.0	23.0	30.1	7.8
Bangladesh	13.7	26.7	5.4	6.5
Benin	11.4	3.5	22.1	5.5
Brazil	23.9	20.0	14.1	13.0
Cambodia	3.1	1.9	3.0	1.9
Egypt	41.3	35.9	10.5	4.5
El Salvador	27.8	20.0	23.5	8.9
Jamaica	37.3	43.9	25.5	28.3
Jordan	40.7	47.1	20.0	12.4
Kyrgyzstan	7.7	2.7	8.5	1.9
Liberia	32.4	12.0	21.6	6.8
Macedonia, FYR	40.6	43.5	41.4	47.5
Madagascar	2.4	1.2	4.0	0.3
Malawi	18.3	8.8	15.6	4.3
Moldova, Rep. of	8.7	10.1	7.0	31.7
Nepal	32.5	19.5	22.7	16.1
Occupied Palestinian Territory	55.4	51.0	34.1	24.2
Russian Fed.	9.0	18.1	11.2	12.6
Tanzania, United Rep. of	26.6	27.9	30.4	12.2
Togo	13.6	2.2	19.8	2.9
Tunisia	42.1	34.9	29.6	25.1
Uganda	11.0	4.0	4.2	4.2
Ukraine	15.5	18.1	15.1	22.2
Viet Nam	6.6	1.4	3.4	2.5
Zambia	26.1	14.1	21.2	13.0

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Table A.4 Youth employment by broad sector, urban areas (% of total employment)

	Agriculture	Industry		Services	N/A	Total
		Manufacturing	Non-manufacturing			
Armenia	6.1	9.7	8.6	75.5	0.0	100
Bangladesh	9.4	34.4	7.7	46.2	2.3	100
Benin	12.2	14.0	2.9	70.9	0.0	100
Brazil	3.3	12.9	12.3	71.5	0.0	100
Cambodia	4.5	16.1	5.4	74.0	0.0	100
Egypt	6.0	19.3	12.9	61.9	0.0	100
El Salvador	13.8	17.3	4.8	64.1	0.0	100
Jamaica	2.1	6.9	37.4	53.7	0.0	100
Jordan	0.9	11.2	7.8	80.1	0.0	100
Kyrgyzstan	7.2	16.7	12.7	63.2	0.2	100
Liberia	8.0	6.1	6.6	75.3	3.9	100
Macedonia, FYR	7.0	14.1	5.3	73.7	0.0	100
Madagascar	49.6	9.3	4.3	35.5	1.3	100
Malawi	10.2	11.2	5.9	72.5	0.2	100
Moldova, Rep. of	0.6	10.6	3.3	85.5	0.0	100
Nepal	11.1	11.0	2.4	74.4	1.1	100
Occupied Palestinian Territory	5.5	11.8	16.5	66.3	0.0	100
Russian Fed.	1.2	18.3	12.3	68.2	0.0	100
Tanzania, United Rep. of	5.2	6.3	4.9	83.6	0.0	100
Togo	11.3	20.5	3.2	65.0	0.0	100
Tunisia	7.3	29.8	11.3	50.1	1.6	100
Uganda	30.1	8.0	4.1	57.8	0.0	100
Ukraine	2.6	12.4	12.2	68.4	4.3	100
Viet Nam	7.7	24.3	8.1	59.6	0.3	100
Zambia	14.0	5.6	7.3	73.0	0.0	100
Average (25 countries)	9.5	14.3	8.8	66.8	0.6	100

Note: N/A = Not available.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Table A.5 Youth employment by broad sector, rural areas (% of total employment)

	Agriculture	Industry		Services	N/A	Total
		Manufacturing	Non-manufacturing			
Armenia	51.3	6.3	10.2	32.2	0.0	100
Bangladesh	41.5	19.8	8.1	28.8	1.9	100
Benin	38.2	7.7	2.2	51.9	0.1	100
Brazil	34.0	10.0	11.6	44.3	0.0	100
Cambodia	62.9	9.5	5.1	22.5	0.0	100
Egypt	33.2	14.6	17.7	34.5	0.0	100
El Salvador	59.0	8.4	4.1	28.6	0.0	100
Jamaica	20.7	8.2	32.0	39.2	0.0	100
Jordan	4.8	4.5	1.8	88.9	0.0	100
Kyrgyzstan	61.5	4.8	10.8	22.6	0.2	100
Liberia	55.6	4.4	5.9	32.5	1.5	100

Macedonia, FYR	39.8	15.1	8.1	36.9	0.0	100
Madagascar	79.0	5.7	3.7	11.2	0.3	100
Malawi	51.9	10.2	3.4	34.5	0.0	100
Moldova, Rep. of	31.6	5.4	2.5	60.5	0.0	100
Nepal	51.3	6.3	7.9	34.3	0.2	100
Occupied Palestinian Territory	14.1	15.3	23.5	47.1	0.0	100
Russian Fed.	29.2	10.1	13.6	47.1	0.0	100
Tanzania, United Rep. of	27.5	3.6	14.1	54.6	0.2	100
Togo	63.0	12.7	2.4	22.0	0.0	100
Tunisia	42.8	11.8	22.3	22.1	1.0	100
Uganda	69.0	4.7	2.8	23.4	0.1	100
Ukraine	13.0	7.1	11.9	56.8	11.3	100
Viet Nam	42.1	21.8	8.5	27.4	0.2	100
Zambia	33.6	2.6	4.8	59.0	0.0	100
Average (25 countries)	42.0	9.2	9.6	38.5	0.7	100

Note: N/A = Not available.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Table A.6 Youth non-agricultural employment by occupation class and area of residence (% of non-agricultural employment)

Country	Area	Higher skilled non-manual occupations	Mid-skilled non-manual occupations	Mid-skilled production occupations	Low skilled occupations (elementary)
Armenia	Rural	26.9	33.5	23.2	16.4
	Urban	36.3	38.0	17.6	8.1
Bangladesh	Rural	6.7	22.0	54.5	13.7
	Urban	8.9	29.3	53.1	6.4
Benin	Rural	3.9	35.0	45.7	15.2
	Urban	6.5	51.4	26.7	15.2
Brazil	Rural	6.8	36.6	37.0	19.6
	Urban	7.5	47.8	26.6	18.1
Cambodia	Rural	7.1	42.4	36.3	14.2
	Urban	12.4	56.8	22.7	8.2
Egypt	Rural	11.7	27.2	53.7	7.4
	Urban	18.0	35.8	38.6	7.6
El Salvador	Rural	0.6	36.4	26.7	36.2
	Urban	1.6	52.6	24.3	21.6
Jamaica	Rural	12.4	48.3	21.4	17.9
	Urban	12.1	56.2	16.9	14.8
Jordan	Rural	21.1	63.9	10.6	4.4
	Urban	24.2	43.1	24.9	7.7
Kyrgyzstan	Rural	10.5	37.5	46.6	5.4
	Urban	22.4	43.4	27.7	6.5
Liberia	Rural	3.0	44.6	28.8	20.1
	Urban	8.2	49.2	13.4	27.4
Macedonia, FYR	Rural	13.4	40.2	40.1	6.3
	Urban	24.5	52.2	15.0	7.7
Madagascar	Rural	8.4	29.9	42.5	18.0

	Urban	4.5	41.3	30.1	23.3
Malawi	Rural	2.5	59.1	18.0	20.4
	Urban	5.2	66.0	14.2	14.4
Moldova, Rep. of	Rural	20.2	41.1	23.7	14.9
	Urban	36.0	43.4	12.4	8.2
Nepal	Rural	24.7	28.4	32.4	13.1
	Urban	27.7	51.0	16.0	5.3
Occupied Palestinian Territory	Rural	19.9	23.0	29.4	27.7
	Urban	14.6	39.8	24.7	20.8
Russian Fed.	Rural	15.2	39.3	30.6	14.8
	Urban	26.4	40.0	25.7	8.0
Tanzania, United Rep. of	Rural	1.2	27.2	30.2	41.4
	Urban	2.6	43.3	21.8	32.4
Togo	Rural	2.3	56.2	37.7	3.1
	Urban	2.6	57.9	28.8	10.4
Tunisia	Rural	3.0	25.7	26.6	44.7
	Urban	9.5	37.8	37.7	15.1
Uganda	Rural	10.5	47.7	28.6	12.9
	Urban	9.0	53.8	25.8	11.4
Ukraine	Rural	28.6	33.4	26.0	8.5
	Urban	33.8	32.8	26.4	5.3
Viet Nam	Rural	8.1	30.2	43.5	17.6
	Urban	17.5	42.0	27.1	12.5
Zambia	Rural	9.7	43.0	10.7	36.6
	Urban	5.5	49.1	14.5	30.8

Note: Occupations (based on the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08)) are grouped as follows: higher skilled non-manual occupations include legislators, senior officials and managers, and professionals; mid-skilled non-manual occupations include technicians and associate professionals, clerks and service workers, shop and market sales workers; mid-skilled production occupations include skilled agricultural and fishery workers, crafts and related trades workers and plant and machine operators and assemblers; and low-skilled occupations include elementary occupations and the armed forces.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Table A.7 Youth employment by type of engagement and area of residence (% of total employment)

Country	Area of residence	Agriculture	Vulnerable employment (non-agriculture)	Wage employment < 12 months (temporary job)	Wage employment > 12 months (stable job)	Others
Armenia	Urban	6.1	8.1	10.8	72.7	2.2
	Rural	51.3	6.7	3.5	38.3	0.2
Bangladesh	Urban	9.4	27.5	4.3	57.1	1.6
	Rural	41.5	21.3	4.9	30.4	2.0
Benin	Urban	12.2	51.7	3.1	17.9	15.1
	Rural	38.2	46.7	1.4	3.7	10.1
Brazil	Urban	3.3	19.2	4.3	69.9	3.3
	Rural	34.0	17.6	2.5	42.6	3.3
Cambodia	Urban	4.5	47.6	11.7	35.7	0.4
	Rural	62.9	18.8	4.1	13.7	0.6

El Salvador	Urban	13.8	25.9	8.7	49.5	2.0
	Rural	59.0	16.2	3.9	20.5	0.4
Jamaica	Urban	2.1	25.8	9.8	60.5	1.7
	Rural	20.7	16.9	9.3	50.6	2.5
Jordan	Urban	0.9	4.4	4.4	88.5	1.8
	Rural	4.8	2.9	2.7	88.4	1.1
Kyrgyzstan	Urban	7.2	21.0	3.0	65.6	3.2
	Rural	61.5	11.6	3.3	22.7	1.0
Liberia	Urban	8.0	57.7	4.5	13.2	16.5
	Rural	55.6	34.7	1.6	1.6	6.5
Macedonia, FYR	Urban	7.0	8.4	17.7	59.6	7.4
	Rural	39.8	7.3	12.3	38.6	2.0
Madagascar	Urban	49.6	26.2	2.8	17.3	4.1
	Rural	79.0	13.3	2.1	4.2	1.4
Malawi	Urban	10.2	51.8	7.5	28.1	2.5
	Rural	51.9	35.6	5.7	5.3	1.5
Moldova, Rep. of	Urban	0.6	8.0	8.0	83.4	0.0
	Rural	31.6	11.5	4.1	52.2	0.6
Nepal	Urban	11.1	27.1	7.5	44.3	9.8
	Rural	51.3	15.3	4.8	23.3	5.3
Occupied Palestinian Territory	Urban	5.5	12.9	5.7	74.1	1.9
	Rural	14.1	12.0	3.0	69.4	1.5
Russian Fed.	Urban	1.2	2.8	2.1	91.4	2.5
	Rural	29.2	3.9	1.4	63.4	2.1
Tanzania, United Rep. of	Urban	5.2	42.1	9.2	39.9	3.6
	Rural	27.5	35.3	7.4	21.0	8.9
Togo	Urban	11.3	45.4	5.9	20.2	17.2
	Rural	63.0	22.2	0.7	5.0	9.1
Tunisia	Urban	7.3	8.4	17.3	62.6	4.4
	Rural	42.8	5.6	11.5	39.5	0.6
Uganda	Urban	30.1	31.0	2.8	32.4	3.7
	Rural	69.0	18.8	2.1	9.0	1.2
Ukraine	Urban	2.6	9.3	2.4	81.8	4.0
	Rural	13.0	7.0	1.7	73.3	5.0
Viet Nam	Urban	7.7	17.8	12.4	60.6	1.4
	Rural	42.1	11.3	11.3	33.7	1.6
Zambia	Urban	14.0	39.6	15.2	23.7	7.5
	Rural	33.6	31.5	7.4	20.9	6.6

Note: Others include employers and those not classifiable. Data on Egypt are excluded due to non-comparability.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 24 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Table A.8 Youth population by stages of transition and area of residence (% of total employment)

Country	Transited		In transition		Transition not yet started		Not classifiable	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Armenia	26.6	26.5	33.4	35.7	39.6	37.0	0.5	0.9
Bangladesh	35.9	33.0	13.0	16.4	51.2	50.6	0.0	0.0
Benin	18.1	20.8	19.6	22.5	56.9	52.1	5.4	4.6
Brazil	52.1	45.0	31.1	36.8	15.6	17.6	1.3	0.6
Cambodia	63.4	70.3	10.1	15.2	25.6	14.2	0.9	0.3
Egypt	37.9	42.5	21.6	24.2	40.4	33.3	0.0	0.0
El Salvador	37.6	41.6	38.7	42.7	23.5	15.2	0.2	0.5
Jamaica	38.6	31.9	39.7	42.5	21.7	25.6	0.1	0.1
Jordan	28.7	28.8	18.8	19.9	52.5	51.3	0.0	0.0
Kyrgyzstan	44.8	57.2	20.4	19.4	34.7	23.2	0.1	0.2
Liberia	34.7	35.3	47.4	46.7	17.9	17.7	0.1	0.3
Macedonia, FYR	25.3	17.0	33.2	37.7	41.5	45.4	0.0	0.0
Madagascar	44.8	60.3	23.7	26.8	28.9	11.5	2.6	1.4
Malawi	33.8	45.3	48.0	42.0	18.2	12.7	0.0	0.0
Moldova, Rep. of	40.1	21.5	19.6	32.3	40.3	46.1	0.0	0.0
Nepal	19.9	19.9	32.5	40.5	47.4	39.3	0.3	0.3
Occupied Palestinian Territory	22.0	25.5	32.5	28.2	45.5	46.2	0.0	0.0
Russian Fed.	53.1	42.2	12.2	18.6	30.8	26.5	3.8	12.7
Tanzania, United Rep. of	22.8	35.0	44.6	48.0	31.9	16.6	0.8	0.5
Togo	37.6	51.2	39.1	30.3	23.4	18.4	0.0	0.1
Tunisia	25.0	27.0	23.6	38.3	50.3	34.0	1.1	0.6
Uganda	44.6	46.3	27.6	29.5	24.8	22.7	2.9	1.5
Ukraine	44.9	37.3	20.5	28.0	34.3	34.2	0.3	0.5
Viet Nam	55.0	55.3	12.4	21.1	32.3	23.1	0.4	0.5
Zambia	31.2	33.0	48.1	41.8	19.4	24.5	1.3	0.6

Note: Egypt and Malawi are not strictly comparable.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data in 25 countries. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Table A.9 Youth employment by status and sex in rural areas, SWTS countries in sub-Saharan Africa (% of total employment)

Country	Sex	Wage or salaried worker	Employer	Own-account worker	Contributing family worker	Other
Benin	Male	8.2	2.1	58.1	21.3	10.3
	Female	4.1	1.8	50.9	29.6	13.5
Liberia	Male	7.9	1.7	54.9	26.8	8.7
	Female	1.1	2.3	57.9	30.5	8.2
Madagascar	Male	12.9	4.2	39.2	43.4	0.3
	Female	7.9	3.6	21.3	66.6	0.6
Malawi	Male	23.2	2.4	58.3	15.4	0.7
	Female	13.7	1.3	68.7	15.5	0.8
Tanzania, United Rep. of	Male	41.9	8.1	30.5	16.4	3.1
	Female	16.5	7.9	46.7	24.7	4.2
Togo	Male	12.1	2.2	43.3	32.0	10.3

Uganda	Female	5.2	1.6	46.8	38.0	8.3
	Male	28.8	3.2	47.5	20.0	0.5
Zambia	Female	12.8	1.6	60.0	24.6	1.0
	Male	36.0	8.5	24.4	27.5	3.6
	Female	34.3	3.7	22.7	34.2	5.2

Note: Other includes not classifiable and members of producers' cooperatives.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Table A.10 Employed youth by level of completed educational attainment, status in employment and sex in rural areas, SWTS countries in sub-Saharan Africa (%)

Country	Sex	Wage or salaried worker	Employer	Own- account worker	Contributin g family worker	Member of producers' cooperative	Not classifiable by status	Total
Primary or less								
Benin	T	4.0	2.2	57.7	26.6	1.1	8.4	100
	F	3.6	2.0	52.7	30.0	1.4	10.3	100
	M	4.7	2.5	65.3	21.5	0.5	5.6	100
Liberia	T	4.9	2.3	70.4	17.8	0.0	4.7	100
	F	2.3	0.8	74.8	19.6	0.0	2.5	100
	M	8.8	4.5	63.6	15.0	0.0	8.1	100
Madagascar	T	7.8	3.8	31.2	56.6	0.1	0.5	100
	F	4.9	3.9	21.7	68.7	0.1	0.7	100
	M	11.0	3.8	41.6	43.3	0.0	0.2	100
Malawi	T	16.7	2.3	72.2	8.5	0.2	0.2	100
	F	12.3	1.5	76.0	9.5	0.4	0.3	100
	M	22.0	3.1	67.6	7.2	0.0	0.1	100
Tanzania, United Rep. of	T	28.7	10.9	40.8	17.5	0.1	2.2	100
	F	21.3	11.4	47.0	20.3	0.0	0.0	100
	M	32.8	10.6	37.3	15.9	0.1	3.4	100
Togo	T	4.6	1.3	51.4	34.9	0.5	7.4	100
	F	2.6	0.9	51.3	37.5	0.5	7.1	100
	M	8.4	2.0	51.5	29.6	0.6	7.9	100
Uganda	T	19.3	2.6	62.3	15.0	0.2	0.6	100
	F	10.6	2.2	68.1	17.8	0.3	0.9	100
	M	29.9	3.0	55.2	11.5	0.2	0.2	100
Zambia	T	22.4	8.0	37.2	28.5	1.6	2.2	100
	F	13.5	3.9	37.9	37.6	3.0	4.2	100
	M	32.6	12.7	36.5	18.3	0.0	0.0	100
Secondary								
Benin	T	22.7	1.0	53.0	5.8	2.7	14.8	100
	F	15.8	0.0	49.5	9.5	0.0	25.2	100
	M	27.0	1.5	55.2	3.5	4.4	8.4	100
Liberia	T	4.3	1.7	68.5	18.8	6.7	0.0	100
	F	0.0	0.0	71.1	28.9	0.0	0.0	100
	M	6.6	2.7	67.0	13.2	10.4	0.0	100
Madagascar	T	18.4	4.9	31.2	45.2	0.3	0.0	100
	F	16.2	3.3	23.8	56.7	0.0	0.0	100

Malawi	M	20.8	6.5	39.1	33.1	0.5	0.0	100
	T	18.8	4.9	67.9	6.1	0.5	1.9	100
	F	12.4	2.2	76.1	8.6	0.0	0.7	100
Tanzania, United Rep. of	M	23.4	6.8	61.9	4.3	0.8	2.7	100
	T	39.7	6.4	32.8	16.0	0.0	5.1	100
	F	16.0	6.6	50.2	17.4	0.0	9.9	100
Togo	M	55.4	6.4	21.3	15.1	0.0	1.9	100
	T	15.4	5.2	53.0	16.9	2.0	7.5	100
	F	14.0	6.7	50.3	19.6	1.7	7.6	100
Uganda	M	16.4	4.2	54.9	15.0	2.2	7.5	100
	T	32.8	5.2	50.4	10.3	1.2	0.0	100
	F	27.3	0.0	53.9	16.4	2.4	0.0	100
Zambia	M	38.9	10.9	46.6	3.7	0.0	0.0	100
	T	38.6	7.5	26.2	22.9	0.5	4.3	100
	F	47.1	4.6	22.7	20.8	0.7	4.1	100
	M	32.1	9.7	28.8	24.5	0.4	4.4	100
Tertiary								
Benin	T	83.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.5	100
	F	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Liberia	M	80.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	20.0	100
	T	50.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	100
	F	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Madagascar	M	50.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	100
	T	81.9	18.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
	F	81.9	18.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Malawi	M	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
	T	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
	F	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Tanzania, United Rep. of	M	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
	T	9.4	0.0	90.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
	F	15.1	0.0	84.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Togo	M	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
	T	68.0	0.0	14.7	0.0	17.3	0.0	100
	F	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Uganda	M	68.0	0.0	14.7	0.0	17.3	0.0	100
	T	78.0	1.4	13.8	6.9	0.0	0.0	100
	F	84.4	0.0	12.6	3.0	0.0	0.0	100
Zambia	M	67.6	3.6	15.7	13.1	0.0	0.0	100
	T	70.7	6.2	0.0	23.1	0.0	0.0	100
	F	69.1	0.0	0.0	30.9	0.0	0.0	100
	M	71.8	10.3	0.0	17.9	0.0	0.0	100

T = both sexes; F = female; M = male.

Note: Calculations are made for youth with completed education only. Secondary includes secondary general, secondary vocational and post-secondary vocational. Tertiary refers to completed university or postgraduate level.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Table A.11 Youth employment by detailed sector and sex, tertiary graduates in rural areas, Uganda and Zambia (% in total employment)

Sector (two-digit ISIC)	Uganda		Zambia	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Construction of buildings	8.0		10.3	
Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities	17.7	10.3		
Education	42.4	70.6	11.4	33.7
Financial service activities, except insurance and pension funding	4.6	3.7	0.0	
Food and beverage service activities	4.1		17.9	
Human health activities	4.1	10.0	13.4	7.0
Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment			5.0	
Office administrative, office support and other business support activities			8.6	
Other mining and quarrying	3.6			
Other professional, scientific and technical activities	0.0		13.1	
Residential care activities		2.8		
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	8.6		7.0	48.9
Services to buildings and landscape activities				
Social work activities without accommodation		2.5	13.4	
Telecommunications				10.4
Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	7.1			
Total	100	100	100	100

Note: Based on the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC), two-digit level.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Table A.12 Youth employment by detailed sector in rural Cambodia, Jamaica and Kyrgyzstan (% of total employment)

Cambodia	%	Jamaica	%	Kyrgyzstan	%
Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities	19.5	Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities	6.6	Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities	16.5
Construction of buildings	0.5	Manufacture of other non-metallic mineral products	3.9	Forestry and logging	1.6
Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	2.0	Warehousing and support activities for transportation	9.5	Mining of metal ores	0.5
Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	0.5	Accommodation	3.0	Manufacture of food products	3.5
Warehousing and support activities for transportation	2.7	Programming and broadcasting activities	3.2	Manufacture of wearing apparel	1.4
Financial service activities, except insurance and pension funding	16.5	Financial service activities, except insurance and pension funding	2.7	Manufacture of paper and paper products	1.3
Travel agency, tour operator, reservation service and related activities	14.5	Insurance, reinsurance and pension funding, except compulsory social security	2.7	Manufacture of chemicals and chemical products	1.2
Security and investigation activities	0.5	Activities auxiliary to financial service and insurance activities	3.2	Manufacture of basic metals	0.7
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	9.2	Other professional, scientific and technical activities	16.1	Manufacture of furniture	1.2
Education	17.0	Veterinary activities	12.1	Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	1.3

Activities of membership organizations	9.5	Security and investigation activities	24.9	Construction of buildings	6.8
Other personal service activities	7.6	Education	5.1	Specialized construction activities	1.0
Total	100	Gambling and betting activities	4.2	Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	1.3
		Repair of computers and personal and household goods	2.8	Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	7.6
		Total	100	Land transport and transport via pipelines	3.8
				Air transport	1.2
				Postal and courier activities	1.7
				Computer programming, consultancy and related activities	1.3
				Financial service activities, except insurance and pension funding	8.0
				Legal and accounting activities	0.6
				Travel agency, tour operator, reservation service and related activities	1.1
				Security and investigation activities	0.7
				Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	9.3
				Education	18.4
				Human health activities	6.8
				Libraries, archives, museums and other cultural activities	1.2
				Total	100

Note: Based on the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC), two-digit level.

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Table A.13 Youth employment in agriculture by hours worked per week in rural areas, SWTS countries in sub-Saharan Africa (%)

Country	Hour band					Total
	<20	20–40	41–48	49–60	>60	
Benin	20.0	36.4	21.7	21.9	0.0	100
Liberia	21.6	21.9	22.3	25.1	9.2	100
Madagascar	24.9	51.9	16.2	5.6	1.4	100
Malawi	71.6	21.4	3.3	2.2	1.4	100
Tanzania, United Rep. of	43.8	26.6	15.2	4.3	10.2	100
Togo	22.3	38.0	20.0	14.0	5.6	100
Uganda	44.1	40.8	7.8	3.9	3.4	100
Zambia	52.7	30.9	4.6	7.7	4.2	100

Source: Authors' calculations using SWTS data. For meta-information on reference period, etc., see Annex II.

Annex II. Meta-information on the ILO school-to-work transition surveys

Twenty-eight school-to-work transition surveys (SWTS) were carried out between 2012 and 2013 within the framework of the Work4Youth (W4Y) partnership between the ILO Youth Employment Programme and The MasterCard Foundation. The W4Y project has a budget of US\$14.6 million and runs for five years to mid-2016. Its aim is to “promote decent work opportunities for young men and women through knowledge and action”. The immediate objective of the partnership is to produce more and better labour market information specific to youth in developing countries, focusing in particular on transition paths to the labour market. The assumption is that governments and social partners in the project’s 28 target countries will be better prepared to design effective policy and programme initiatives once armed with detailed information on: (i) what young people expect in terms of transition paths and quality of work; (ii) what employers expect in terms of young applicants; (iii) what issues prevent the two sides – supply and demand – from matching; and (iv) what policies and programmes can have a real impact. Information on the survey implementation partners, sample size, geographic coverage and reference periods is provided in the following table. Micro datasets are available at www.ilo.org/w4y.

ILO school-to-work transition surveys: Meta-information

Country	Implementation partner	Sample size	Geographic coverage	Reference period
Armenia	National Statistical Service	3 216	National	October–November 2012
Bangladesh	Bureau of Statistics	9 197	National	January–March 2013
Benin	Institut National de la Statistique et de l'Analyse Economique	6 917	National	December 2012
Brazil	ECO Assessoria em Pesquisas	3 288	National	June 2013
Cambodia	National Institute of Statistics	3 552	10 provinces	July and August 2012
Colombia	Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística	6 416	Urban	September–November 2013
Egypt	Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics	5 198	National	November–December 2012
El Salvador	Dirección General de Estadística y Censos	3 451	National	November–December 2012
Jamaica	Statistical Institute of Jamaica	2 584	National	February–April 2013
Jordan	Department of Statistics	5 405	National	December 2012–January 2013
Kyrgyzstan	National Statistical Commission	3 930	National	July–September 2013
Liberia	Liberian Institute of Statistics and Geo-Information Services	1 876*	National	July and August 2012
Macedonia, FYR	State Statistical Office	2 544	National	July–September 2012
Madagascar	Institut National de la Statistique	3 300	National	May–June 2013
Malawi	National Statistics Office	3 102	National	August and September 2012
Moldova, Rep. of	National Bureau of Statistics	1 158	National	January–March 2013
Nepal	Center for Economic Development and Administration	3 584	National	April–May 2013
Occupied Palestinian Territory	Central Bureau of Statistics	4 320	National	August–September 2013
Peru	Instituto Nacional de Estadística e Informática	2 464	Urban	December 2012–February 2013

Russian Federation	Russian Federal State Statistics Service	3 890	11 regions	July 2012
Samoa	Bureau of Statistics	2 914	National	November–December 2012
Tanzania, United Rep. of	University of Dar-es-Salaam, Department of Statistics	1 988	National	February–March 2013
Togo	Direction Générale de la Statistique et de la Comptabilité Nationale	2 033	National	July and August 2012
Tunisia	Institut National de la Statistique	3 000	National	February–March 2013
Uganda	Bureau of Statistics	3 811	National	February–April 2013
Ukraine	Ukrainian Center for Social Reforms	3 526	National	February 2013
Viet Nam	General Statistics Office	2 722	National	December 2012–January 2013
Zambia	IPSOS Synovate Zambia	3 206	National	December 2012

Annex III. Definitions of labour market statistics

1. The following units are defined according to the standards of the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (Resolution concerning statistics of the economically active population, employment, unemployment and underemployment, October 1982):²⁶
 - a. The **employed** include all persons (in the age group of interest) who, during a week of reference:
 - worked for wage or profit (in cash or in kind) for at least one hour;
 - were temporarily absent from work (because of illness, leave, studies, a break in the activity of the firm, for example), but had a formal attachment to their job;
 - performed some work without pay for family gain.
 - b. The **unemployed** (strictly defined) include all persons (in the age group of interest) who meet the following three conditions during the week of reference:
 - they did not work (according to the abovementioned definition);
 - they were actively searching for a job or took concrete action to start their own business;
 - they were available to start work within the two weeks following the reference week.
 - c. **Relaxed unemployment** – a person without work and available to work (relaxing the jobseeking criteria of item 1b above).
 - d. Persons neither included in the employed nor in the unemployed category are classified as **not in the labour force (also known as inactive)**.
2. **Informal employment** is measured according to the guidelines recommended by the 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians. The calculation applied here includes the following sub-categories of workers:
 - i. paid employees in “informal jobs”, i.e. jobs without a social security entitlement, paid annual leave or paid sick leave;
 - ii. paid employees in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees;
 - iii. own-account workers in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees;
 - iv. employers in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; and

²⁶ The International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) adopted the “Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization” in October 2013. The new Resolution provides guidelines on a wider set of measures than previously defined internationally, aiming specifically to enable better statistical measurement of participation of all persons in all forms of work and in all sectors of the economy, while also enabling measurement of areas of labour underutilization. While the results in this report adhere to the “old” standards, it is important to acknowledge that the results of the revised definitions will significantly change future indicators on employment.

v. contributing family workers.

Sub-categories (ii) to (iv) are used in the calculation of “employment in the informal sector”, sub-category (i) applies to “informal job in the formal sector” and sub-category (v) can fall within either grouping, dependent on the registration status of the enterprise that engages the contributing family worker.



This report provides up-to-date evidence on the link between labour market outcomes and educational attainment for the population of youth in low- and middle-income countries. Based on the school-to-work transitions surveys (SWTSs) run in 2012–2013, the report assesses the labour market conditions of youth in rural and urban areas and offers insights into prospects for fundamental transformations of rural sectors within the development process. While confirming some blurring between rural and urban areas in terms of sectoral distribution of employment, the report concludes that many countries – especially the low-income countries – have a long way to go in the diversification of rural economies beyond agriculture and petty trades and even further in building the capacity of rural labour markets to generate decent employment opportunities for young people.

The SWTSs are made available through the ILO “Work4Youth” (W4Y) Project. This Project is a five-year partnership between the ILO and The MasterCard Foundation that aims to promote decent work opportunities for young men and women through knowledge and action. The SWTS is a unique survey instrument that generates relevant labour market information on young people aged 15 to 29 years. The survey captures longitudinal information on transitions within the labour market, thus providing evidence of the increasingly tentative and indirect paths to decent and productive employment that today’s young men and women face.

The W4Y Publication Series is designed to disseminate data and analyses from the SWTS administered by the ILO in 28 countries covering five regions of the world. The series covers national reports, with main survey findings and details on current national policy interventions in the area of youth employment, regional synthesis reports that highlight regional patterns in youth labour market transitions and thematic explorations of the datasets.

Work4Youth



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