

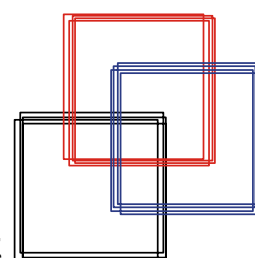


Labour market transitions of young women and men in Uganda

Jimrex Byamugisha, Leyla Shamchiyeva
and Takaaki Kizu

December 2014

Youth Employment Programme
Employment Policy Department



Work4Youth Publication Series No. 24

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International Labour Office • Geneva

December 2014

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First published 2014

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ILO Cataloguing in Publication Data

Byamugisha, Jimrex; Shamchiyeva, Leyla; Kizu, Takaaki

Labour market transitions of young women and men in Uganda / Jimrex Byamugisha, Leyla Shamchiyeva and Takaaki Kizu ; International Labour Office, Youth Employment Programme, Employment Policy Department. - Geneva: ILO, 2014

(Work4Youth publication series, ISSN: 2309-6780 ; 2309-6799 (web pdf))

International Labour Office Employment Policy Dept.

youth unemployment / youth unemployment / transition from school to work / data collecting / methodology / Uganda

13.01.3

Cover design by: Creative Cow

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Printed by the International Labour Office, Geneva, Switzerland

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 presents the results of the survey in Uganda, 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.

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.

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¹ The full text of the 2012 resolution “The youth employment crisis: A call for action” can be found on the ILO website at: http://www.ilo.org/ilc/ILCSessions/101stSession/texts-adopted/WCMS_185950/lang--en/index.htm [7 Sep. 2014].

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Acknowledgements

The 2013 school-to-work transition survey in Uganda was implemented by the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) with funding from the ILO “Work4Youth” partnership with The MasterCard Foundation. The ILO is extremely grateful to the UBOS team under the capable leadership of Wilson Nyegenye and Simon Kyewalyanga.

Numerous people were involved in the report-writing process: Jimrex Byamugisha undertook the preliminary analysis; Leyla Shamchiyeva and Takaaki Kizu drafted the final text with guidance and input from Sara Elder, Coordinator of the ILO Work4Youth team. Yves Perardel, of the same team, offered significant technical support during all stages of the survey.

The preliminary results of the survey were presented at a national workshop in Kampala on 25 November 2014. The ILO wishes to thank the participants of the workshop for their validation of the results and the feedback on the relevance of the survey to the development and monitoring of youth-related policies and programmes in the country. Alexio Musindo, Director of the ILO Country Office for Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, and Stephen Opio, National Programme Coordinator, offered invaluable assistance in supporting the activities in the country, and were indispensable to the organization of the workshop.

Finally, the ILO would like to acknowledge the support of The MasterCard Foundation in allowing the research to move forward, under the scope of the Work4Youth partnership.

1. Introduction and main findings

1.1 Overview

Decades of strong and stable economic growth have led to Uganda reaching the first Millennium Development Goal, with poverty rates more than halved from 56.0 per cent in 1992/93 to 22.0 per cent in 2011/12.² Yet, far too many young Ugandans still face a future of struggle. Precarious job prospects, with income-earning opportunities mainly available only through occasional informal employment, risk youth being left behind as the country harvests the benefits of economic development. Young people represent more than half of the unemployed, and many of those who are employed work in low-quality jobs. Economic reasons are still quoted as a primary constraint to continuing education among the youth, which in turn further hampers their chances of securing better jobs in the future. Poverty in Uganda is characterized by a lack of access to wage employment, low wages for those who do work and unstable income for the self-employed.

Even though Uganda's youth unemployment rate of 5.0 per cent is below the ILO regional average of 12.4 per cent, it is youth underemployment that represents a major challenge to Uganda in economic, political and societal terms (Elder and Koné, 2014). The low quality of employment of those who work does not allow young people to make the most of their economic potential. With very few young jobseekers registering with public employment services, the strict definition of unemployment does not capture the actual number of jobless youth in the country. The youth unemployment rate rises to 13.3 per cent when taking into account youth who are without work and available to work but not actively seeking work. The high share of labour underutilization means a loss of investment in education and training, a reduced potential tax base, high costs for social assistance and a critical constraint to fuelling further economic growth.

In addressing the challenge of youth unemployment, the Government of Uganda has recognized the lack of sound and reliable labour market information to inform the design of effective programmes (MoGLSD, 2011, p. 2). To characterize the specific youth employment challenges and support policy-makers in designing adequate policies and programmes, the ILO developed the school-to-work transition survey (SWTS), a household survey of youth aged 15–29. The SWTS can serve as a principle tool for monitoring the impact of youth employment policies and programmes, particularly the National Action Plan for Youth Employment, which is expected to be signed into effect in early 2015. This report summarizes the results of the SWTS, implemented in Uganda in 2013, and is intended for the policy-makers and social partners in Uganda who concern themselves with the implementation of youth-related policies and programmes.

The indicators generated from the survey and analysed in this report aim to present a much more detailed picture of the youth labour market than is usually available from standard surveys, including the labour force survey. Unemployment among youth is a major national concern, but it is also important to consider the quality of work made available to the youth population. Does this work provide the wages and security necessary to empower young Ugandans to move towards self-sufficiency in their pending adulthood? The emphasis on quality of employment in this report should help to answer this question. The report also draws attention to the path, duration and characteristics of young people's transition from school to work, drawing conclusions based on these experiences to allow for a smoother transition.

² The World Bank, "Uganda Overview". Available at: <http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/uganda/overview>.

1.2 Main findings

Many young women and men, especially in rural areas, are not benefiting fully from the educational system.

Most of the surveyed youth had attended school or a training programme at some point in their lives (95.8 per cent). However, only half of the youth population had either completed school (9.2 per cent) or was attending school (39.5 per cent). The greatest cause for concern about the education figures in Uganda was the 47.1 per cent who left school before completing their education since most left before completion of even the primary level (53.3 per cent) and another 16.6 per cent before the secondary level. Higher drop-out rates and non-attendance rates were observed among the youth in rural areas (53.5 per cent combined) compared to urban areas (45.3 per cent).

Education levels among those who have completed their education remain alarmingly low. Nearly half of youth finished school below the primary level (43.5 per cent). Another 31.7 per cent completed their education at the primary level. In total, then, an astonishingly high 75.2 per cent of youth did not reach secondary school. A geographical comparison reveals that urban youth were almost three times more likely to attain education at secondary level or above than rural youth (19.5 and 7.1 per cent, respectively). When broken down by sex and area of residence it becomes apparent that young men in urban areas were the highest achievers in educational attainment, especially at the tertiary level. Young women in urban areas were more likely to have surpassed their female peers in rural areas at attaining tertiary level of education (9.0 and 3.4 per cent, respectively), yet the female shares remained well below those of young men.

Financial reasons, such as an inability to afford school fees or the need to earn an income, were given as the main reason for school drop-outs in both urban and rural areas (67.3 per cent). A number of young women (13.1 per cent) reported pregnancy as the main reason for stopping their education. Rural youth were twice as likely as urban youth to have cited a lack of interest in education as the reason for leaving early (8.7 and 4.4 per cent, respectively), and also twice as likely to have left due to failing examinations (5.5 and 2.4 per cent, respectively).

The majority of young workers were undereducated for their jobs.

A vast majority of employed youth in Uganda were undereducated for the job they were doing (74.2 per cent). Rarely were the respondents classified as overqualified for the job they were in (3.4 per cent). Sometimes even those who worked as low-skilled manual workers or in elementary occupations were undereducated because even persons in the lesser skilled occupations should have benefited from the basics of primary education (which unfortunately too many young Ugandans still lack).

Agriculture remained the largest employer for young people.

Agriculture, although the smallest contributor to gross domestic product (GDP), absorbed the largest portion of Uganda's young workers (58.4 per cent), followed by trade activities (16.6 per cent). A somewhat larger share of young female workers was engaged in these two sectors (62.9 and 19.3 per cent, respectively). While primarily involved in agriculture and trade (53.7 and 13.8 per cent, respectively), young men, unlike women, were also found in other labour-intensive sectors, such as manufacturing, transportation and construction.

Paid employment in agriculture is more high-risk in nature than employment in other sectors. Most workers in this sector did not have a written contract (95.5 per cent compared to 85.0 per cent of workers in industry and 65.3 per cent in the services sector) and many temporary jobs lasted for less than 12 months. The services sector, on the other hand,

tended to offer more written contracts and more contracts of unlimited duration or lasting for longer than a year. It is unsurprising, therefore, that the majority of young students hoped to work as professionals in the future, presumably in services.

Informal employment was the prevalent mode of work among youth in Uganda.

Informal employment affected as many as 92.2 per cent of young workers in Uganda. It consists of two categories, i.e. workers in the informal (unregistered) sector and paid employees holding informal jobs in the formal sector (lacking core benefits such as social security coverage, paid sick leave or annual leave). The majority of young Ugandans who worked informally were employed in the informal sector (86.6 per cent), while 13.4 per cent had informal jobs in the formal sector. Young women in Uganda had a higher risk of working in the informal sector than young men (91.0 and 82.0 per cent, respectively). At the same time, almost four in five (78.9 per cent) of the young employees surveyed were engaged without a written contract. In the agricultural sector, the share of young workers without a written contract was 95.5 per cent.

Decent work deficits were widespread and impacted on the ability of young people to make the most of their economic potential.

The survey results showed that over half of the youth population in Uganda (63.1 per cent) were employed and, among the employed, three-quarters – 74.7 per cent – were self-employed. The self-employed share comprised own-account workers without employees (50.5 per cent), 21.4 per cent contributing family workers, 2.6 per cent young employers and 0.2 per cent members of a producers' cooperative. The self-employed faced high levels of job insecurity and did not have access to safety nets to support them during periods when they were unable to work due to sickness or disability.

Many youth took up self-employment involuntarily, either at the request of their families (26.7 per cent) or because they were unable to find a wage or salaried job (26.5 per cent). The young self-employed claimed that their most significant business challenge was insufficient financial resources (23.2 per cent). When attempting to start a business, young people rarely approached financial institutions but rather relied on their own savings (33.9 per cent) or raised money through family and relatives (22.8 per cent).

The youth labour underutilization rate in Uganda was high at 63.2 per cent, consisting of 49.0 per cent of the youth population in irregular employment (either self-employment or paid employment with a contract duration of less than 12 months), 9.7 per cent unemployed and 4.5 per cent inactive non-students. Over one-third (39.5 per cent) of employed youth worked less than 20 hours during the reference week. Short working hours can be positive when voluntary, for example, as a means of combining work with studies or with household chores; however, what is more likely in Uganda is that the short hours were all that was available to the young workers. Indeed, over one-quarter of young people working part-time stated that they wanted to work more hours.

There are signs of a future mismatch between the supply and demand in the labour market.

Students in Uganda showed strong preferences for finding future work in modern sector jobs, such as professionals (56.8 per cent) and technicians and associate professionals (17.8 per cent). However, at the time of the survey, the shares of professional occupations in total employment were very low (3.3 per cent). Consequently, if those who aspired to become professionals did attain the necessary education, they would be competing for a very small pool of vacancies.

A majority of youth (64.2 per cent), especially young women (69.1 per cent) indicated that they would like to work for the Government. The strong appeal of public

sector work lies in its stability and benefits. It is therefore understandable that many young people dream of entering the government sector, especially among those who have invested time and resources in their education. Still, it is not realistic to imagine that the public sector will have the capacity to absorb many of the emerging graduates. If more studying youth were given this message early enough, perhaps they and their families could be more easily convinced of the utility of following the vocational training route.³

Employment services in Uganda were unpopular and ineffective.

In Uganda, most youth relied on informal networks when searching for jobs. The most popular method of job search among the youth who were actively looking for work was inquiring with friends, relatives and acquaintances (42.4 per cent). Almost one-quarter of the youth checked for vacancies directly at factories, farms, markets, shops or other workplaces (25.5 per cent). Only a very small proportion (0.7 per cent) of young people registered at employment centres. This indicated the absence of a robust system of public employment services in Uganda.

More than one in ten (13.3 per cent) young people in the labour force were unemployed, with a higher share among young women and youth in urban areas.

Applying the relaxed definition of unemployment brought to light the fact that unemployment affected many more young people than the strict unemployment rate would have us believe. More than one in ten (13.3 per cent) young people in the labour force were jobless. The unemployment rate among female youth was 17.4 per cent, which was double the rate for male youth (8.7 per cent). Youth in urban areas had a higher rate of unemployment than rural youth (19.3 and 11.4 per cent, respectively). Almost half of the unemployed youth (49.6 per cent) were unemployed for over a year. The incidence of long-term unemployment was higher among youth in rural than in urban areas (57.4 and 38.0 per cent, respectively).

The majority of Ugandan youth had started or already completed their transition. Higher educational levels of young people led to a more successful transition.

Most Ugandan youth had either completed their transition (46.8 per cent) or were still in transition (29.6 per cent). Very few had not yet started their transitions, the majority because they were still in education. Over one-quarter of transitioned youth were in stable jobs (26.7 per cent) with the remaining 73.3 per cent having settled in either self-employment or temporary employment that they deemed satisfactory.

SWTS results showed a strong correlation between the levels of education and a young person's labour market transition: the higher the educational attainment, the more likely a young person was to complete his or her labour market transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment.

³ Unfortunately, the Ugandan questionnaire did not list vocational training separately in the education categories, so we are not able to present the share of the youth population following the vocational track. Our suspicion is, however, that like in other sub-Saharan African countries (see Elder and Koné, 2014) the Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) system is severely underutilized. The hope is that the recent "Business, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (BTJET) Strategic Plan 2011–2020" of the Ministry of Education and Sports will have an impact on raising the visibility and effectiveness of the country's TVET programmes (see MoES, 2011).

1.3 Structure of the report

Section 2 sets out the socio-economic and labour market conditions for Uganda and introduces the objectives and the methodology of the survey process. Section 3 presents the results of the SWTS with details on the characteristics of youth and their labour market outcomes. Section 4 introduces the classification of stages of labour market transition and investigates the characteristics that led to more advantageous labour market outcomes, specifically in the attainment of stable employment. The section also discusses the length of time that young men and women spent in transition and traces the various labour market experiences they had along the way. Finally, section 5 outlines the national framework guiding youth employment in Uganda and presents the policy implications that have been drawn from the analysis of the survey.

2. Overview of labour market and survey methodology

2.1 Socio-economic context

Since Uganda's independence in 1962, the country has seen phases of political and economic turmoil, alternating with periods of relative calm and economic growth. The past decades have been marked by steady economic growth that resulted in considerable poverty reduction. However, Uganda's rapidly growing population places great pressure on the economy, which struggles to keep up. The population effectively doubled in size over a period of just two decades, from 17.5 million in 1990, to 33.9 million in 2010. In 2012, the population was estimated at 36,345,860, with men accounting for 50.1 per cent and women 49.9 per cent. High fertility rates of about six children per woman make Uganda one of the region's fastest growing nations. Uganda also has one of the youngest populations in the world. The share of the population aged between 0 and 30 years accounts for 78.2 per cent of the total population. So far, the population has been growing at a faster pace than the economy, which is why Uganda remains a poor country with a per capita GDP equaling US\$487 in 2011 (IMF, 2013).

Uganda's economy experienced a slowdown in 2012, but since then has seen a mild recovery. The country's national output has grown by an average of 4.4 per cent annually over the past years (table 2.1). Estimates suggest that the growth in 2011–2012 was at 3.4 per cent, the second slowest rate since 2000, due to the tightening of fiscal and monetary policy to stabilize the high inflation. However, with the foundations laid by the macroeconomic policies, growth is projected to pick up to 6.0 per cent in 2013–2014 and 7.0 per cent in 2014–2015 (IMF, 2013). Currently, Uganda's economic performance is at the level of the regional average for Southern Africa and sub-Saharan Africa (figure 2.1). According to the Ugandan Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), the recent gradual recovery has been driven mainly by a rebound in agriculture and services. Cash crop production saw value added growth at 16.2 per cent in 2012, driven primarily by coffee production. The tourism sector also grew by 20.6 per cent.

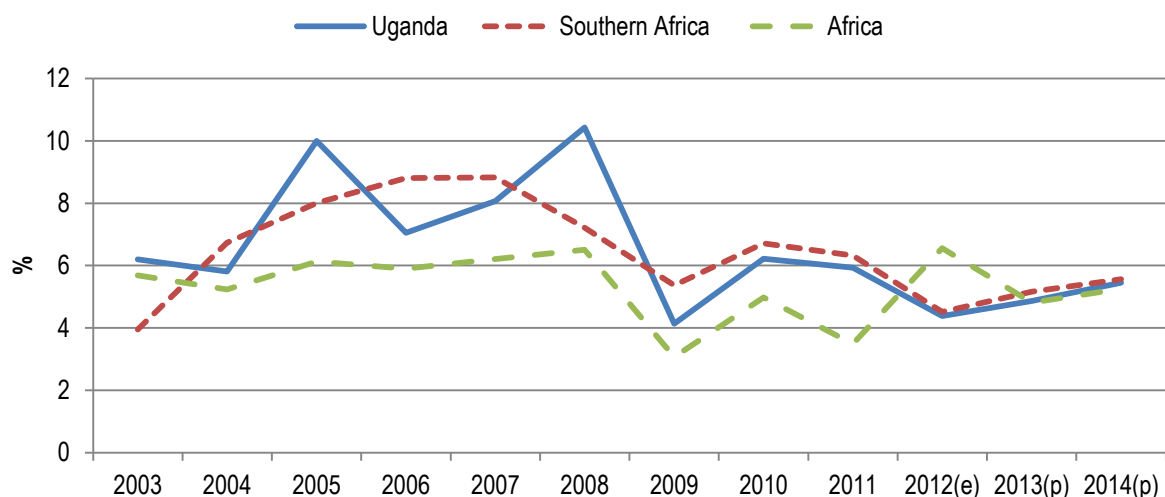
As a result of the high fertility rate, Uganda has one of the youngest populations in the world. The share of the population aged between 0 and 30 years accounts for 78.2 per cent of the total population. The population aged below 18 years constitutes 57.0 per cent, the working age population (15–60 years) 49.1 per cent, the primary school age population (6–12 years) 22.9 per cent, and elderly persons (60 and above years) only 8.1 per cent (table 2.2).

Table 2.1 Uganda's macroeconomic indicators (%)

Indicator	2009/10	2011/12(p)	2013/14(p)	2014/15(p)
Real GDP growth	5.8	3.4	6.0	7.0
Consumer price index (average)	9.4	23.5	6.2	5.0
Current account balance (% of GDP, excluding grants)	-10.8	-13.1	-12.6	-14.4

Note: (p) = projections.

Source: African Development Bank (AfDB) Statistical Data Portal, 2013.

Figure 2.1 Real GDP growth rate, Uganda, Southern Africa and sub-Saharan Africa

Notes: (e) = estimates; (p) = projections.

Source: African Development Bank (AfDB) Statistical Data Portal, 2013.

Table 2.2 Distribution of population by broad age groups and sex, 2005/06 and 2009/10 (%)

Age group	2005/06			2009/10		
	Share in total population	Male	Female	Share in total population	Male	Female
0–5	22.3	49.4	50.6	22.6	50.6	49.4
6–12	22.7	50.2	49.8	22.9	50.3	49.7
13–17	12.4	50.3	49.7	11.5	50.9	49.1
18–30	20.1	45.1	54.9	21.3	45.0	55.0
0–19	29.9	49.6	50.4	28.5	50.0	50.0
18+	46.4	47.3	52.7	47.7	46.8	53.2
60+	8.2	47.4	52.6	8.1	49.0	51.0
Working population 15–60	49.2	47.7	52.3	49.1	47.5	52.5

Source: UBOS, Uganda National Household Survey 2009/10, Abridged report, November 2010.

The country faces serious challenges in providing quality education to its large youthful population. Statistics indicate that enrolment at the primary school level increased from 6.5 million in 2000 to over 8.3 million in 2010 (of which 50.1 per cent were female). In terms of the net enrolment ratio (NER), this represents 90.9 per cent of the primary school age population. However, the completion rate at the primary level stood at only 54.3 per cent in 2011. Data from the SWTS will confirm the problems of low completion in the country. In view of these results, it is clear that Uganda continues to struggle in

providing universal primary education for all and, more severely, in retaining the students throughout the primary level and beyond.

2.2 The labour market in Uganda

The labour market in Uganda is characterized by a fast-growing working-age population. The 2009 Uganda National Household Survey estimated Uganda's working-age population at 11.0 million, up from 9.3 million in 2005 (Annex table A.1). The labour force participation rate of those aged between 14 and 64 years was high, at 78.7 per cent in 2009, up from 71.8 per cent in 2005 (table 2.2). Men and women were equally active, with the labour force participation rate at 77.9 per cent for men and 79.4 per cent for women. Finally, the rural population of working age was only slightly more economically active than the urban population (79.5 and 75.1 per cent, respectively). Activity rates among Ugandan youth have been growing: 60.3 per cent of youth aged 15–24 were economically active in 2009, a significant increase from 44.3 per cent in 2005. Growing activity rates could prove to be a cause for concern, given that many within the age band should otherwise be pursuing their education.

The household survey estimated Uganda's employment-to-population ratio at 75.4 per cent in 2009, an increase from 70.3 per cent in 2005 (table 2.3). The ratio was higher in rural areas than in urban areas (77.1 and 68.0 per cent, respectively). Men and women were engaged in employment to an equal extent. According to the household survey the unemployment rate in Uganda grew from 1.9 per cent in 2005 to 4.2 per cent in 2009. The urban unemployment rate was more than three times higher than the rural unemployment rate.

Table 2.3 Selected labour market indicators by sex, area of residence and age group, 2005/06 and 2009/10 (%)

	2005/06			2009/10		
	Labour force participation rate	Unemployment rate	Employment-to-population ratio	Labour force participation rate	Unemployment rate	Employment-to-population ratio
Sex						
Male	72.2	1.7	70.9	77.9	3.0	75.6
Female	71.4	2.1	69.8	79.4	5.2	75.2
Area of residence						
Urban	65.6	6.4	61.5	75.1	9.5	68.0
Rural	73.1	1.1	72.2	79.5	3.0	77.1
Age group						
15–24	44.3	4.4	–	60.3	5.4	–
18–30	76.8	3.4	–	85.6	4.7	–
Total	71.8	1.9	70.3	78.7	4.2	75.4

Note: – = Not available. Unless otherwise indicated, indicators cover the age group 15–64.

Source: UBOS, Uganda National Household Survey 2009/10. Abridged report, November 2010.

Despite recent growth in wage employment, informal employment continues to be the predominant mode in Uganda. The 2009 household survey estimated that 2.2 million people, representing 58.0 per cent of workers, were employed in the informal sector outside agriculture (table 2.4). Female workers were more likely to be engaged in informal sector employment than male workers.

Table 2.4 Employment in the informal sector as a percentage of non-agricultural employment

	Employment in the informal sector outside agriculture	Total employment outside agriculture	(%)
Sex			
Male	1 172 538	2 131 454	55.0
Female	1 022 126	1 649 851	62.0
Area of residence			
Urban	906 989	1 682 195	53.9
Rural	1 287 675	2 099 110	61.3
Total	2 194 664	3 781 305	58.0

Source: UBOS, Uganda National Household Survey 2009/10, Abridged report, November 2010.

With the high fertility rates and lack of a strong education system, the country is facing a large volume of low-skilled new labour market entrants every year. It is suggested that a successful programme of universal secondary education would significantly reduce the annual number of new labour force entrants. According to the UN population projections 2009, if all children aged between 14 and 19 years were in school, there would be a decrease in the new labour market entrants of about 100,000 people per year.

2.3 School-to-work transition survey

2.3.1 Objectives

Current restrictions in labour market information have led to a situation in which the question of why the school-to-work transitions of young people today are a long and difficult process has yet to be satisfactorily answered. At the same time, the goal of improving the transitions of youth is a top policy priority in most countries in the world. In response to this obvious information gap, the ILO has developed the SWTS, a detailed household survey covering individuals aged 15–29 (box 1). The survey is applied at the national level to generate information on the current labour market situation, the history of economic activities and the perceptions and aspirations of youth.

Box 1. Definition of youth

While, in other contexts, a youth is defined as a person aged between 15 and 24 (United Nations) or between 15 and 35 (African Union), for the purpose of the SWTS and related reports, the upper age limit is 29 years of age. This recognizes the fact that some young people remain in education beyond the age of 24, and allows the opportunity to capture more information on the post-graduation employment experiences of young people.

The current survey aims to inform policy-makers in Uganda who are concerned with the question of how to facilitate young people's full and effective integration into the labour market. The SWTS was implemented by the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) with fieldwork completed between February and May 2013. Funding for the survey came from the Work4Youth partnership between the ILO Youth Employment Programme and The MasterCard Foundation (see box 2). The partnership supports the SWTS in 28 target countries, with data from the first round made available throughout 2013. A second round of the SWTS will take place in most of the 28 countries in 2014–15, including in Uganda.

Box 2. Work4Youth: An ILO project in partnership with The MasterCard Foundation

The Work4Youth (W4Y) project is a partnership between the ILO Youth Employment Programme and The MasterCard Foundation. The project has a budget of US\$14.6 million and will run for five years to mid-2016. Its aim is to “promot[e] 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:

- what young people expect in terms of transition paths and quality of work;
- what employers expect in terms of young applicants;
- what issues prevent the two sides – supply and demand – from matching; and
- what policies and programmes can have a real impact.

Work4Youth target areas and countries:

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, Togo, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia

2.3.2 Questionnaire development and sample design

The standard ILO SWTS questionnaire was adapted to the Uganda country context based on a consultative process between the ILO and UBOS. The questionnaires were drafted and administered in English.⁴

A multistage cluster sampling technique was used for the SWTS. First stage units were clusters (enumeration areas), while second stage units were households. The sampling frame for the selection of clusters was the 2002 population and housing census, which contains an exhaustive list of all the enumeration areas with their respective measure of size. Two hundred enumeration areas (EAs) were selected with Probability Proportional to Size census list of EAs. Forty EAs were sampled from the urban areas and 160 from the rural areas. In the second stage, 15 households were drawn per EA using systematic sampling with some over-sampling to counter non-response.

Field work took place over a ten week period between February and May 2013. The sample covered 3,000 households throughout the entire country with a random selection based on a primary sampling unit. In each household, all young persons aged 15–29 answered the questionnaire (one questionnaire per young person). In total 3,811 young persons were interviewed.

⁴ The final questionnaire and data set is available at: http://www.ilo.org/employment/areas/WCMS_234860/lang--en/index.htm.

3. Characteristics of youth in the sample

3.1 Individual characteristics of youth

Table 3.1 shows that the largest group among the surveyed youth consisted of teenagers between the ages of 15 and 19 (44.7 per cent), followed by 20–24-year-olds (29.6 per cent) and 25–29-year-olds (25.7 per cent). This indicates a slight bias in the survey results towards the younger sub-category of 15–29-year-olds. Almost three-quarters (74.3 per cent) of the surveyed youth resided in rural areas. There were slightly more young women (52.5 per cent) than young men (47.5 per cent) among the surveyed persons.

Table 3.1 Youth population by selected characteristics and sex

Characteristic		Total		Male		Female	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Age group	15–19	3 881 064	44.7	1 958 680	47.6	1 922 383	42.2
	20–24	2 566 043	29.6	1 184 843	28.8	1 381 200	30.3
	25–29	2 228 856	25.7	974 275	23.7	1 254 581	27.5
Area of residence	Rural	6 445 658	74.3	3 095 385	75.2	3 350 273	73.5
	Urban	2 230 304	25.7	1 022 413	24.8	1 207 891	26.5
Marital status	Single/never married	5 172 803	59.8	2 993 309	72.8	2 179 493	48.0
	Married	3 102 614	35.8	1 034 351	25.1	2 068 263	45.5
	Separated/divorced	358 865	4.1	80 066	1.9	278 799	6.1
	Widowed	20 861	0.2	6 222	0.2	14 639	0.3
Age of marriage	Between 10 and 14	135 225	4.0	12 034	1.1	123 191	5.3
	Between 15 and 19	1 936 208	56.9	342 055	31.5	1 594 153	68.7
	Between 20 and 24	1 091 575	32.1	573 158	52.9	518 416	22.3
	Between 25 and 29	242 281	7.1	157 076	14.5	85 205	3.7
Total		8 675 962		4 117 798		4 558 164	

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

The larger share of youth in Uganda is single (59.8 per cent) but a significant share, 40.1 per cent, were already married, divorced or widowed. Youth tend to marry early in Uganda. Nearly six in ten (56.9 per cent) married youth were married as teenagers between the ages of 15 and 19. Four per cent (5.3 per cent among young women) married even earlier, between the ages of 10 and 14. In all age groups, young women were more likely to be married than young men. A total of 16 per cent of women aged 15–19 were married compared to only 1.7 per cent of men in the same age group (Annex table A.2). Overall, the share of married, divorced or widowed young women is almost double that of young men, at 51.9 and 27.2 per cent, respectively.

The cultural norm in Uganda is that the youth stay at home with their parents even when they start to work. Young people tend to move out when they marry or leave home to look for jobs away from their hometown. At the time of the survey, two in five young persons (43.9 per cent) lived with their parents. At the same time, a significant segment of surveyed youth was either head of households (17.0 per cent) or spouses of heads of households (21.3 per cent) (Annex table A.3). Over a quarter of young men (28.0 per cent) were heading the household they lived in, compared to only 7.0 per cent of young women.

To capture the concept of internal migration, the survey asked the respondents whether they had always lived in their current locality. The majority of surveyed youth (83.4 per cent) had never moved away from their place of residence (table 3.2). Of those

who had changed their place of residence, three in four (72.6 per cent) had relocated from rural areas, while a quarter had moved from other urban areas (24.9 per cent). One in five young women (21.5 per cent) had changed their place of residence, almost half of them (45.5 per cent) as a result of marriage, while 19.1 per cent cited work as a reason for moving. Only 11.1 per cent of men had relocated, with most doing so for employment purposes (46.3 per cent) or to accompany their family (31.6 per cent).

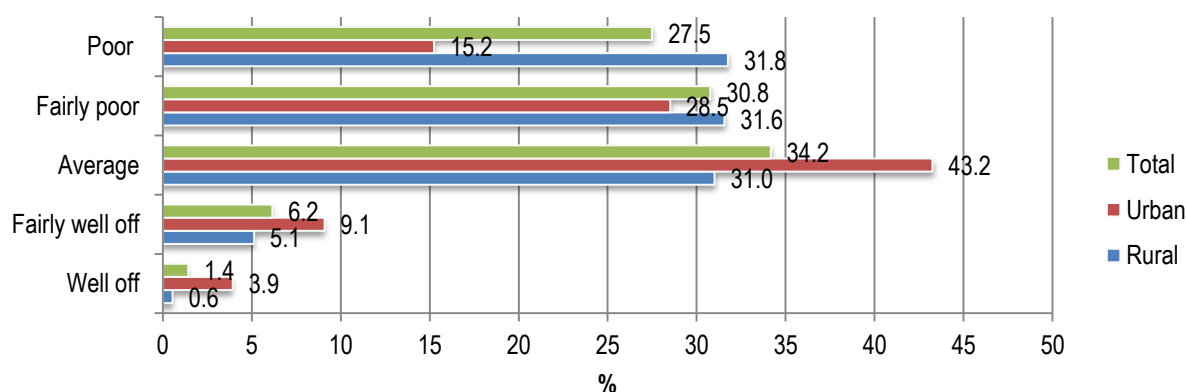
Table 3.2 Migration status of surveyed youth, by sex (%)

	Total	Male	Female
Migration status to the current residence:			
Did not migrate	83.4	88.9	78.5
Migrated	16.6	11.1	21.5
Total (absolute numbers)	8 662 170	4 113 926	4 548 244
Migrated from:			
Rural area	72.6	70.0	73.8
Urban area	24.9	27.8	23.5
Another country	2.6	2.2	2.7
Total (absolute numbers)	1 431 559	455 036	976 523
Main reason for migration:			
To accompany family	22.7	31.6	18.5
Education/training	10.3	11.5	9.7
Marriage	32.0	3.2	45.5
Work/employment	27.8	46.3	19.1
Other reasons	7.3	7.4	7.2
Total (absolute numbers)	1 427 884	455 036	972 848

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

The survey asked respondents to rank their household according to its financial situation, ranging from poor to well off (figure 3.1). More than half of the surveyed youth felt their households were poor or fairly poor (27.5 and 30.8 per cent, respectively). Very few surveyed young people described their households as “well off” (1.4 per cent) or “fairly well off” (6.2 per cent). Almost a third (31.8 per cent) of rural youth perceived their household’s financial status to be poor, compared to 15.2 per cent of youth in urban areas. The urban youth were much more likely than rural youth to consider their household to be around the national average.

Figure 3.1 Financial situation of the household



Note: Household income levels are based on the perception of the young respondent.

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.2 Educational attainment

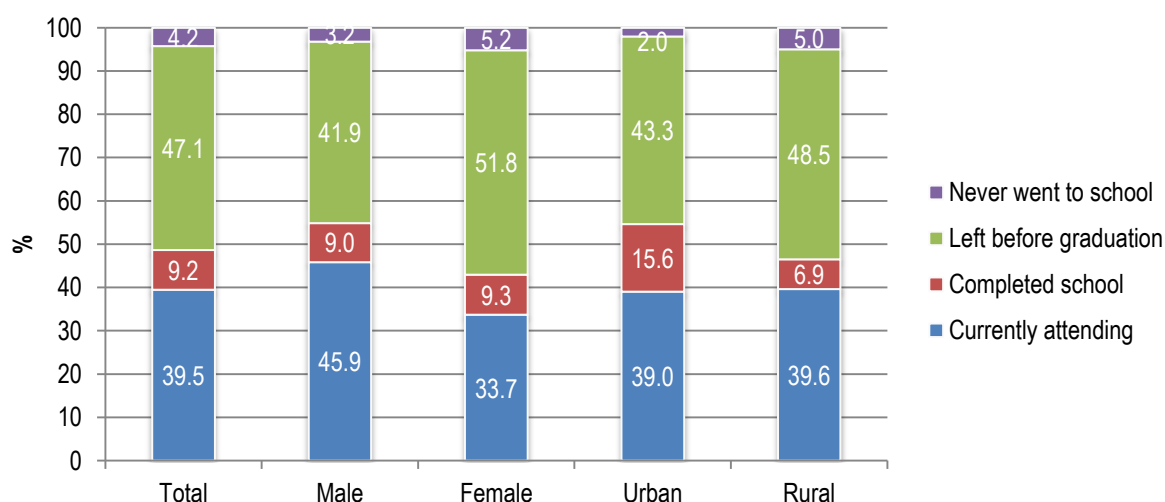
3.2.1 Educational status

Education and training increase the potential productivity and employability of young people, opening up new opportunities in different sectors and occupations. Educational enrolment and attainment also have a positive impact on the health of young persons, decisions regarding marriage and reproduction, social capital and quality of life.

Most young Ugandans had attended school at some point in their lives (95.8 per cent). However, only half of the youth population had either completed school (9.2 per cent) or were attending school (39.5 per cent). Of greatest concern in terms of the education figures is the 47.1 per cent who left school before completion, since most left before completion of even the primary level (53.3 per cent) and another 16.6 per cent before the secondary level. Urban dwellers had higher school completion rates (15.6 per cent) than those in rural areas (6.9 per cent) while the shares of youth attending school were almost equal in the two areas (39.6 per cent in rural areas and 39.0 per cent in urban areas) (figure 3.2). Higher drop-out rates and non-attendance rates were observed among the youth in rural areas (53.5 per cent combined) than in urban areas (45.3 per cent).

The difference between male and female school completion rates was only 0.5 percentage points, with females taking the lead, but this is where any female advantage ends. Over half of surveyed female youth (57.0 per cent) had left school before graduation or never attended school, compared to 45.1 per cent of young men.

Figure 3.2 Youth population by status in education, according to area of residence and sex



Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Over two-thirds (67.3 per cent) of young women and men reported leaving school before completion due to the unaffordability of education and/or the need to earn money (table 3.3). One in ten women (13.1 per cent) reported pregnancy as the main reason for stopping their education. Early marriage and pregnancy are an additional female-only constraint that prevents young women in Uganda from unleashing their full academic and economic potential. While rural youth's school attendance choices were dictated by economic reasons to a lesser extent than was the case for urban youth (64.3 and 77.1 per cent respectively), young people in rural areas were twice as likely as urban youth to have lost interest in education (8.7 and 4.4 per cent, respectively). They were also more likely to have failed in examinations (5.5 per cent of rural youth compared to 2.4 per cent of urban youth).

Table 3.3 Reasons for leaving school early by area of residence and sex (%)

Reason	Total	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Failed examinations	4.8	5.2	4.5	2.4	5.5
Not interested in education/training	7.7	9.4	6.5	4.4	8.7
To start working	0.8	1.5	0.4	0.5	0.9
To get married	2.8	1.4	3.9	2.0	3.1
Parents did not want me to continue/start schooling	2.4	1.7	2.8	1.8	2.5
Economic reasons (could not afford/too poor/needed to earn money)	67.3	74.1	62.4	77.1	64.3
No school nearby	0.7	1.1	0.5	0.4	0.8
Pregnancy	7.7	0.2	13.1	8.5	7.4
Other	5.7	5.4	6.0	2.9	6.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.2.2 Completed educational attainment

The results revealed educational attainment levels of Ugandan youth to be worryingly low. A staggering three-quarters (75.2 per cent) of young persons had attained only primary education or less (comprised of 31.7 per cent with primary level and 43.5 per cent with less than primary level) and 7.0 per cent had never attended school (table 3.4). These figures showed an unfortunate intergenerational continuity, as a large proportion of these young people's parents were also shown to have completed their education at the lowest levels (72.4 per cent with primary level or below) (table 3.5).

Table 3.4 Completed educational attainment by area of residence and sex (%)

Educational attainment	Urban		Rural		Total		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Never attended	3.3	3.4	6.8	9.4	5.9	7.8	7.0
Less than primary	22.3	28.3	48.1	50.9	41.3	45.1	43.5
Primary	36.2	39.3	31.2	28.3	32.5	31.1	31.7
Secondary	20.5	18.8	8.6	6.0	11.7	9.3	10.3
University	16.9	9.0	3.4	3.7	6.9	5.1	5.9
Not classifiable	0.8	1.3	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

In rural areas, 50.9 per cent of young women and 48.1 per cent of young men had not finished primary school. Only about a quarter of urban youth gave up on education that early: a third of them went on to finish primary school. Young people in urban areas were also more successful at attaining secondary education (20.5 per cent of men and 18.8 per cent of women) in comparison to their peers in rural areas (8.6 per cent of men and 6.0 per cent of women). This resulted in an average of only one in ten young Ugandans holding a secondary level degree and even fewer – 5.9 per cent – having a university degree.

It is interesting that while young women were clearly disadvantaged with regard to accessing education and staying in school, among those who did manage to complete their education, the distribution by highest level completed did not differ significantly from that of males. Young men showed a slightly higher tendency to complete the secondary or university level (18.6 per cent) but young women were not far behind at 14.4 per cent).

The largest gender gap by level was among urban youth, where 16.9 per cent of young men completed their education at the university level compared to only 9.0 per cent of young women.

Poverty has a significant impact on investment in education. School fees and associated costs influence the decision to keep children away from school. At the same time, the opportunity cost of sending children to school increases as they grow older and could, alternatively, earn money to help support the family. The SWTS results supported the premise that youth from poorer financial backgrounds are less educated compared to youth from financially well-off households. Two-thirds (63.8 per cent) of the youth from poor households attained no more than primary education (Annex table A.4). Only 6.7 per cent of youth in poor households and 12.2 per cent of youth from fairly poor households completed secondary school or university. The secondary level of education was the highest degree attained for one-third (33.4 per cent) of youth from well-off households, 16.3 per cent of youth from fairly well-off households and 14.4 per cent of youth from households with average income levels. Interestingly, young persons from average and fairly well-off backgrounds had higher levels of tertiary completion rates than their peers from well-off households.

3.2.3 Parents' educational attainment

The level of educational attainment of the parents of youth in Uganda was also low. The results on the education levels of the parents in table 3.5 did, however, show some signs of improvement across the generations. First, while 82.2 per cent of the parents of surveyed youth reportedly had at least some schooling, the share among youth was 95.8 per cent. While 11.7 per cent of fathers and 24.0 per cent of mothers had no education at all, the share among youth was significantly lower at 7.0 per cent. Second, there was a slight improvement in the completion rates of education at the higher levels. While 10.3 per cent of youth with completed education finished at the secondary level and 5.9 per cent at the tertiary level, the corresponding shares among their parents were 7.2 per cent at the secondary level and 4.6 per cent with completed university education. The largest gaps, showing progress for the current generation, were seen when comparing the levels of educational attainment of young females with those of their mothers.

Table 3.5 Educational attainment of parents of surveyed youth by area of residence (%)

Educational attainment	Father			Mother			Both parents		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
None	12.8	8.5	11.7	26.3	17.1	24.0	19.6	12.8	17.8
Less than primary	33.5	22.5	30.7	40.1	30.6	37.7	36.8	26.6	34.2
Primary	25.4	19.6	23.9	15.7	20.2	16.8	20.5	19.9	20.4
Secondary	7.7	16.8	10.0	3.2	7.8	4.4	5.4	12.3	7.2
University	4.8	12.7	6.8	1.0	6.6	2.4	2.9	9.6	4.6
Postgraduate studies	0.1	1.8	0.5	0.0	0.4	0.1	0.1	1.1	0.3
Do not know	15.7	18.1	16.3	13.6	17.2	14.6	14.7	17.7	15.5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Note: In the SWTS, youth were asked to report on their parents' education levels. The accuracy of their responses was not verified by the parents.
Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Table 3.6 shows the cross-tabulation of levels of education for youth and their parents, confirming some signs of progress although areas of concern remain. The likelihood that the youth with secondary level education surpassed the level of their father was 61.5 per cent and 86.1 per cent to surpass the level of their mother. Similar results

were seen for youth with university degrees. Among youth with lower levels of education, the fact that the young person with no education had a father with a higher level of education in 47.1 per cent of the cases was problematic. Similarly, one-third (37.3 per cent) of youth with less than primary education had a father who finished school at a higher level. Overall though, results were positive, with nearly three-quarters (73.4 per cent) of youth meeting or surpassing the education level of their father and 87.9 per cent meeting or surpassing the level of their mother.

Table 3.6 Level of completed education, youth and their parents (%)

Youth's level of education	Comparison with father			Comparison with mother		
	Same level as parent	Parent has lower level education	Parent has higher level education	Same level as parent	Parent has lower level education	Parent has higher level education
Never attended	52.9	0.0	47.1	57.3	0.0	42.7
Less than primary	44.3	18.4	37.3	46.0	40.1	13.9
Primary	30.8	48.3	20.8	24.2	68.4	7.3
Secondary	25.9	61.5	12.6	9.2	86.1	4.7
University and postgraduate	35.5	64.5	0.0	14.2	85.8	0.0
Total	37.9	34.5	27.6	34.2	53.7	12.0

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.2.4 Current students

Two in five (39.5 per cent) of surveyed youth were in school at the time of the survey. Nearly half (45.9 per cent) of current students wanted to continue their education while 44.1 per cent planned to look for a job after graduation (table 3.7). Some respondents (6.6 per cent) planned to start their own business. Only 0.6 per cent of current students planned to stay at home after graduation, which is interesting given the high shares of inactivity among the currently non-student youth, especially young women (see section 3.6). It would seem, therefore, that many of the youth who were staying at home had once dreamed of doing something else.

Table 3.7 Current students by expected plans after graduation, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Plan after graduation	Total	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Look for a job	44.1	43.2	45.2	43.6	45.7
Start own business	6.6	7.1	5.9	6.6	6.5
Stay at home	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.5
Immediately go for further education/training/apprenticeship	45.9	46.8	44.7	46.9	42.8
Other	2.8	2.3	3.4	2.2	4.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

The results in table 3.8 confirmed that young Ugandans place a great deal of value on their educational attainment. A majority of youth still in school expected to complete tertiary education (64.0 per cent) (table 3.8). Unfortunately, given the actual educational attainment of Ugandan youth at the time of the survey (table 3.4), it would seem that many youth will not be able to fulfill their ambitions.

Table 3.8 Current students by highest level of education expected to complete, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Level of education	Rural		Urban		Total
	Female	Male	Female	Male	
Uncompleted primary	1.4	1.6	1.4	2.2	1.6
Primary	3.7	4.1	2.0	1.3	3.3
Secondary	22.4	26.2	15.5	15.5	22.3
University	65.6	59.8	68.8	69.3	64.0
Postgraduate	0.7	2.6	8.1	5.9	3.1
Don't know	4.6	3.5	4.1	3.2	3.9
Other	1.6	2.3	0.0	2.6	1.8
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Table 3.9 Current students by preferred field of study, desired future occupation and place of work and sex (%)

Field of study, occupation and place of work	Total	Male	Female
<i>Preferred field of study</i>			
General programmes	32.0	30.9	33.2
Education	5.1	3.0	7.5
Humanities and arts	1.5	2.2	0.8
Social sciences, business and law	6.3	3.7	9.1
Science, mathematics and computing	1.8	1.3	2.4
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	1.3	2.1	0.3
Agriculture and veterinary medicine	0.8	1.3	0.4
Health and welfare	4.1	4.3	3.8
Services	1.2	0.8	1.6
Other	45.9	50.4	40.9
Total	100	100	100
<i>Desired occupation</i>			
Legislators, senior officials and managers	2.3	2.0	2.7
Professionals	56.8	53.6	60.9
Technicians and associate professionals	16.6	14.7	18.9
Clerks	1.5	1.5	1.6
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	4.9	3.5	6.7
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	1.3	1.5	0.9
Craft and related trade workers	9.7	13.9	4.6
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	2.2	3.7	0.3
Elementary occupations	3.7	4.3	2.9
Armed forces	1.0	1.3	0.6
Total	100	100	100
<i>Desired place of work</i>			
Own business/farm	22.8	26.1	18.6
Work for the Government/public sector	64.2	60.2	69.1
Work for a private company	10.0	11.3	8.4
Work for an international organization	2.1	1.6	2.7
Work for family business/farm	0.5	0.6	0.5
Do not wish to work	0.4	0.3	0.6
Total	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

The choice of the field of studies was diverse between the sexes (table 3.9). Most students, both women and men, were concentrating on their general programmes (30.9 per cent of male students and 33.2 per cent of female students), which was to be expected when so many continued to study at the secondary level or lower. Regarding more specialized fields, young women showed a higher tendency than males to prefer education (7.5 per cent), social sciences (9.1 per cent) and sciences and mathematics (2.4 per cent) while young men showed a slightly higher tendency than women to prefer humanities and arts (3.7 per cent), engineering (2.1 per cent) and agriculture (1.3 per cent).

The SWTS also asked students to identify where they hoped to find work in the future and in what occupations. The aim here was to use current circumstances to judge whether young students' expectations were realistic in terms of future possibilities for execution. Most students expressed an aspiration to work in higher skilled occupations, such as professionals (56.8 per cent) or technicians and associate professionals (table 3.9). Such preferences corresponded well with their intention to complete tertiary education but were at odds with the current capacity of the labour market. Statistics from the 2009 National Household Survey suggested that Uganda's labour market was not ready to absorb a large volume of high-skilled non-manual workers. In 2009, only 2.3 per cent of workers qualified as professionals and another 3.7 per cent as associate professionals (table 3.10). Rather, most workers in Uganda continued to be engaged in traditional, less skilled occupations, such as agricultural workers (60.4 per cent), sales workers (13.0 per cent) and elementary occupations⁵ (13.6 per cent). Only 1.3 per cent of students aspired to work in agriculture and 3.7 per cent in an elementary occupation, thus demonstrating an unfortunate gap between students' aspirations and likely outcomes.

Table 3.10 Employed population by occupation, 2005/06 and 2009/10 (%)

Occupation	2005/06	2009/10
Professionals	1.1	2.3
Associate professionals	3.4	3.7
Service workers and shop and market sales workers	10.5	13.0
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	67.4	60.4
Craft and related trade workers	4.7	4.8
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	2	1.4
Elementary occupations	9.7	13.6
Others	0.7	0.7
Not stated	0.6	0.2
Total	100	100

Source: UBOS, Uganda National Household Survey 2009/10, Abridged report, November 2010.

Finally, there were also worrying signs stemming from the expectations of students in terms of where they would work in the future. Table 3.9 shows that as many as 64.2 per cent of students hoped to gain work in the government/public sector. The high appeal of public sector employment among young people was understandable, given the desire for stable, well-paid employment, especially among those who had invested time and resources in their education, but it was not realistic given the sector's limited labour

⁵ The International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-88) describes elementary occupations as those "which require the knowledge and experience necessary to perform mostly simple and routine tasks, involving the use of hand-held tools and in some cases considerable physical effort, and, with few exceptions, only limited personal initiative or judgment. The main tasks consist of selling goods in streets, door-keeping and property watching, as well as cleaning, washing, pressing, and working as labourers in the fields of mining, agriculture and fishing, construction and manufacturing".

absorption capacity. Only 10.0 per cent of students hoped to work for a private company in future while approximately one-quarter (22.8 per cent) wanted to set up their own enterprise.

3.3 Activity status of surveyed youth

The traditional classification of current economic activity status has three categories: employed, unemployed or inactive. The employed and unemployed are added together to form the total labour force (also known as the economically active population). Unemployment according to international standards is defined as the situation of a person who: (a) did not work in the reference period, (b) was available to take up a job had one been offered in the week prior to the reference period, and (c) actively sought work within the 30 days prior to the reference period (for example, by registering at an employment centre or answering a job advertisement) (ILO, 2013, p. 39; see also Annex I on definitions). The definition of “relaxed unemployment” (also known as broad unemployment), in contrast, differs in the relaxation of the “seeking work” criterion. According to the international standards, the seeking work criterion may be relaxed “in situations where the conventional means of seeking work are of limited relevance, where the labour market is largely unorganized or of limited scope, where labour absorption is, at the time, inadequate or where the labour force is largely self-employed” (ILO, 2013, pp. 39–40). As this describes the situation in Uganda well, the relaxed definition is preferred in much of this report’s analysis.

When using the strict definition of unemployment, the survey results showed that 63.1 per cent of youth were employed and 3.3 per cent were unemployed for a total labour force participation rate of 66.4 per cent (table 3.11). Young men in Uganda were somewhat more economically active, with 65.2 per cent of them employed and 2.9 per cent unemployed, than young women (61.1 per cent employed, 3.7 per cent unemployed). Finally, one-third (33.6 per cent) of the youth population was economically inactive, with a higher share among young women (35.2 per cent).

Table 3.11 Youth population by main economic activity, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Economic activity	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Strict framework									
Employed	63.1	65.2	61.1	56.4	63.2	50.6	65.4	65.9	64.9
Unemployed (strict)	3.3	2.9	3.7	4.7	2.8	6.3	2.8	2.9	2.7
Inactive (strict)	33.6	31.9	35.2	38.9	34.0	43.1	31.8	31.2	32.4
Total youth population	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Employed	63.1	65.2	61.1	56.4	63.2	50.6	65.4	65.9	64.9
Relaxed framework									
Employed	63.1	65.2	61.1	56.4	63.2	50.6	65.4	65.9	64.9
Unemployed	9.7	6.2	12.9	13.5	6.2	19.7	8.4	6.3	10.4
Inactive	27.2	28.5	26.0	30.1	30.6	29.7	26.2	27.9	24.7
Total youth population	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

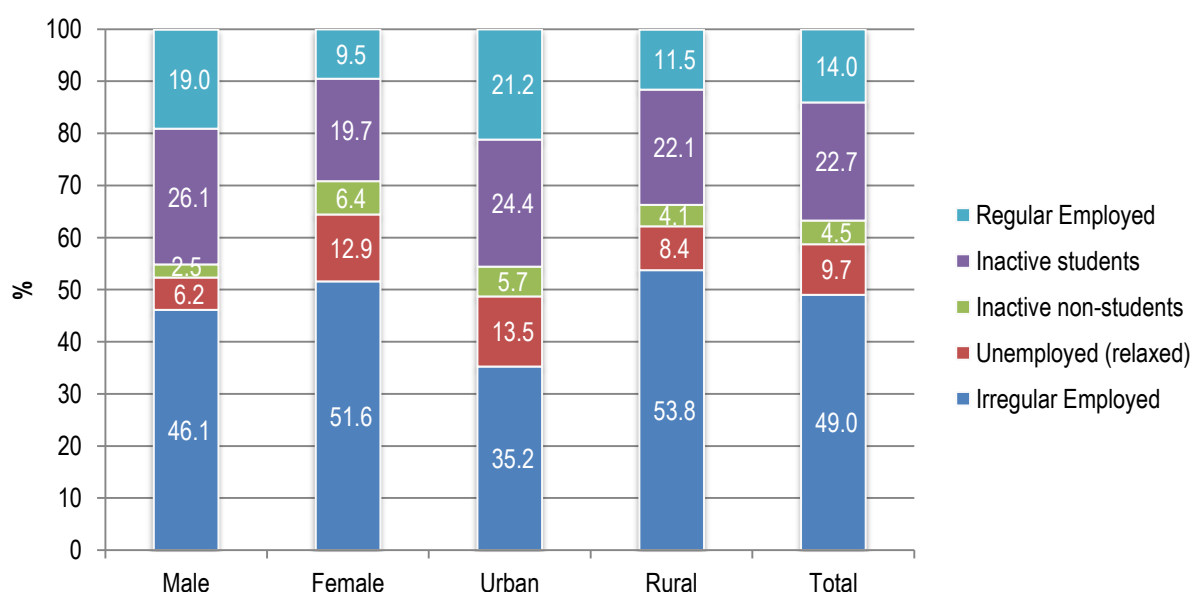
Relaxing the definition of unemployment altered the picture to an extent: the gap in unemployment rates between young females and males was three times larger than the gender gap based on the strict definition of unemployment, implying that it was mostly young women who were available to work but not actively seeking work. At the national

level, the “relaxed” unemployment share was 9.7 per cent (in comparison to the share of only 3.3 per cent when applying the strict definition).

In the ILO’s *Global Employment Trends for Youth 2013*, the argument is made that comparing traditional labour market indicators with a more detailed disaggregation of indicators made available through the SWTS produces a more in-depth picture of the challenges that youth face in developing economies (ILO, 2013, Chapter 4). The SWTS framework proposes a distribution of the youth population in the following five categories: (a) regular employment, defined as wage and salaried workers holding a contract of duration greater than 12 months, plus self-employed youth with employees (employers); (b) irregular employment, defined as wage and salaried workers holding a contract of limited duration, i.e. set to terminate within 12 months, self-employed youth with no employees (own-account workers) and contributing family workers; (c) unemployed (relaxed definition), defined as persons currently without work and available to take up work in the week prior to the reference period; (d) inactive non-students; and (e) inactive students.

Figure 3.3 shows the results for Uganda. A mere 14.0 per cent of Ugandan youth are in regular employment, while 22.7 per cent are inactive students, hopefully increasing their skills and knowledge for better employment prospects in the future. Results for the remaining categories are less positive: almost half (49.0 per cent) of youth are engaged in irregular employment, 9.7 per cent are unemployed (relaxed definition) and 4.5 per cent are neither in the labour force nor in education or training (inactive non-students).

Figure 3.3 Distribution of youth population according to the SWTS framework



Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

The results suggested that, instead of an unutilized labour potential of 3.3 per cent (the rate of unemployed based on the strict definition), policy-makers should be concerned about as many as 63.2 per cent of youth, who can be considered as falling within the category of underutilized labour. The labour underutilization rate is calculated as the sum of the shares of youth in irregular employment, unemployed (relaxed definition) and the inactive non-students. The labour underutilization rate was higher among female youth (70.9 per cent) than male youth (54.8 per cent). Two-thirds (66.3 per cent) of rural youth and over half (54.4 per cent) of urban youth were not realizing their economic potential to the full. In particular, regional disparity in regular/irregular employment was prominent. Rural youth are more likely to be engaged in irregular employment than urban youth (53.8

and 35.2 per cent, respectively), and less likely to have a regular salaried job (11.5 and 21.2 per cent, respectively). The gender disparity in regular employment and unemployment (relaxed definition) was also significant. Male youth were much more likely to be working in regular employment than female youth (19.0 and 9.5 per cent, respectively). Additionally, female youth were more likely to be unemployed than male youth (12.9 and 6.2 per cent, respectively).

Table 3.12 Youth population by current activity status and completed educational attainment (%)

Educational attainment	Employed	Unemployed (relaxed definition)	Inactive	Total
Never attended	68.8	18.5	12.7	100
Uncompleted primary	81.0	11.6	7.4	100
Primary	81.1	11.9	7.0	100
Secondary	75.0	16.9	8.1	100
University	85.4	10.8	3.8	100
Other	81.0	11.6	7.4	100
Total	79.8	12.7	7.5	100

Note: Only youth with completed education were covered (excluding students).

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

The level of education had an impact on the current activity status of youth. Although, across all the levels of educational attainment, a majority of young Ugandans were working, young persons with tertiary education were those most likely to be in employment and significantly less likely to be unemployed: 85.4 per cent were employed, 10.8 per cent unemployed and only 3.8 per cent inactive. The share of unemployed and inactive youth was highest among those who never attended school (18.5 and 12.7 per cent, respectively) (table 3.12). The second highest unemployment and inactivity shares were observed among secondary school graduates.

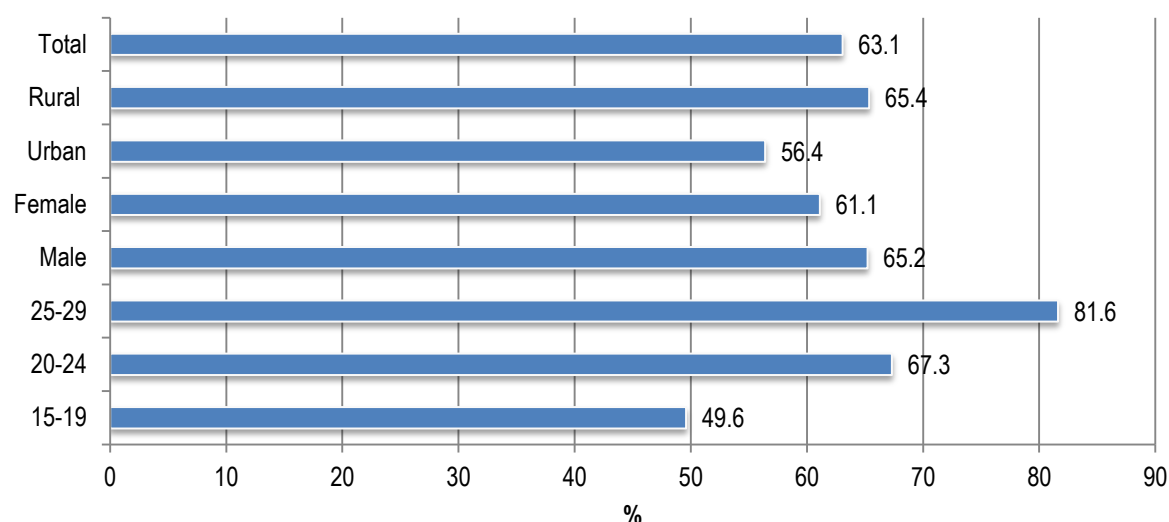
3.4 Characteristics of employed youth

3.4.1 General characteristics of the employed

The “employed” comprise all persons surveyed who worked for pay, profit or family gain for at least one hour in the reference week plus the number of persons who were temporarily absent from their jobs (see Annex I for more detailed definitions). By current activity status, 65.2 per cent of young men and 61.1 per cent of young women were employed (figure 3.4). A variety of factors can account for this gender gap, including access to education and socio-cultural barriers to women’s employment.

Ugandans aged 25–29 had the highest employment to population ratio at 81.6 per cent. Persons in this age group were more likely to have completed school and acquired some work experience, which made them more employable. However, SWTS results showed that 49.6 per cent of adolescents between the ages of 15 and 19 were also working. Having to stop their education and start working to support family at such an early age greatly reduces these young people’s chances of finding stable well-paid jobs in the future.

Figure 3.4 Youth employment-to-population ratio by area of residence, sex and age group



Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.4.2 Status in employment

The categorization of status in employment is important because the different groups of workers face different economic risks. Wage and salaried workers, or employees, are attached to an institution and generally receive a regular wage (although persons on daily wages would also be included in this category). They face relatively low economic risks compared to the self-employed and unpaid family workers. In general, a country with a high proportion of wage and salaried workers is likely to have a strong formal economy with effective labour market institutions (Elder and Koné, 2014). The self-employed, whether own-account workers or employers, face relatively higher economic risks since their remuneration is dependent on the number of units sold or services rendered. Their incomes are subject to fluctuations and they do not have access to the entitlements made available to some wage and salaried workers. In most developing economies the majority of self-employed workers operate in the informal sector.

Table 3.13 shows that almost three-quarters of employed youth in Uganda were self-employed (74.7 per cent), 50.5 per cent as own-account workers, 21.4 per cent as contributing (unpaid) family workers, 2.6 per cent as employers and 0.2 per cent as members of a producers' cooperative. The remaining one-quarter of employed youth were wage and salaried workers (24.6 per cent). Own-account workers and contributing family workers together make up a category of "vulnerable employment". These are the workers who face high levels of job insecurity and who do not have access to safety nets to cover them during periods when they are unable to work due to sickness or disability. Nearly three in four young workers in Uganda were classified as "vulnerable" (71.9 per cent), with young women in rural areas much more likely to be engaged in vulnerable employment than young men in rural areas (84.6 and 67.5 per cent, respectively) or any other group.

Table 3.13 Young workers by status in employment, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Employment status	Rural			Urban			Total
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	
Wage and salaried workers (employees)	12.8	28.8	20.6	30.1	45.7	38.1	24.6
Self-employed with employees (employers)	1.6	3.2	2.4	2.2	4.2	3.3	2.6
Self-employed without employees (own-account worker)	60.0	47.5	53.9	47.1	31.7	39.2	50.5
Member of a producers' cooperative	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Contributing family workers	24.6	20.0	22.4	19.9	16.5	18.2	21.4
Not classifiable by status	0.7	0.2	0.4	0.7	1.9	1.3	0.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

The results showed that sex and area of residence were strongly related to status in employment. Female youth in rural areas were likely to be in the more vulnerable categories of employment as own-account workers or contributing family workers (60.0 and 24.6 per cent, respectively). Young men in urban areas, on the other hand, were more likely to work in paid employment (45.7 per cent). This group of youth was less likely to work as own-account workers or contributing family workers (31.7 and 16.5 per cent, respectively).

Table 3.14 shows the distribution of workers according to their status in employment and level of completed education. According to SWTS results, having higher levels of education did to some extent protect young people from ending up in vulnerable employment; only one in ten own-account and contributing family workers had completed secondary school or higher level education, compared to more than three in ten wage and salaried workers. Nonetheless, the proportion of undereducated youth was still high among those in wage employment – two-thirds (65.9 per cent) had primary education or less. The high number of undereducated youth even among the wage employees was representative of the fact that most working youth were engaged in agricultural activities in Uganda.

Table 3.14 Young workers by status in employment and level of education (%)

Level completed	Wage and salaried workers	Own-account workers and employers	Contributing family workers
None	40.9	51.5	65.0
Primary	25.0	37.2	23.6
Secondary	16.0	7.5	5.9
University and postgraduates	17.3	2.1	2.4
Not stated	0.9	1.7	3.0

Note: Only youth with completed education were covered (excluding students).

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.4.3 Wage and salaried workers (employees)

Youth in paid employment in Uganda were mainly male (65.6 per cent). Almost two-thirds of wage workers resided in rural areas (64.4 per cent). Only about one in five young salaried workers had a written contract (21.1 per cent) (table 3.15). The remaining 78.9 per cent were engaged on the basis of oral contracts, affecting as many as four in five wage workers in rural areas (84.2 per cent). Young men were slightly less likely than women to have a written contract. A vast majority of urban workers benefited from contracts without limit of time (unlimited contracts) (82.5 per cent) while, among those with limited

contracts, more than half had contracts of less than 12 months' duration (54.1 per cent). While two-thirds (69.5 per cent) of rural workers also benefited from unlimited duration contracts, nearly all of those with limited duration contracts had contracts of less than one year's duration (84.8 per cent).

Table 3.15 Young wage and salaried workers by contract situation (%)

	Total	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
% of wage and salaried workers	100.0	65.6	34.4	64.4	35.6
Type of employment agreement					
Written contract	21.1	18.8	25.4	15.8	30.8
Oral contract	78.9	81.2	74.6	84.2	69.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Nature of contract					
Unlimited duration	74.2	73.1	76.0	69.5	82.5
Limited duration	25.8	26.9	24.0	30.5	17.5
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Duration of contract					
Less than 12 months	77.0	79.7	71.1	84.8	54.1
12 months to less than 36 months	14.9	13.1	18.9	7.2	37.7
36 months or more	8.1	7.2	10.0	8.0	8.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

On the whole, paid employment in agriculture carried a higher risk than in other sectors. Most workers in this sector did not have a written contract (95.5 per cent, compared to 85.0 per cent of workers in industry and 65.3 per cent in the services sector; Annex table A.5) and many temporary jobs lasted for less than 12 months. The services sector, on the other hand, tended to offer more written contracts and more contracts of unlimited duration or lasting for longer than a year. It is little surprise, therefore, that the majority of young students hoped to work as professionals in the future, presumably in services.

Young employees in Uganda were rarely covered by entitlements. Table 3.16 shows that only one in ten (11.8 per cent) young workers was entitled to paid annual leave and 19.9 per cent to paid sick leave. Even fewer young employees were covered by medical insurance (8.6 per cent) or by social security (7.7 per cent) or pensions (6.0 per cent). More wage workers in urban areas enjoyed coverage of entitlements than wage workers in rural areas: around twice as many urban wage workers received transport allowances, paid annual leave, sick leave, maternity/paternity leave and overtime payments. More than three times as many wage workers in cities as in rural areas had social security and occupational safety coverage. The lack of benefits meant that the majority of young workers experienced radical fluctuations in their daily or monthly incomes if they were unable to work due to an illness or had to take time off work to care for an ill family member. At the same time, if they lost their job, very few young workers had the protection offered by severance pay or social security.

Table 3.16 Young wage and salaried workers by access to entitlements, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Entitlement	Total	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Transport allowance	14.7	17.6	9.2	11.2	21.1
Meal allowance	47.2	45.9	49.7	47.5	46.7
Annual paid leave	11.8	10.9	13.5	9.2	16.6
Paid sick leave	19.9	18.7	22.3	14.9	28.9
Pension	6.0	5.8	6.4	5.9	6.1
Severance payment	6.5	7.8	3.9	5.6	8.0
Overtime payments	11.9	12.7	10.2	8.3	18.3
Medical insurance	8.6	8.7	8.4	7.8	10.0
Bonus	16.7	16.7	16.8	15.5	18.9
Social security	7.7	9.0	5.2	4.2	13.9
Educational and training courses	10.6	10.2	11.3	9.3	12.9
Occupation safety	11.8	13.7	8.0	7.6	19.3
Childcare facilities	4.3	3.4	5.9	4.3	4.1
Maternity/paternity leave	15.2	12.9	19.7	12.0	20.9
Average	13.8	13.9	13.6	11.7	17.5

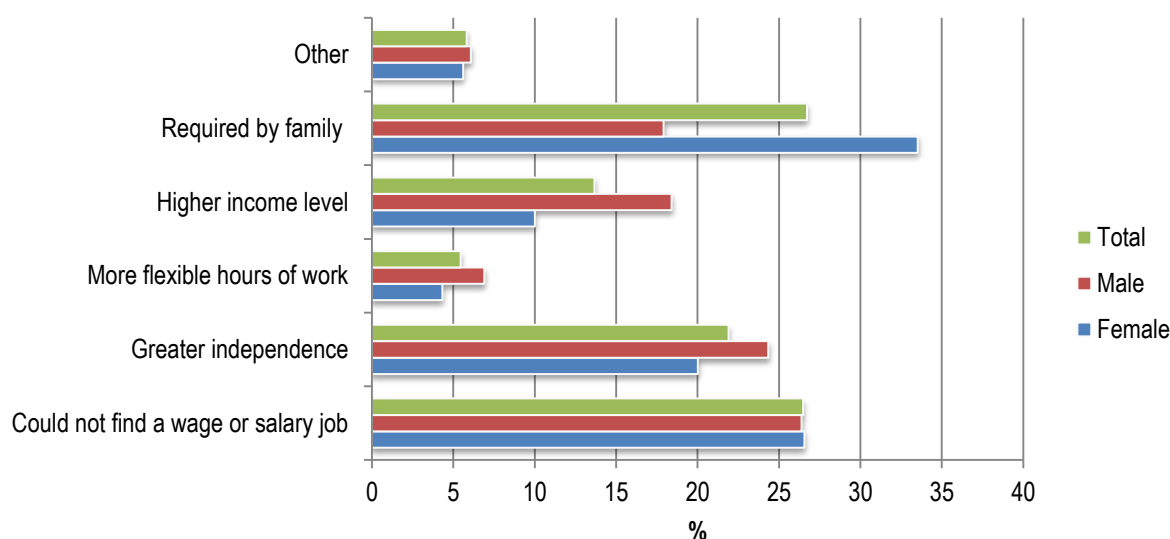
Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.4.4 Self-employed youth

A lack of formal jobs and a large informal economy left self-employment as the only option for many young Ugandans. Three-quarters (74.7 per cent) of Ugandan employed youth were engaged in some form of self-employment (50.5 per cent own-account workers, 21.4 per cent contributing family workers, 2.6 per cent employers and 0.2 per cent members of producers' cooperatives, see table 3.13).

One-quarter (26.5 per cent) of the young employers and own-account workers surveyed took up self-employment because they could not find paid employment, thus implying that self-employment was considered a second-best option by many youth (figure 3.5). Over a quarter (26.7 per cent) took up self-employment in compliance with their family's request or expectations. One in five (21.9 per cent) self-employed youth opted for self-employment as it offered greater independence, and one in ten (13.7 per cent) chose the status as it offered the possibility of earning a higher income. A higher share of young women chose self-employment following the wishes of their family (33.5 per cent) than young men (17.9 per cent). The latter were more likely to have more positive reasons for choosing self-employment, such as higher income, greater independence and flexible hours.

Figure 3.5 Self-employed youth by reason and sex



Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Almost two in five (38.6 per cent) young employers and own-account workers claimed that no financing was needed to start their own business, an indication of the low level of production of the enterprises (table 3.17). An example would be a young person selling fruits on the street picked from their back garden. One-third (33.9 per cent) relied on their own savings, while another 22.8 per cent borrowed money from family and friends. Very few self-employed youth used any financial services from more formal institutions, such as microfinance institutions, banks, informal financial operators or NGOs. This suggested either a lack of awareness of financial services among youth in Uganda or restrictive policies that made financial instruments unavailable to youth. At the same time, almost one-quarter (23.2 per cent) of the young self-employed claimed insufficient financial resources as their main constraint to doing business (Annex table A.6). Measures aimed at improving the provision of financial services to young people are likely to stimulate labour demand and generate new employment opportunities for youth.

Table 3.17 Self-employed youth by sources of start-up financing, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Source of funding	Rural		Urban		Total
	Female	Male	Female	Male	
No money needed	43.6	37.9	30.0	23.3	38.6
Own savings	27.1	41.3	24.5	52.3	33.9
Money from family or friends	24.3	16.7	37.5	22.3	22.8
Loan from microfinance institutions (including cooperative)	0.2	0.4	2.0	0.0	0.4
Loan from bank	0.5	0.2	0.9	2.1	0.5
Loan from an informal financial operator (money lender, savings)	1.0	1.2	0.8	0.0	1.0
Loan/assistance from NGO, donor project	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Remittances from abroad	0.1	0.6	1.1	0.0	0.4
Other	2.6	1.8	3.1	0.0	2.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.4.5 Sector and occupations of young workers

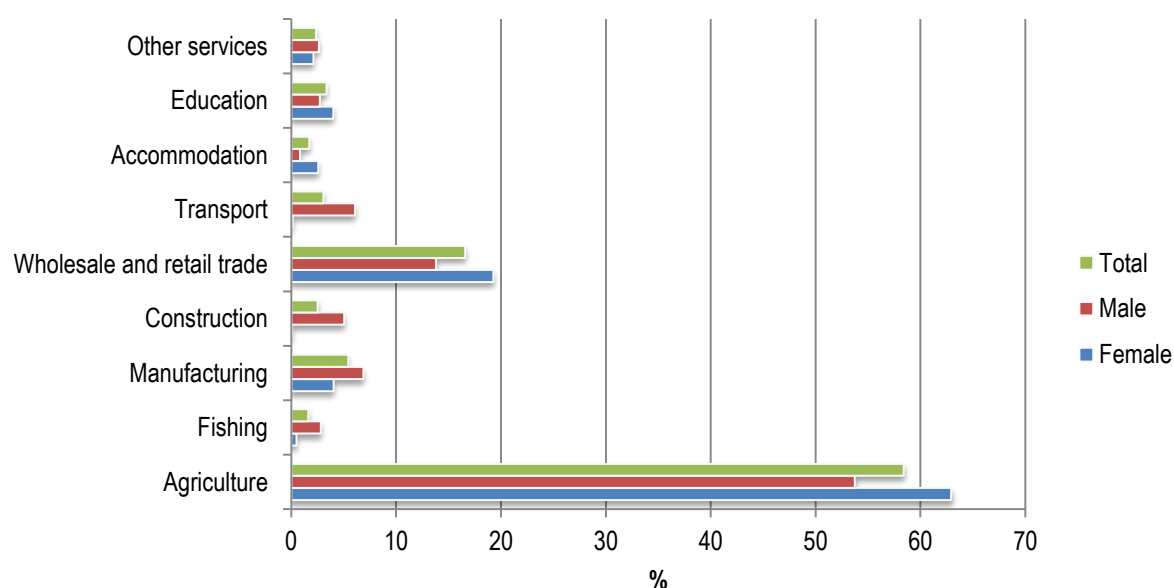
The biggest contributor to Uganda's national output over the past two decades has been the services sector, followed by industry (table. 3.18). A quarter of the country's GDP (25.9 per cent) in 2012 came from the agricultural sector. The distribution of employment in Uganda, however, showed a different picture. Agriculture, although the smallest contributor to GDP, absorbed the largest proportion of Uganda's young workers (58.4 per cent), followed by trade activities (16.6 per cent) (figure 3.6). A somewhat larger share of young female workers was engaged in these two sectors (62.9 and 19.3 per cent, respectively). While primarily involved in agriculture and trade (53.7 and 13.8 per cent, respectively), young men, unlike women, were also found in other labour-intensive sectors, such as manufacturing, transportation and construction (6.9, 6.1 and 5.1 per cent, respectively).

Table 3.18 Structure of output (value added % of GDP), 1992, 2002 and 2011–12

% of GDP	1992	2002	2011	2012
Agriculture	51.1	24.9	24.7	25.9
Industry	13.2	24.4	27.5	28.6
- of which manufacturing	6.2	7.8	9.4	9.1
Services	35.7	50.7	47.8	45.5

Source: The World Bank, "Uganda Overview", on webpage: <http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/uganda/overview>.

Figure 3.6 Youth employment by sector and sex



Note: Only sectors amounting to more than 1.5 per cent of the total employment are shown.
Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Occupations are closely linked to sectors of employment. The dominance of the agriculture sector was also evident in the distribution of young workers by occupation, with over half (52.3 per cent) of young people working as skilled agricultural and fishery workers (table 3.19). Service workers, shop and market sales workers accounted for 19.1 per cent of occupations. While in rural areas three in five young persons (59.6 per cent) worked as skilled agricultural and fishery workers, in urban areas one-third of employed youth (33.9 per cent) were service workers, shop and market sales workers. The proportion

of youth who worked as professionals, managers or technicians (higher skilled posts) was larger in urban than in rural areas (9.2 and 4.2 per cent, respectively).

Table 3.19 Employed youth by occupation, according to area of residence and sex (%)

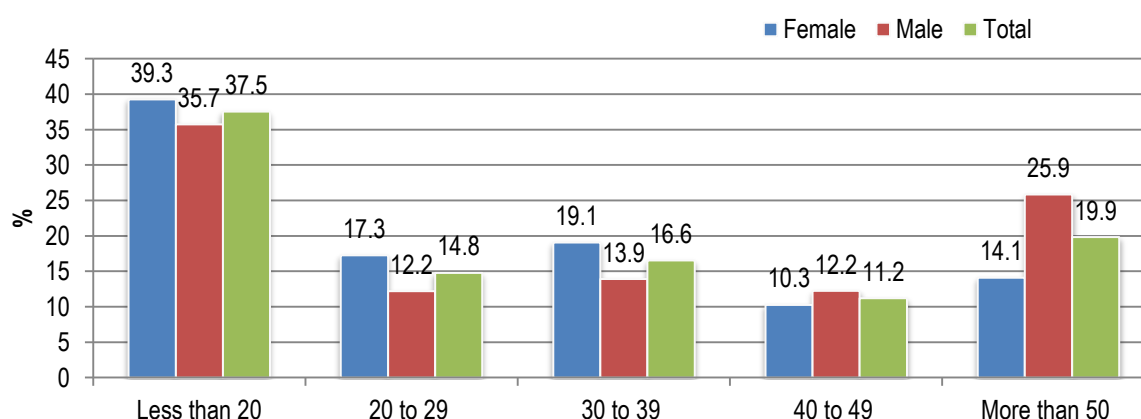
Occupation (ISCO-08)	Total	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
Legislators, senior officials and managers	0.7	1.1	0.2	0.3	2.0
Professionals	3.3	2.8	3.9	3.1	4.2
Technicians and associate professionals	1.3	1.4	1.2	0.8	3.0
Clerks	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.0	1.0
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	19.1	13.9	24.1	14.6	33.9
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	52.3	46.7	57.8	59.6	28.0
Craft and related trade workers	7.5	11.6	3.6	6.0	12.4
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	3.0	5.9	0.3	2.5	4.8
Elementary occupations	12.3	16.3	8.4	12.9	10.4
Armed forces	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.4.6 Hours of work

Short working time among youth in Uganda was another area of concern. Many young people worked short hours despite their desire to work more. Over one-third (37.5 per cent) of employed youth worked less than 20 hours during the reference week, and more than half (52.3 per cent) worked part time, or less than 30 hours per week (figure 3.7). The short working hours reflected the lack of regular jobs and the precariousness of the occasional young worker in the country. Short working hours can be positive when voluntary, offering young students the opportunity to earn while studying, or allowing young parents the option of combining work with childcare and household chores. However, what is more likely in Uganda is that the short hours were all that was available to many young workers. Over one-quarter (25.9 per cent) of young people were in part-time work involuntarily and said they were willing and available to work more hours (not shown in the figure).

Figure 3.7 Employed youth by actual hours worked per week



Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.4.7 Wages

Wages are an important indicator of economic well-being. For young workers, the average monthly wages tended to vary according to sex, area of residence and level of educational attainment. A significant gender wage gap was confirmed in the results shown in table 3.20. A young male employee at the time of the survey earned 172,266 Ugandan shillings (UGX) per month compared to UGX 132,457 for a young female employee.⁶ The level of education and qualifications are an indicator to employers of the productive potential of prospective employees. As such, employees with higher levels of education should earn higher salaries and vice versa. In Uganda, the young surveyed employees who had never been to school received an average of UGX 79,701 per month compared to the young employees with secondary and university education who earned, on average, UGX 131,079 and UGX 295,373 per month, respectively.

At the time of the survey, on average, self-employed youth earned only UGX 30,078 per month, which is far below the earning average of the wage and salaried youth of UGX 158,163. The female self-employed youth earned much less than the young male (UGX 16,921 per month for young women and UGX 48,336 for young men).

Table 3.20 Average monthly wages of young workers (wage and salaried workers and self-employed workers) by sex, area of residence and level of completed education (in Ugandan shillings)

		Wage and salaried workers		Own-account workers and employers		All	
		Average monthly wage	S.D.	Average monthly wage	S.D.	Average monthly wage	S.D.
Total		158,163	145	30,078	103	68,463	90
Sex	Female	132,457	134	16,921	173	41,784	115
	Male	172,266	162	48,336	127	96,359	135
Area of residence	Rural	155,431	157	20,885	102	53,379	95
	Urban	162,782	149	72,205	335	116,912	215
Level of education	Never attended	79,701	101	-25,275	300	-507	272
	Less than primary	128,142	136	11,203	134	39,754	123
	Primary	138,514	104	52,686	222	73,232	182
	Secondary	131,079	83	86,421	435	111,591	255
	Tertiary	295,373	215	295,224	1,748	295,324	524

Notes: SD = standard deviation. One-third of own-account workers reported to have a negative income. It is likely that the survey caught them during a season when farmers were not selling their products and therefore incurred more expenses than income.

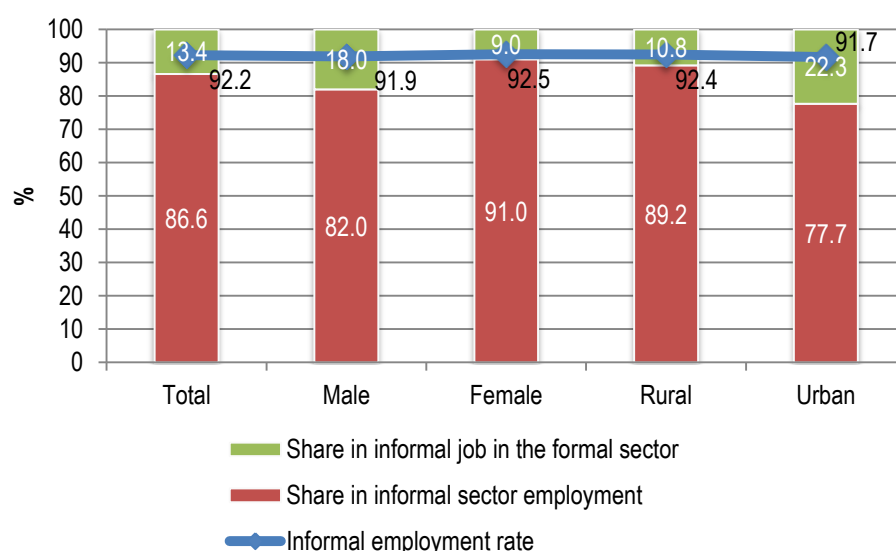
Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

⁶ The UN operational exchange rate on 1 March 2013 (at the mid-point of the survey fieldwork) was US\$1 = UGX 2,665. The average wage of a young employee in Uganda was therefore the equivalent of US\$59.35 per month and the average wage of a young own-account worker US\$11.29. The university graduate working in paid employment earned the equivalent of US\$110.83 per month. The minimum wage for Uganda, set in 1984, is currently UGX 6,000 per month, which results from table 3.20 would seem to confirm is no longer valid. Plans are under way to revise the minimum wage by mid-2015, with unions pushing for a minimum of at least UGX 250,000 per month – well above the average wage results of young workers shown here.

3.4.8 Informal employment

Informal employment⁷ was revealed as the standard condition among young workers in Uganda. Nine in ten (92.2 per cent) young workers in Uganda were engaged in informal employment (figure 3.8). Informal employment is made up of two sub-categories: workers in the informal (unregistered) sector and paid employees holding informal jobs in the formal sector. Workers in the latter category do earn a salary but do not receive the other benefits, such as social security contributions or paid annual or sick leave, that would normally be associated with a formal job. Among Ugandan youth in informal employment, many more fell within the category of informal sector employment (86.6 per cent) than in the category of informal job in the formal sector (13.4 per cent). Young women in Uganda had a slightly higher chance of working in the informal sector than young men (91.0 and 82.0 per cent, respectively) and were more likely than young men to fall into the sub-category of employment in an informal job in the formal sector. The share of informal employment among youth was slightly higher in rural than in urban areas and the composition differed as well, with the share of youth in informal jobs in the formal sector (within total informal employment) in urban areas twice that of rural areas (22.3 and 10.8 per cent, respectively).

Figure 3.8 Youth informal employment rate and sub-categories of informal employment



Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

⁷ 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: (a) paid employees in “informal jobs”, i.e. jobs without a social security entitlement, paid annual leave or paid sick leave; (b) paid employees in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; (c) own-account workers in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; (d) employers in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; and (e) contributing family workers. Sub-categories (b) to (d) are used in the calculation of “employment in the informal sector”, sub-category (a) applies to “informal job in the formal sector” and sub-category (e) can fall within either grouping, dependent on the registration status of the enterprise that engages the contributing family worker.

3.4.9 Qualifications mismatch

One means of measuring the mismatch between the job that a person does and their level of educational qualification is to apply the normative measure of occupational skills categories from the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO). ISCO-08 includes the following categorization of major occupational groups (first-digit ISCO levels) by level of education in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). Table 3.21 reproduces the norms of the ISCO-based educational classification.

Table 3.21 ISCO major groups and education levels

ISCO major group	Broad occupation group	Education level
Legislators, senior officials and managers		
Professionals	High-skilled non-manual	Tertiary (ISCED 5-6)
Technicians and associate professionals		
Clerical support workers	Low-skilled non-manual	
Service and sales workers		
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers		Secondary (ISCED 3-4)
Craft and related trades workers	Skilled manual	
Plant and machine operators and assemblers		
Elementary occupations	Unskilled	Primary (ISCED 1-2)

Source: ILO, 2013, table 3

Workers in a particular group who have the assigned level of education are considered well-matched. Those who have a higher (lower) level of education are considered over- (under-) educated. For example, a university graduate working as a clerk (a low-skilled non-manual occupation) is overeducated, while someone whose highest education level is secondary school but who is working as an engineer (a high-skilled non-manual occupation) is undereducated.

The SWTS results for Ugandan youth showed that by far the biggest challenge was the undereducation of young workers: 74.2 per cent of young workers were undereducated, while only 3.4 per cent were overeducated (table 3.22). Only one in five (22.4 per cent) were well-matched in terms of qualifications for their job. The results were, in part, a reflection of the low levels of education attained by youth in the country. With a substantial share of employed youth completing their education below the secondary level, it was not overly surprising to find more youth classified as undereducated than overeducated.

Table 3.22 also shows the degree of education mismatch by specific occupation. The level of education among the youth was so low that even workers in low-skilled non-manual jobs or skilled manual jobs were undereducated. Nine in ten (93.0 per cent) young persons working as skilled agricultural and fishery workers were undereducated. Even those working in the types of job that only required primary education were undereducated (8.3 per cent of youth in elementary occupations) because of the presence of youth with no education at all.

Undereducation has an impact on the productivity of the worker, as well as on their levels of confidence and well-being. One way of addressing the qualifications mismatch to make sure that young workers have the necessary skills to undertake available jobs most effectively is to offer on-the-job training. A trained worker has the possibility of being

more efficient, effective and better motivated at work than an untrained (and hence insecure) worker.

Table 3.22 Shares of overeducated and undereducated young workers by major occupational category (ISCO-08)

Major occupational category (ISCO-08)	Overeducated	Undereducated	Matching qualifications
1: Legislators, senior officials, managers	–	67.3	32.7
2: Professionals	–	26.3	73.7
3: Technicians and associate professionals	–	47.6	52.4
4: Clerks	77.8	22.2	–
5: Service workers, shop, market sales workers	4.7	77.9	17.3
6: Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	1.1	93.0	5.9
7: Craft and related trades workers	9.4	81.9	8.8
8: Plant and machine operators and assemblers	1.3	85.8	12.9
9: Elementary occupations	7.2	8.3	84.5
10: Armed forces	–	100.0	–
Total	3.4	74.2	22.4

Notes: – = Insignificant. Total employed excludes those whose education levels are unknown.

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.4.10 Security and satisfaction

Despite the numerous signs of poor-quality employment seen above, a majority of the young people in Uganda expressed satisfaction with their work (including paid and self-employment) (65.1 per cent). The seeming contradiction of a young person working in a job that might bring little in terms of monetary reward, stability or other benefits claiming job satisfaction is a likely reflection of the ability of youth to adapt to reality in places where few “good” jobs exist (ILO, 2013, Chapter 4). In the context of a labour market with few stable jobs, simply having a job at all may outweigh issues of poor job quality.

The issue of job satisfaction can be further tested in the SWTS question of whether or not working youth would like to change jobs. In Uganda, as many as 63.6 per cent of young workers said they would like to change their job. The two most common reasons for wanting to change employment were unsatisfactory pay (49.0 per cent) and the desire for better working conditions (26.6 per cent) (table 3.23). Another 5.4 per cent wanted to change their jobs because the present job was temporary and 3.9 per cent to make better use of their qualifications.

Table 3.23 Main reason for wanting to change current employment by sex (%)

Reason for change	Total	Male	Female
Present job is temporary	5.4	5.8	4.9
Fear of losing current job	0.7	0.6	0.7
To work more hours at current rate	0.4	0.5	0.4
To have a higher rate of pay per hour	49.0	50.1	47.9
To work fewer hours with a reduction in pay	0.6	0.6	0.5
To make better use of qualifications/skills	3.9	4.0	3.9
To have more convenient working time, shorter commuting time	1.6	1.8	1.4
To improve working conditions	26.6	25.2	27.9
Other	11.9	11.5	12.4
Total	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.5 Characteristics of unemployed youth

Table 3.24 provides the youth unemployment rate in Uganda according to the strict and relaxed definition. As explained in section 3.3, using the strict definition of unemployment in a country like Uganda, where many persons without work wait for news of potential work rather than actively seeking employment, can undervalue the scale of joblessness in the country. The relaxed unemployment rate for youth amounts to almost triple the rate established by using the strict definition (13.3 per cent compared to 5.0 per cent). Thus, when the relaxed definition is used, the numerical importance of unemployment increases significantly. All subsequent figures in this section refer to relaxed unemployment, unless otherwise stated.

Young women in Uganda had a harder time finding employment than young men. The female unemployment rate was double the rate of male youth unemployment (17.4 and 8.7 per cent, respectively) (table 3.24). Youth in urban areas had a significantly higher unemployment rate than rural youth (19.3 and 11.4 per cent, respectively).

Table 3.24 Youth unemployment rate and share of unemployed youth by unemployment duration, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Rate and share	Total	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Youth unemployment rate (relaxed definition)	13.3	8.7	17.4	19.3	11.4
Youth unemployment rate (strict definition)	5.0	4.2	5.7	7.6	4.1
Share of total unemployed (relaxed) by duration					
Less than 3 months	22.4	24.4	21.2	26.5	19.6
3 months to less than 6 months	13.3	20.2	9.2	16.2	11.3
6 months to less than 1 year	14.8	5.2	20.4	19.3	11.8
1 year to less than 2 years	19.6	22.5	17.8	18.5	20.3
2 years or more	30.1	27.8	31.4	19.5	37.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Discouraged workers are defined as those who are not working and who have expressed a desire to work but do not seek work for reasons implying that they feel that undertaking a job search would be a futile effort. Slightly below one-third (31.5 per cent) of the difference between the total of unemployed youth under the relaxed definition and the total under the strict definition was made up of discouraged youth (7.5 per cent of the unemployed under the relaxed definition were discouraged). A little less than half of discouraged youth said they did not seek work because there were no jobs available in the area (44.2 per cent). One in five discouraged youth said they did not know where to look for work (19.6 per cent). Another one in five discouraged youth said they were unable to find work that matched their skills (19.7 per cent). Finally, 13.5 per cent said they looked for jobs but did not find any and the remaining 3.1 per cent said they were too young to work.

A young person in Uganda may be unemployed for a very long time. The share of unemployed with duration of unemployment greater than one year (long-term unemployment) was 49.7 per cent (table 3.24). While the share of unemployment was higher in urban areas than rural areas, in rural areas there was a higher tendency towards long-term unemployment. The share of youth unemployed for one year or longer was 57.4 per cent in rural areas compared to 38.0 per cent in urban areas, an indication of the higher job turnover in the latter. Persistent and high youth unemployment may have adverse long-term consequences, such as a greater risk of future unemployment, a prolonged period of unstable jobs and potentially depressed income growth (ILO, 2010). At the same time, the longer the unemployment spells, the more likely prospective employers are to have

negative perceptions of the young jobseeker concerned, whom they start to see as unemployable.

Among the unemployed youth that engaged in an active job search, the most popular method of seeking work was asking friends, relatives and acquaintances (42.4 per cent) (table 3.25). One-quarter (25.5 per cent) of the youth inquired directly at factories, farms, markets, shops or other workplaces. Only a very small proportion of the unemployed youth registered at an employment centre (0.7 per cent), suggesting the absence of a robust system of public employment services in the country. In their job search, young men mainly relied on their personal network (48.7 per cent), while others inquired directly at workplaces (36.9 per cent) or placed advertisements (8.9 per cent). Young women, on the other hand, used a wider range of job search methods, including taking action to become self-employed, such as seeking financial assistance (10.7 per cent) or looking for land and equipment to start their own business or farm (10.3 per cent). The figures seemed to show, therefore, a more entrepreneurial inclination among young women compared to young men. This assumption was further borne out by the higher shares of young female own-account workers in both rural and urban areas (table 3.13)

Table 3.25 Unemployed and employed youth (strict definition) by job search method (%)

Method	Unemployed youth			Employed youth
	Total	Male	Female	
Registered at an employment centre	0.7	0.0	1.2	0.1
Placed/answered job advertisement(s)	7.6	8.9	6.8	1.4
Inquired directly at factories, farms, markets, shops or other workplaces	25.5	36.9	17.3	3.4
Took a test or interview	5.8	3.5	7.5	1.0
Asked friends, relatives, acquaintances	42.4	48.7	37.8	25.8
Waited on the street to be recruited for casual work	0.9	0.0	1.5	0.4
Sought financial assistance to look for work or start a business	6.2	0.0	10.7	5.9
Looked for land, building, equipment, machinery to start own business or farm	6.0	0.0	10.3	13.4
Applied for permit or licence to start a business	0.8	2.0	0.0	0.3
Joined the family establishment	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	41.4
Other	4.0	0.0	6.8	7.0
Total	100	100	100	100

n.a. = not applicable.

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

For comparative purposes, we can also look at how the currently employed youth went about finding their job. Some young workers benefited from being able to join the family establishment (41.4 per cent), but for the remainder the results confirmed the dominance of informal job search methods. Over one-quarter (25.8 per cent) of young workers found their jobs through relatives and acquaintances. While a large share of unemployed youth continued to try the method, only 3.4 per cent of current workers had succeeded in getting their job by inquiring directly at establishments.

The top four occupational groups sought by the young unemployed were service and sales work (50.0 per cent), elementary work (19.2 per cent), crafts work (10.3 per cent) and professional work (8.0 per cent) (table 3.26). Unemployed young women targeted jobs as service and sales workers (61.7 per cent), whereas male unemployed youth looked for jobs in elementary occupations (33.1 per cent), sales (23.4 per cent), crafts (13.4 per cent) and as professionals (11.3 per cent). Agricultural work was among the least popular occupation sought by unemployed young men and women in both rural and urban areas. The fact that agriculture was the least attractive sector among the unemployed, yet the one in which the

majority of youth ended up working, highlighted the limited choice in the labour market for young Ugandans.

Table 3.26 Unemployed youth by occupation sought, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Occupation	Total	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Legislators, senior officials and managers	1.3	1.8	1.1	1.5	1.2
Professionals	8.0	11.3	6.6	13.5	4.9
Technicians and associate professionals	3.5	5.7	2.5	1.8	4.4
Clerks	2.7	1.0	3.5	3.4	2.4
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	50.0	23.4	61.7	60.5	44.1
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	2.6	3.5	2.1	1.7	3.0
Craft and related trade workers	10.3	13.4	8.9	8.4	11.3
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	2.4	6.9	0.5	0.8	3.3
Elementary occupations	19.2	33.1	13.1	8.3	25.3

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

The jobless youth were asked to identify what they saw as the main obstacle to finding work in Uganda. Table 3.27 presents the results. The lack of available jobs in the economy was seen as a major obstacle by one-quarter of respondents (24.6 per cent). This was the principal reason identified by urban youth (29.6 per cent), while rural youth were more likely to say that the requirements for the job were higher than their own qualifications (26.9 per cent in rural areas), a reason geared more towards their own shortcomings than those of the economy at large. A higher percentage of rural unemployed youth did not know how or where to look for jobs (8.2 per cent, compared to 4.9 per cent of urban unemployed youth).

Table 3.27 Unemployed youth by opinion of main obstacle to finding work, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Obstacle to finding work	Total	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Requirements for job were higher than education/training received	24.0	27.3	22.5	18.8	26.9
Not enough work experience	7.6	7.0	7.8	8.5	7.0
Not enough jobs available	24.6	29.0	22.7	29.6	21.8
Considered too young	3.0	4.9	2.1	0.7	4.2
Discriminatory prejudices (for example, disability, religion)	2.6	3.4	2.2	4.8	1.3
Low wages in available jobs	4.2	3.3	4.6	4.9	3.8
Poor working conditions in available jobs	3.0	2.0	3.5	6.9	0.9
Did not know how or where to seek work	7.0	8.8	6.2	4.9	8.2
Other	24.1	14.4	28.4	20.9	25.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

3.6 Characteristics of youth outside the labour market (inactive youth)

One-third (33.6 per cent) of Ugandan youth fell into the category of economically inactive. Of the 2.9 million inactive youth, 45.0 per cent were male and 55.0 per cent female. The most common reason for inactivity – cited by 84.0 per cent – was attending education or training, followed by 6.6 per cent citing family responsibilities or housework (table 3.28). Another 3.8 per cent were inactive due to illness or injury. More young men

than women were inactive due to school attendance (92.7 and 75.6 per cent, respectively), while young women were more likely to cite family responsibilities as a reason for their inactivity (11.8 per cent for young women compared to only 1.2 per cent for young men).

Table 3.28 Inactive youth by reason for inactivity, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Reason	Total	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Attending education/training	84.0	92.7	75.6	83.0	84.5
Family responsibilities	6.6	1.2	11.8	7.0	6.4
Pregnancy	1.1	0.0	2.1	1.7	0.8
Illness, injury or disability	3.8	4.3	3.3	3.3	4.0
Too young to work	0.9	0.7	1.2	0.0	1.3
No desire to work	0.9	0.6	1.1	1.0	0.8
Off-season	0.7	0.2	1.2	0.4	0.8
Other reason	2.1	0.3	3.7	3.6	1.4
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

4. Stages of transition

4.1 Concepts and definitions⁸

In the preceding sections, the situation of youth with respect to their current activity status was analysed. Another means of classifying youth is to look at where they stand in their transition to the labour market. The labour market transition of young people concerns not only the length of time between their exit from education (either upon graduation or early exit without completion) to their first entry into any job, but also qualitative elements, such as whether the job is stable (measured by contract type).

The SWTS applies a stricter definition of “stable employment” than is typically used. By starting from the premise that a person has not “transited” until settled in a job that meets very basic criteria of stability, as defined by the duration of the employment contract, the SWTS analytical framework introduces a new quality element to the standard definition of labour market transitions. However, as seen in previous sections, only a very small share of youth in Uganda attains stable employment; if the “end goal” does not fit the reality of the situation, then it is likely that the statistics are not framed widely enough. For this reason, the ILO’s model also looks at job satisfaction and builds it into the concept of labour market transition.

More specifically, labour market transition is defined as the passage of a young person from the end of schooling (or entry to first economic activity) to the first stable or satisfactory job. Stable employment is defined in terms of the contract of employment (written or oral) and the duration of the contract (greater than 12 months). Introducing the issue of a contract automatically excludes the employment status of self-employed, where the employment relationship is not defined by contract. The opposite of stable employment is temporary employment, or wage and salaried employment of limited duration. Satisfactory employment is a subjective concept, based on the self-assessment of the jobholder. It implies that the respondent considers the job to be a good “fit” with their desired employment path at that moment in time. The contrary is termed non-satisfactory employment, implying a sense of dissatisfaction with the job.

⁸ This section is adapted from ILO (2013), Chapter 5.

Based on the definition of labour market transition, the stages of transition are classified as follows:

Transited – A young person who has “transited” is one who is currently employed in:

- a stable job, whether satisfactory or non-satisfactory; or
- a satisfactory but temporary job; or
- satisfactory self-employment.

In transition – A young person still “in transition” is one who is currently:

- unemployed (relaxed definition); or
- employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job; or
- in non-satisfactory self-employment; or
- inactive and not in school, with the aim of looking for work later.

Transition not yet started – A young person whose “transition has not yet started” is one who is currently:

- still in school and inactive (inactive student); or
- inactive and not in school (inactive non-student), with no intention of looking for work.

Two elements of this classification are noteworthy. First, the stages of transition span the boundaries of economic activity as defined in the standard labour force framework.⁹ The “transited” category includes a sub-set of youth classified as employed; the remaining employed fall within the category of “in transition”, which includes those who fall under the strict definition of unemployed, and portions of the inactive (namely, those without work, available for work but not actively seeking work¹⁰ and inactive non-students who have stated an intention to join the labour force at a later stage). The “transition not yet started” category is the residual of the inactive population.

Second, the stages of transition are not intended to be a normative framework. Because of the inclusion of youth in satisfactory self-employment and satisfactory temporary employment, one cannot say that all young people in the transited category have transited to a “good” job. By definition, the self-employed make up the bulk of the country’s share of irregularly employed and almost all of them will be in the informal sector in Uganda. Yet they have expressed a degree of satisfaction with their job, and they are likely to have finished their transition in the sense that they will remain in the self-employed classification for the remainder of their working lives.

4.2 Stages of transition by selected characteristics

The largest share of Ugandan youth had completed their transition to the labour market (46.8 per cent), followed by 29.6 per cent still in the process of transition and 23.7 per cent for whom the transition had not yet started (table 4.1). The majority of youth had therefore either already transited or remained in transition. In most developed economies, a

⁹ The international guidelines for measuring statistics on the economically active population, set out by the 13th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in 1982, provide the framework for measuring who is counted as employed and as unemployed according to the economic production boundaries set out by the System of National Accounts.

¹⁰ This is the portion added to the “strictly” unemployed category to make up the unemployed (relaxed definition).

larger share of youth can be found among the transition-not-yet-started category, as many are still in school.

Young men had a somewhat better chance than women of completing the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment. Almost one-half (49.5 per cent) of male youth and 44.3 per cent of female youth had completed their transition. Nearly a quarter of young men (23.7 per cent) were in transition and another quarter (26.8 per cent) had not started their transition. One-third (34.9 per cent) of young females were in transition compared to one in five (20.9 per cent) who had not started their transition.

Table 4.1 Stage of transition by sex, age group, area of residence and level of completed education (%)

Characteristic	Transited	In transition	Transition not yet started	Total
Total	46.8	29.6	23.7	100
Sex				
Female	44.3	34.9	20.9	100
Male	49.5	23.7	26.8	100
Age group				
15–19	34.2	25.9	39.9	100
20–24	50.5	33.0	16.5	100
25–29	64.5	32.1	3.5	100
Area of residence				
Urban	46.0	28.5	25.5	100
Rural	47.0	29.9	23.0	100
Education				
None	49.4	47.5	3.1	100
Less than primary	59.2	40.0	0.9	100
Primary	63.8	35.4	0.8	100
Secondary	63.6	36.4	0.0	100
University and above	80.0	20.0	0.0	100

Note: The stage of transition by level of completed education excluded students whose final education level was unknown.

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013

As one might expect, the age of the young person influences their current stage in labour market transition. The tendency for the young person to move into the labour market increases with age. The younger age cohorts make up a much larger share of the transition-not-yet-started category because there is an overlap with typical schooling ages. Still, the fact that so many of the 15–19-year-olds (60.1 per cent) were firmly in the labour market, either with a completed transition or still in transition, is worrying when they should normally be in school.

There were insignificant differences between the shares of youth by transition stages across geographic areas: rural youth were only slightly more likely to be either transited or in transition compared to urban youth (76.9 and 74.5 per cent, respectively).

The level of educational attainment proved to be the strongest predictor of where a young person will be in the stages of transition. A university graduate had a significantly higher likelihood of completing the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment (80.0 per cent) than a young person with primary or secondary level of education (shares were, respectively, 80.0, and 63.8 and 63.6 per cent). Only one-fifth (20.0 per cent) of young persons with a tertiary level of education were considered to be still in transition, and hardly any in this group had not started their transition. Young people who had not started their transition were found exclusively among those with a below-secondary level

of education, but it is important to bear in mind that the calculations excluded students since their completed education level was not yet known. The poorly educated youth in the transition-not-yet-started category, therefore, referred to inactive non-students only.

4.2.1 Youth who have not started transition

The results of the SWTS showed that almost all the youth who had not started their transition were in school (97.7 per cent), and only 2.3 per cent were inactive and not in school with no intention of looking for work. Young men and women were almost equally represented among the inactive students (54.5 and 45.5 per cent, respectively). The gender balance breaks down completely, however, in the category of inactive non-students with no intention of joining the labour market in the future. Young women constituted 78.7 per cent of this sub-category (Annex table A.7). Of the total male youth who had not yet started their transition, only 0.9 per cent were inactive and not in school, while 99.1 per cent were in education. In contrast, 3.9 per cent of the young females in the category were inactive but not in school, and 96.1 per cent were in school.

4.2.2 Youth in transition

A young person is classified as in transition if she or he is either unemployed (relaxed definition), engaged in self-employment or in a paid temporary job that the youth has expressed dissatisfaction with, or if she or he is an inactive non-student with an attachment to the labour market, indicated by the desire to work in the future. A majority of youth in the category were classified as in transition because they were in non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment (57.4 per cent) (table 4.2). One-third (33.5 per cent) of youth in this category were unemployed and 9.1 per cent were inactive non-students with no plans to look for work. Young women in the in-transition category were more likely than young men to be unemployed or inactive non-students. Those remaining in transition due to unemployment were more frequently found among urban youth (48.8 per cent) – than rural youth (28.5 per cent). In contrast, rural youth were more likely than urban youth to remain in transition as workers in non-satisfactory self-employment or in non-satisfactory temporary jobs (62.6 per cent compared to 41.6 per cent of urban youth). It is likely that the rural youth held on to their jobs even if they were unstable or non-satisfactory due to a lack of choice.

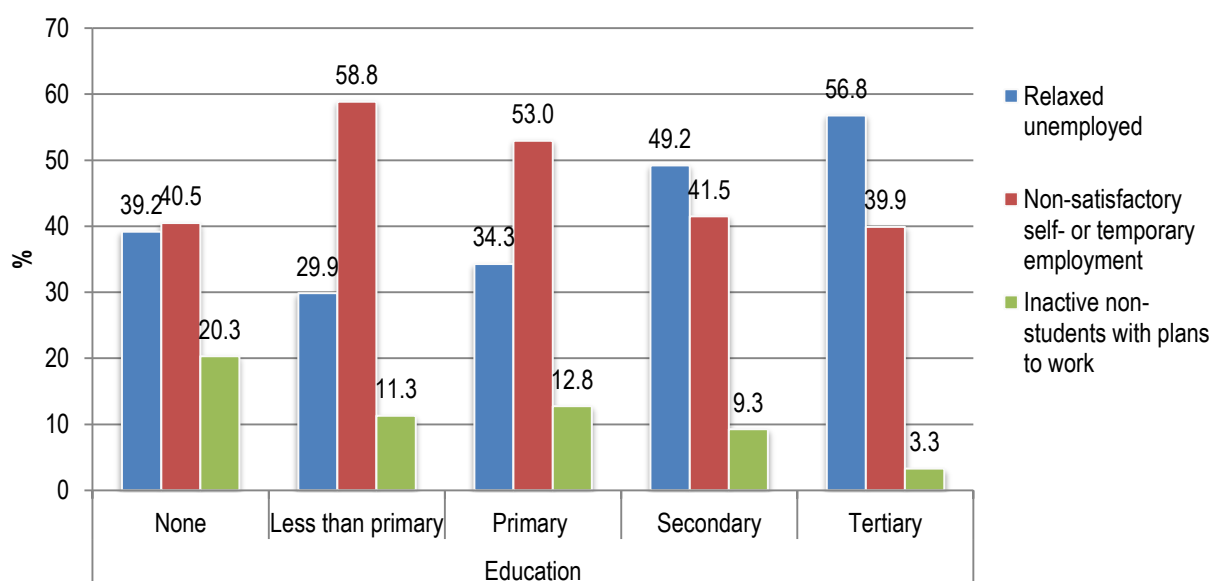
Table 4.2 Youth “in transition” by sub-category, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Sub-category	Total	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Unemployed (relaxed definition)	33.5	26.7	37.6	48.8	28.5
In non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment	57.4	68.0	50.9	41.6	62.6
Inactive non-student with aim to work	9.1	5.2	11.5	9.5	8.9
Total youth in transition	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Young people with the highest level of education among those who remained in transition were much more likely to be unemployed or dissatisfied with their job than inactive (figure 4.1). Those who invested in their education were likely to have higher expectations regarding the standards of the job they would accept and were therefore more likely to wait for a preferred job than to settle for whatever was available.

Figure 4.1 Youth in transition by sub-categories and level of education



Note: Students were excluded since their final education level was unknown.

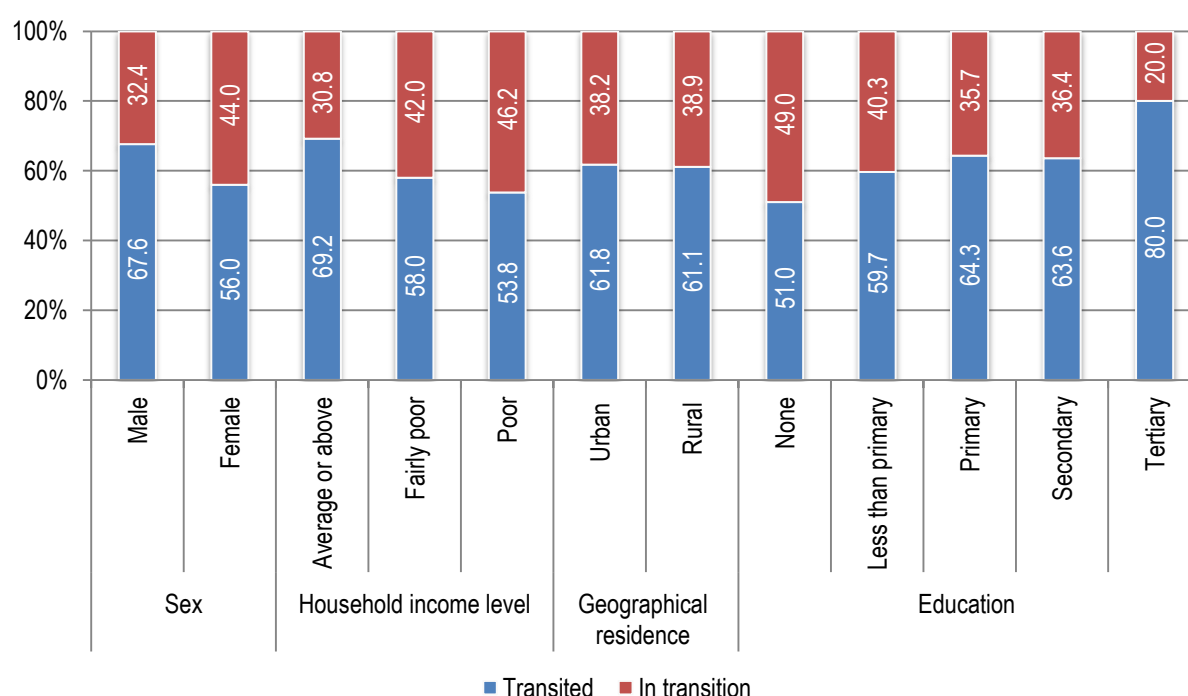
Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

4.2.3 Characteristics of a completed transition

Figure 4.2 compares the stages of completed transition and in-transition youth according to a breakdown by sex, household income, geographic location and educational attainment to establish whether certain characteristics brought any obvious advantages to the outcome of the transition. Focusing on only those youth either in transition or with completed transition, the following conclusions can be drawn. First, young men had an advantage in completing the transition over young women (67.6 per cent of young men had completed the transition compared to 56.0 per cent of young women). Second, youth coming from average or above average income households had greater success in the transition. Seventy (69.2) per cent of youth from above average or average households had completed the transition, while 30.8 per cent remained in transition, compared to a distribution of 53.8 per cent transited and 46.2 per cent in transition among youth from poor income households. Finally, geography had little impact on the chance of completing the transition (61.8 per cent of urban youth had completed the transition compared to 61.1 per cent of youth in rural areas).

One of the strongest conclusions was that education matters to the transition: 80.0 per cent of youth with a university degree had completed the transition while the remaining 20.0 per cent were in transition. At the lower levels of education, in contrast, there was a greater tendency to remain in transition. For instance, nearly half the youth with no formal education (49.0 per cent) remained in transition. Secondary level of education proved to be a turning point in terms of transition, with the likelihood of completing transition boosted by 16.4 percentage points (from 63.6 per cent to 80.0 per cent).

Figure 4.2 Transition groups (transited and in-transition youth) by sex, household income level, area of residence and educational attainment level



Note: The stage of transition by level of completed education excluded students since their final education level was unknown. The categorization of household income level was based on the perception of the young respondents.

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

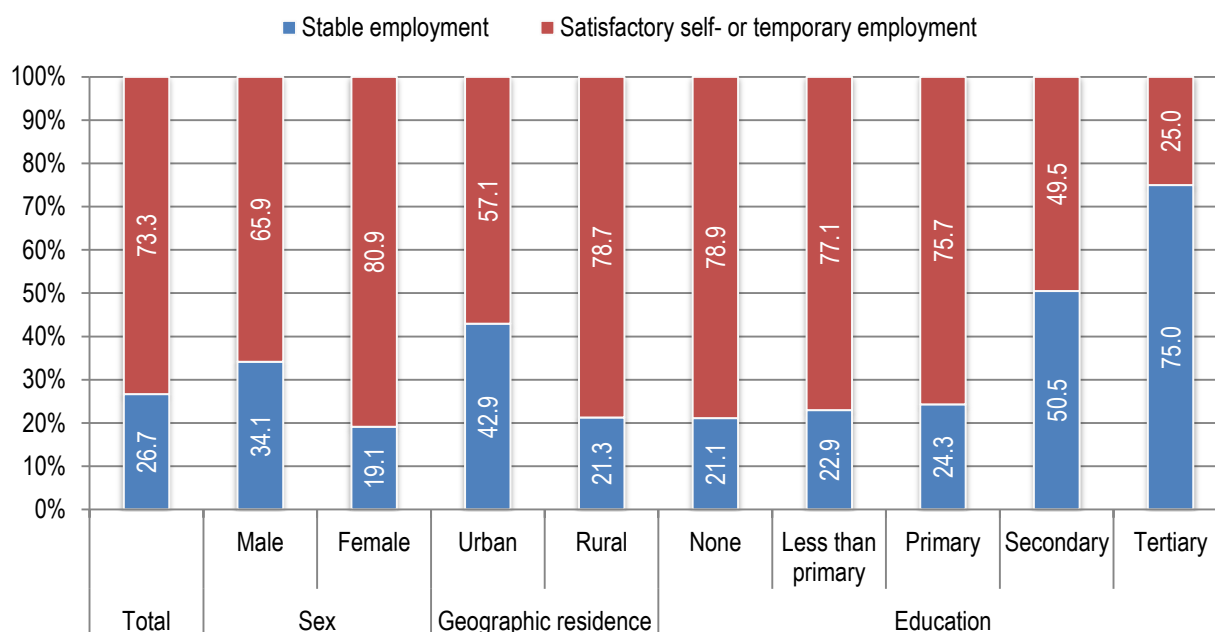
Only one-quarter (26.7 per cent) of transited youth had attained stable employment (16.2 per cent in a stable and satisfactory job and 10.5 per cent in a stable and non-satisfactory job). On the other hand, the majority within the transited category were young people in satisfactory self-employment (70.0 per cent). The residual 3.3 per cent were those in satisfactory temporary jobs. Certainly there were job quality implications for the youth in the various sub-categories of completed transition. Many young persons may have stopped shifting between labour market categories but few of those in self-employment were likely to have attained quality employment.

Figure 4.3 shows which characteristics were more likely to result in a transition to the more advantageous category of stable employment compared to the second-best category of satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment. Young men who completed their transition to the labour market were more likely to attain stable employment than young women. Transited youth in urban areas were more likely to be in stable employment (42.9 per cent) than rural youth (21.3 per cent).

Of all factors, it was the level of education that showed the strongest impact on the likelihood of attaining stable employment. Although the difference in the chance of transition between no education and a primary level of education was minor (21.1 and 22.9 per cent, respectively), a dramatic improvement can be observed in transition rates to stable work of those who completed a secondary level of education (50.5 per cent). The youth with a university degree (among those who completed the transition) had a three in four chance of being in stable employment (75.0 per cent). The results imply that the investment in education pays off in Uganda and that youth should be encouraged to persevere at least until completion of secondary education if they hope to attain a better quality job. Unfortunately, the reality is that only one in ten youth (10.3 per cent) in the

country managed to attain secondary level education and even fewer made it through to university level (5.9 per cent).

Figure 4.3 Transited youth by sub-category and sex, area of residence and educational attainment level



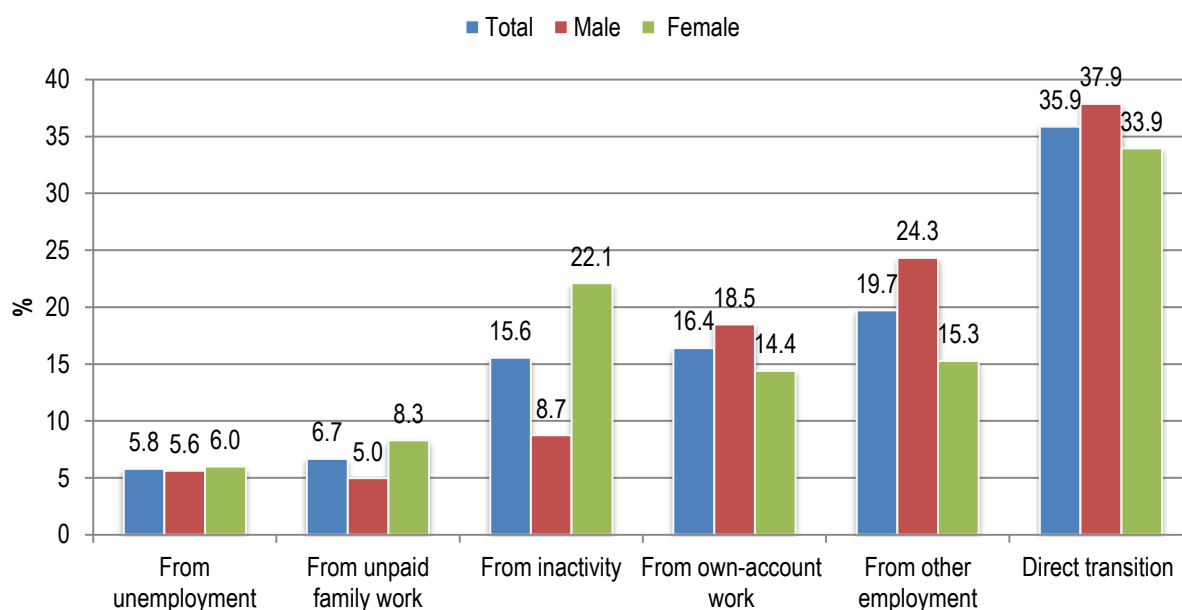
Note: The stage of transition by level of completed education excluded students since their final education level was unknown.

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

4.3 Transition paths and lengths of transition

Another means for examining the transition is through flows and identifying the labour market category of the youth prior to transiting to stable or satisfactory employment. In Uganda, youth take diverse paths to a complete transition. A large share of transited youth transited directly to their current position (35.9 per cent) (figure 4.4). This means they had no intermediary spells before acquiring their current job, which was classified as stable in contract terms, or self-employment and temporary employment with which they were satisfied. A smaller share transited from an alternative status: 19.7 per cent from another job, 16.4 per cent from own-account work, 15.6 per cent from inactivity, 6.7 per cent from unpaid family work, and only 5.8 per cent moved to their current positions after a period of unemployment. Young men were more likely than young women to have transited to stable satisfactory employment from another job (24.3 and 15.3 per cent, respectively) or from own-account work (18.5 and 14.4 per cent, respectively). Almost one-quarter (22.1 per cent) of transited young women had previously been inactive, compared to only 8.7 per cent of young men.

Figure 4.4 Flow to stable and/or satisfactory employment (transited category) by sex



Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Table 4.3 presents additional transition path indicators that offer a more detailed picture of how youth arrived at the transited stage. Excluding the youth who transited directly to stable or satisfactory employment (35.9 per cent), the path to transition involved, on average, 1.6 intermediary labour market activities – whether unemployment, employment or inactivity – prior to completing the labour market transition. The time spent in intermediary activities was quite lengthy. Ugandan youth who did not move directly to stable and/or satisfactory employment took, on average, nearly four years (45.6 months) in the labour market to attain transited status.

Table 4.3 Indicators on the path of transition for youth who completed their labour market transition

Indicator	Total	Male	Female
Average length of transition (excluding direct transition)	45.6 months	45.1 months	46.1 months
Average length of transition (including direct transition)	29.2 months	28.0 months	30.4 months
Average number of intermediate activities	1.6	1.6	1.6
Average number of unemployment spells	1.2	1.1	1.2
Average length of unemployment spells	17.1 months	16.3 months	18.0 months
Average number of temporary employment spells	1.1	1.2	1.0
Average length of temporary employment spells	19.1 months	24.7 months	11.1 months
Average number of self-employment spells	1.2	1.2	1.2
Average length of self-employment spells	38.3 months	40.8 months	35.8 months

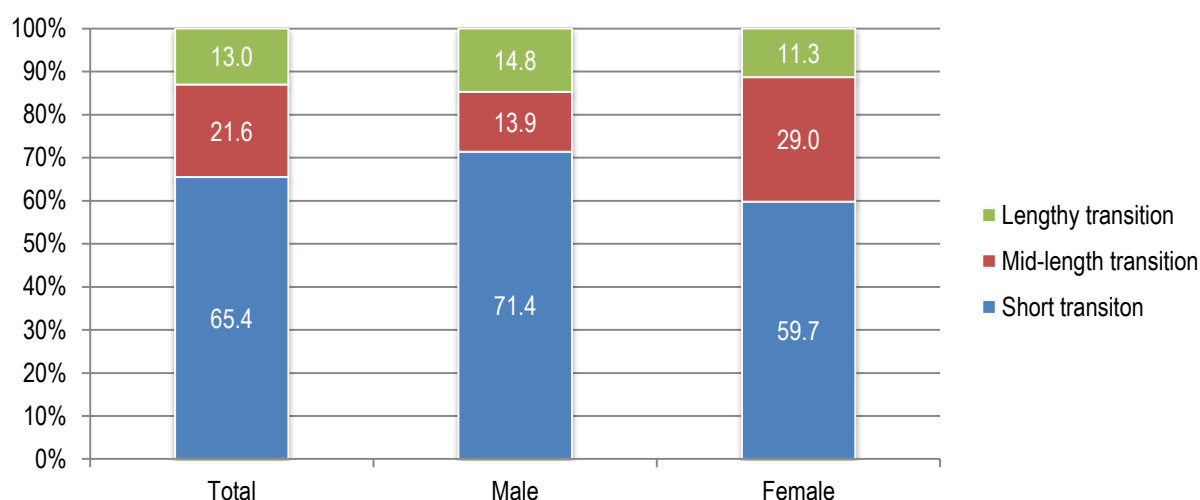
Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

A typical Ugandan youth experienced only one spell of unemployment in their transition path, but the spell lasted almost a year and a half on average (17.1 months), with a slight difference in the length of unemployment between young men and women. It is likely that the unemployment spell was combined with either temporary employment or self-employment since the overall average number of intermediary activities was 1.6. The average length of a spell of self-employment was around three years for both young men

and women (40.8 and 35.8 months, respectively). The average time spent in temporary employment was less, but still significant for young men at 24.7 months.

The ILO has also developed a classification system for the length of transition period of youth who have completed the transition.¹¹ In Uganda, when including the direct transits, the majority of youth experienced short transitions (65.4 per cent) (figure 4.5). Young men were more likely to experience short transitions than women (71.4 and 59.7 per cent, respectively), while a higher share of women went through a mid-length transition. Only about one in ten young people experienced a lengthy transition (13.0 per cent).

Figure 4.5 Length of transition of youth who completed the transition by sex

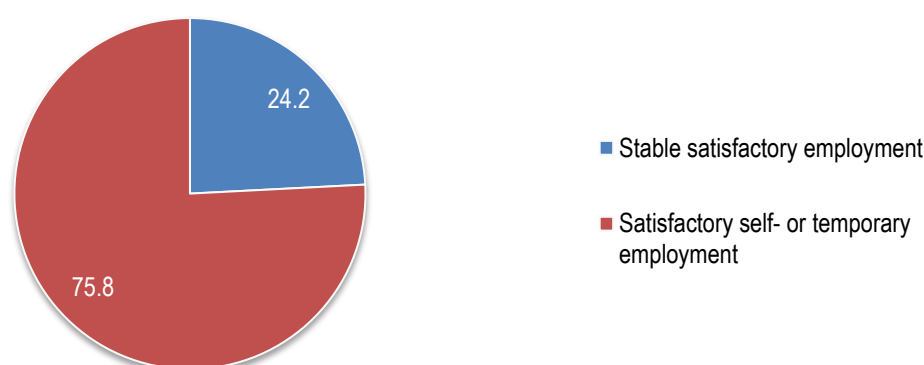


Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

As shown in figure 4.4, more than one-third of transited youth in Uganda (35.9 per cent) transited directly to employment without experiencing any spells of unemployment or inactivity. What are the characteristics of those young people who transited directly to stable and/or satisfactory employment and, perhaps more importantly, in which of the sub-categories did they end up? More than three-quarters (75.8 per cent) of directly transited youth went into satisfactory self- or temporary employment (figure 4.6). Only the remaining 24.2 per cent landed in stable satisfactory jobs. Young women were less likely to transit directly to stable employment than young men (17.7 and 30.2 per cent, respectively).

¹¹ A **short transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent: (1) a direct transition; or (2) a spell (or cumulative spells) of stable or satisfactory employment with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (3) a spell (or cumulative spells) of employment of less than or equal to one year with no spell of unemployment or inactivity where the job(s) held is(are) classified as non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment; or (4) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of less than or equal to three months; or (5) a spell of inactivity of less than or equal to one year. A **mid-length transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent: (1) a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment of between one and two years with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (2) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of between three months and one year; or (3) a spell of inactivity longer than one year. A **lengthy transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent: (1) a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment of two years or more with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (2) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of one year or more.

Figure 4.6 Share of direct transition to stable employment and satisfactory self- or temporary employment (%)



Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

In contrast to those who transitioned directly, the youth who remained in transition were likely to stay within that category for an extended period of time. The data revealed that the youth remaining in transition had already spent, on average, over seven years (88.0 months) within the category. The length of time already spent in transition was longer among female than male respondents (93.7 and 76.9 months, respectively). The durations were so long, in fact, that it appeared likely that these youth would remain in transition, having not attained stable and/or satisfactory employment, well into adulthood, if not for their entire lifetime.

5. Policy framework and implications

5.1 Relevant laws and policy framework in Uganda

This section provides an overview of the relevant policy frameworks affecting youth employment issues in Uganda, including the overarching development plan, education sector plan and national employment policies. The second part of this section discusses the policy implications of the survey results.

With a view to addressing the challenges of unemployment, undereducation and underutilization among youth, the Government of Uganda has launched a series of programmes and strategic plans, which are briefly described below.¹²

National Employment Policy

The National Employment Policy (NEP) 2011 aims to generate “productive and decent employment for all women and men in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity” (MoGLSD, 2011). The Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MoGLSD) takes the lead in the implementation of the policy, in collaboration with other ministries, social partners and agencies that have key roles in employment generation. The policy advocates the development and implementation of the National Action Plan on Youth Employment, which aims to support young people,

¹² A National Action Plan (NAP) for Youth Employment was under formulation in Uganda at the time of drafting this report, and is therefore not summarized. It is expected, however, that the NAP will serve as the primary instrument for coordination among the national stakeholders of youth employment policies and programmes.

particularly women, in making the transition from informal to formal employment. This is to be achieved through training, business development services and access to low-interest microfinance. The policy outlines the need to strengthen the capacity of career guidance services to youth, promote job-placement, volunteer schemes and internship to enable young people to acquire the requisite job training and hands-on experience. It calls for action to encourage young entrepreneurs, for instance through tax rebates for the first five years after establishing a business. The NEP proposes the creation of one-stop centres to offer technical advisory services, including information on existing investment opportunities, to young entrepreneurs.

National Development Plan

The National Development Plan (NDP) 2010–2015 guides all activities taking place in Uganda with the aim of actualizing the vision of “a transformed Ugandan society from a peasant to a modern and prosperous country within 30 years” (NPA, 2009). The NDP places employment at the heart of the economic development and transformation of the country and aims to create employment opportunities, raise average per capita income levels and improve the labour force distribution in line with sectoral contributions to national output. The plan articulates strategic actions and assigns governmental agencies responsibility for the implementation according to the action area.

Business, Technical and Vocational Education and Training

The Business, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (BTJET) 2011–2020 strategic plan is a national education and skills development policy that aims to upgrade the existing technical programmes from an educational subsector to a comprehensive system of skills development. The objective of the plan is to create a firm foundation of vocational and intermediate technology education and training, which is necessary for economic development in Uganda. The Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) conducted a review of the current BTJET programmes, and concluded that the present BTJET system in Uganda is perceived both by the Government and in the private sector to be outdated in that it does not correspond to the needs of the private sector. The strategic plan has preliminary indicators for monitoring and evaluating all objectives, strategies and outputs. In revising the monitoring system, data collection will be conducted by the BTJET institutions.

National Youth Policy

The State programmes mentioned above have the potential to impact on youth employment. In addition to these, the Government developed the National Youth Policy to target issues affecting youth, such as poverty, unemployment and underemployment, more directly. The major causes of these problems are identified as (1) young people’s lack of employable skills; (2) lack of access to resources such as land and capital; (3) existing programmes’ failure to focus on the informal sector and agriculture; (4) overemphasis on experience and lack of apprenticeship schemes; (5) negative attitude of youth towards work, particularly in agriculture; (6) lack of a comprehensive employment policy; and (7) various forms of discrimination (MoGLSD, 2001). By addressing these issues, the policy aims to achieve equal access to socio-economic and employment opportunities commensurate with the ability, potential and needs of youth. The policy recognizes young persons’ limited access to financial services and production resources and aims to support micro-credit financial institutions in order to promote income-generating activity among youth. The policy further speaks of promoting youth enterprise development through entrepreneurial training programmes, as well as strengthening information services. The Government advocates the creation of a youth trust bank and the implementation of the 1998 Land Act to increase access, ownership and rights of youth, modernize agricultural practices and provide farmers with reliable market information and agricultural extension services.

Another priority intervention laid out in the policy is education, training and capacity building. The policy states its determination to “support vocational training and establishment of internship and apprenticeship to enable the youth to acquire a range of skills and essential tools”.

5.2 Policy implications

Identifying the nature and extent of the youth employment challenge at the country level is a prerequisite to formulating evidence-based and integrated policies and programmatic interventions. With detailed information on the obstacles that are preventing sufficient job creation from absorbing the cohorts of young labour market entrants, governments will be better prepared to design effective policy responses. Facilitating an improved school-to-work transition (or work-to-school transition for youth previously engaged in child labour) is a precondition to helping young people overcome the difficulties inherent in finding and maintaining decent jobs.

Uganda suffers from the acute problem of an underskilled labour force, informal employment and the general low quality of available jobs. While the gradually improving macroeconomic performance of the country creates a conducive environment for job creation, structural reform of both the general and vocational educational systems and the strengthening of employment services for improved professional guidance are needed in order to address issues of mismatch in both the demand and supply of labour.

The analysis of the SWTS in Uganda has highlighted major challenges for the Ugandan labour market generally, and the youth labour market specifically. The evidence from the survey clearly demonstrates that Uganda needs a vision for the future of its labour market and a strategy to improve its labour market outcomes, particularly for youth. Although many interventions have been put in place by the Government to address the youth unemployment problem, these efforts have been hampered by challenges such as corruption, high population growth, lack of priority budgeting, a weak education system and failure to make the agricultural sector attractive to youth, among others. The National Youth Policy is a good starting place for centralizing youth employment issues and specifying action, but more work remains to be done on its implementation. The present SWTS data set can make a significant contribution to providing policy-makers with information to initiate, monitor and evaluate the numerous policies and programmes outlined in the current policy documents. General areas to be addressed include:

1. **Design macroeconomic policy to promote job growth.** The results of the SWTS have shown that a large number of current students are hoping to gain work as “professionals”, while currently the occupation group ranks low among the employed youth. There is a clear gap in the supply and demand of young “professionals” and a lack of a modern sector to absorb them. The young person seeking work as a shop worker, on the other hand, is likely to find gaining employment less difficult. Beyond improving the alignment of the educational system to the demands of the labour market, demand-side solutions are needed to generate additional jobs for young professionals. This requires coordinated policy efforts to support aggregate demand through pro-employment macroeconomic policies and to foster growth engines through an appropriate balance of export-driven growth and the expansion of domestic markets (ILO, 2013, Chapter 6). See box 3 for some general approaches in this area.
2. **Ensure access to quality education for all and prevent early school leaving.** Uganda’s rapidly growing population places great pressure on the Government and the working population to support those who are either too young or too old or otherwise unable to be economically active. Keeping girls and boys of school age in school and improving access to quality reproductive health services would relieve this pressure to

an extent. The need to enhance employability and productivity among young men and women has come out strongly in the report. Higher levels of education are shown to result in better labour market outcomes and an easier labour market transition. A large share of young persons with low levels of education, who lack many of the skills required by the labour market, will stall the productive transformation of the country. Policies and resources should be directed towards enhancing the quality of education in academic institutions and vocational training centres. Two main policies and programmes can address this. The first relates to increasing the investment in education, especially in rural areas, and expanding access to education and training to the most disadvantaged youth, who are currently excluded by costs. The second policy involves improving the quality of education and addressing the skills mismatch in order to equip young men and women to meet the needs of the market more effectively.

Box 3. Approaches to boost aggregate demand and promote youth employment

Policies that promote employment-centred and sustainable growth are vital if young people are to be given a fair chance at a decent job. Youth labour market outcomes are closely related to overall employment trends but are more sensitive to the business cycle. A boost in aggregate demand is key to addressing the youth employment crisis as this will create more job opportunities for young people. ILO research shows that macroeconomic policies can influence youth employment by:

1. encouraging economic diversification and productive transformation;
2. reducing macroeconomic volatility by engaging in timely and targeted counter-cyclical policies;
3. loosening constraints on private sector growth, with a particular emphasis on access to finance for micro, small and medium-sized enterprises;
4. focusing on targeted demand-side interventions with particular impact on youth employment (e.g. labour-intensive infrastructure works, public employment programmes, wage and training subsidies);
5. ensuring adequate and predictable funding for targeted youth employment interventions.

Source: ILO, 2013, box 8.

3. **Improve the quality of education and open the dialogue between employers and universities and training institutions to identify core skills to be added to the national curriculum.** The current education system produces graduates that lack the requisite work skills. Uganda's education system prioritizes numeracy over the development of skills that are required in the labour market. This was confirmed by 92 per cent of surveyed youth, who stated that they did not feel that the education system had provided them with the skills necessary to find a job. The credibility of vocational training institutions needs to be enhanced by establishing strong links with the private sector, which will enable these institutions to become more attuned to the ever-changing labour market needs. The existing technical and vocational education and training (TVET) centres need to be upgraded and their capacity enhanced to meet the demands of the growth sectors. Private sector development is hampered by the insufficient numbers of skilled youth. Employers are looking for employees who can continue to learn and adapt; read, write and compute competently; listen and communicate effectively; think creatively; solve problems independently; manage themselves at work; interact with co-workers; work in teams or groups; handle basic technology, and lead effectively as well as follow supervision (Brewer, 2013). Developing curricula that evolve through continuous dialogue with employers, while keeping teachers up-to-date about workplace practices, is one good practice that will help to improve core skills. Mentoring programmes that link students with professionals or young workers is another.
4. **Improve conditions of work by ensuring equal treatment for, and rights of, young workers.** The survey results showed that young people continue to suffer from decent work deficits and low-quality jobs. Most working youth are in irregular employment in the informal economy. Labour laws and collective agreements, including through sanctioning mechanisms, can protect youth workers and facilitate

their transitions into stable and decent employment. In parallel, a system of incentives to encourage the registration of enterprises is to be encouraged, while at the same time providing incentives for employers to invest in the improvement of young people's work conditions. Given the large share of youth in elementary occupations, including domestic work, it will also be important to strengthen the capacities and institutions in Uganda promoting policy and legislative reforms and the eventual ratification and implementation of the Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189) and Recommendation (No. 201).

5. **Support employers in taking an active part in the creation of decent jobs for young people.** Employers may take on young people when subsidies are offered in the way of tax breaks or other financial incentives, although the very high levels of informality among enterprises in the country can hamper the effectiveness of such a strategy. Perhaps more can be done to make the business case for employing young people by highlighting how this step impacts on organizations' competitiveness. Helping employers to link investment in young people and training of their young staff to their business strategy is an area that should be explored.
6. As very few young people use formal means of finding work, **enhance the role of institutions that deal with employment/unemployment issues and improve the collection and dissemination of labour market information.** Young people in Uganda mainly use informal methods to search for jobs. Given the situation, increasing labour demand without improving information and access to the labour market will do little to help integrate disadvantaged youth who lack personal connections to the labour market. Labour market information, job-search assistance, vocational counselling and career guidance should be promoted in Uganda to assist and orient young persons. Greater investment in employment offices and agencies can help to improve the connection between young people and enterprises. Specific recommendations for policy-makers and programme formulation are: (i) build a knowledge base about youth employment in Uganda; (ii) continue to conduct school-to-work transition surveys; (iii) prepare a "pocket guide" for youth employment with information about job-seeking, CV writing, interview techniques, training institutions, required licences, workers' rights, useful websites and other information, and (iv) introduce job fairs for young people.
7. **Facilitate the financial inclusion of youth and provide access to credit and business support services for young entrepreneurs.** Access to finance is consistently listed as a major constraint for enterprises seeking to expand their capacity via investments that lead to the creation of new jobs (Matsumoto et al., 2012). This is particularly important in countries where a majority of establishments are micro- and small enterprises. Sixty per cent of surveyed young people did not have access to financial services. The results of the SWTS showed that the majority of young self-employed workers had to rely on their own, often limited, savings or borrow from friends and family to start their businesses. Financial education of entrepreneurial youth and their access to capital needs to be improved. The Government of Uganda pledged support to improving access to financial services through creating a Youth Venture Capital Fund and, jointly with local banks, making UGX 25 billion available to young entrepreneurs. Such measures, aimed at improving financial inclusion, are likely to stimulate labour demand and thereby generate new employment opportunities for young people. At the same time, young entrepreneurs will need more than financial support to stay in business. Policies and programmes to strengthen business development services for young people and establish mentoring programmes, in which an established company provides support to a youth business, are also necessary.
8. **Promote bipartite and tripartite cooperation on youth employment to yield better employment outcomes.** Establishing an enabling environment for the

successful implementation of employment and labour market interventions for young people requires bipartite and tripartite cooperation. This is confirmed by the results of evaluations of youth employment programmes. The Government, employers' organizations and trade unions of Uganda have a role to play in fulfilling their own specific mandates and through concerted and joint efforts for the promotion of decent work for youth in the country.

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Annex I. Definitions of labour market statistics

1. The following units are defined according to the standards of the International Conference of Labour Statisticians:
 - a. The **employed** include all persons of 15 years of age or more 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 of 15 years of age or more who met 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. Persons neither included in the employed nor in the unemployed category are classified as **not in the labour force (also known as inactive)**.
2. The International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE) categorizes the employed population on the basis of their explicit or implicit contract of employment, as follows:
 - a. **Employees** (also wage and salaried workers) are all those workers who hold the type of jobs defined as “paid employment jobs”, where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts that give them a basic remuneration which is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work.
 - b. **Employers** are those workers who, working on their own account or with one or a few partners, hold the type of jobs defined as “self-employment jobs” (i.e. jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced) and, in this capacity, have engaged, on a continuous basis, one or more persons to work for them as employee(s).
 - c. **Own-account workers** are those who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of jobs defined as “self-employment jobs” and have not engaged, on a continuous basis, any employees to work for them.
 - d. **Contributing (unpaid) family workers** are those workers who hold “self-employment jobs” as own-account workers in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household.
3. The employed are also classified by their main **occupation**, in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08).
4. A **household** is a family or other community of persons living together and jointly spending their income to satisfy the basic necessities of life. The concept of household includes members present in the place where the household resides, as well as individuals who are temporarily absent and living elsewhere, including abroad, for business, education or other purposes, as long as their residence in the foreign country does not exceed one

year. A person living alone can also qualify as a household (“single household”) if she or he does not already belong to another unit. The single household can reside in a separate or shared dwelling, and will be considered as an independent unit as long as the household’s income is not shared with other residents. Collective households, such as prisons and institutions, and their members are not observed in the Labour Force Survey.

5. **The reporting period**, to which the questions for the economic activity are related, is the week before the week of interview (52 reporting weeks throughout the year).
6. The following units are also defined within the SWTS analysis but are outside the scope of those defined within the international framework of labour market statistics mentioned in item 1 above:
 - a. **Relaxed unemployment** – a person without work and available to work (relaxing the jobseeking criterion of item 1b above).
 - b. **Labour underutilization rate** – the sum of shares of youth in irregular employment, unemployed (relaxed definition) and youth neither in the labour force nor in education/training (inactive non-students) as a percentage of the youth population.
 - c. **Regular employment** – the sum of employees with a contract (oral or written) of 12 months or more in duration and employers; the indicators are therefore a mix of information on status in employment and contract situations.
 - d. **Satisfactory employment** – based on self-assessment of the jobholder; implies a job that respondents consider to “fit” their desired employment path at that moment in time.
 - e. **Stable employment** – employees with a contract (oral or written) of 12 months or more in duration.
 - f. **Temporary employment** – employees with a contract (oral or written) of less than 12 months in duration.

Annex II. Additional statistical tables

Table A.1 Distribution of the working-age population by selected characteristics, 2005/06 and 2009/10 (%)

Working age population	2005/06	2009/10	Growth rate
Sex			
Male	48.1	47.2	3.7
Female	51.9	52.8	4.6
Area of residence			
Urban	15.5	19.0	6.8
Rural	84.5	81.0	3.6
Number	9 332 800	11 006 500	

Source: UBOS, Uganda National Household Survey 2009/10, Abridged report, November 2010.

Table A.2 Marital status of youth by age group and sex

	15–19 years		20–24 years		25–29 years		Total		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Single/never married	98.1	82.3	68.7	33.0	26.8	12.0	72.8	48.0	59.8
Married	1.7	16.1	28.1	58.6	68.6	76.2	25.1	45.5	35.8
Separated/divorced	0.2	1.4	3.2	8.3	4.0	11.0	1.9	6.1	4.1
Widowed	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.6	0.8	0.2	0.3	0.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Table A.3 Relationship of youth to the head of household by area of residence (%)

Relationship	Rural	Urban	Total
Head	15.5	21.5	17.0
Spouse/partner	21.9	19.8	21.3
Son/daughter	48.1	31.6	43.9
Brother/sister	1.7	7.0	3.1
Other relative	11.7	16.3	12.9
Not related	1.1	3.8	1.8
Total	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Table A.4 Youth population by level of educational attainment and household financial status (%)

Completed education level	Household financial status					Total
	Well off	Fairly well off	Average	Fairly poor	Poor	
Never attended school	4.4	2.6	4.0	7.0	10.9	6.8
Uncompleted primary	19.4	26.0	36.5	46.3	52.9	43.5
Primary	34.4	43.5	31.7	33.2	28.0	31.8
Secondary	33.4	16.3	14.4	9.0	5.0	10.3
University	4.4	10.1	11.3	3.2	1.7	5.9
Other	4.1	1.4	2.1	1.2	1.4	1.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Note: Household income levels were based on the perception of the young respondent.

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Table A.5 Employed youth by contract situation in major sectors (%)

	Agriculture	Industry	Services	Total
Type of contract				
Written contract	4.5	15.0	34.7	21.1
Oral agreement	95.5	85.0	65.3	78.9
Total	100	100	100	100
Nature of contract				
Unlimited duration	62.7	60.3	87.1	74.2
Limited duration	37.3	39.7	12.9	25.8
Total	100	100	100	100
Duration of contract				
Less than 12 months	88.1	84.5	51.5	78.1
12 months to less than 36 months	6.3	12.8	32.2	14.5
36 months or more	5.6	2.7	16.3	7.5
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Table A.6 Self-employed youth by main challenge to doing business, according to area of residence and sex (%)

Challenge	Rural		Urban		Total
	Female	Male	Female	Male	
Insufficient financial resources	21.7	23.9	25.9	24.9	23.2
Insufficient quality of staff	1.3	0.8	2.1	0.0	1.1
Insufficient business expertise	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.0	0.4
Legal regulations	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.6
Shortages in raw materials (breakdowns in the supply chain)	5.0	5.1	2.8	4.8	4.8
Labour shortage	8.5	9.1	1.2	5.4	7.7
Political uncertainties	0.6	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.4
Lack of access to technology	1.0	1.0	1.2	2.1	1.1
Product development	1.7	1.3	3.0	0.9	1.6
Competition in the market	9.6	9.6	14.2	11.1	10.2
Other	49.8	48.3	46.7	50.0	48.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.

Table A.7 Youth who have not yet started their transition by sex

	Total	Male	Female	Male	Female	Female
	(abs.)	(abs.)	(abs.)	(%)	(%)	share (%)
Inactive students	1 968 706	1 072 839	895 867	99.1	96.1	45.5
Inactive non-students with no plans to work	45 688	9 739	35 949	0.9	3.9	78.7
Total "Transition not yet started"	2 014 394	1 082 578	931 816	100.0	100.0	46.3

Source: UBOS, SWTS-Uganda, 2013.



This report presents the highlights of the 2013 School-to-work Transition Survey (SWTS) run together with the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) within the framework of the ILO Work4Youth 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 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 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 Publications Series covers national reports, with main survey findings and details on current national policy interventions in the area of youth employment, and regional synthesis reports that highlight regional patterns in youth labour market transitions and distinctions in national policy frameworks.

Work4Youth



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ISSN 2309-6780