



The Status of NEET

A Quantitative Analysis of Youth Not in Employment,
Education or Training (NEET) (15 - 24 years old)

Regional Report

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Country Report



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements	II
Abbreviations and acronyms	VI
Executive Summary	VII
1 Introduction	1
2 Description of the context.....	4
2.1 Economic growth projections	4
2.2 Projected growth of the youth population.....	7
2.3 The impact of poverty on women	10
2.4 Gender dimension of development in ESA.....	12
3 Analysis of the survey data: a description of youth NEET, employed and in education..	15
3.1 Definition of NEET and employment.....	15
3.2 NEET rates in ESA.....	21
3.3 Youth employment	24
3.4 Education.....	28
4 Analysis of the survey data and determinants of youth NEET	36
4.1 Structure of the model.....	37
4.3 Marriage and cohabiting.....	40
4.4 Having children	41
4.5 The 20-24 age group are more likely to be NEET than the 15-19 age group.....	42
4.6 Living in an urban area increases the probability of being NEET	43
4.7 Years of education attained reduce NEET	44
4.8 Family characteristics.....	47
4.9 Family agriculture and unpaid care and domestic work by sex	50
4.10 Results of community characteristics variables.....	52
5 Conclusions and recommendations.....	54
5.1 Reducing early marriage and adolescent motherhood	55
5.2 Education.....	56
5.3 Raising the productivity of family agriculture	57
5.4 Youth targeted interventions and active labour market policies	59
5.5 Child labour	60
6 References	61
7 Data	65
Appendix	66

List of Figures

Figure 1:	GDP per capita and GDP growth rates (projected from 2021 to 2026), Botswana, South Africa, Namibia and Kenya.....	5
Figure 2:	GDP per capita and GDP growth rates (projected from 2021 to 2026), Ethiopia, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda and Uganda	6
Figure 3:	Number of 15- to 24-year-olds from 2020 projected to 2030	8
Figure 4:	Number of 15- to 24-year-olds as a percentage of the total population, projected to 2030	8
Figure 5:	Comparison of the populations of Kenya, Uganda and Malawi, 2020.....	9
Figure 6:	Number of 15- to 24-year-olds and 15- to 24-year-olds as a percentage of the total population, projected to 2030	10
Figure 7:	Population of Mozambique by 5 year age bands and sex, 2020	10
Figure 8:	Percentage of the total population living in extreme poverty in selected East and Southern African countries by sex.....	11
Figure 9:	Percentage of youth population (aged 15-24) living in extreme poverty by sex ..	12
Figure 10:	NEET rates from the ILO modelled estimates by sex and age group 15-24 years.	18
Figure 11:	NEET rates based on survey data used in this analysis of youth NEET by sex and age group 15-24 years	19
Figure 12:	Population of youth in Uganda by sex and age group 15-24 years.....	20
Figure 13:	Percentage of youth by activity status – NEET; employed; employed and in education; and in education only, by sex and age group 15-19 years.....	21
Figure 14:	Percentage of youth by activity status – NEET; employed; employed and in education; and in education only, by sex and age group 20-24 years.....	22
Figure 15:	Percentage of Mozambiquan youth by activity status – NEET; employed; employed and in education; and in education only, by sex and age group (15-19 and 20-24)	23
Figure 16:	Uganda: Number of employed youth engaged in paid work by type, by sex and age group.....	25
Figure 17:	Percentage of population engaged in Ganyu/casual labour at any time in the year* and average daily wage by age group and sex.....	26
Figure 18:	Percentage of employed Mozambiquan youth by urban or rural residence, sector, sex and age group (15-19 and 20-24)	26
Figure 19:	Family worker in Mozambique without remuneration by urban or rural residence, sex and age group (15-19 and 20-24).....	27
Figure 20:	Percentage of employed youth in Ethiopia by type of employment, sex and age (15-24)	27
Figure 21:	Family farming in Ethiopia only or mainly for own use	28
Figure 22:	Percentage of youth (15-24) attaining or completing junior secondary or senior secondary school by sex and age group	29
Figure 23:	Botswana education enrolment by age and gender.....	30

Figure 24: Malawi education enrolment by age and gender.....	31
Figure 25: Percentage of Ethiopian youth currently enrolled in education by level of education, sex and age (15-24)	34
Figure 26: Percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds by highest level of education attained, sex and age group	35
Figure 27: Married or cohabiting NEET and EET youth as a percentage of youth by sex and age in single years (15-24).....	41
Figure 28: Urban and Rural NEET in Mozambique as a percentage of youth by sex and age group (15-19 and 20-24).....	44
Figure 29: Uganda: Percentage of youth engaged in unpaid work by type	51
Figure 30: Percentage of women in education, employed, NEET and married by age.....	58
Figure 31: Percentage of Mozambique women in education, employed, NEET and married by age	59
Figure 32: Population Pyramids – Botswana, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa and Uganda	66

List of Tables

Table 1: GDP per capita in US\$ projected to 2026	7
Table 2: GDP percentage growth rates projected to 2026	7
Table 3: Percentages of women married at the age of 19 and 24 and percentages of adolescent pregnancies and births for selected East and Southern African countries	14
Table 4: Percentage of women and men in the survey by age group 15-24 years.....	20
Table 5: NEET as a percentage of the youth by sex and age group 15-24 years.....	23
Table 6: Percentage of youth between 15 and 19 by highest level attained and sex and age group 15-19 years	32
Table 7: Percentage of youth between 20 and 24 by highest level attained and sex and age group 20-24 years.....	33
Table 8: List of variables used in the logistic regression model and method used for compiling the coding.....	37
Table 9: Probability of NEET status: Women.....	39
Table 10: Probability of NEET status: Married	40
Table 11: Probability of NEET status: Has a child	42
Table 12: Probability of NEET status: 20-24 years	42
Table 13: Probability of NEET status: Urban, by sex and age group	43
Table 14: Probability of NEET status: Highest level of education attained.....	45
Table 15: Probability of NEET status: Female head of household.....	48
Table 16: Probability of NEET status: Household characteristics.....	49
Table 17: Probability of NEET status: Unpaid domestic, care and family agricultural/enterprise work	52
Table 18: Probability of NEET status: Community characteristics.....	53

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ALMP	Active labour market policies
BQMTS Q1 2020	Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey: Labour Force Module Q1 2020
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
EET	In employment, education or training
ESA	Eastern and Southern Africa Region
ESS 2018/19	Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19
GDP	Gross domestic product
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ICLS	International Conference of Labour Statisticians
IHS5	Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey
ILO	International Labour Organisation
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
LFPR	Labour Force Participation Rate
LMIC	Low to middle income country
MFBS 2018/19	Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2018/19
NEET	Not in employment, education or training
NIDS 2016	Namibian Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PPP	Purchasing power parity
RLFS 2019	Rwanda's Labour Force Survey 2019
SAGHS 2019	South Africa General Household Survey 2019
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UN DESA	United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UN Population Division	United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UN Women ESA-RO	UN Women Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNHS 2019/20	Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 8 focuses on promoting sustained, inclusive, and sustainable economic growth and full and productive employment and decent work for all. Target 6 of SDG 8 aims to substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training (NEET) by 2020. This links well with UN Women's groundbreaking, multigenerational campaign: **“Generation Equality: Realizing Women's Rights for an Equal Future”**. The global campaign focuses on advocacy around equal pay, equal sharing of unpaid care and domestic work, an end to sexual harassment and all forms of violence against women and girls, health-care services that respond to their needs, and women and girl's equal participation in political life and decision-making in all areas of life.

To ensure that recovery from the COVID-19 pandemic also impacts on reducing the number of youth NEET, especially young women, UN Women East and Southern Africa commissioned a quantitative research report on the status of youth NEET in nine countries in the region which had recently conducted a household or labour force survey and have data available for analysis. This report is a summary of the nine individual country reports, which each have a detailed analysis of the determinants of youth NEET. The countries covered in the study are **Botswana, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa, and Uganda**.

The report is based on a literature review, as well as a quantitative analysis and modelling of available household or labour force survey data. It examines the characteristics of youth NEET in each of the nine countries included in the study. The International Labour Organization (ILO) standard definitions of employment (2013) were used to compute the composite SDG indicator 8.6.1 used in the study. The NEET findings of this report differ from the officially published NEET rates of the ILO and the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD)¹ in instances where the published indicator values for indicator 8.6.1 are based on the previous ILO definition of employment, which includes unpaid work for the household. The exact methods of computation and details on the modelling approach are in the appendix section of this report.

NEET rates are intimately associated and connected with what is happening in the economy and labour market of a particular country². The **contextual findings** of the study suggest that in all countries except Ethiopia and Malawi, young women are more likely than men to live in extreme poverty³. Forty per cent or more of youth aged 15-24 years in Rwanda, Malawi, and Mozambique live in extreme poverty⁴. While Botswana, South Africa, Namibia, and Kenya have the highest GDP per capita of countries in this

¹ Formerly the United Nations Statistical Office

² O'Higgins 2017

³ UN Women et. al 2020

⁴ UN Women et. al 2020

study, only Botswana and Kenya have anticipated economic growth rates that show some promise for substantial youth employment creation⁵. Given the strong dependence on agriculture in most countries included in the study, the household agricultural sector is likely to provide most new employment in the coming decade.

NEET rates for youth aged 15-19 years largely comprise young people who have dropped out of the education system. NEET rates in this age group are higher than 30 per cent in Botswana, Ethiopia, and Mozambique and between 20 and 30 per cent in Malawi, Namibia, Uganda and Rwanda.

While education is also a factor in NEET rates for youth aged 20-24 years old, NEET rates for this age group are largely related to access to employment. NEET rates are above 40 per cent for youth aged 20-24 years in East and Southern Africa. The highest NEET rate for young women aged 20-24 years is 68 per cent in Ethiopia, followed by 56 per cent in South Africa, 55 per cent each in Namibia and Malawi, 53 per cent in Kenya and 50 per cent in Uganda. For young men in this age group, NEET rates were highest in Botswana (49%), South Africa and Ethiopia (47% each), and Namibia (41%). The biggest gaps between women and men for this age group were found in Malawi (women 55%; men 32%), Uganda (women 50%; men 25%), and Ethiopia (women 68%; men 47%).

The study identified several factors leading to youth NEET status. These can be broadly grouped into early marriage and childbearing, education-related factors, and labour market-related factors. For young women, **marriage and working in unpaid family farming** have the greatest impact on their increased NEET status. By the age of 19 years, 60 per cent of women in Mozambique, 46 per cent in Malawi, and 30 per cent in Uganda are married. In Mozambique, 38 per cent of women aged 15-19 years are either pregnant or have already had a child, with 33 per cent of their counterparts in Malawi and 32 per cent in Uganda in the same situation. In all the countries studied, more than 80 per cent of married 15-19-year-olds are NEET. Employment rates begin to increase among married 20-24 year-olds in Malawi, Mozambique and Uganda.

Countries in East and Southern Africa have **near-universal enrolment in primary school and rapidly increasing access to secondary education**. However, the quality of education varies between countries⁶. Secondary school enrollment rates for 15-19-year-olds are still 60 per cent or below for both women and men in all the countries studied except Namibia, Kenya, and South Africa. Botswana, Kenya, and South Africa have high school completion rates but very few employment opportunities and less than 5 per cent of 15-19-year-olds are employed after leaving school. In Botswana 70 per cent of 20-24-year-old women have attained upper secondary schooling or higher education. Young men are more mobile and able to seek work or take up labour opportunities away from home – even while they are still at school. However, this appears to negatively affect both the quality and time it takes to complete their education.

Young men are more likely than young women to find employment. The gender gap in employment rates is highest in youth between 20 and 24 years. This can be partially attributed to the fact that young men are more mobile and can seek or take up labour opportunities away from home – this begins even while they are still in school. Young men can also leave home in search of work and take up jobs that may be deemed unsuitable or unsafe for young women such as driving taxis or migrant farm labour. Even though agriculture remains the biggest potential job creator for rural youth, work in unpaid

⁵ IMF 2021

⁶ Findings from international indicators as analyzed by Bashir et. al. (2018)

family agriculture is one of the greatest determinants of NEET status in women aged 20-24 years in Uganda, Mozambique, Rwanda, and Kenya. Additionally, family agriculture for profit employs up to 30 per cent of 15-29-year-olds and 20 per cent of 20-24-year-olds in Uganda these countries as well as 20 per cent of 20-24-year-olds in Malawi and Ethiopia. In Mozambique, the NEET rates is lower as a result of increases in employment from 7 per cent at 15 years old to nearly 50 per cent at 21 years old, predominantly on family farms and in family enterprises. More than 60 per cent of Mozambique youth live in extreme poverty. Leaving school and getting married without having ever entered the labour market gives women limited agency around childbearing and permanently entrenches NEET status.

Policy priorities

Early marriage and pregnancy

- **Laws:** Fully implement and enforce existing laws on teenage pregnancy and motherhood
- **Options:** Give young women real choices about marriage and their reproductive health
- **Information and accessible healthcare:** Address social norms that limit providing reproductive health information and school-based health care for young women at the highest levels of government
- **Advocacy and community dialogues:** Initiate campaigns to address harmful practices that affect girls and young women

Education

- **Investment:** to improve girls' transition from primary to secondary school and beyond.
- **Content:** improving the quality and relevance of curricula to make the cost versus benefits of girls remaining in school evident for families for easier decision-making.
- **Initiatives to boost retention:** for young women through providing adolescent-friendly clinics, free school uniforms and menstrual products in schools.
- **Back-to-school initiatives:** encouraging young women to return to school after childbirth
- **“Second chance” strategies:** for married and unmarried young women who have left school for various reasons to re-enroll.
- **Tackling national-level poverty:** to address the conditions that necessitate young women and men leaving school to work for the family, help at home, or get married.

Socio-economic

- **Opportunities for women:** to contribute towards their family's finances should be created
- **Quality employment:** ensure decent work and working conditions that are conducive to women's employment and do not exploit the gender pay gap
- **Labour market policies:** these are particularly valuable for (young) women as they enable them to gain essential skills and work experience and provide guidance on non-traditional work opportunities
- **Soft skills:** including communication, problem-solving, digital, and IT skills are cost effective and should be provided to complement the formal education system.
- **Business, finance, youth and gender training and support:** particularly to help young women overcome norms that prevent them from finding decent work for equal pay or starting a business.
- **Productive agricultural inputs and modern farming methods:** for women and youth to address gender productivity gaps resulting from lack of access to these and challenges such as insecure land rights, gender-based distortions in product markets, rigid sex-based divisions of labour at the household level, among others.

Child labour

- **Laws:** governments must implement and enforce laws to address the often-exploitative nature of informal and part-time youth labour. Child labour only has negative consequences for children, but also contributes to depriving youth (and adults) of paid work opportunities.

1 INTRODUCTION

Neither good quality education nor productive employment is universally available to the world's youth and reducing the number of young people who are not in employment, education or training (NEET) is target 8.6 of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (UN DESA, 2021). The ILO, in their *Global Employment Trends for Youth 2020* estimate that:

“One-fifth of young people currently have NEET status, which means they are neither gaining experience in the labour market, nor receiving an income from work, nor enhancing their education and skills. Clearly, their full potential is not being realized, though many may be contributing to the economy through unpaid work, which is particularly true of young women” (ILO 2020a).

The indicator, which measures the percentage of young people who are NEET is an important concept that captures a broad array of vulnerabilities among youth. Touching on issues of early school leaving, unemployment and labour market discouragement, NEET status also highlights the issues of youth who are engaged in family labour, domestic and care work for own consumption and thus unpaid. The consequences of high NEET rates are twofold. Firstly, on an individual level, absence from both education and employment increase the risk of poverty and a permanent disengagement from the labour market. Secondly, on a country level, high NEET rates are a loss in terms of unused labour supply, lower productivity and lower Gross Domestic Product (GDP) output.

Young women in East and Southern Africa (ESA) are disproportionately affected by NEET status. Leaving school early, early marriages, assisting with subsistence farming, unpaid domestic work, taking care of family members and fewer opportunities to take up work which may be seen as inappropriate or unsafe for young women, all play a role in the NEET status of young women. NEET status is also more likely to become a permanent state for young women. The NEET rate in many developing countries declines very little for young women between 15 and 24 years old when ten years later the cohort is between the ages of 25 and 34 years (ILO 2020a).

While development efforts and declining poverty rates and shifts in gender norms over the past two decades were slowly improving the overall outlook for young women and men in the East and Southern African region, the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic threatens to roll back these gains (UN Women 2020a). Given both the potential and the necessity to develop young adults' contribution to future economic and social development, world commitments to the Sustainable Development Goals have emphasised increased quality education, greater training opportunities and initiatives to increase youth employment.

Since 2020 the COVID-19 pandemic and associated worldwide economic decline has affected the region with job losses and an increase in poverty; schools and educational institutions have been closed for extended periods; development initiatives, healthcare services and nutrition levels have declined (UN Women 2020a). Young adults whose place in the labour market is often informal, temporary and tenuous at best have seen greater job and income losses than their parents. Increased numbers of young adults are likely to be lost to the education system. Young women are more vulnerable to the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic. Interrupted education, economic and food insecurity, disruptions in services, unplanned pregnancy, all increase the risk of early marriage (UNICEF and UNFPA 2021).

To ensure that recovery from the COVID-19 pandemic also impacts on reducing the number of youth NEET, especially young women, the UN Women Eastern and Southern African Regional Office (UN Women ESA-RO) has commissioned a quantitative research report on the status of youth NEET in ESA countries – nine of which had recently conducted a household or labour force survey and have data available for analysis.

This report is a summary of the nine individual country reports, which each have a detailed analysis of the determinants of youth NEET. The report will provide an analysis of available household or labour force survey data that examines the characteristics of youth NEET in each of the nine countries included in the study. It will develop statistical models to better understand the current situation of youth NEET and will also look at whether there are determining factors that characterise the difference between young women and men who are NEET. In this regard country specific household data sets will be used to understand some of the complex interactions between poverty, employment opportunities for young women, household factors, education attainment, family structures and gender.

The countries in the study are Botswana, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa, and Uganda.

The following survey data was used in each country to describe and analyse youth NEET:

- Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey: Labour Force Module Q1 2020;
- Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19;
- Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019;
- Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020;
- Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20;
- Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016;
- Rwanda Labour Force Survey 2019;
- South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and
- Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20.

The report is structured as follows:

It will first give an overview of the economic, demographic and gender context of the countries in ESA in the study. Growth prospects and employment opportunities will affect strategies to address the lack of access that young people have to paid work. However, these are affected by the projected size of the youth population and their current socioeconomic status. The interaction between poverty, access to social services and gender norms frequently lead to young women leaving school and into marriage and childbearing before accessing employment. The majority of young women in Malawi, Mozambique and Uganda are in this cycle. Adolescent childbearing is over 30 per cent in these countries.

Mozambique: Unlike many of the other countries in East and Southern Africa, Mozambique has low levels of girls and young women's enrolment in education. Young women are leaving school early to assist in family agriculture or enterprises and many are getting married while still teenagers. According to the Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/2020, 61 per cent of young women in Mozambique are married by the time they are 19. The pregnancy rate amongst adolescents is 38 per cent (Jaén-Sánchez et. al. 2020).

Young women in Rwanda and Ethiopia are not faced with the same prospects of early marriage, but their access to education is still limited and women in Ethiopia between 20 and 24 years old have the highest NEET rates of the nine countries in the study. Kenya's economic growth prospects are the highest in East Africa and young women are gaining more years of education and increased employment opportunities than any of the countries included in the study.

Using the various countries' survey data, the next section of the report gives a description of youth by status - NEET, employed or in education. This data is disaggregated by age group and sex. Methodological and definitional issues surrounding the calculation of the NEET rate and the definition of employment used in the surveys is discussed in this section. The coverage bias which undercounts young men in certain countries is also discussed.

The third section of the report presents analytical statistics and the determinants of youth NEET. Logistical regression models are used to calculate the probability of young women having NEET status depending on their circumstances. The variables tested for their effect on NEET status are age, marriage, childbirth, highest level of education attained, time spent in unpaid family agriculture or enterprise, family structure, urban or rural residence. Not all surveys had data on all these variables and only two countries - Namibia and South Africa collected information on childbearing.

The fourth section of the report is the conclusion and recommendations that arise from the data analysis. Many of these recommendations reinforce the countries' current development agendas and the work done by committed stakeholders and development agencies.

2

DESCRIPTION OF THE CONTEXT

The country context plays a determining role in the prospects for young people's ability to attain good quality education and enter the labour market. Economic development, demographic growth and societal attitudes towards young women affect whether all young people can realise their potential and contribute to overall development and reductions in poverty which have been eroded by the impact of COVID-19.

This section gives a brief description of the economic growth prospects for the region in terms of GDP annual growth and GDP per capita. It presents the projected growth of the youth population and the prospects of attaining the relative decreases in the youth population for the demographic dividend to begin to have an impact. The section then looks at the impact of poverty, the gender dimensions of development in ESA and the extent to which young women's progress is still constrained by poverty, inequality and societal attitudes. Issues related to education and employment are considered as central to the NEET analysis and are therefore discussed in more detail in Section 3.

2.1 Economic growth projections

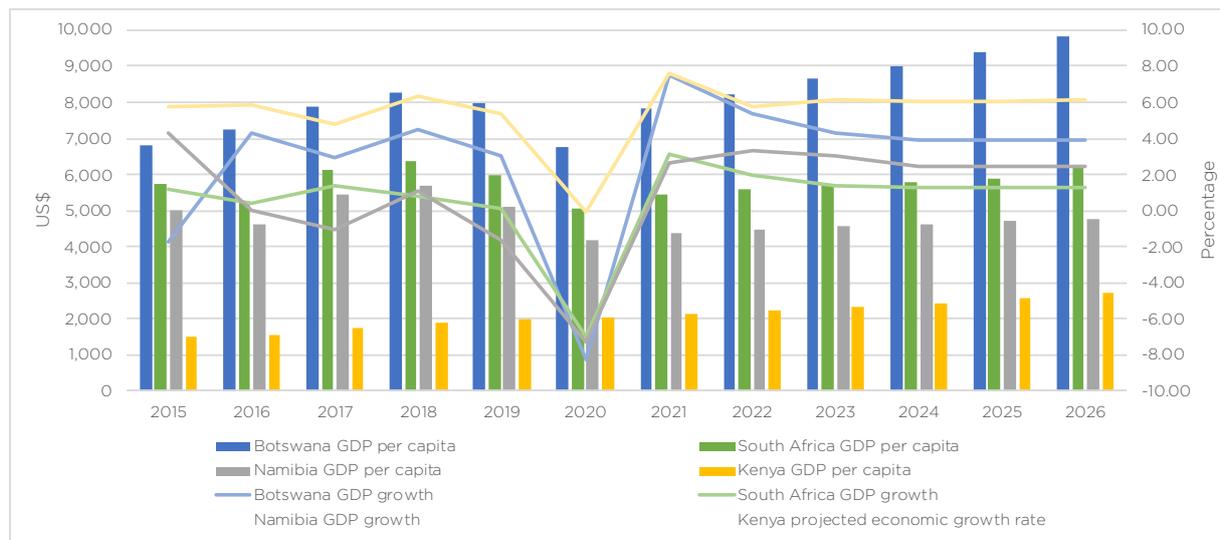
One of the most consistent, indeed universal, findings in the literature on the causes of youth labour market outcomes is that aggregate demand is a fundamental determinant of the state of the youth labour market. It is firmly established that what happens to young people as they enter the labour market is very much dependent on what is going on in the economy as a whole (O'Higgins 2017).

The ESA sub-region is projected to have mixed prospects for growth and development in the next five years. Before the Covid-19 pandemic, three of the wealthiest countries in ESA in terms of GDP per capita, namely Botswana, South Africa and Namibia, had extremely low economic growth and growing numbers of unemployed youth. The sub-region also contains two of the world's poorest countries, Malawi and Mozambique, which have GDP per capita of US\$388 and US\$ 488 respectively (IMF 2021). Figures 1 and 2; and Tables 1 and 2 show the GDP per capita and the GDP growth rates for the countries included in the report from 2015 projected to 2026. The countries can be broadly grouped in relation to the relative size of the 15–24-year-old population, economic growth prospects and to the potential to harness the demographic dividend in the region.

Botswana, South Africa, Namibia and Kenya; While these four countries have the highest GDP per capita of the countries in the study, only Botswana and Kenya have a projected GDP growth with prospects for substantial employment creation in the youth labour force (IMF 2021). Botswana, Namibia and South Africa were particularly badly affected by the drop in commodities prices during the COVID-19 pandemic and all experienced more than minus 6 per cent growth rate in 2020. While these three countries are projected to recover, only Botswana is expected to have an increase in its GDP per capita over the next five years.

Kenya has a rapidly growing economy which is projected to nearly double its GDP per capita between 2015 and 2026. Over the past decade Kenya has been able to diversify into several productive sectors that are increasing the numbers of youth in employment. Growth over the past decade in the services sector, agribusiness, horticulture and tourism has offered increased employment opportunities for young people (Munga et. al. 2021). While the COVID-19 pandemic had less of an impact on the Kenyan economy than other ESA countries, the tourism sector which is a major source of employment for young women will take a number of years to recover.

Figure 1: GDP per capita and GDP growth rates (projected from 2021 to 2026), Botswana, South Africa, Namibia and Kenya



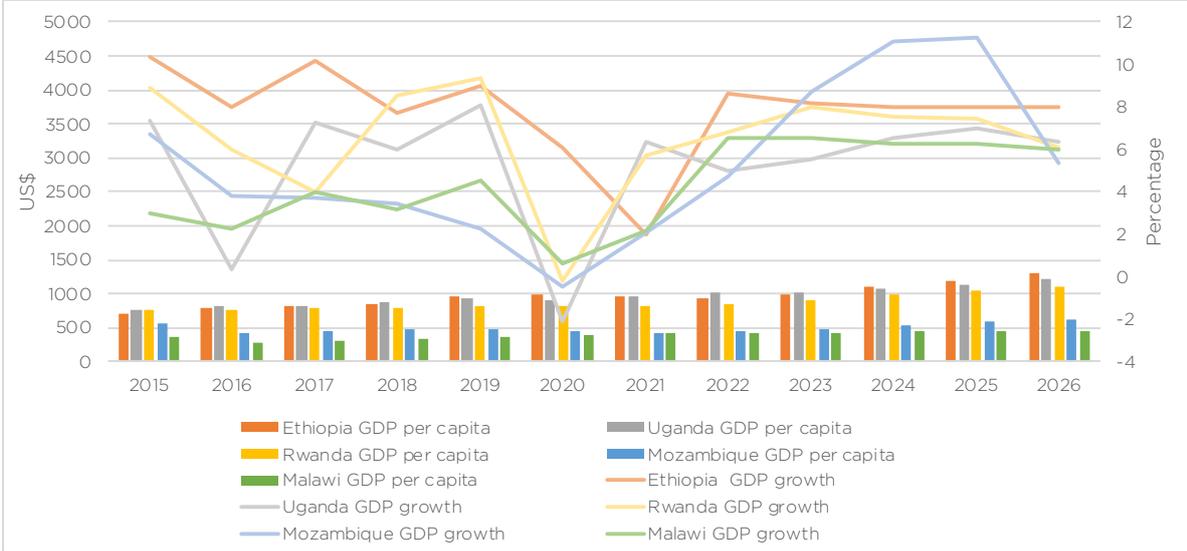
Source: IMF World Economic Outlook Database (2021).

Malawi, Rwanda and Uganda are projected to have increases in economic growth rate of between 6 per cent and 8 per cent from 2022 to 2026. However, all three countries had somewhat volatile growth rates leading up to 2019, with the agricultural sector particularly affected by drought in Southern Africa (IMF 2021). The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic in all three countries has seen an increase in poverty and previous gains in human development have been adversely affected by reductions in healthcare services and lengthy school closures (World Bank 2021).

Ethiopia and Mozambique were projected to have the greatest GDP growth prospects for the period 2022-2026 in the region. However, Mozambique’s economic growth was projected to be driven by recent discoveries of fossil fuels. Moreover, conflict in the region has created uncertainty around growth prospects. In any event, converting gains from fossil fuels into decreased poverty, increased education and training as well as employment for young people will take time (IMF 2021). Currently 60 per cent of Mozambique’s population live in extreme poverty.

Ethiopia sustained an economic growth rate of between 8 and 10 per cent for the past decade. However, due to the pandemic, severe drought in the Sahel and heightened civil conflict, GDP growth was estimated to have dropped to 2 per cent in 2021. Per capita GDP is projected to drop from US\$1000 in 2020 to US\$850 in 2022 (World Bank 2021). While a slower recovery was projected for Ethiopia than other countries in the sub-region, GDP growth was projected to reach 8per cent during 2022 and be sustained to 2026. Figure 2 shows the IMF growth projections from the *World Economic Outlook* in April 2021. The IMF’s October 2021 outlook currently has no data on Ethiopia’s growth projections given the challenges that currently face the country (IMF 2022). Ethiopia is currently facing famine conditions due to severe drought and locust infestations in the south east of the country which threatens the livelihoods of millions of Ethiopians. This, coupled with ongoing civil conflict, will see millions displaced and poverty levels rising for the most vulnerable sectors of society (AfDB 2021).

Figure 2: GDP per capita and GDP growth rates (projected from 2021 to 2026), Ethiopia, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda and Uganda



Source: IMF World Economic Outlook Database (2021).

Table 1: GDP per capita in US\$ projected to 2026

	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026
Botswana	6,811	7,249	7,883	8,290	7,979	6,781	7,817	8,234	8,664	8,992	9,364	9,826
Ethiopia	703	791	829	852	968	994	952	926	1,000	1,097	1,193	1,299
Kenya	1,483	1,562	1,738	1,888	2,004	2,039	2,129	2,214	2,323	2,446	2,582	2,729
Malawi	354	295	325	350	378	407	432	434	437	442	448	460
Mozambique	570	415	445	485	488	450	425	442	481	537	601	631
Namibia	5,020	4,612	5,439	5,664	5,100	4,175	4,371	4,488	4,564	4,628	4,695	4,768
Rwanda	760	759	784	796	816	819	821	852	917	983	1,053	1,114
South Africa	5,732	5,267	6,120	6,354	5,978	5,067	5,444	5,600	5,688	5,778	5,871	6,233
Uganda	773	808	833	878	949	912	972	1,025	1,023	1,072	1,145	1,227

Source: IMF World Economic Outlook Database (2021).

Table 2: GDP percentage growth rates projected to 2026

	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026
Botswana	-1.70	4.30	2.90	4.48	3.03	-8.25	7.51	5.40	4.27	3.89	3.90	3.91
Ethiopia	10.40	8.00	10.21	7.70	9.04	6.06	2.00	8.68	8.20	8.01	8.01	8.00
Kenya	5.72	5.88	4.81	6.32	5.37	-0.13	7.56	5.73	6.14	6.08	6.10	6.11
Malawi	2.95	2.27	4.00	3.17	4.50	0.60	2.20	6.50	6.50	6.3	6.25	6.00
Mozambique	6.72	3.82	3.74	3.44	2.28	-0.50	2.10	4.70	8.69	11.11	11.30	5.33
Namibia	4.26	0.03	-1.03	1.10	-1.65	-7.24	2.62	3.34	2.99	2.49	2.49	2.49
Rwanda	8.87	5.97	3.99	8.58	9.40	-0.20	5.69	6.84	7.95	7.53	7.48	6.06
South Africa	1.19	0.40	1.42	0.79	0.15	-6.96	3.10	1.97	1.40	1.30	1.30	1.30
Uganda	7.33	0.34	7.28	5.97	8.04	-2.10	6.35	4.99	5.5	6.50	7.01	6.37

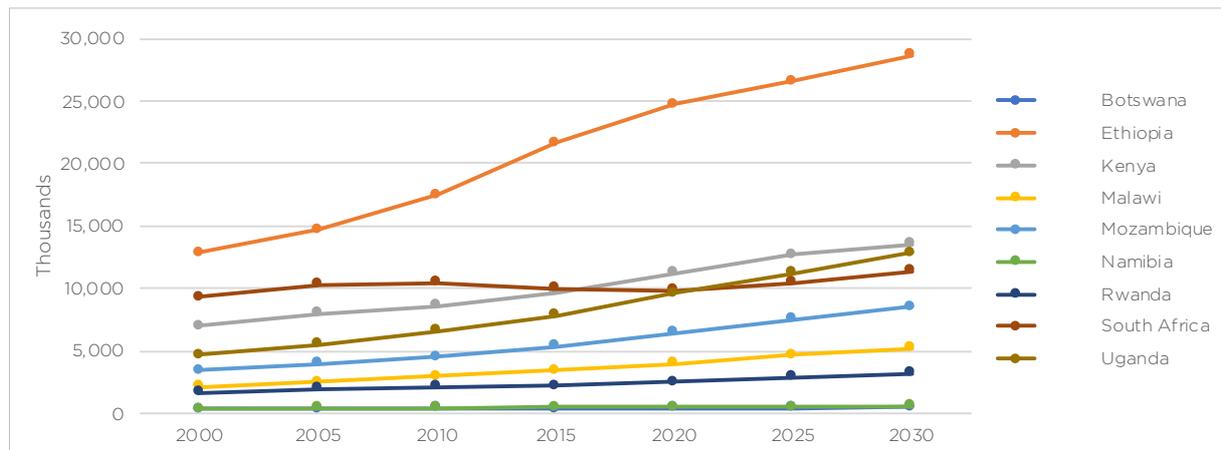
Source: IMF World Economic Outlook Database (2021).

2.2 Projected growth of the youth population

Population growth impacts at a macroeconomic level in per capita terms, in the labour absorption capacity and in the state's ability to provide services. At a family level without sufficient employment the number of dependents increases and the potential for a spiral of vulnerabilities increases. Those countries whose population growth rates have slowed down “are much better placed to achieve economic take-off and middle-income status” (Bryceson 2018).

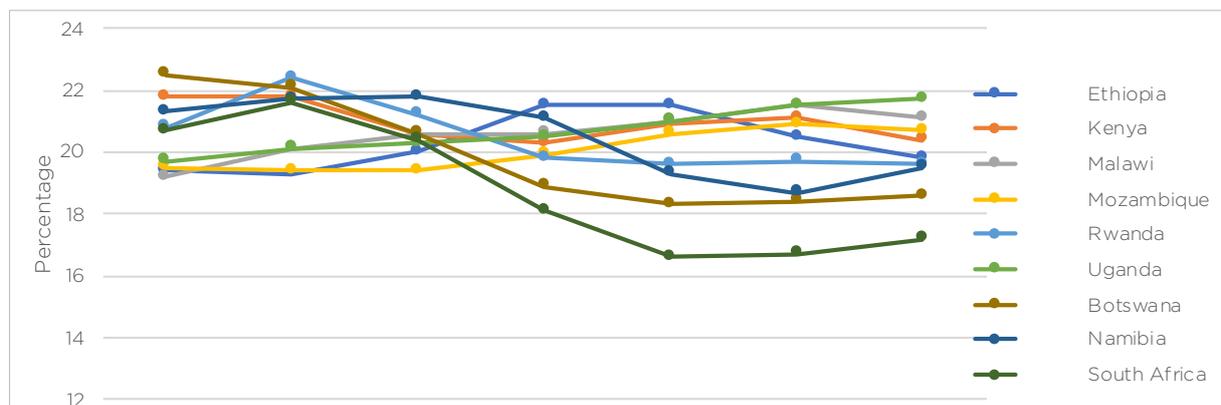
The prospects for social development and employment for youth will depend on how fast the population of an individual country is growing and whether the GDP and delivery of resources can keep pace with the growth. Figure 3 depicts the projected number of youth to 2030 and Figure 4 provides the number of youth as a percentage of the total population for each country in the report.

Figure 3: Number of 15- to 24-year-olds from 2020 projected to 2030



Source: UN Population Division (2019), author's calculations.

Figure 4: Number of 15- to 24-year-olds as a percentage of the total population, projected to 2030



Source: UN Population Division (2019), Author's calculations.

Botswana, Namibia and South Africa have population growth rates¹ of 2.1 per cent, 1.9 per cent and 1.4 per cent respectively and the percentage of 15- to-24-year-olds to the total population has been declining in all three countries since 2020 (UNFPA 2022). These countries have the lowest number of youth as a percentage of the total population in the region – between 17 per cent and 19 per cent (UN Population Division 2019).

Kenya, Rwanda and Ethiopia's population growth rates (2.3 per cent, 2.6 per cent and 2.6 per cent respectively) (UNFPA 2022) have stabilised sufficiently to see a levelling-off of youth as a percentage of the total population (20.5 per cent, 19 per cent and 19 per cent respectively) (UN Population Division 2019).

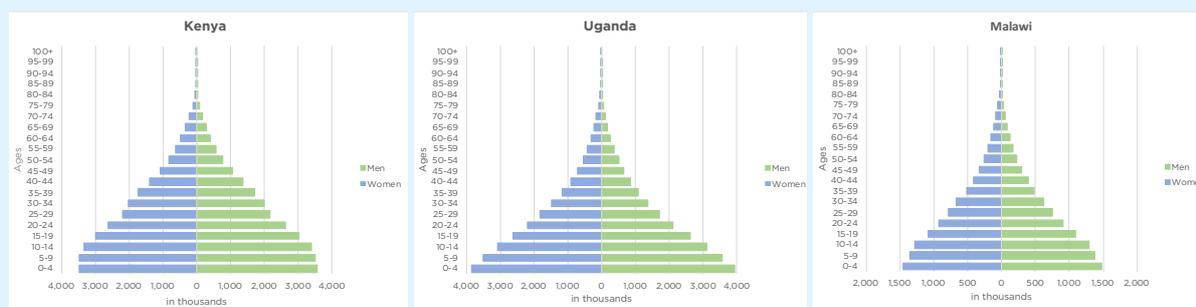
Malawi, Uganda and Mozambique all have high population growth rates (2.7 per cent, 2.9 per cent and 3.6 per cent respectively) in comparison to other countries in ESA (UNFPA 2022). Their percentage of youth to the total population is 21.2 per cent, 21.2 per cent and 21 per cent respectively. Only Malawi has a slight reduction in the percentage youth population between 2025 and 2030; Mozambique and Uganda's 15- to 24-year-old youth populations are projected to grow to 2030; with Uganda's youth population reaching 21.9 per cent of their total population (UN Population Division 2019).

¹ Calculated as the average annual rate of population change between 2015-2020 (UNFPA 2022)

Box 1: The demographic dividend – a comparison between youth population prospects in Kenya, Uganda and Malawi

The demographic dividend can only be realised when the population of young people starts to decrease as a percentage of the total population. (UN Population Division 2019)

Figure 5: Comparison of the populations of Kenya, Uganda and Malawi, 2020



Source: UN Population Division 2019, author's calculations. Other countries' population pyramids are in Appendix 3.

Kenya is potentially in a position where the demographic dividend could be realised; economic growth can begin to absorb a higher percentage of young adults into the labour market and increases in GDP per capita can further reduce the number of people living in poverty.

Malawi has a total population growth rate of 2.7 per cent but the youth population is projected to grow as a percentage of the total population until 2030 (UN Population Division 2019). A more urgent intervention to reduce the population growth rate is needed if the demographic dividend is to be realised sooner.

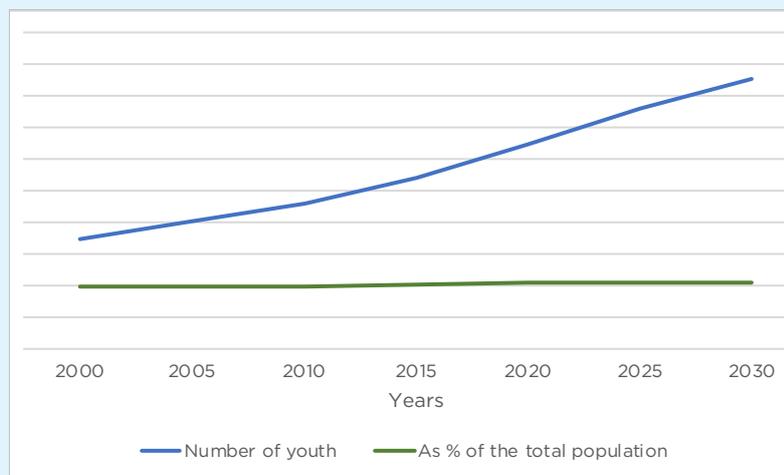
Uganda's population growth rate of 3.3 per cent reflects a crisis in unmet need for reproductive health care, especially amongst the youth. The childbirth and pregnancy rate of women aged 15 to 19 is currently at 32 per cent (UBOS 2021, Kasa et. al. 2018).

Box 2: Population Growth in Mozambique driven by adolescent childbirth and pregnancy rates of 38 per cent

The population growth rate in Mozambique is currently 3.6 per cent. Rates of adolescent childbirth and pregnancy at 38 per cent are the highest in the sub-region, endangering both mothers' and their children's health. Early marriage and childbearing are more prevalent where poverty; limited access to employment or education; and limited access to reproductive healthcare offer young women few other options.

Figure 6 shows the number youth and youth as a percentage of the total population projected to 2030. While the percentage of 15 to 24 year olds to total population remains at 21 per cent, this is more likely due to the continued growth of the population under 15 years old rather than due to an overall decrease in population growth.

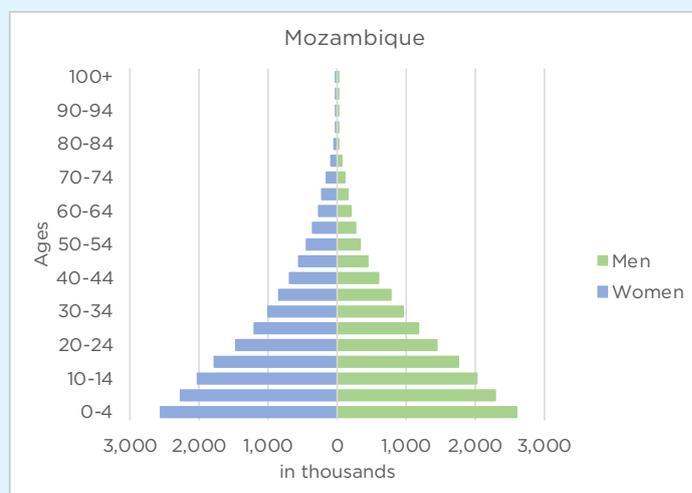
Figure 6: Number of 15- to 24-year-olds and 15- to 24-year-olds as a percentage of the total population, projected to 2030



Source: UN Population Division (2019), author's calculations.

Figure 7 shows the estimated 2020 population of Mozambique in five year age bands by sex. As with the Ugandan population pyramid shown in Figure 5, the growth between 5 year age bands in the Mozambique population continues to increase.

Figure 7: Population of Mozambique by 5 year age bands and sex, 2020



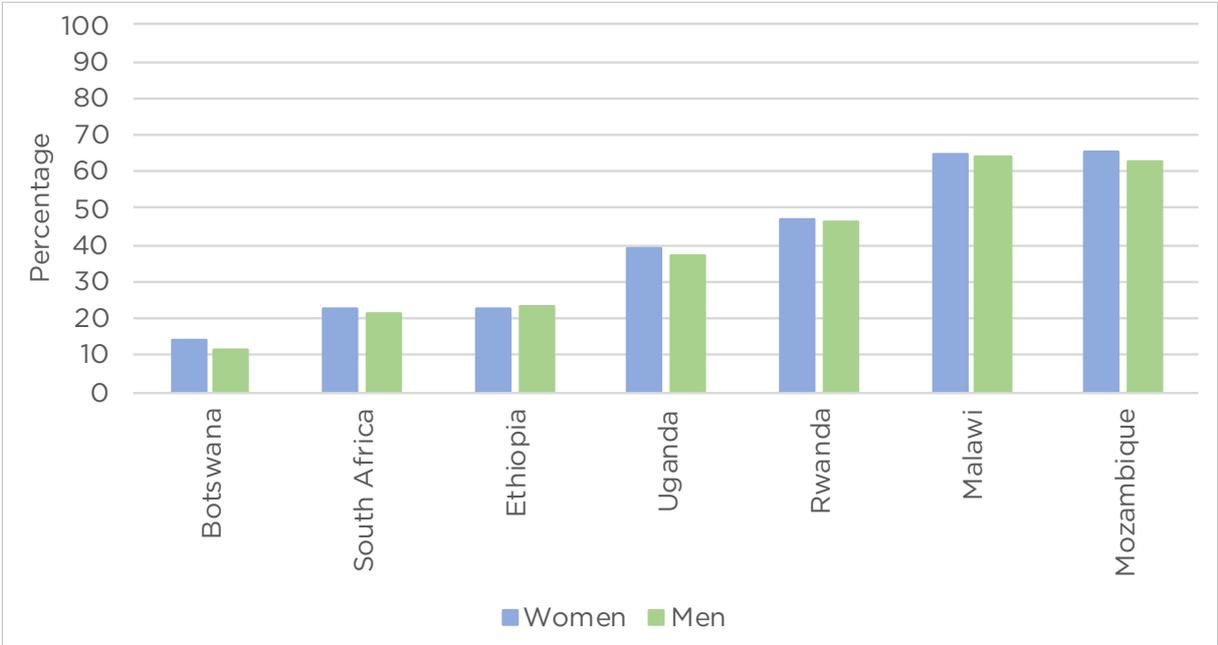
Source: UN Population Division (2019), author's calculations.

2.3 The impact of poverty on women

The COVID-19 pandemic has pushed more of Sub-Sahara's population into extreme poverty and widened the gap between women and men's poverty rates. More women have lost their livelihoods because they tend to work in sectors that were hit harder and more affected by restrictions, such as tourism, food production and trading, as well as more likely to be in temporary and part-time employment than men (UN Women 2020b).

Figure 8 shows the percentage of the total population living in extreme poverty (less than US\$ 1.90 per day) for selected countries in this NEET study. Poverty affects more women and children than men and is driven by unequal access to economic resources; the demands of childcare, domestic work and unpaid work on family farms or enterprises; gender discrimination in the labour market; the gender pay gap and social stigma around suitable occupations (UN Women 2018). In many predominantly agricultural countries fewer women than men are able to access paid agricultural work. Both productive agricultural work on family farms and casual, part time or day labour in rural areas is male dominated. Given the substantial proportions of rural households that are headed by women and engaged in farming predominantly for family consumption, reliance on agriculture leaves women and their children vulnerable to food shortages and persistent poverty (UN Women 2020b).

Figure 8: Percentage of the total population living in extreme poverty in selected East and Southern African countries by sex

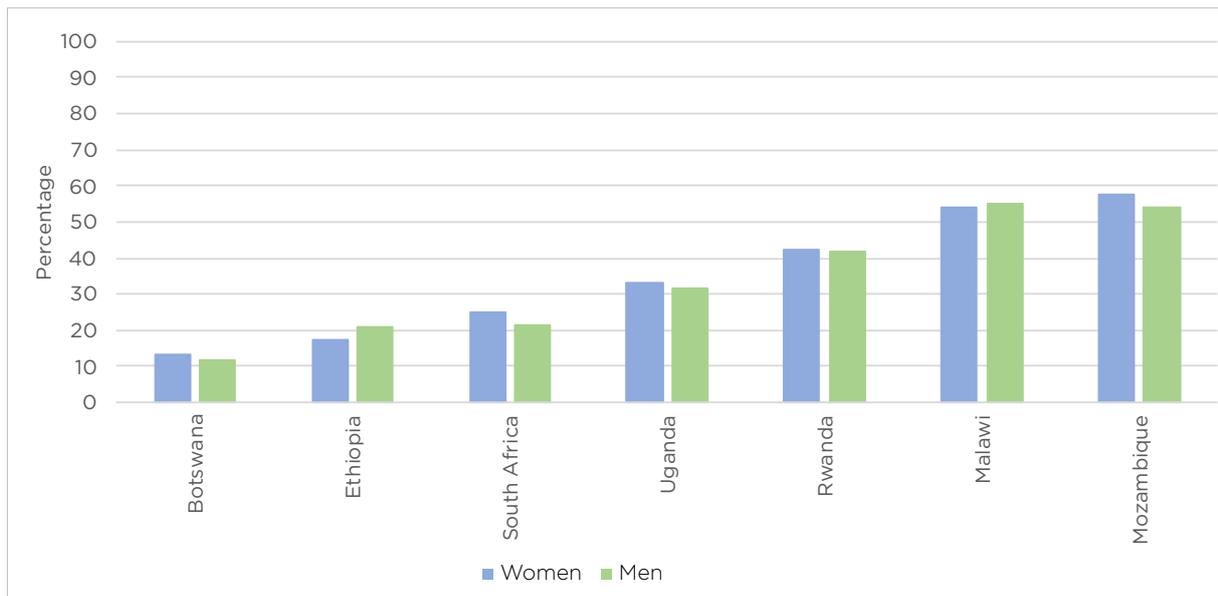


Notes: Extreme poverty is below US\$ 1.90 per person per day in 2011 parity purchasing power (PPP); Data not available for Kenya and Namibia. Source: UN Women et. al. (2020)

Figure 9 shows the percentage of youth 15-24 living in extreme poverty. Except for young women in South Africa, young people have lower poverty rates than the population in general.

In Ethiopia and Malawi young men are more likely to be living in extreme poverty than young women. Analysis of the Malawian IHS5 2020 and the Ethiopian Socioeconomic Survey (ESS) 2018/19 data shows more young men in both countries are migrating to urban centres where the NEET rate amongst the youth is proportionately *higher* than in rural areas.

Figure 9: Percentage of youth population (aged 15-24) living in extreme poverty by sex



Notes: Extreme poverty is below US\$ 1.90 per person per day in 2011 parity purchasing power (PPP); Data not available for Kenya and Namibia. Source: UN Women et. al. (2020)

2.4 Gender dimension of development in ESA

“Gender equality in employment and women’s access to decent work are hence essential measures of inclusive growth. A regular and independent source of income not only provides women with greater voice and agency in the household but has also been shown to increase investment in the well-being of other household members, particularly children, with benefits for long-term growth. Yet, gender inequalities in the labour market remain pervasive, with women being not only less likely to participate but also more likely to be concentrated in insecure, unprotected or under-protected and poorly remunerated employment. Occupational segregation and gender pay gaps persist, stubbornly, everywhere. Women’s development by way of increased access to wealth is good for economic growth and the prospects for future generations” (UN Women 2018).

Key gender equality indicators in ESA prior to the COVID-19 pandemic have shown improvement over the past decade, both in absolute terms and in relation to gender parity (UNDP Gender Inequality index²). In the past decade several factors such as increased economic growth, strong country commitments to gender equality, increased access to healthcare and education, tireless work by gender advocacy groups, and expanding infrastructure mean more positive prospects for women in most of the countries in ESA.

2 Available from <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii>. Accessed 24/02/2022.

2.4.1 Women's labour force participation

Several analyses have pointed out that these changes along with favourable economic conditions should, theoretically, have resulted in bigger increases in women's labour force participation rate (LFPR) across the developing world. Women's LFPR hasn't increased in many countries due to an "interplay of initial conditions, economic structure, structural change and persistent gender norms and values" (Klasen 2018). Unpaid household labour and subsistence work on family farms or household production for own use are not categorised as employment and in its role in keeping women out of the workforce is often under-acknowledged (Fox and Ghandi 2021 and Niewenhuis 2018). The number of women defined as inactive increases as women get married and have children. Fox and Ghandi (2021) argue that a strong negative effect of fertility on female labour force participation has been found in several studies.

Other impacts on the inactivity status of women would be societal, family and individual reasons for either leaving school or leaving the labour force. At this age childbearing and family responsibilities begin to move more young women out of the labour market (Fox and Ghandi 2021).

"Early marriage and child-bearing and the gender division of labour in the family often trap women outside of the labour market – certainly being employed is correlated with a delay in marriage and childbirth – all three of which improve the prospects for the individual woman and future generations..." Filmer and Fox (2014).

Niewenhuis (2018) expands on this point arguing that the relationship between work and family formation is entwined and that early marriage or childbearing may "not prevent work so much as trap young women in low-productivity activities performed in the household". Other constraints young women face are gender-based attitudes towards young women working, occupational segregation and fear of sexual harassment. There may also be a queueing system where unemployed older women (or men) in the household take up available jobs before younger women.

"Continued gender-based discrimination threatens to undermine the transformative potential of the 2030 Agenda" and more women continue to live in poverty than men – driven by unequal access to economic resources; the demands of childcare, domestic work and unpaid work on family farms or enterprises; gender discrimination in the labour market; the gender pay gap and social stigma around suitable occupations (UN Women 2018). The sheer weight of poverty in most of the ESA countries continues to be an impediment to gender equality. It is well established in research conducted over the past decades that "gender, poverty, inequality and economic inequality are intrinsically linked" (Niewenhuis et. al. 2018).

2.4.2 Early marriage and adolescent child-bearing

Perhaps one of the most profound symptoms of young women's disenfranchisement is seen in the number of early marriages and adolescent pregnancies across all countries in East and Southern Africa. Data on the rate of marriage amongst women between 15 and 24 was easily obtained from the various countries' survey data. Data on the rates of adolescent motherhood is not readily available and the data in Table 3 on adolescent child-bearing for most countries is compiled from meta-analyses (Kasa et. al. 2018 and Jaén-Sánchez et. al. 2020).

The highest rates of adolescent child-bearing are in Malawi, Mozambique and Uganda which are all over 30 per cent. A lack of access to further years of education; difficulty accessing reproductive health care and social norms that limit young women's agency; combined with endemic poverty levels underpin both teenage marriage and pregnancy. Kasa et. al. (2018) found that being married, living in rural areas, lower education levels of the young woman and her parents, and a lack of parent to adolescent sexual and reproductive health communication, all increased the probability of adolescent pregnancy.

Table 3: Percentages of women married at the age of 19 and 24 and percentages of adolescent pregnancies and births for selected East and Southern African countries

	Botswana	Ethiopia	Kenya	Malawi	Mozambique	Namibia	Rwanda	South Africa	Uganda
Percentage of women married at the age of 19	9	30	14	46	60	7	5	6	24
Percentage of women married at the age of 24	31	63	54	84	70	15	45	23	48
Percentage of women ages 15-19 who have had children or are currently pregnant	n. d.	6.7	18	33	38	19	7	19	32

Source: Mozambique adolescent birth and pregnancy rates from meta-analysis by Jaén-Sánchez et. al. (2020). South African adolescent birth and pregnancy rates from National Department of Health et. al. (2018). Kenya adolescent birth and pregnancy rates from Kenya Demographic and Health Survey 2014 in Kenya NCPD et. al. 2016. Ethiopia adolescent birth and pregnancy rates from UNDP (2020). The Uganda rates were obtained from the Uganda Demographic and Health Survey 2016. All other adolescent birth and pregnancy rates from meta-analysis by Kasa et..al. (2018). Marriage rates from country survey data, author's calculations.

While the percentage of marriages before the age of 18 are decreasing across most of the ESA countries in the study, it does not appear from Kasa et. al. (2018) that adolescent birth rates have decreased to the same extent. For example, in Malawi data from the 2016 DHS showed that 42 per cent of women aged 20-24 years were married or in union before the age of 18 (UN Women 2021) and data from the IHS5 2020 shows that 1 per cent of 15 year-olds; 5 per cent of 16 year-olds; and 11 per cent of 17 year-olds are married or in union.

The 2016 DHS data also shows that 29 per cent of women in the 15-19 year-old cohort had a child. Recent research by Dombola et. al. (2021) finds that the teenage pregnancy rate in Malawi is still over 30 per cent - increasing from approximately 2 per cent of 15 year-olds to 64 per cent of 19 year-olds having had a child. Data from the Kasa et. al. (2018) meta-analysis gives the adolescent birth pregnancy rate in Malawi as 33 per cent.

Adolescent child-bearing will have increased over the past two years as the Covid-19 pandemic has had a devastating impact on adolescent pregnancy and marriage. Increased poverty has pushed more young women into marriage and transactional sex. The lengthy closure of schools has left girls without the social protection that it offers and has had a negative impact on campaigns to end teenage pregnancy and marriage (UN Women 2020b).

3

ANALYSIS OF THE SURVEY DATA: A DESCRIPTION OF YOUTH NEET, EMPLOYED AND IN EDUCATION

Youth NEET are a highly diverse group and reasons for being NEET vary. There are many reasons why a young person may leave school and not actively be seeking a job. They may face particular obstacles; have other demands on their time such as assisting in family own use farm or [own use] enterprise production; they may be disabled, and/or there may simply be (or perceived to be) no suitable jobs available (ILO 2020b).

The relative number of youth NEET in a country is affected by how many 15- to 24-year-olds are able to access education or employment. To understand the drivers of NEET, it is also important to look at the prospects for youth in both of these areas. This section is not intended to be an exhaustive overview of the labour market or education system in each country but uses the country survey data to examine the number of youth enrolled in education and/or employed as well as the nature, where possible, of the work they do. Country examples of Ethiopia, Malawi, Mozambique and Uganda are shown in some detail.

3.1 Definition of NEET and employment

Across ESA the calculation of NEET rates is affected by the precise definition of employment captured in the various household survey instruments – which may differ slightly by survey and by country. Many countries are still in the process of updating household and labour force surveys to reflect the definition of employment as revised at the ILO 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (19th ICLS) in 2013 (ILO 2013).

The major revision in the definition of employment in the 19th ICLS is that it *excludes* “own use production work comprising production of goods and services for *own final use*” (ILO 2013). In East and Southern Africa NEET rates using the definition of employment from the 19th ICLS standards are substantially higher than the NEET rates using the 13th ICLS (1992) definition of employment. The removal of “production of goods and services for *own final use*” from the definition of employment effectively increases the numbers of NEET youth – especially in largely subsistence agricultural countries where young people assist with family agricultural production for own use. There may also be more youth currently engaged in family production for own use that now become defined as unemployed – hence also potentially raising the youth unemployment rate.

Box 3: Definition of NEET

Youth not in employment, education or training is the indicator of the Sustainable Development Goal 8, Target 6: “By 2020 substantially reduce the proportion of youth aged 15-24 not in employment, education or training”. According to UN DESA (2021) the youth NEET rate differs from the youth unemployment rate as it includes the discouraged work seeker category as well as those who are outside the labour force and not in education or training (ILO 2013).

The NEET rate is calculated as follows*:

$$\text{NEET rate (per cent)} = \frac{\text{total number of youth aged 15-24} - (\text{number of youth aged 15-24 in employment} + \text{number of youth aged 15-24 in education or training})}{\text{total number of youth aged 15-24}} \times 100$$

It is important to note that the indicator is composed of two different sub-groups – unemployed youth (actively seeking work) not in education or training as well as youth outside the labour force (not actively seeking work) not in education or training. Unemployed youth who are in education and training should not be counted as NEET.

**Education* is formal or non-formal education (institutionalised, intentional and planned by an education provider).

Employment is defined as all persons of working age who, during a short reference period (one week), were engaged in any activity to produce goods or provide services for pay or profit. This specifically excludes work in family agriculture or family enterprises for own consumption and it excludes unpaid domestic and care work.

Training is a non-academic learning activity through which a person acquires specific skills intended for vocational or technical jobs. (UN DESA 2021)

An important aspect of the definition of employed is that a family member is considered employed if they work in a family business or enterprise for gain or profit *even if they receive no payment*. Often there is some ambiguity in this distinction – working in a family business or enterprise for no pay should not automatically be construed as not in employment and many surveys are not clear on this distinction. However, the definition is clear that unpaid household domestic and care work is not employment (this includes collecting wood, water and building family dwellings).

The process of updating household and labour force surveys to reflect the 19th ICLS standards takes time and care needs to be taken with the design of the survey questionnaires so they reflect the standards as defined. Measuring the differences in work for pay or profit (and therefore employed) versus work for production of goods and services for own final use (and therefore not employed) can be particularly sensitive to questionnaire design – especially amongst groups in less formal employment such as youth and women. In a review by the ILO and the World Bank in Sri Lanka, more detailed and carefully structured survey questions find differences in the numbers and hours of paid employment – including increased numbers of women engaged in small enterprise activities. They also find greater hours worked than previously reported in unpaid family work. (Discenza 2021).

A detailed review of employment data in household surveys by the World Bank finds that household and labour force surveys that do not have questions designed to elicit the revised definition of employment tend to collect data that overstates employment in both youth and women (Desiere and Costa 2019). Klasen (2018) points out that there is likely to be a discontinuity in comparisons of NEET before and after countries implement changes to the 2013 19th ICLS standards. In addition, countries are likely to have different time-scales for the implementation of the new standards. Care should be taken with both inter-country and in-country comparisons over time.

Implications of the 19th ICLS definition of the labour force for NEET rate calculations

This report uses, for each country, the latest household or labour force survey available. Most of these contain more carefully structured questions classifying whether family production is for own use or not. This particularly affects countries where large percentages of the population depend on agricultural, fishing or manufacturing for family consumption only. While this remains defined as “work” according to the 2013 definition, it is no longer defined as “employment”. As such there is, in some countries, a substantial difference in employment rates and youth NEET rates between this analysis and previous publications. In some countries, with production for own use removed from the calculations, the proportion of the youth population employed decreases and the percentage of youth NEET increases by as much as 30 percentage points.

Analysis of NEET in this report also shows greater youth NEET rates than the *Modelled Estimates* in the ILO Data Explorer which are still based on the 13th ICLS standards. While many of the youth NEET indicators available in the *Labour Force Survey* section of the ILO Data Explorer (<https://ilostat.ilo.org/>) are based on household and labour force survey data, it is not immediately apparent which may have fully incorporated the 19th ICLS definition of employment. As mentioned, care must be exercised in any inter-country comparisons or within country time series comparisons. Box 4 shows the difference of the NEET rates between those calculated for this report and the ILO’s modelled estimates.

Eight of the nine countries in this report have moved to the 19th ICLS standards – and all surveys include questions that distinguish between family *agricultural production* for own final use or for sale. However, the majority of country surveys the question of whether *household production* is for own final use has not been included. In addition some country surveys have defined working in a family enterprise or business for no pay as “not employed” whereas the 19th ICLS standards clearly define working in a family enterprise or business that produces goods or services for sale as “employed” *regardless of whether the individual is paid or not*. Detail on which country survey questions support definitions of employment as well as the method used to interpret the questions is given in Appendix 2.

More details about the analysis decision rules made in each country is contained in the Appendix.

Box 4: Implications of the 19th ICLS definition of the labour force for NEET rate calculations

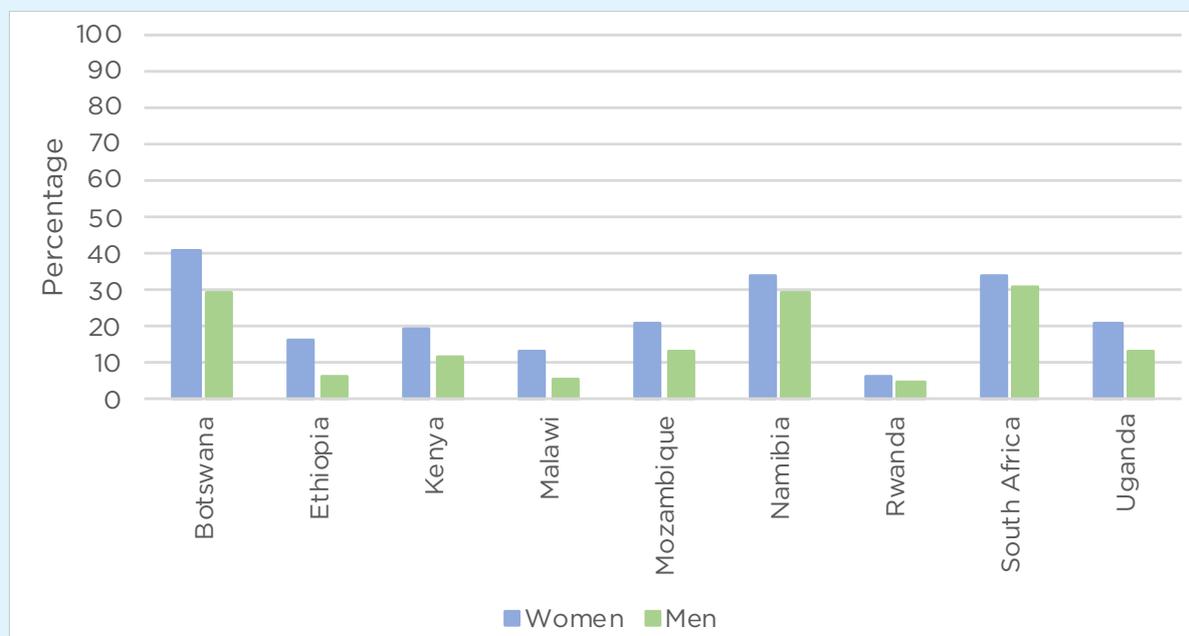
Increasingly country household and labour force surveys are being updated to include questions that return data on employment according to the new international definition established in 2013 by the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS). This means that there is not necessarily synergy between country data based on surveys using the new definition of employment and the ILO modelled estimates.

This particularly affects countries where large percentages of the population depend on agricultural, fishing or production for family consumption only. While this remains defined as “work” according the 2013 definition, it is no longer defined as “employment”. As such there is, in some countries, a substantial drop in the proportion of the population employed and an increase in the percentage of youth NEET – by between 10 and 30 percentage points. This difference is especially apparent for young women in countries where they are the predominant producers of subsistence agriculture.

The other consequence of the change in the definition of employment is that time series analysis and tracking of trends with country survey data is problematic. It should be noted that the household surveys in the ILOStat database do not necessarily contain NEET rates according to the 19th ICLS definition and caution should be exercised when observing changes in the NEET rates over time.

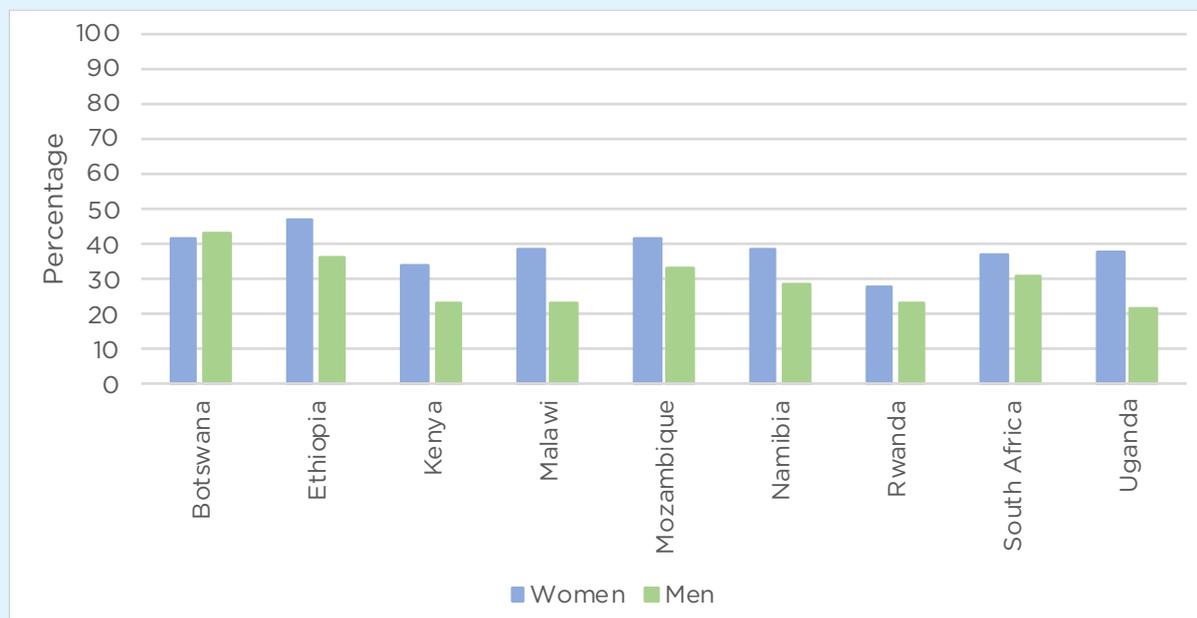
The following figures show the difference in NEET rates in the ILO modelled estimates, the ILO data from the labour force statistics based on country surveys and from the survey data used in this report.

Figure 10: NEET rates from the ILO modelled estimates by sex and age group 15-24 years



Source: ILOSTAT accessed on 10/01/2022.

Figure 11: NEET rates based on survey data used in this analysis of youth NEET by sex and age group 15-24 years



Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Namibian Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Rwanda's Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Box 5: Survey coverage bias – young men out of the household, living in school hostels or at places of work.

In many countries, analysis of the data shows an undercount of young men in relation to women. This could be due to several factors for example:

- secondary school pupils living in hostels at school or informal hostels in nearby communities;
- employed youth who may be working and staying in worker's hostels or at their places of employment – especially those who work as migrant or temporary labour in the agricultural sector; or
- unemployed youth sleeping rough or sleeping where they hope to seek employment or piecework.

As with all household surveys, only family residents are included in the sampling frames. Of the surveys analysed, this coverage bias is most evident in *Botswana* (probably due to boarding for secondary school), *Malawi*, *Rwanda*, and *Uganda*. The *Ethiopian* data shows coverage bias amongst young men between 20 and 24 as well as age heaping at 15, 20 and 25.

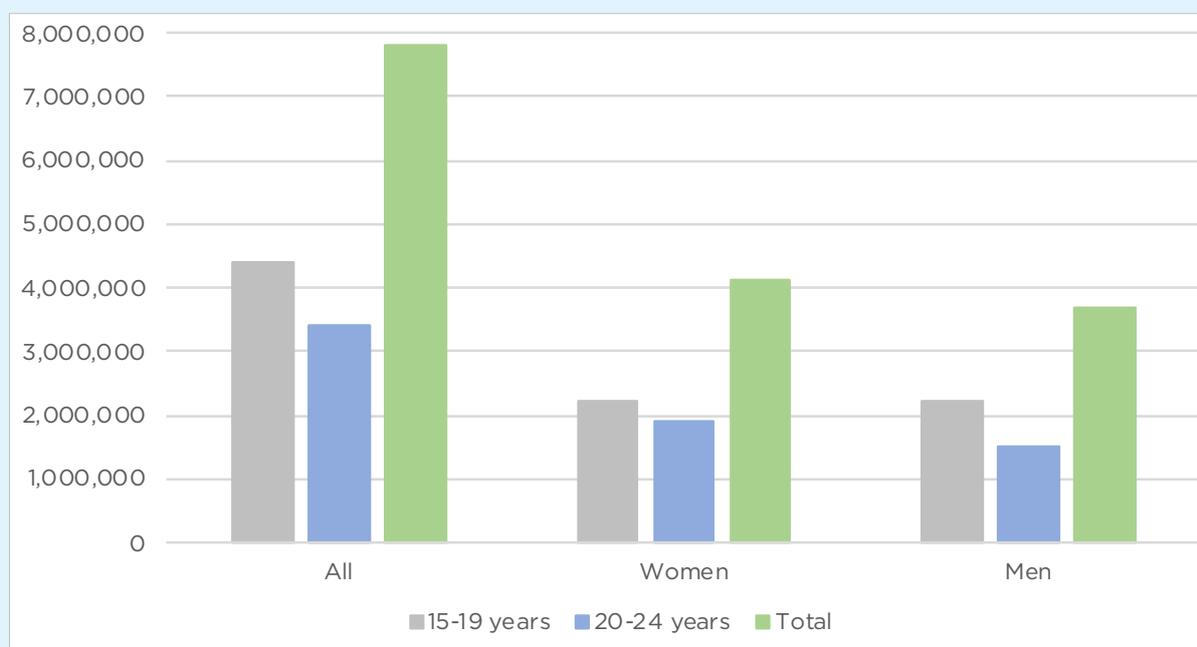
This does affect some of these countries' summary statistics and percentages.

Box 6: Uganda coverage bias affects young men who are under-represented in the survey

Figure 12 shows the number of youths in the Ugandan NHS 2019/20 disaggregated by age group and sex. While it is not unexpected for sample surveys to show some variation in the number of a particular population group, there appears to be an under-representation of young men aged 20-24. Table 4 shows the percentage of women and men in each age group in the survey. According to the Ugandan Bureau of Statistics the percentage of women and men in this age group should be no greater than 51 per cent to 49 per cent respectively (UBOS 2021).

It is likely that these young men engage in seasonal agricultural work and live where they work or have migrated in search of work and are living in accommodation that doesn't fall into the definition of a household. This undercount will affect some of the analysis of the surveys.

Figure 12: Population of youth in Uganda by sex and age group 15-24 years



Source: UNHS 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Table 4: Percentage of women and men in the survey by age group 15-24 years

	Women Per Cent	Men Per Cent	Ratio of women to men
15-19 years	50	50	1.00
20-24 years	56	44	1.29
Total	53	47	1.12

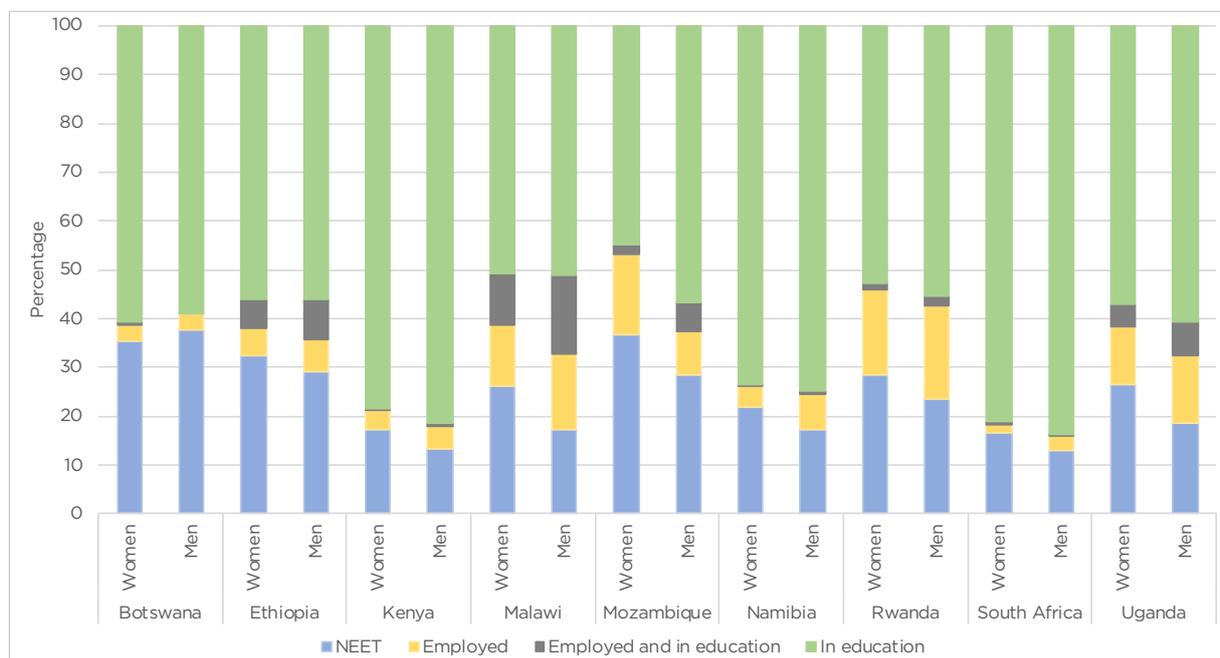
Source: UNHS 2019/20. Author's calculations.

3.2 NEET rates in ESA

“Young women NEET face other obstacles to remaining in school or finding employment. Being needed in family own use production as well as unpaid domestic and care work often keeps young women out of the workforce – whether married or unmarried” (UN Women 2018).

Figure 13 shows the percentage of youth by activity status – NEET, employed and in education for the age groups 15-19. In most countries the difference in NEET rate between women and men is small with between 3 per cent and 8 per cent per cent more women than men being NEET. Education enrolment of women and men in this age group is fairly equal and total enrolment ranges from 55 per cent in Rwanda to 80 per cent in Kenya. It should be noted that some countries have a lower age for starting school and therefore completing sooner. Botswana, for example, has a high secondary school enrolment and completion rate. In addition, the high quality of education provision means that the education system is efficient and has few students repeating. The majority of Botswanan youth have completed school before 18 years of age and thus have a lower relative enrolment in education. However, Botswana also has few employment opportunities for young people and the NEET rate for Botswanan youth in the 15-19 age group is the highest of these nine countries at 35 per cent for women and 38 per cent for men.

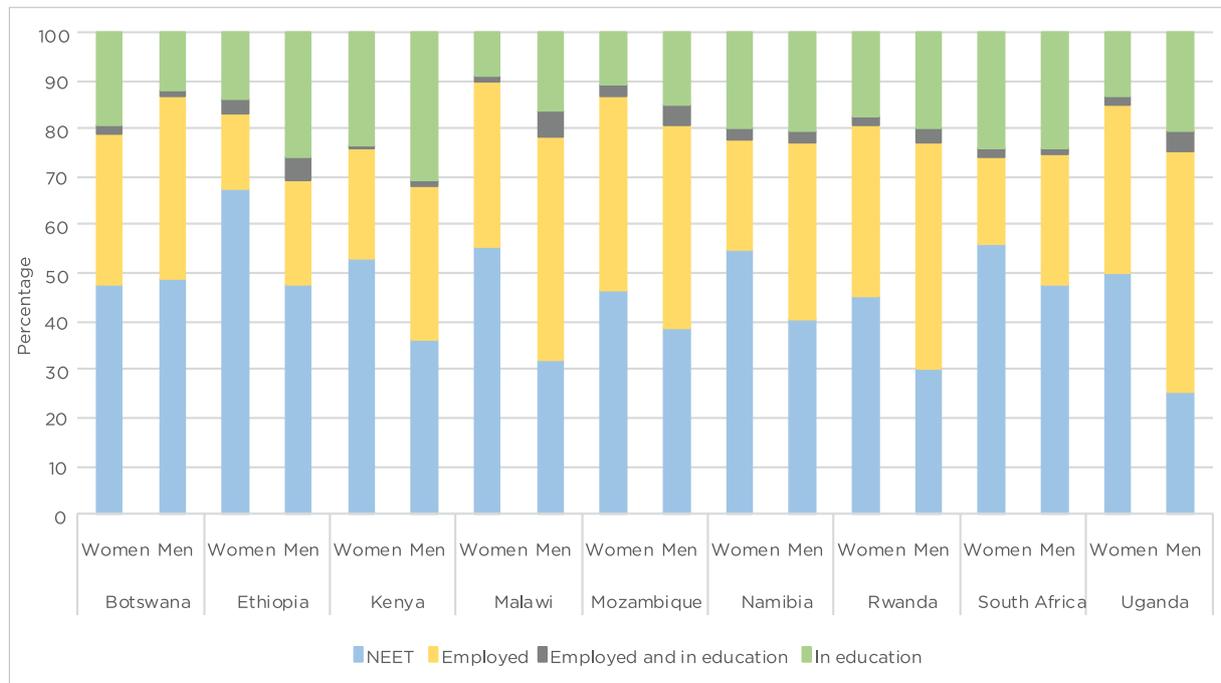
Figure 13: Percentage of youth by activity status – NEET; employed; employed and in education; and in education only, by sex and age group 15-19 years



Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Namibian Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Rwanda’s Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author’s calculations.

The NEET rate increases in the age group 20-24 and the gap between women's and men's NEET rates in this group widens substantially. Figure 14 shows the NEET rate for 20- to 24-year-olds. In Ethiopia, Malawi and Uganda the difference between women and men's NEET rates is over 20 percentage points.

Figure 14: Percentage of youth by activity status - NEET; employed; employed and in education; and in education only, by sex and age group 20-24 years



Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Namibian Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Rwanda's Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Box 7: Mozambique Youth by Activity Status

Mozambique has different profile of youth by activity status to the other countries in the survey. Mozambique has the highest percentage of youth employed with women being as likely to be employed as men. However, two points need to be taken into consideration when analysing this data. Firstly, as mentioned in section 3.2, there is an undercount of young men in the survey. This may account for approximately 2 per cent of 15-19 year old and 10 per cent of 20-24 year old men in the survey and it is not clear if these men are away from home for education, employment or seeking employment.

The second consideration is that the high levels of extreme poverty in Mozambique (over 65 per cent for all women and girls and 58 per cent of women aged 15-24) mean that the majority of the employed youth are in working poverty.

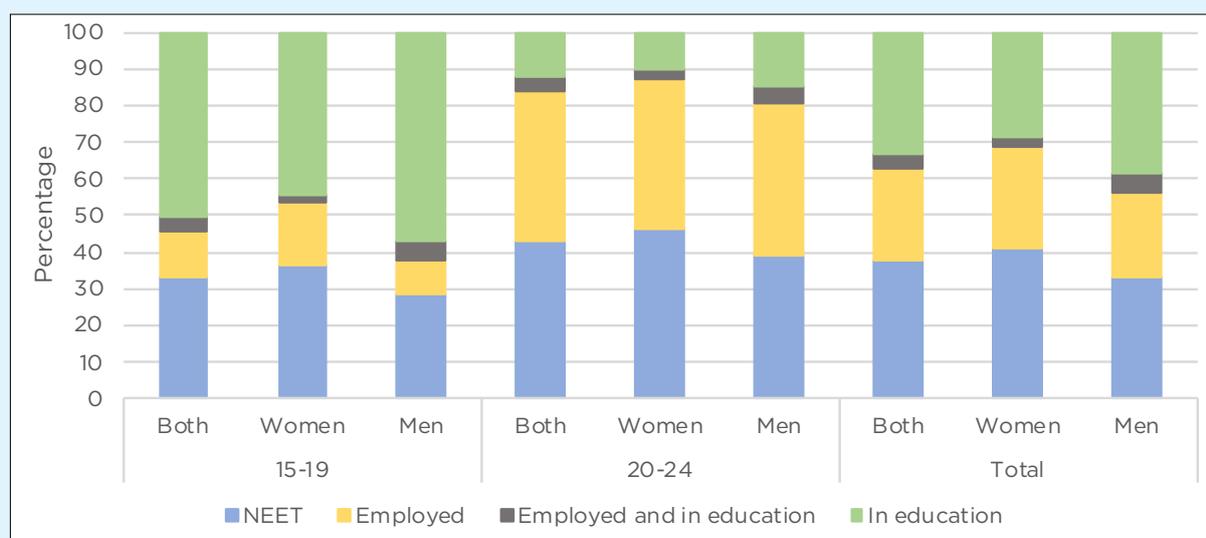
The highest percentage of youth NEET in Mozambique are women aged 20-24, 47 per cent of whom are NEET. Young men in the 20-24 year old age group are less likely to be NEET and have a NEET rate of 39 per cent. Out of young women between the age of 15 and 19, 37 per cent are NEET while 29 per cent of young men this age are NEET. Table 5 shows the percentage of youth by activity status - NEET; employed; employed and in education; and in education only - by sex and age group.

Table 5: NEET as a percentage of the youth by sex and age group 15-24 years

	15-19			20-24		
	Women percentage	Men percentage	Percentage point difference	Women Percentage	Men percentage	Percentage point difference
Botswana	35	38	-3	48	49	-1
Ethiopia	32	29	3	68	47	21
Kenya	17	13	4	53	36	17
Malawi	26	17	9	55	32	23
Mozambique	37	29	8	47	39	8
Namibia	11	9	2	55	41	14
Rwanda	28	24	4	45	30	15
South Africa	17	13	4	56	47	9
Uganda	27	19	8	50	25	25

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Namibian Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Rwanda's Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations

Figure 15 Percentage of Mozambiquan youth by activity status - NEET; employed; employed and in education; and in education only, by sex and age group (15-19 and 20-24)



Source: Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

3.3 Youth employment

In most countries in ESA formal employment opportunities are not growing fast enough to absorb the number of young people joining the labour market and young people predominantly work in informal employment which is poorly paid and intermittent. The ILO in its 2020 report on global youth employment trends states that in 2016 “more than three in four young workers had informal jobs” (ILO 2020).

While informal employment is the norm for both sexes in most countries, young men are more likely to be salaried workers and women more likely to be unpaid family workers (O’Higgins, 2017). Botswana is the only ESA country in this report where the labour market is absorbing more young women into formal employment than men. However, this employment is in the services sector and young men are more likely to get higher paying employment in industry and ICT.

In Uganda, Mozambique and Malawi the agricultural sector employs the highest percentage of the youth population. However, commenting on Uganda, Guloba et. al. (2021) observe that the majority of agricultural workers are engaged in vulnerable employment which is defined by inadequate earnings, low productivity and difficult conditions of work. Employment for youth in the services sector tends to be in “low-value services (e.g. petty trade, food vending, etc.) and only a few are able to secure employment in high value added economic activities like agro-processing, horticulture or tourism” (Guloba et. al., 2021).

O’Higgins’ (2017) conducted analysis from household surveys in LMICs across the world and found that whether young people in the age categories 20-24 and 25-29 are in formal employment is positively affected by education levels with secondary education increasing formal employment by 9 per cent and tertiary education by 29 per cent. Being female or married, when controlling for education level and age group, doesn’t affect the likelihood of being in either formal or informal employment at all. *However*, being female *decreases* the likelihood of being in employment *at all* by 12 per cent and being married decreases being in employment by another 4 per cent (O’Higgins, 2017).

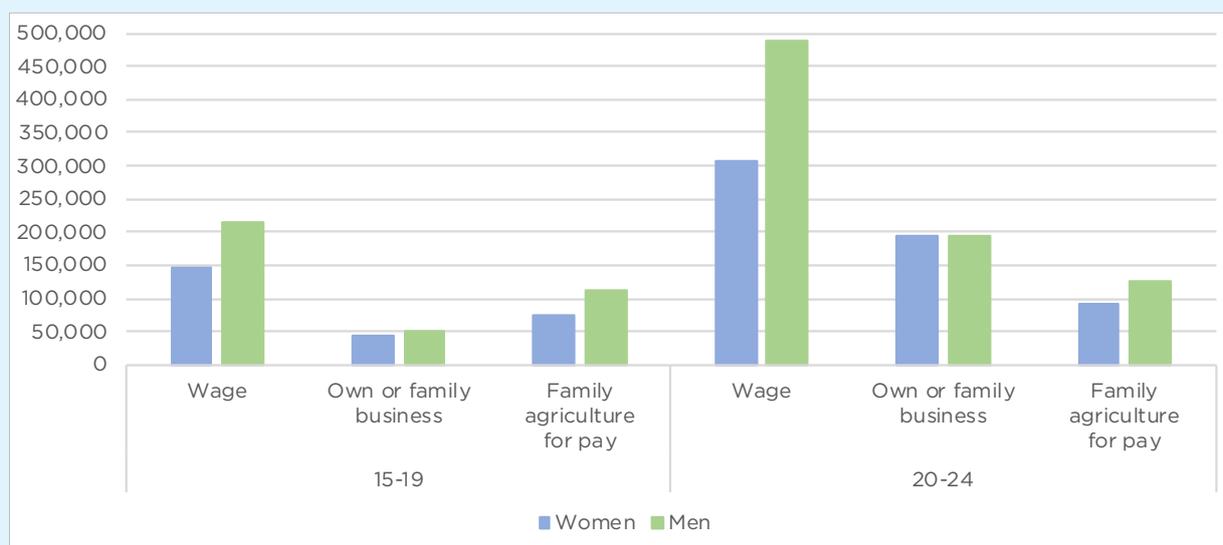
In terms of the gender wage gap, O’Higgins (2017) finds that, being in informal employment increases the gender wage gap. Other factors that increase the wage gap are being female (by 24 per cent) and being rural (6 per cent). Increases in wages are affected by education levels with secondary education completed increasing wages by 16 per cent and tertiary completed by 35 per cent. Wages increase with age, by 12 per cent for those aged 20-24 and 20 per cent for those aged 25-29 (O’Higgins 2017). An important aspect that is somewhat difficult to measure is the impact of social norms on women’s employment. Comblon (2017) suggests further work is needed to understand the “*remaining differences in gender pay gaps as well as understanding their evolution in the context of rising education levels*”.

Box 8, Box 9 and Box 10 provide details on youth employment in Uganda, Malawi and Mozambique. In Uganda substantially more men are engaged in paid labour whether it is in wage employment or family agriculture for pay. Young women – as will be seen in Section 4 – are more likely to be engaged in unpaid family agriculture and care work.

Box 8: Uganda youth employment

Figure 16 shows the type of paid work that youth are engaged in. While most employed youth in both age groups are engaged in paid work, this is predominantly part-time, casual and often short term during the harvesting season. Notable is the relatively high number of 15 to 19-year-old men who are engaged in paid work.

Figure 16: Uganda: Number of employed youth engaged in paid work by type, by sex and age group



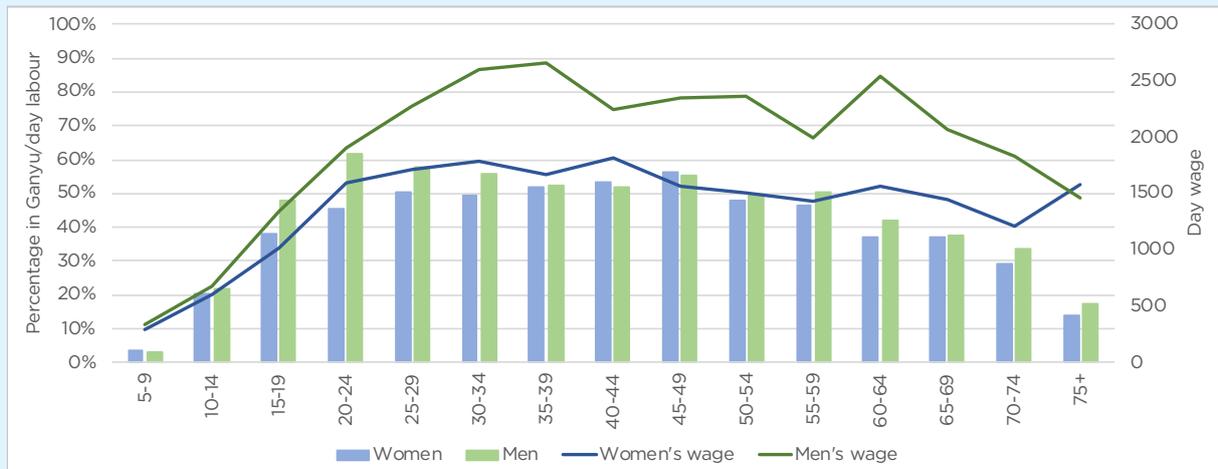
Source: UNHS 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Box 9: Malawi youth employment

Malawi is a case in point where youth have very limited access to formal employment. Only 3 per cent of youth are employed in formal wage employment. 19 per cent are employed in family business or family agriculture for pay or profit. The majority (24 per cent) are employed in casual day labour - locally known as Ganyu labour.

Figure 17 shows the percentage of men and women engaged in Ganyu or casual labour at any time during the year and their average daily wage. Three per cent of children 5-9 years old are engaged in casual labour and earn an average of 317 MK per day. Twenty per cent of girls and 22 per cent of boys between 10 and 14 are engaged in casual labour and earn an average of 673 MK per day. Youth between 15 and 19 earn an average daily rate of 1017 MK for women and 1338 MK for men. 45 per cent of women and 62 per cent of men between 20 and 24 years old engage in casual labour during the year and earn an average of 1592 MK and 1904 MK per day respectively. It is interesting to note that women's daily rate doesn't increase after the 20-24 age category. This could be due to several reasons - in addition to physical strength, men are more likely to be able to work further from home and perhaps be able to develop more specialised skills. It is not possible to know from the ISH5 data what type of casual labour is available or if men are able to work longer hours per day.

Figure 17: Percentage of population engaged in Ganyu/casual labour at any time in the year* and average daily wage by age group and sex



*Note: These are percentages of the total population. Employment numbers used in other tables and graphs are calculated according to the official definition and only those who worked in the 7 days prior to the survey are included.

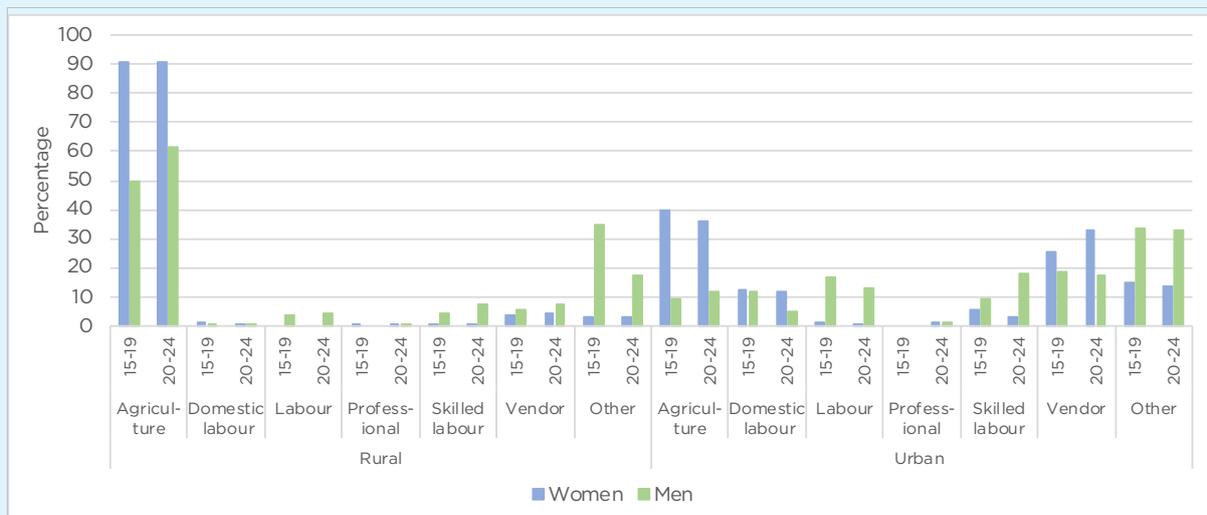
Source: Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020. Author's calculations.

Box 10: Youth employment in Mozambique

Employed women in the rural areas are predominantly working in agriculture. 90 per cent of both age groups of women work in family agriculture with less than 5 per cent working as vendors and less than 1 per cent working as skilled labour such as sewing or cooking.

Fewer men in the rural areas work in paid agriculture (between 50 per cent and 60 per cent). Fewer than 5 per cent work as labour; 8 per cent work as skilled labour such as plumbing, electrician or truck driving.

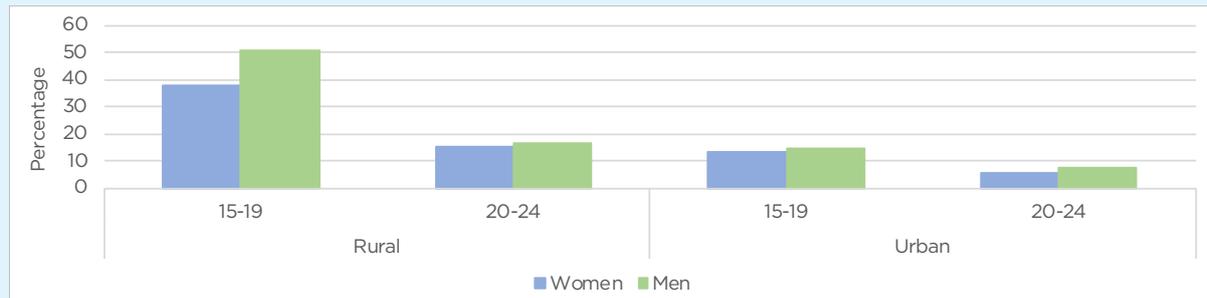
Figure 18: Percentage of employed Mozambiquan youth by urban or rural residence, sector, sex and age group (15-19 and 20-24)



Source: Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Figure 19 shows the percentage of youth who work in family agriculture or enterprises that produce goods mainly or only for own consumption. The greatest burden of this work falls on young men between the ages of 15 and 19 – many of whom are in education or in employment. 51 per cent of this group living in rural areas work in family agriculture or enterprise without remuneration. 16 per cent of youth who live in urban areas work in family farming or enterprises. 30 per cent of 15-19 year old and 15 per cent of 20-24 year old urban women work in family farming or enterprises without remuneration.

Figure 19: Family worker in Mozambique without remuneration by urban or rural residence, sex and age group (15-19 and 20-24)



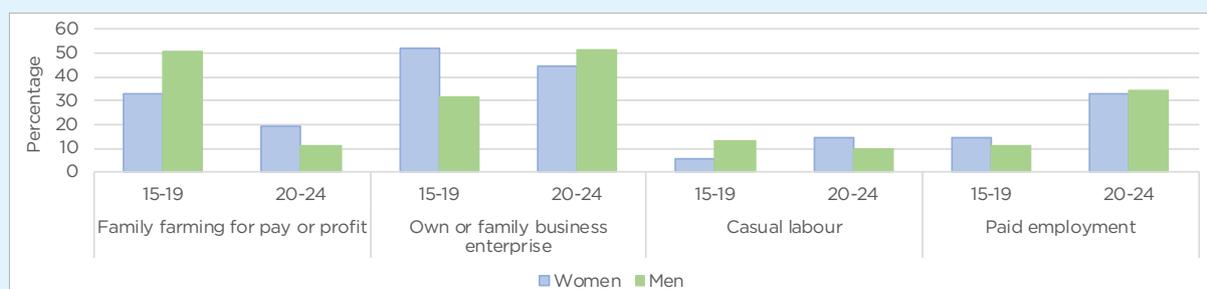
Source: Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Box 11: Youth employment in Ethiopia

The percentage of youth employed by type of employment or working in unpaid family farming is shown in Figure 20 and Figure 21. Young men in rural areas (69 per cent) are more likely to be engaged in unpaid family farming than young women (40 per cent) in both age groups. Of the employed women and men, young men (50 per cent) aged 15-19 are more likely to be engaged in family farming for pay or profit than young women 33 per cent. However, a higher percentage of employed young women (52 per cent) work in family business enterprise than men (32 per cent).

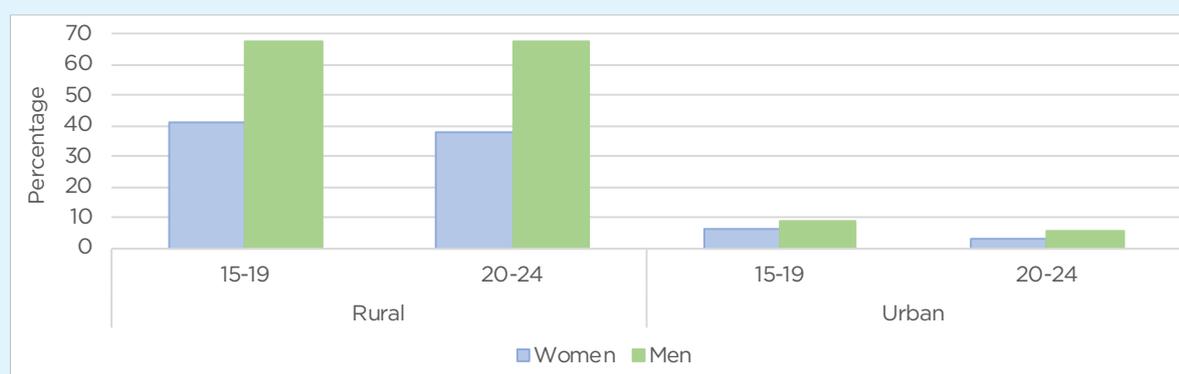
Both young women and men aged 20-24 who are employed, are more likely to have either paid employment or work in family business enterprise than in family farming for pay or profit. 45 per cent of employed women and 51 per cent of employed men aged 20-24 work in family business enterprise and 33 per cent of young women and 34 per cent of men work in paid employment.

Figure 20: Percentage of employed youth in Ethiopia by type of employment, sex and age (15-24)



Source: Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19. Author's calculations.

Figure 21: Family farming in Ethiopia only or mainly for own use



Source: Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19. Author's calculations.

The survey data shows that young men between 15 and 24 are the predominant labour in family agriculture. In the rural areas 69 per cent of young men work in unpaid family agriculture. Young men between 15 and 19 are the predominant labour in *paid* family agriculture and over 50 per cent of all young men in this age group work in paid family farming compared to 12 per cent of men aged 20 to 24. The increased NEET status of these young men in women headed households suggest that their role in unpaid family agriculture is crucial in food security for their families.

While the burden of family agriculture appears to fall on young men, young women do participate in paid family agriculture – 33 per cent of women 15-19 and 20 per cent of women 20-24 work in family agriculture for pay or profit.

3.4 Education

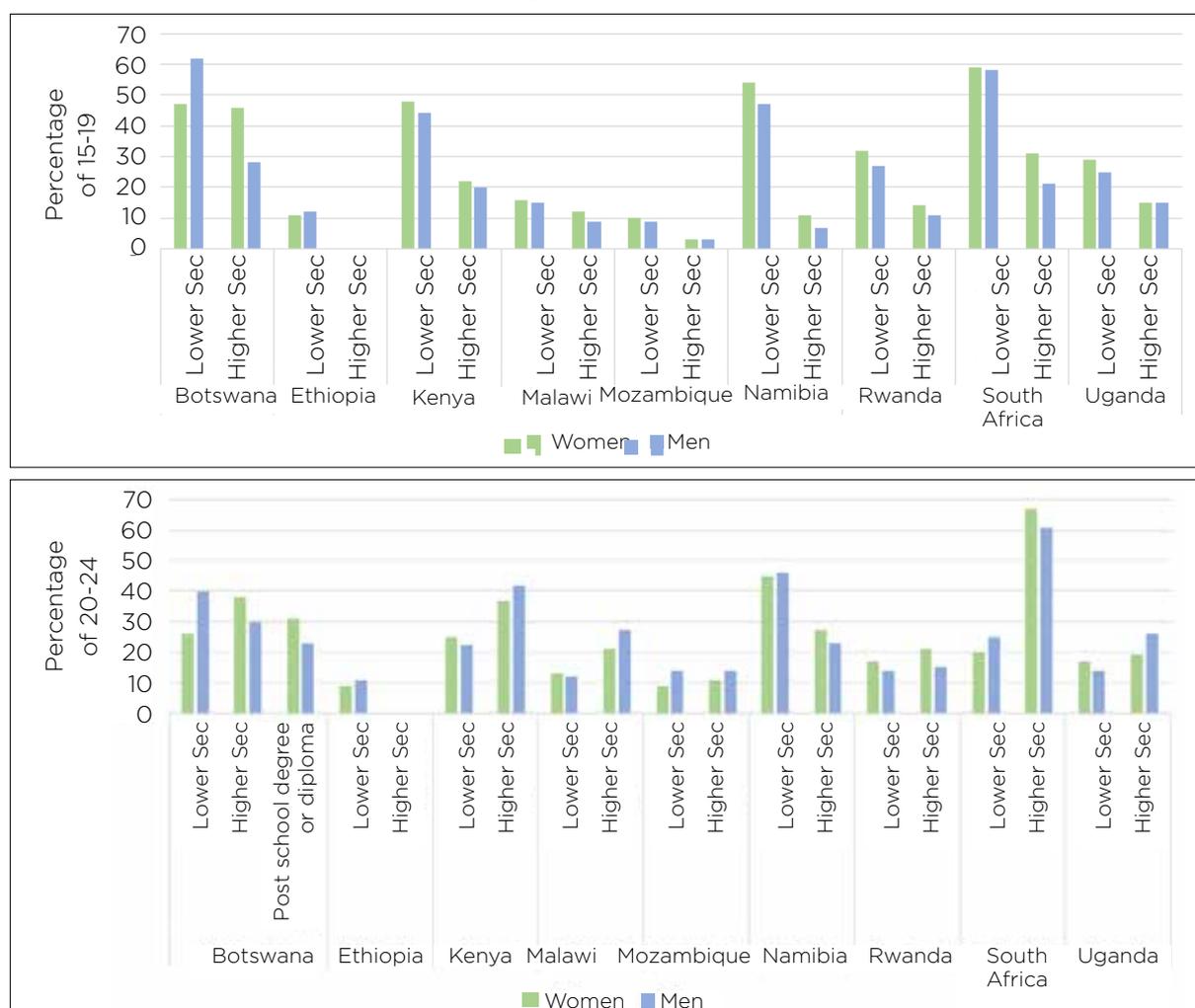
One of the factors that affects the NEET rate is the access to and quality of education and training available to youth. While access to education and training has grown steadily in East and Southern Africa there are still children who are not accessing and/or not completing primary school. The importance of good quality education in primary school cannot be overstated as it provides the basis for young people to succeed in secondary education. (Karamperidou 2020, World Bank 2019). According to UNICEF (Karamperidou et. al. 2020) and the World Bank (2019) improvements in the quality of education have all but stalled. Less than 15 per cent of children in low-and-middle-income countries in SSA between the ages of 10 and 14 can read at the proficiency level required by the end of primary school.

The quality of education received by girls is more than the path to progress to the next grade. Basic educational achievements such as reading and writing, continued progress made in grades and the quality of education received are all factors in the cost benefit equation that families make when deciding whether to continue a girl's education. The importance of remaining in school in protecting young girls from adolescent marriage and child-bearing has already been outlined in Section 2.4.2. This section gives a brief overview of enrolment in education and highest level of education attained or completed by age group and sex.

3.4.1 Enrolment in education in ESA

Access to, enrolment in and completion of secondary education and training in ESA has increased over the past decade for both young women and men. Figure 22 shows that for 6 of the 9 countries young women in the 15 to 19 year age group moved through the school system more rapidly than young men and a higher percentage of women reach senior secondary before they are 19. While transition through school for young men is slower, they stay in school for longer and in Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique and Uganda more young men between 20 and 24 have attained or completed senior secondary than women. In Namibia, Rwanda and South Africa a higher percentage of women between 20 and 24 years old have completed senior secondary than men. While Botswana appears to have lower attainment of higher secondary education than Kenya and South Africa, 30% of women and 23% of men have attained or completed post school degrees or diplomas. Detail on education attainment is given in Table 6 and 7.

Figure 22: Percentage of youth (15-24) attaining or completing junior secondary or senior secondary school by sex and age group



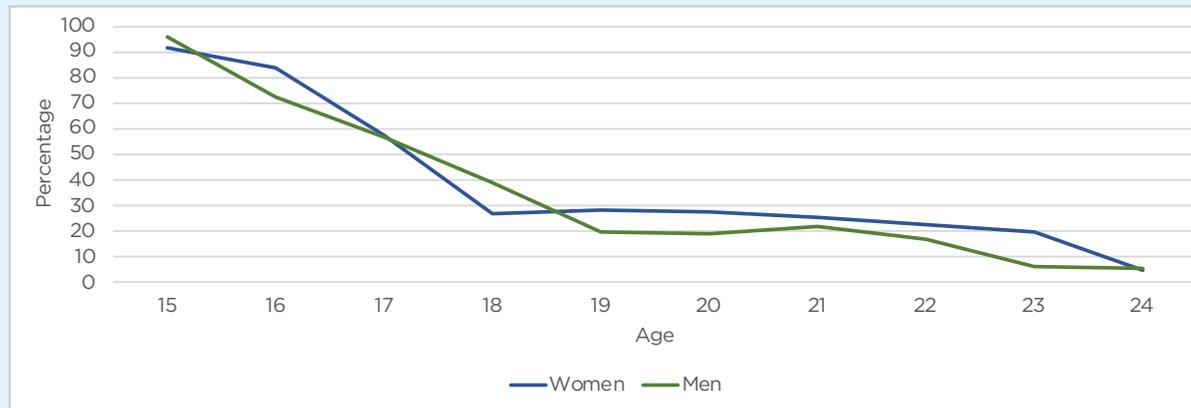
Note: Botswana has a lower attainment of higher secondary education than Kenya and South Africa but 30% of women and 23% of men have attained or completed post school degrees or diplomas.

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Namibian Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Rwanda's Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Box 12: Enrolment in education by year of age and sex – Botswana and Malawi

Survey data on enrolment in education by year of age and sex is illuminating but should be analysed in country context as well as with a gender lens. The examples in Figure 23 and 24 of Botswana and of Malawi highlight this point.

Figure 23: Botswana education enrolment by age and gender



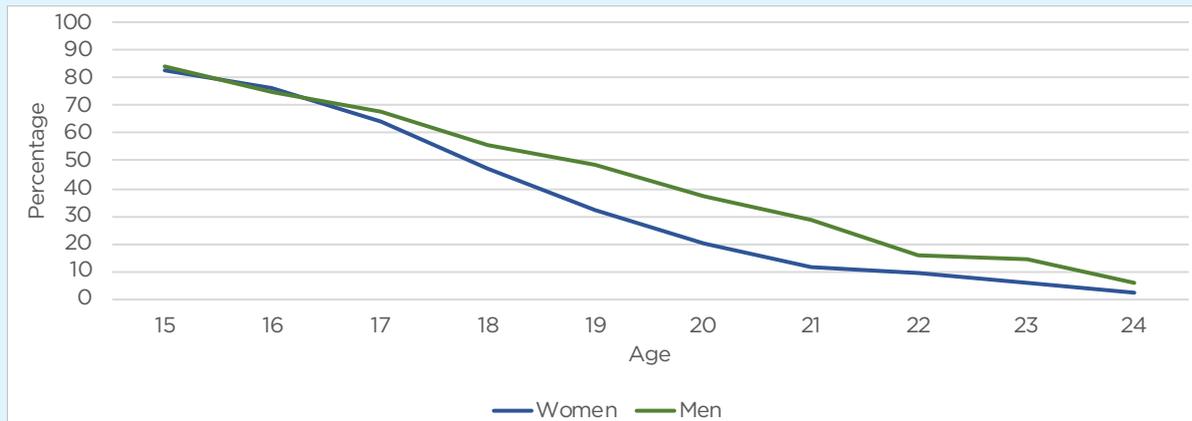
Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020. Author's calculations.

Botswana has the most successful education system in the sub-region both in terms of retention and quality. Enrolment of young women in secondary school is higher than that of young men which may not be apparent from Figure 23, however women repeat grades less often than their male counterparts and are more likely to complete their schooling by the time they are 17 which is the correct age for the final grade in the Botswana system. At 18, the 26 per cent enrolment in education is more likely to reflect the number of young women who have entered tertiary levels of education. In the 15 to 19 year age group 47 per cent of women are either enrolled in or have completed junior secondary and 46 per cent of women are either enrolled in or completed senior secondary as their highest level of education; men have 62 per cent either enrolled in or completed junior secondary and 28 per cent either enrolled on or completed senior secondary.

Malawi has largely succeeded in providing access to primary school to all children and has greatly expanded access to secondary education. This has been an enormous undertaking since 1993 when the first democratically elected government committed itself to rolling out free universal access to primary schooling. The focus now is on improving the quality of education and more youth successfully completing higher levels of education. Achievements in women's and girls' education have been exemplary with gender parity in enrolment up to 17 years old. Equally important is that more girls in the 15-19 age group are also achieving enrolment and completion in higher levels of education than boys. Table 7 shows the percentage of girls who have attained or completed junior secondary (16 per cent) and senior secondary (12 per cent) compared to boys (15 per cent and 9 per cent respectively).

While this is not the case for the age group 20-24 (with 21 per cent of women having achieved or completed senior secondary level compared to 27 per cent of men) the relative achievement of women 15-19 is hopefully a continuing trend of education attainment improving for young women.

Figure 24: Malawi education enrolment by age and gender



Source: Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020. Author's calculations.

3.4.2 Highest level of education enrolled in or completed by sex and age group (15-19 and 20-24)

The following two tables show the highest level of education that youth are enrolled in. Table 6 shows the highest level attained as a percentage of youth aged 15-19 by sex. Table 7 shows the same figures but for the age group 20-24. All countries except Botswana have a higher percentage of women than men enrolled or who have completed junior secondary. Botswana, as explained in Box 12, has a lower percentage of women than men in junior secondary, but this is balanced by a much higher percentage of women enrolled in or having completed senior secondary school (46 per cent compared to 28 per cent men).

All countries have a higher percentage of women enrolled in or completing upper secondary schooling. The exception is Uganda which has parity in enrolment (or completion) of upper secondary. However, as explained in Box 6, the Ugandan survey data has an under-representation of men and it isn't clear if this parity in highest education level would persist if data was available for this cohort.

Table 7 shows the percentage of youth by highest level of education enrolled in or completed for the age group 20-24. As with the 15-19 age group, a higher percentage of women complete senior secondary school than men. However, it should be noted that this age-group of men are under-represented in the survey data in most countries as they are more likely to have left home to work or in search of work. This does affect the analysis of the survey data but nevertheless it does appear that equality in education attainment is being achieved in most ESA countries.

Table 6: Percentage of youth between 15 and 19 by highest level attained and sex and age group 15-19 years³

		None	Junior Pri- mary	Senior Pri- mary	Primary 8	Post-prima- ry	Junior Sec- ondary	Senior Sec- ondary	Diploma/ Training	Degree
Botswana	Women per cent	1	0	2			47	46	0	4
	Men per cent	0	2	3			62	28	2	2
	Ratio of women to men	1.53	0.20	0.64			0.74	1.57	0.20	1.70
Ethiopia	Women per cent	13	24	33			11	0	18.70	1.00
	Men per cent	13	27	33			12	0	14.80	0.00
	Ratio of women to men	1.00	0.9	1.00			1.00	0.30	1.3	2.60
Kenya	Women per cent	3	2	23			48	22	1.6	0.7
	Men per cent	3	4	27			44	20	1.2	0.7
	Ratio of women to men	1.00	0.55	0.80			1.05	1.08	1.36	0.99
Malawi	Women per cent	3	13	41	15		16	12	0.1	0.3
	Men per cent	3	17	43	14		15	9	0.1	0.1
	Ratio of women to men	1.00	0.73	0.93	1.07		1.08	1.38	1.59	2.14
Mozam- bique	Women per cent	10	46	30			10	3	0.10	0.00
	Men per cent	6	47	34			9	3	0.20	0.00
	Ratio of women to men	1.8	1.1	1.00			1.20	1.5	0.70	0.00
Namibia	Women per cent	5	3	26			54	11	0	1
	Men per cent	7	6	32			47	7	1	1
	Ratio of women to men	0.75	0.57	0.84			1.18	1.59	0.32	0.54
Rwanda	Women per cent	2	17	29			32	14	7	0
	Men per cent	2	27	27			27	11	5	0
	Ratio of women to men	0.9	0.6	1.1			1.2	1.3	1.3	0.8
South Africa	Women per cent	1	1	9			59	31	0	0
	Men per cent	1	1	18			58	21	0	0
	Ratio of women to men	0.8	0.4	0.5			1.0	1.5	6.7	0.8
Uganda	Women per cent	3	10	40		2	29	15	2	0
	Men per cent	3	13	43		1	25	15	1	0
	Ratio of women to men	1.01	0.75	0.93		1.25	1.18	1.04	3.69	1.00

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Namibian Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Rwanda's Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

³ In all countries in this study, Junior Primary represents Primary Grades 1-4; In all countries in the study except for Malawi, Senior Primary represents Primary Grade 5-7. In Malawi it represents Primary Grades 5-8. However, for ease of comparison we separated Grade 8; In all countries in this study, Junior Secondary represents Secondary Grades 1-3; In Malawi, Botswana and Namibia Senior Secondary represents Secondary Grades 4-5. In Uganda, Kenya and Rwanda Senior Secondary represents Secondary Grades 4-6.

Table 7: Percentage of youth between 20 and 24 by highest level attained and sex and age group 20-24 years

		None	Junior Primary	Senior Primary	Primary 8	Post-primary	Junior Secondary	Senior Secondary	Diploma/ Training	Degree
Botswana	Women per cent	1	1	3			26	38	6	25
	Men per cent	1	1	4			40	30	8	15
	Ratio of women to men	0.71	0.63	0.60			0.61	1.21	0.75	1.56
Ethiopia	Women per cent	27	13	17			9	0	29	4.20
	Men per cent	17	17	19			11	0	33	2.00
	Ratio of women to men	2.00	0.90	1.10			1.00	1.5	1.1	2.60
Kenya	Women per cent	5	1	7			25	37	14	10
	Men per cent	4	2	7			22	42	10	13
	Ratio of women to men	1.60	0.73	1.03			1.26	0.96	1.55	0.91
Malawi	Women per cent	5	14	30	14		13	21	1	2
	Men per cent	5	14	27	12		12	27	1	3
	Ratio of women to men	0.98	1.24	1.15	1.28		1.41	1.22	0.89	0.96
Mozambique	Women per cent	15	40	24			9	11	1	0.4
	Men per cent	8	37	24			14	14	1	0.4
	Ratio of women to men	2.2	1.30	1.20			0.80	0.90	0.90	1.20
Namibia	Women per cent	8	3	11			45	27	1	12
	Men per cent	10	5	16			46	23	4	7
	Ratio of women to men	0.88	0.66	0.77			1.04	1.24	0.42	1.87
Rwanda	Women per cent	2	15	26			17	21	13	7
	Men per cent	2	20	25			14	15	17	7
	Ratio of women to men	1.0	0.8	1.1			1.3	1.5	0.8	1.1
South Africa	Women per cent	0	1	4			20	67	5	3
	Men per cent	1	1	6			25	61	2	2
	Ratio of women to men	0.4	0.4	0.6			0.8	1.1	2.0	1.1
Uganda	Women per cent	6	10	36		7	17	19	5	6
	Men per cent	4	11	32		7	14	26	4	5
	Ratio of women to men	1.95	1.06	1.42		1.66	1.47	1.47	1.55	1.26

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Namibian Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Rwanda's Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

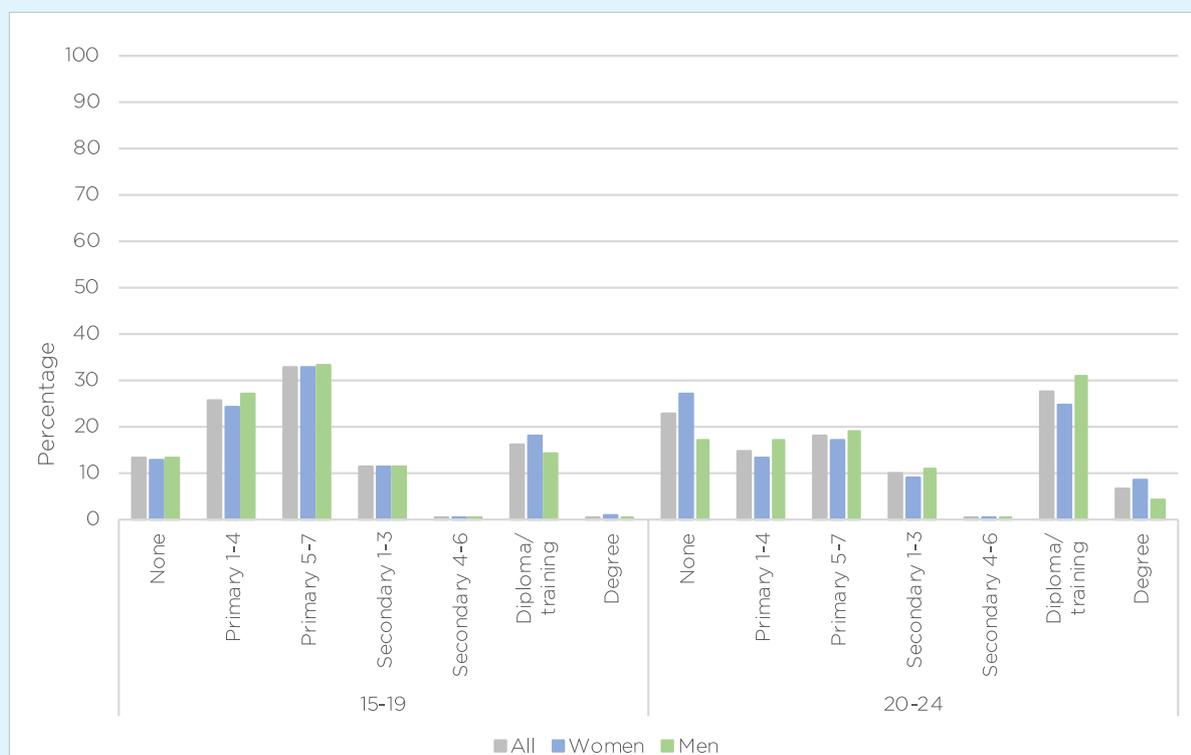
Box 13: Enrolment in education by year of age and sex in Ethiopia

Efforts to improve girls' and women's education attainment in Ethiopia have resulted in rapid reductions in the number of women who have never attended school. *This can be seen when comparing the education attainment of each five year cohort from 15 to 19 up to 30 to 34.* 12 per cent of the 15 – 19 year olds in the ESS 2018/19 (both men and women) having no education at all compared to 27 per cent of women and 17 per cent of men in the 20-24 age group; 44 per cent women and 20 per cent men in the 25-29 year old age group; and 67 per cent women and 32 per cent men of 30-35 age group. (Figure 10 and 11)

Increasingly young women are accessing lower secondary school and post school diploma level education and training. With 11 per cent of 15-19 year old women reaching lower secondary and 18 per cent reaching post school diploma level education and training. Both of these areas of education attainment should have continued growth as young women flow through from upper primary school. However, a major limitation on this growth will be the current difficulties in improving the quality of primary schooling which has grown faster than availability of resources such as classrooms, teachers and materials.

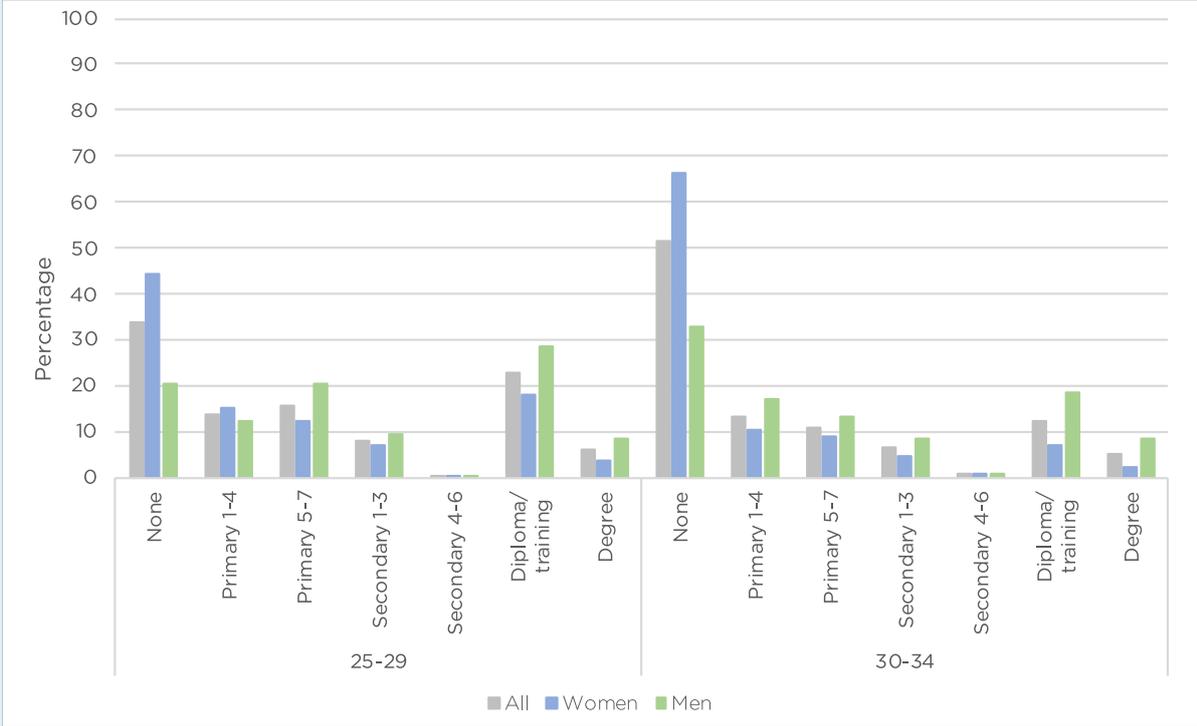
Data on attainment of higher education in the survey needs to be treated with caution. The sample size of higher education students is too small to be significant and due to the undercount of 15 – 24 year old men in the survey it is not possible to accurately estimate the number of men attaining higher education. Unesco Institute of Statistics (UIS) 2015 data for Ethiopia cites that only 35 per cent of undergraduate students and 24 per cent of post graduate students were women (UIS 2021).

Figure 25: Percentage of Ethiopian youth currently enrolled in education by level of education, sex and age (15-24)



Source: Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19. Author's calculations.

Figure 26: Percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds by highest level of education attained, sex and age group



Source: Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19. Author's calculations.

4

ANALYSIS OF THE SURVEY DATA AND DETERMINANTS OF YOUTH NEET

The descriptive data from the nine countries' household or labour force surveys shows the differences between young women and men in terms of their enrolment in education, employment status and NEET status. While in most countries younger women in the age group 15 to 19 are achieving parity in primary education attainment, they are not yet progressing to secondary and higher education or entering the labour market at the same rate as their male peers. Women between the ages of 20 and 24 have much higher rates of NEET compared to men in the same age group who are more likely to be employed or in education.

In addition to these descriptive observations, it is important in identifying possible policy interventions to ascertain whether there are any particular factors in the country context that are more closely associated with the probability of being NEET. In other research on the individual and household factors associated with the number of years of education attained it has been fairly widely ascertained that socioeconomic status, education levels of parents, availability of learning resources such as books and electricity, time spent on household chores, distance from school and nutritional status are amongst the most important (Bashir et. al. 2018, Karamperidou et. al. 2020 and Tiruneh et. al. 2021). Similar factors are associated with the probability of youth and women's employment (Klasen 2018 and O'Higgins 2017). For young women in particular, early marriage, childbirth and gender norms around the cost benefits of further years of education as well as gender norms around household roles and the suitability of certain employment for women, impacts on both education levels attained and employment (Comblon 2017 and Nieuwenhuis 2018).

In order to ascertain whether there is an association between these factors and the probability of being NEET a multivariate logistic regression model was constructed with NEET status as the dependent variable. Independent variables were tested based on research as mentioned above and the descriptive analysis of the data from the ESS 2018/19 which shows possible correlations between NEET and sex, age group, marriage, highest level of education attained, urban or rural residence and involvement in family farming for own use.

This section of the report is structured as follows: The first section gives the structure of the model and the method used in coding the variables for analysis is given. In the second section the findings of the model are presented and the associations between NEET and background characteristics such as sex, age, gender, marital status, family composition and gender are explained. Lastly limitations of the model are explained.

4.1 Structure of the model

A multivariate logistic regression is a widely used statistical method appropriate to the categorical nature of survey data. As well as the dependant variable (NEET status) being categorical, many of the independent variables in the survey data are categorical such as sex, married, highest level of education, urban/rural.

The logistic model is: $\log(\pi/(1-\pi)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 \dots\dots\dots$
 where $\text{Pr}(Y=1) = \pi$
 $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3 \dots\dots$ are the Odds Ratios of X_1, X_2, X_3 respectively

The model was run in *Stata* as a weighted sample of the survey set.

For each country, individual level data for all 15 to 24 year olds was compiled from the country's household or labour force survey for the regression analysis. Data from the following sections of the survey was used: Roster of individual demographic information; individual education data; and individual employment and time use data. Data was coded as noted in Table 8 which lists the variables used in the model.

Table 8: List of variables used in the logistic regression model and method used for compiling the coding

Variable	Type of variable and code used	Method used to compile codes
Dependent variable		
NEET status	Dummy variable 0 = not employed or in education 1 = NEET	Labour and time use data was used to establish employed or not; Education data used to establish in education or not.
Independent variables		
Sex	Dummy variable Male = 0 Female = 1	Data from individual roster
Age group (15-19)	Dummy variable 15 to 19 = 0 20 to 24 = 1	Data from individual roster. Age in years coded as age group
Married (No)	Dummy variable No = 0 Yes = 1	Data from individual roster
Sex of head of household	Dummy variable Male = 0 Female = 1	Data from individual roster
Urban/rural (Rural)	Dummy variable Rural = 0 Urban = 1	Data from individual roster

Variable	Type of variable and code used	Method used to compile codes
Highest level of education (none)	Dummy variable with 8 categories None = 0 Prim 1-3 = 1 Prim 4-5 = 2 Sec 1-3 = 3 Sec 4-6 = 4 Training = 5 Higher Ed = 6 Adult literacy = 7	Data on the highest grade attained was coded into none; lower and senior primary; lower and senior secondary; training; higher education; and adult literacy.
Can read and write	Dummy variable No = 0 Yes = 1	Data from the Education data set
Number of employed adults in the household	Continuous variable	Summary data on number of employed adults living in the household
Number of dependent adults in the household	Continuous variable	Summary data on number of adults not in employment living in the household
Number of children under 18 in the household	Continuous variable	Summary data on number of children under the age of 18 living in the household
Number of children under 5 in the household	Continuous variable	Summary data on number of children under the age of 5 living in the household
Working in family agriculture for own use	Dummy variable No = 0 Yes = 1	Calculated from Labour and Time Use data set

There were substantial differences observed in the descriptive data between the age groups and between women and men. This includes the number who are NEET, in education, employed, married and type of household they may live in. In order to establish whether the various factors impact differently on the NEET rate depending on age group and gender four separate models were run as follows:

- All 15- to 19-year-olds;
- Women 15- to 19-years-old;
- All 20- to 24-year-olds;
- Women 20- to 24-years-old.

Note: Each of the four models were run separately for each country and no intercountry analysis was conducted. The **odds ratios** of each variable in each country is shown in a combined table for convenience of discussing the impact on NEET. In this regard, each variables odds ratio for each country shows the results **while controlling for all other variables** (unless the data is not available in which case it is denoted by n.d.).

4.2 Being a woman increases the probability of NEET

In all countries women are more likely to be NEET than men, especially women aged between 20 and 24 years. For women in the age group 15-19 the increased probability of being NEET is largely determined by equality in education enrolment and the age at which they leave school. Equality in education enrolment is evident in most countries. The age at which young women leave school is sometimes earlier than young men due to more efficient flow through – as young men’s schooling is often disrupted by seasonal and intermittent employment.

Young women, however, are less able to access employment in both age groups which impacts on their NEET status more than men’s. Box 18 on employment in Malawi and Box 19 on employment in Uganda show the relative employment in casual labour of young women and men.

There are, of course, other drivers of the age at which young women leave school. Social norms, assisting in family production, marriage and pregnancy all play a role in whether a young woman may be at school or work.

Table 9: Probability of NEET status: Women

	15-19	20-24
	All youth (Odds ratios)	All youth (Odds ratios)
Botswana	1.06~	1.12~
Ethiopia	1.09~	2.17***
Kenya	1.22**	1.82***
Malawi	1.39***	2.45***
Mozambique	1.04~	1.72***
Namibia	1.67***	1.47***
Rwanda	1.02*	1.18**
South Africa	1.09~	1.25***
Uganda	1.48***	2.81***

Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables. Statistical significance indicated as follows: * = $p < .10$; ** = $p < .05$; *** = $p < .01$; ~ = no statistical significance.

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Rwanda Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author’s calculations.

4.3 Marriage and cohabiting

The greatest determining factor for being NEET is being married or cohabiting. Being married or cohabiting increases the probability of being NEET for ages 15 to 19 by a factor of between 3.55 times in Rwanda and 18 times in Kenya. Rwanda, where marriage is only legal from the age of 21, has the lowest impact of marriage on NEET for women. The probability of being NEET in the 20-24 year age group ranges from 1.07 times in Botswana to 6.35 times in Malawi.

However, as with education and especially in the 15-19 age group, country context and the actual number of married women by age is important in understanding these determinants. In Kenya, for example, married women between 15 and 19 years old are 18 times more likely to be NEET than their unmarried counterparts. This appears alarming, *however*, very few women between 15 and 19 in Kenya are married. Data from the survey shows less than 1 per cent of 15 and 16 year-old women are married; 5 per cent of 17 year-olds; 8 per cent of 18 year-olds and 13 per cent of 19 year-olds are married. Most of them are NEET. Namibia and South Africa similarly have very few women between 15 and 19 who are married.

The results of the analysis of the impact of marriage on NEET for 20-24 year-old women is substantially lower than that on 15-19 year-old women. In Ethiopia, Malawi and Mozambique married women are 4.6, 6.4 and 3 times more likely to be NEET than unmarried women. The difference between women and men is greatest in Malawi but men in Malawi (as in many other countries) tend to delay marriage until they have employment.

Table 10: Probability of NEET status: Married

	15-19		20-24	
	All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)	All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)
Botswana	5.0**	5.36~	0.79***	1.07~
Ethiopia	9.28***	9.18***	4.32***	4.58***
Kenya	9.05***	17.99***	1.92***	3.50***
Malawi	5.71***	7.07***	2.14***	6.35***
Mozambique	4.28***	5.69***	2.37***	3.04***
Namibia	6.15***	6.43***	1.25*	1.76**
Rwanda	3.20**	3.55***	1.81	1.85***
South Africa	8.21***	11.40***	1.46***	1.96***
Uganda	4.93***	6.82***	1.26**	2.06***

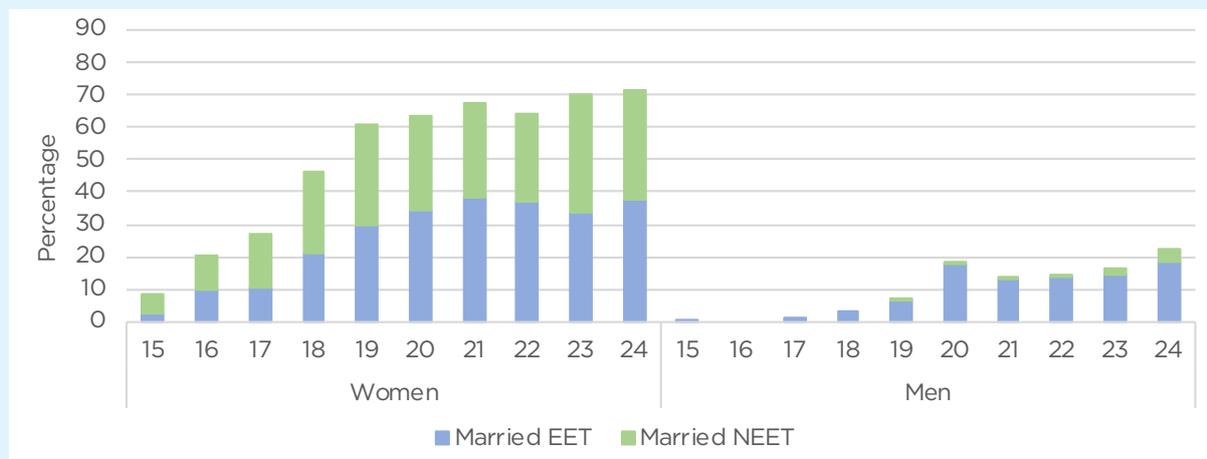
Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables. Statistical significance indicated as follows: * = p < .10; ** = p < .05; *** = p < .01; - = no statistical significance. Some coefficients with statistical significance of up to p < 0.3 where retained - these have no asterisk.

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; : Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Rwanda's Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Box 14: Youth in Mozambique and marriage

Until 2019, when the government passed a law forbidding marriage before 18 years of age, it was possible for young women to get married at 16 with their parents' consent. At the time of passing the Bill, *Human Rights Watch News* estimated that 1 in 10 girls were married before their 15th birthday (Odhiambo 2019). The Mozambique Family Budget Survey data collected in 2019 shows that 9 per cent of 15 year olds are married; 20 per cent of 16 year olds; 37 per cent of 17 year olds; 46 per cent of 18 year olds; and 61 per cent of 19 year olds are married.

Figure 27: Married or cohabiting NEET and EET youth as a percentage of youth by sex and age in single years (15-24)



Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables.

Source: Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Analysis done on the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) 2011 by UNICEF and UNFPA (2015) shows a declining trend in teenage marriage. Marriage of women under 15 dropped from 22 per cent in 1997 to 14 per cent in 2011 and marriage of women before the age of 18 dropped from 57 per cent in 1997 to 48 per cent in 2011. This Mozambique Family Budget 2019/20 data shows 9 per cent of women were married at 15 and 27 per cent were married at 17.

UNICEF and UNFPA (2015) analysis finds that religious and regional differences account for variations in the rates of child marriage more than social or economic factors. Girls in female headed households are less likely to be married than those in male headed households and that increased education attainment has the greatest impact on reducing the rate of adolescent marriage. However, their study finds that although the rate of marriage decreased between 1997 and 2011, the rate of adolescent pregnancy in urban areas remained the same.

4.4 Having children

In most of the countries in the report it is not possible to know how much having a child increases the probability of being NEET – especially in relation to marriage and cohabiting. Unfortunately, very few of the household or labour force surveys collect data on whether a woman has had a child or not. Namibia and South Africa have data in their surveys on

children born in the past 2 years for Namibia and in the past one year for South Africa. However, the surveys do not contain data other children who may have been born earlier.

Table 11 shows the impact on NEET of having had a child in the past one or two years in Namibia and South Africa. In Namibia 15-19 year-old women are 4.14 times more likely to be NEET if they have had a child in the past two years while 20-24 year-old women are 1.22 times more likely to be NEET if they have had a child in the last two years. In South Africa 15-19 year-old women are 3.48 times more likely to be NEET if they have had a child in the last year and 20-24 year-old women are 2.22 times more likely to be NEET if they have had a child in the last year.

Table 11: Probability of NEET status: Has a child

	15-19 Women (Odds ratios)	20-24 Women (Odds ratios)
Namibia	4.14***	1.22**
South Africa (in the past 12 months)	3.48***	2.22***

Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables. Statistical significance indicated as follows: * = $p < .10$; ** = $p < .05$; *** = $p < .01$; - = no statistical significance.

Source: Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; South Africa General Household Survey 2019. Author's calculations.

4.5 The 20-24 age group are more likely to be NEET than the 15-19 age group

As seen in the descriptive statistics, more 20 to 24-year-olds are NEET in all countries than their younger counterparts, the majority of whom are still attending school. The regression model shows that age has a significant impact on NEET status in all countries with 20 to 24 year-olds having between a 1.9 and 4.2 times greater chance of being NEET than 15- to 19-year-olds.

Table 12: Probability of NEET status: 20-24 years

	All youth (Odds ratios)	All Women (Odds ratios)
Botswana	2.52***	3.38***
Ethiopia	2.47***	2.62***
Kenya	3.21***	2.92***
Malawi	2.47***	1.83***
Mozambique	1.91***	1.66***
Namibia	2.38***	2.32***
Rwanda		
South Africa	4.21***	4.00***
Uganda		

Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables. Statistical significance indicated as follows: * = $p < .10$; ** = $p < .05$; *** = $p < .01$; - = no statistical significance. Some coefficients with statistical significance of up to $p < 0.3$ where retained - these have no asterisk.

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Rwanda Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

4.6 Living in an urban area increases the probability of being NEET

In most countries living in an urban area increases the probability of being NEET, most particularly for 20-24-year-olds. In countries where agricultural production predominates, rural youth have more wage-earning opportunities even if these are as seasonal day labour. However, two factors need to be considered when understanding the impact of living in urban areas. Firstly, the extent of urban employment – especially amongst young men – could be higher due to the coverage bias in many of the surveys. Secondly, respondent bias often underestimates women’s earnings which, in urban areas, are often earned in tuckshops and small food vending operations (Guloba 2017).

Table 13 shows the impact of living in urban areas on youth NEET. In Botswana, Namibia (in the 20-24 age group) and South Africa there is very little difference in NEET status between urban and rural areas. Apartheid policies in South Africa and Namibia as well as large percentages of non-arable land in Namibia and Botswana have meant that the scope for small rural agricultural development has been limited and thus limiting prospects for employment.

Table 13: Probability of NEET status: Urban, by sex and age group

	15-19		20-24	
	All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)	All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)
Botswana	0.91-	1.07-	1.03-	1.09-
Ethiopia	0.90-	0.70-	1.39*	1.37-
Kenya	2.08***	1.20***	1.43***	1.48***
Malawi	1.43***	1.17-	1.71***	1.80***
Mozambique	1.28***	1.49***	1.28**	2.09***
Namibia	1.45***	1.32**	1.04-	1.12-
Rwanda	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
South Africa	1.00-	0.86***	0.95-	0.90-
Uganda	1.33***	1.32*	2.04***	2.20***

Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables. Statistical significance indicated as follows: * = $p < .10$; ** = $p < .05$; *** = $p < .01$; - = no statistical significance. Some coefficients with statistical significance of up to $p < 0.3$ were retained – these have no asterisk.

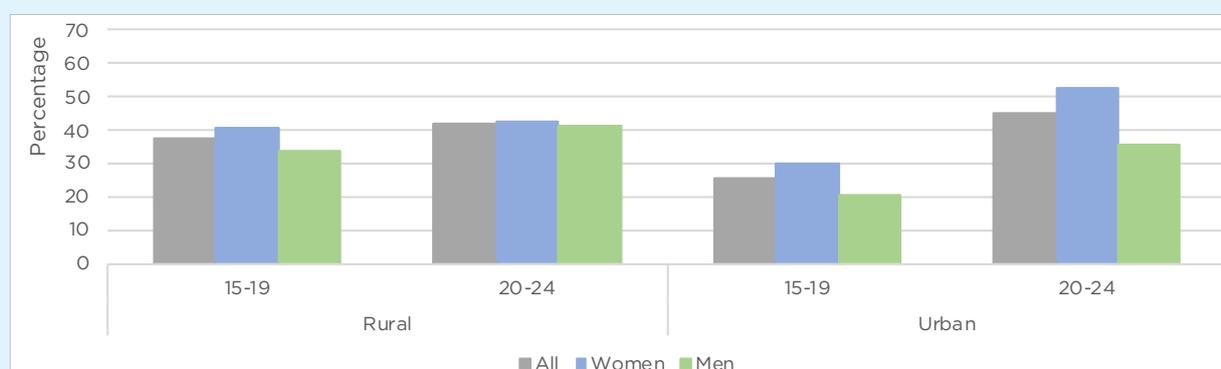
Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Rwanda Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author’s calculations.

Box 15: Urban and rural NEET rates in Mozambique

Living in urban areas increases the probability of being NEET for both women and men in both age groups. Urban residence has greater impact on young women than young men. In Mozambique young women between 20 and 24 are twice as likely to be NEET as rural women.

It is not clear from the data what factors drive this higher NEET rate. It could be due to a shortage of employment opportunities for young women in urban areas; a shortage of childcare options; or lower poverty rates in urban areas that allow more young women to choose to remain at home rather than pursue extremely low wage employment.

Figure 28: Urban and Rural NEET in Mozambique as a percentage of youth by sex and age group (15-19 and 20-24)



Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables. Source: Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

4.7 Years of education attained reduce NEET

The number of years of secondary and tertiary education reduces the probability of being NEET substantially. However, the effect of education on NEET is different on the 15- to 19-year-olds who are still at school and the 20- to 24-year-olds who have mostly completed their schooling and may have post school qualifications.

In most countries attaining junior and senior primary reduces the probability of NEET for 15- to 19-year-olds by between 60 per cent and 80 per cent. Attaining secondary schooling has a further reduction in the probability of being NEET in all countries.

In the 20- to 24-year-old age group having attained only primary education does not affect the probability of being NEET over no schooling at all. Only Rwanda, of the six countries analysed, has a reduction in the probability of NEET due to attaining primary schooling as opposed to no schooling. The attainment of lower or upper secondary school reduces the probability of being NEET by between 50 per cent and 70 per cent in most countries.

The impact of post school education on NEET status is very country dependent. In Malawi having a post-secondary diploma, which is the qualification required for teaching primary school, reduces the NEET rate by 90 per cent. Higher education qualifications in most countries reduce the NEET rate by between 90 per cent and 95 per cent

In Mozambique it appears that attaining higher education increases the probability of NEET but the percentage of 20- to 24-year-olds enrolled in higher education is 0.04 for both women and men and the data is not statistically significant.

Table 14: Probability of NEET status: Highest level of education attained

Country	Level of Education	15-19		20-25	
		All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)	All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)
Botswana	Junior Primary 1-4/1-3	4.53*	~	1.24~	~
	Senior Primary 5-7/ 4-5	1.00~	1.00~	1.00~	~
	Junior Secondary 1-2/1-3	0.52~	0.98~	1.15~	0.45~
	Senior Secondary 3-4/4-6	0.52~	1.15~	1.36~	0.53~
	Diploma/training	0.50~	-	0.15~	0.03***
	Higher education/degree	-	-	0.11~	0.02***
Ethiopia	Junior Primary 1-4/1-3	0.30***	0.24***	0.79~	0.73~
	Senior Primary 5-7/ 4-5	0.13***	0.14***	0.21***	0.23**
	Junior Secondary 1-2/1-3	0.33*	0.20***	0.41**	0.50~
	Secondary 3-4/4-6	1.74~	-	0.35~	2.60~
	Senior Diploma/training	0.33*	0.21***	0.18***	0.13***
	Higher education/degree	0.06***	0.01***	0.50~	0.57~
Kenya	Junior Primary 1-4/1-3	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Senior Primary 5-7/ 4-5	0.24***	0.25***	0.32***	0.43**
	Junior Secondary 1-2/1-3	0.22***	0.21***	0.31***	0.45**
	Senior Secondary 3-4/4-6	1.09~	1.15~	0.38***	0.49*
	Diploma/training	0.40*	0.39~	0.22***	0.33***
	Higher education/degree	0.08***	0.08**	0.14***	0.16***
Malawi	Junior Primary 1-4/1-3	0.49***	0.62	1.00~	0.66~
	Senior Primary 5-7/ 4-5	0.16***	0.30***	0.80	0.90~
	Senior Primary 8	0.11***	0.25***	0.72	0.84~
	Junior Secondary 1-2/1-3	0.06***	0.13***	0.34***	0.50**
	Secondary 3-4/4-6	0.6***	0.12***	0.35***	0.60
	Post-secondary training or higher education degree	-	-	0.08***	0.09***
Mozambique	Junior Primary 1-4/1-3	0.57***	0.72*	0.76**	0.77~
	Senior Primary 5-7/ 4-5	0.32***	0.45***	0.49***	0.55*
	Junior Secondary 1-2/1-3	0.11***	0.14***	0.17***	0.22***
	Secondary 3-4/4-6	2.28***	2.83***	0.63**	0.43*
	Diploma/training	1.48~	4.05~	0.63~	0.48~
	Higher education/degree	-	-	1.92~	1.94~
Namibia	Junior Primary 1-4/1-3	0.22***	0.19***	0.51***	0.32**
	Senior Primary 5-7/ 4-5	0.14***	0.13***	0.34***	0.23***
	Junior Secondary 1-2/1-3	0.09***	0.08***	0.37***	0.22***
	Secondary 3-4/4-6	0.20***	0.17***	0.19***	0.16***
	Diploma/training	0.09***	0.09**	0.09***	0.06***
	Higher education/degree	0.07***	0.10**	0.09***	0.06***

Country	Level of Education	15-19		20-25	
		All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)	All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)
Rwanda	Junior Primary 1-4/1-3	0.27***	0.23***	0.52***	0.45***
	Senior Primary 5-7/ 4-5	0.26***	0.23***	0.52***	0.53**
	Junior Secondary 1-2/1-3	0.06***	0.06***	0.54***	0.59***
	Secondary 3-4/4-6	0.04***	0.04***	0.47***	0.41*
	Diploma/training	0.07***	0.06***	0.30***	0.25***
	Higher education/degree	0.05***	0.05***	0.11***	0.11***
South Africa	Junior Primary 1-4/1-3	0.14***	0.12*	1.29~	2.61~
	Senior Primary 5-7/ 4-5	0.04***	0.02***	1.21~	2.11~
	Junior Secondary 1-2/1-3	0.01***	0.01***	0.53*	0.51~
	Secondary 3-4/4-6	0.04***	0.02***	0.47**	0.43~
	Diploma/training	0.05***	0.03***	0.32***	0.23~
	Higher education/degree	0.10**	~	0.21***	0.23~
Uganda	Junior Primary 1-4/1-3	0.52**	0.57	0.83	1.07
	Senior Primary 5-7/ 4-5	0.36***	0.59	1.07	1.21
	Post-primary training	0.40***	0.87	0.18***	0.16***
	Junior Secondary 1-2/1-3	0.12***	0.25***	0.86	1.22
	Senior Secondary 3-4/4-6	0.19***	0.36**	0.88	1.01
	Post-secondary training	0.02***	0.04***	0.26***	0.23***
	Higher education/degree	-	-	0.41**	0.54

Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables. Statistical significance indicated as follows: * = $p < .10$; ** = $p < .05$; *** = $p < .01$; ~ = no statistical significance. Some coefficients with statistical significance of up to $p < 0.3$ where retained - these have no asterisk.

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Rwanda Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Box 16: Learning to read and write in Mozambique and Ethiopia is a priority outcome of school attendance

While increased levels of education attained are important in reducing NEET in Mozambique and Ethiopia, it appears that being able to read and write further reduces the probability of being NEET in the 15-19 year age group. In Mozambique women in this age group are 61 per cent less likely to be NEET if they can read and write and 66 per cent in Ethiopia. This is likely due to quality of education and the total number of years that young women are able to attend school. In Mozambique attaining some years of junior primary school reduced the probability of NEET by 28 per cent. Attaining some years of senior primary school reduce the NEET rate by 55 per cent.

Box 17: Education attainment and NEET in South Africa

While increased levels of education attained in South Africa are important in reducing NEET, two interesting points emerge in the output from the regression models. The first is that very high reductions in NEET status are obtained by attaining higher levels of education in the 15-19 year olds. A 99 per cent reduction in the probability of women being NEET is obtained by attaining lower secondary, 98 per cent for upper secondary and 97 per cent for training levels. This suggests that moving into secondary education at all is likely to lead to completion of secondary. In this age group women with no schooling or who have left school at the primary level are the most vulnerable to NEET.

The second point of note is that for the 20-24 year old age group, the impact of higher levels of education on NEET is somewhat ambiguous with few outcomes being statistically significant. Attaining only primary grades increases the probability of being NEET which supports the hypothesis that in the 15 to 19 year age group mostly those women who have no schooling or left school in the primary levels are vulnerable to NEET. Attaining either lower or upper secondary levels of education only reduces the probability of being NEET by 50 per cent which is likely to be the result of near universal completion of secondary education and extremely low levels of employment. More interestingly, while attaining higher education reduces the probability of being NEET by 75 per cent, the statistic is not significant to the 0.01 level.

4.8 Family characteristics

The impact of family characteristics on the probability of being NEET varies widely from country to country. All variables were tested in all countries and only those that had an impact on NEET and were statistically significant were included. An unexpected finding was that very few countries had an increase in youth NEET due to living in women headed households or living with children under the age of 5. A case in point is that of Mozambique where women headed households don't have much of an impact on youth NEET, in fact they decrease the probability of 20-24 year old women being NEET by nearly 40 per cent.

In Ethiopia female headed households appear to increase the probability that young men are NEET while hardly impacting on female NEET. In Malawi having a female head of household increases the probability of NEET by 20 per cent for 15-19 year-old women and men; and 20 per cent for 20-25 year old women.

In all other countries where data was available, having a woman head of household did not impact on the probability of being NEET and the result was also not (in most cases) statistically significant. This is possibly due to the intervening factors of marriage and education which both have fairly large impacts on NEET status.

Table 15: Probability of NEET status: Female head of household

	15-19		20-25	
	All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)	All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)
Botswana	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Ethiopia	1.12*	1.03-	1.20-	0.93-
Kenya	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Malawi	1.20*	1.15-	1.06-	1.20-
Mozambique	0.95-	0.96-	0.70***	0.62***
Namibia	0.90-	0.84-	1.10-	0.90-
Rwanda	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
South Africa	0.99-	0.90-	1.05-	0.88-
Uganda	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.

Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables. Statistical significance indicated as follows: * = $p < .10$; ** = $p < .05$; *** = $p < .01$; - = no statistical significance. Some coefficients with statistical significance of up to $p < 0.3$ where retained - these have no asterisk.

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Rwanda Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Having children in the household under the age of 5 generally increases the probability of being NEET - especially for 20-24 year-old women. In Kenya, for example, the number of children under 5 in the household increases the probability of being NEET by 1.5 times compared to 1.2 times for younger women. In some countries this is not the case. For example, in Malawi the number of children under 5 does not impact on the probability of being NEET in either age group. In Malawi this is likely to be in larger inter-generational households and thus potentially due to greater availability of childcare. In Kenya the increased probability of NEET may be due to greater urbanisation, smaller household sizes and higher family income which allows women to *choose not to* seek employment in extremely low paying jobs. (See reference to Klaasen (2018) and Nieuwenhuis et. al. (2018) in Section 2.)

The number of dependents below the age of 15 in Kenya and Malawi is likely to increase the probability of NEET and in Uganda decreases the probability of being NEET.

The number of dependents over the age of 18 has a far more profound impact on increasing the probability of being NEET in both age groups by 1.2 times in Ethiopia to 2.75 times in Malawi.

Table 16: Probability of NEET status: Household characteristics

		15-19		20-25	
		All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)	All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)
Botswana	No. of adult dependents	1.73***	1.96***	1.98***	1.99***
	No. of adult wage earners	1.17*	1.36**	0.47***	0.53***
	Household size	0.86***	0.84***	0.99~	0.93~
Ethiopia	No. of children under 5	1.40***	1.85***	1.33**	1.64**
	No. of children under 18	0.90**	0.80***	0.95~	0.89~
	No. of adult dependents	1.15***	1.25***	1.45***	1.33**
	No. of adult wage earners	0.61***	0.66***	0.34***	0.29***
Kenya	No. of children under 5	1.43***	1.29**	1.25***	1.51***
	No. of children under 10	1.18**	1.33***	1.24***	1.16*
	No. of adult dependents	1.44***	1.49***	1.71***	1.83***
	Household size	0.79**	0.77***	0.81***	0.81***
Malawi	No. of children under 5	1.09~	1.16~	1.00~	1.09~
	No. of children under 15	1.47***	1.32****	1.28	1.16
	No. of adult dependents	1.87***	1.62***	2.22	2.75***
	No. of adult wage earners	0.47***	0.48***	0.11	0.09~
	Household size	0.70	0.81	0.85	0.05***
Mozambique	No. of children under 5	1.12**	1.27***	1.10*	1.14*
	No. of adult dependents	1.25***	1.22***	1.42***	1.46***
	No. of adult wage earners	0.62***	0.53***	0.29***	0.27***
Namibia	n.d.				
Rwanda	n.d.				
South Africa	No. of children under 5	1.18	1.24***	1.11**	1.10~
	No. of adult dependents	1.22	1.27***	1.43***	1.39***
	No. of adult wage earners	0.94**	0.91~	0.68***	0.64***
	No adults 60+ years	0.88**	0.81*	0.86**	0.82**
Uganda	No. of children under 15	0.92**		0.72***	0.72***
	No. of adult dependents			1.59***	1.59***
	No. of adult wage earners	1.07*			

Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables. Statistical significance indicated as follows: * = p < .10; ** = p < .05; *** = p < .01; ~ = no statistical significance. Some coefficients with statistical significance of up to p < 0.3 where retained - these have no asterisk.

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Rwanda Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

4.9 Family agriculture and unpaid care and domestic work by sex

Young women's ability to move into employment is often circumscribed by the amount of unpaid domestic and care work that they are engaged in. Unpaid family agricultural work also takes up a substantial amount of young people's time – both women and men. Many countries' data shows that young men between the ages of 15 and 19 often spend more time working in family agriculture than young women and spend as much time as young women on household work.

As mentioned earlier, young women's employability can be limited by the amount of unpaid domestic and care work that they are engaged in. However, for the 15-19 age group, the impact of domestic and care work on increased NEET is relatively low in most countries. For the 20-24-year-olds it is slightly higher but only rises to about 1.2 times the probability of being NEET.

In agriculturally based countries where subsistence farming is prevalent, unpaid family agricultural work also takes up a substantial amount of young people's time – both women and men. In many countries young men between the ages of 15 and 19 spend equal or more time on *paid and unpaid* family agriculture than other youth (who may be occupied with more domestic work) and it increases the probability of being NEET by between 2.3 and 3.7 times.

Young women between the ages of 20 and 24 tend to spend the most time of all youth in *unpaid* family agriculture and this increases their probability of being NEET by 1.7 times in Rwanda, 3 times in Kenya and 13 times in Uganda.

In Ethiopia, more young men between the age of 15 and 19 work in unpaid family agriculture than any other group. The model run on both women and men shows a 67 per cent greater association with the probability of being NEET. The model run with data for 15-19 year old women only has only a 12 per cent greater probability of being NEET. The NEET status of young men in Ethiopia between the age of 20 and 24 is not affected by family farming for no pay. In fact it is slightly reduced. It seems from the descriptive analysis that young men are more likely to be able to combine unpaid family farming with other employment including family agriculture for profit.

Box 18: Malawi unpaid family farming

Subsistence farming on the family plot or smallholding is the predominant form of food production in Malawi with youth enrolled in school and those employed also spending time engaged in family farming for own consumption. 41 per cent of youth engaged in unpaid family farming also attend school, 24 per cent are employed (although most are employed in casual labour or in family businesses) and 35 per cent working on family farms are NEET. A much higher percentage of women NEET and more men students work on the family farm.

Table 17: Percentage of 15- to 24-year-olds engaged in unpaid family farming by NEET, employed* or in education

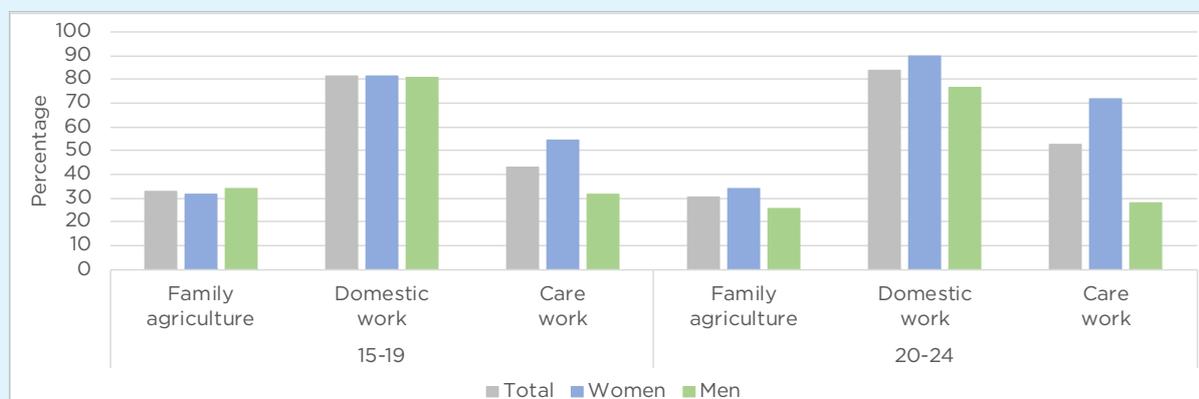
	Women Per cent	Men Per cent
Percentage of NEET engaged in unpaid family agriculture	43	26
Percentage employed* and engaged in unpaid family agriculture	22	26
Percentage enrolled in education and engaged in unpaid family agriculture	34	48

* Note: Employment numbers are according to the official definition of the ILO and only those who worked in the 7 days prior to the survey. Source: Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020. Author's calculations.

Box 19: Uganda unpaid domestic, care and family agriculture

In Uganda more young men between the ages of 15 and 19 are employed than young women but they participate equally in both family agriculture and domestic work. Domestic work in this case includes collecting wood and water as well as building and fixing family dwellings. In the 15-19 year age group more young women (54 per cent) than young men (31 per cent) are engaged in care work. In the age group 20-24 more women than men are engaged in agriculture, domestic and care work than young men. Care work especially begins to predominate in young women's lives with 72 per cent engaged in care work compared to 28 per cent of young men.

Figure 29: Uganda: Percentage of youth engaged in unpaid work by type



Source: UNHS 2019/20. Author's calculations.

Table 17: Probability of NEET status: Unpaid domestic, care and family agricultural/enterprise work

		15-19		20-25	
		All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)	All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)
Botswana	Engaged in unpaid family farm/agriculture work	2.16**	0.30-	1.10-	1.48-
Ethiopia	Engaged in unpaid farm/agriculture work	1.67***	1.12-	0.92- (Men only 1.09-)	0.93-
Kenya	Engaged in unpaid family farm/agriculture work	2.40***	2.19***	3.64***	3.23***
Malawi	Engaged in unpaid family farm/agriculture work	1.12-	1.08-	1.22-	1.18-
Mozambique	Unpaid family work*	2.96***	3.84***	5.85***	11.46***
Namibia	n.d.				
Rwanda	Average hours of care work	1.07***	1.09***	1.05***	1.04***
	Average hours doing chores	1.05***	1.06***	1.05***	1.05***
	Engaged in unpaid family farm/agriculture work	3.23***	3.45***	2.05***	1.73***
South Africa	n.d.				
Uganda	Doing unpaid care work	1.01	1.19	1.23*	1.21
	Engaged in unpaid family farm/agriculture work	3.72***	3.57***	9.56***	13.05***
	Doing unpaid domestic work	1.18	2.12***	0.99	0.86
	Doing unpaid family business	2.65***	2.15***	5.35***	4.00***

* In the Mozambique survey no distinction was made between farming and other family work.

Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables. Statistical significance indicated as follows: * = $p < .10$; ** = $p < .05$; *** = $p < .01$; - = no statistical significance. Some coefficients with statistical significance of up to $p < 0.3$ where retained - these have no asterisk.

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Rwanda Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

4.10 Results of community characteristics variables

Few of the country surveys had detailed community data and those that did, warrant further investigation into the possible impact these may have on NEET. Some community factors emerged from the Malawi survey that show decreases in the probability of young women in the 20-24 age cohort being NEET and have the potential to offer some policy direction.

Some of the community data from the Malawi IHS5 was analysed and 20- to 24-year-old women are most impacted by the availability of public transport which decreased the likelihood of being NEET by 14 per cent. The distance to the larger ADMARC market is statistically significant but does not decrease the probability of being NEET. Notable for reducing the probability of being NEET is the presence of an agricultural project offering employment opportunities. This factor reduces NEET status by 14 per cent and is statistically significant.

The other community factor included was whether the household was the recipient of a community programme or social welfare transfer. These were recoded to group food disbursements to households and school feeding schemes; cash transfers; and work programmes. While work programmes are possibly duplicated and may be collinear to the agricultural projects offering employment it was felt that the results were sufficiently indicative to include in the results.

In relation to whether the household was the beneficiary of a development project or social support programme the greatest probability of a reduction in the NEET rate was in the 20–24-year-old cohort.

Again, while not being statistically significant, it is noteworthy that programmes that offer food support also decreased the probability of NEET in the 15- to 19-year-olds. This is possibly due to the impact of feeding schemes in schools.

Table 18: Probability of NEET status: Community characteristics

		15-19		20-25	
		All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)	All youth (Odds ratios)	Women (Odds ratios)
Malawi	Distance to ADM market				1***
	Public transport available in local community				0.86
	Agricultural project offering employment				0.86***
	Household as a beneficiary of a development project or social support programme			0.59**	0.53**
	Programme offers food including school feeding		0.85		
South Africa	Household receives social grant	0.17***	0.18***	1.04-	0.32***
	Government employment programme	~	~	0.52-	0.27*

Note: Regressions are run separately for each country. The odds ratios are calculated while controlling for all other variables. Statistical significance indicated as follows: * = $p < .10$; ** = $p < .05$; *** = $p < .01$; ~ = no statistical significance. Some coefficients with statistical significance of up to $p < 0.3$ where retained - these have no asterisk.

Source: Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020; Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19; Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019; Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020; Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20; Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016; Rwanda Labour Force Survey 2019; South Africa General Household Survey 2019; and Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Decreasing the risk of youth leaving school and their NEET status becoming permanent is a priority for all the countries in the study.

For young women marriage and working in unpaid family farming are the two factors that have the greatest impact on their increased NEET status. The survey data shows that implementation of government policy and non-governmental advocacy efforts have largely succeeded in raising the age of adolescent marriage to 18 years.

Unfortunately, data on childbirth was not available in the surveys and it was not possible to measure the relationship between marriage and adolescent childbearing or their separate impact on NEET status. However, the three countries that have the highest rates of adolescent pregnancy, Malawi, Mozambique and Uganda (Kasa et. al. 2018; Jaén-Sánchez 2020), also have the highest rates of adolescent marriage. In all these countries over 80 per cent of married 15-19 year olds are NEET. Employment rates begin to increase amongst the married 20-24 year olds and in Malawi, Mozambique and Uganda.

Education enrolment and the highest level of education attained has the greatest impact on reducing the NEET status of both young women and men. Efforts in expanding education provision over the past 30 years have successfully created universal access to primary school and many countries have near universal access to secondary school. Efforts continue to increase the quality of education provision which plays a key role in retaining girls in education when families make decisions about the cost benefit of girls remaining in school.

However, between 20 and 24 years old marriage becomes an increasing determinant of NEET. Leaving school and getting married, without having ever entered the labour market gives women limited agency around childbearing and has been found to permanently entrench NEET status.

While employment in East and Southern African countries is not widely available to young men they do increasingly find employment and the gender gap in employment rates is highest in youth between 20 and 24. In addition to gender norms that may deem certain work unsuitable for young women, young men are more mobile and able to seek work or take up labour opportunities away from home – this begins even while young men are still at school. However, this does appear to adversely affect both the quality and the time it takes to complete their education.

For young women in Mozambique marriage and unpaid work in family agriculture or enterprises are the two factors that have the greatest impact on their increased NEET status. The survey data shows that 9 per cent of 15 year olds are married; 20 per cent of 16 year olds; 37 per cent of 17 year olds; 46 per cent of 18 year olds; and 61 per cent of 19 year olds are married. The pregnancy rate amongst adolescents is 38 per cent (Jaén-Sánchez et. al. 2020). Being married increases the NEET rate for 15-19 year old women 5.7 times and for 20-24 year old women by 3 times. Increased access to education has the greatest impact on reducing the NEET rate amongst young women. However, the quality of education received is important as women 15-19 who can read and write have a 61 per cent lower probability of being NEET.

In policy terms continued provision of and access to good quality education and training is a priority but it needs, as a matter of urgency, to be combined with inputs that give young women real choices about marriage and their reproductive health. This ultimately means expanding opportunities for young women to contribute to their own and their family's financial well-being. Increasing women's agricultural productivity, access to government employment schemes and have all been shown to improve employment opportunities.

The policy priorities in this section are not new, and many have been operational and successful for decades. Raising them again is not meant to be a comment on their effectiveness but rather an added voice of urgency.

5.1 Reducing early marriage and adolescent motherhood

Direct, urgent and public interventions by policymakers aimed at reducing the numbers of adolescent marriages and childbirth need to be increased. Malawi, Mozambique and Uganda with adolescent pregnancy and birth rates of over 30 per cent are on a precipice of irreversible population growth rates and a permanent cycle of NEET in young women. Adolescent pregnancy and birth rates in Zambia and Zimbabwe are over 25 per cent. Meaningful impacts need to be made into reducing early marriage and adolescent motherhood - not only for the medium to long term impact on population growth but also for the health and wellbeing of the young women affected.

Policies and strategies to reduce the rate of adolescent marriage and motherhood need to be multi-faceted. Legislation needs to be implemented and the requisite advocacy work to change social norms and attitudes towards child marriage needs to take place. Increased years of education attained are extremely important but improving the quality of education from the early grades will impact on women staying in school and attaining early literacy which decreases their probability of becoming NEET by 60 per cent.

Targeting "second chance" education strategies towards young women both married and unmarried may assist in increasing self-determination and in delaying marriage for those who have left school but are not yet married. Ultimately on a macro-economic scale the conditions of poverty that necessitate young women leaving school to help at home or to get married will need to be addressed.

It has not been possible in this study to look at the relationship between adolescent marriage and motherhood due to the lack of questions on childbirth in all but two country surveys.

The difficulty of finding comprehensive data on adolescent motherhood for all East and Southern African countries needs to be addressed. While the Demographic and Health

Surveys and the Micro Indicator Cluster Surveys yield critical information, they are too infrequent to provide the data necessary to monitor this SDG indicator. Information on women's childbearing and reproductive health cannot be left out of nationally sampled household surveys. In any event, most Demographic and Health Surveys do not ask unmarried women about their unmet need for contraception.

Policy makers need to directly address the conflicting social norms whereby young unmarried women (and men) find it difficult to access contraception due to conservative attitudes that fail to acknowledge young women's vulnerability to unwanted pregnancies. At the same time there is an ongoing perception that having a child "as proof of fertility" will improve young women's marriage prospects and be a way out of poverty (Dombola et. al. 2021).

Information and access to reproductive health and contraception needs to be available at schools. While this remains a highly controversial issue, several countries have included reproductive health into the curriculum. In Namibia the National Policy on School Health established mobile health clinics visiting schools and aimed at protecting and supporting young women from the effects of gender-based violence, early pregnancy and increased risks of sexually transmitted disease have been integrated into the school systems (Legal Assistance Centre 2017).

The Kenyan government in their 2021 Policy Brief on teenage pregnancy make several recommendations to ensure that young women are truly able to operate with dignity and self-determination in their own fertility decisions. These are: invest in education so that girls transition from primary to secondary school and beyond; invest in adolescent and youth friendly reproductive health facilities; integrate reproductive health into the school curriculum and other available platforms; fully implement and enforce existing laws pertaining to teenage pregnancy and motherhood; initiate campaigns and community dialogues to address harmful practices that affect girls and young women (Republic of Kenya 2021).

5.2 Education

International indicators show that countries in ESA have near universal enrolment in primary school and rapidly increasing access to secondary education. However, the quality of education varies between countries. (Bashir et. al. 2018). There would be a range of reasons for this, some of which are discussed in more detail in each country report. Household level factors such as poverty (which causes manifold problems such as deficits in nutrition, health and educational support at home) and the number of days that the student can attend school in a given year also impact on education attainment especially amongst youth who work and assist families with domestic, care and unpaid family agriculture.

Several countries have education policy interventions aimed specifically at retaining young women in schools. These have included access to adolescent friendly clinics, free school uniforms and menstrual products (Bashir et. al. 2018). Many schools have proactive programmes that assist young women to access reproductive health as well as encouraging young mothers to return to school after childbirth (Dombola et. al. 2021). These programmes will have to be given greater priority if they are to have a larger impact. Social norms that currently curtail the provision of reproductive health information and school-based health care for young women will have to be addressed at the highest levels of government.

5.3 Raising the productivity of family agriculture

The analysis of Uganda, Mozambique, Rwanda and Kenya shows that work in unpaid family agriculture is one of the greatest determinants of NEET in women between 20 and 24. In addition, family agriculture for profit employs up to 30 per cent of 15-24 year-olds and it seems that an essential component of rural employment opportunities for youth lies in family agriculture.

Fox and Kaul (2018) suggest that over the next decade at least, the household agricultural sector is likely to provide most of the new employment in Africa. In order to access these possibilities women and youth need access to more productive agricultural inputs and training in modern farming methods. Rodgers and Akram-Lodhi (2019) found in their study on gender productivity gaps in agricultural output that the factors affecting women's lower productivity are access to agricultural inputs, less secure land rights, gender-based distortions in product markets, rigid gender divisions of labour at the household level, lack of male family labour, lack of access to family agricultural implements and fertilizers which have to be purchased in the marketplace.

Munga et. al., (2021), in their work in Kenya, raise a concern that in some sectors, such as horticulture and financial services, the increase in informal and temporary jobs. In horticulture small-scale producers and family farms now constitute 80 per cent of horticultural production. Given the number of NEET and active work seekers amongst 20-24 year-old women, it would seem that this development would be beneficial to women who have families to care for and who are already engaged in agricultural production for unpaid family use. However, Munga et. al. (2021) comment that the process of:

“informalization” of new jobs and workspaces...will persist with further mechanization and/or automation. As a result of these changes, it's very possible that a large share of new jobs in Kenya will be of lower quality (i.e., informal non-wage jobs characterized by precarious or vulnerable employment, low pay and low coverage of social protection). Importantly, this process may undermine the decent work agenda and compromise achievement of the Goal 8 of the sustainable development goals (SDGs), “decent work and economic growth” (Munga et. al. 2021).

In the light of this, it would be important that increases in the number of youths employed also include improvements in the quality of the employment. Such improvements should also ensure that working conditions are conducive to women's employment and don't exploit the gender pay gap.

Improving productivity in agriculture needs greater government investment (Rodgers and Akram-Lodhi 2019, Makumbi 2018 and Guloba 2021).

Box 20: Increasing employment opportunities for young women leaving school

Retention in education, training options and increasing employment opportunities for young women who are currently leaving school at 15, 16 and 17 years of age but are not yet married is an urgent target if the number of 18 and 19 year olds getting married and becoming adolescent mothers is also to be reduced

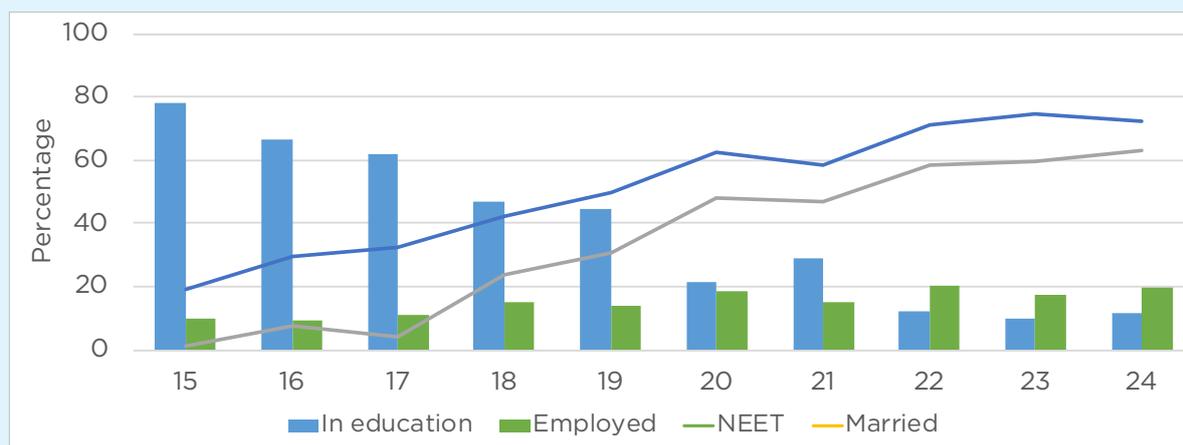
For young women in Ethiopia and Mozambique marriage has the greatest impact on their increased NEET status. The survey data shows that implementation of government policy and non-governmental advocacy efforts in Ethiopia have largely succeeded in raising the age of adolescent marriage to 18 years but for those younger than 20 who are married their probability of being NEET increases by 9 times.

Survey data for Mozambique shows high levels of teenage marriage from 9 per cent at 15 to 61 per cent at 19. And while the NEET rate is lower than in Ethiopia and employment increases from 7 per cent at 15 to nearly 50 per cent at 21 year old, this work is predominantly on family farms and in family enterprises and over 60 per cent of Mozambique youth live in extreme poverty.

Figure 30 and Figure 31 show the percentage of women in education, employment, NEET and married by year of age for Ethiopia and Mozambique respectively. The relationship between these four factors is important – NEET and marriage rates start rising steadily from 15 years old in Mozambique and at 18 in Ethiopia.

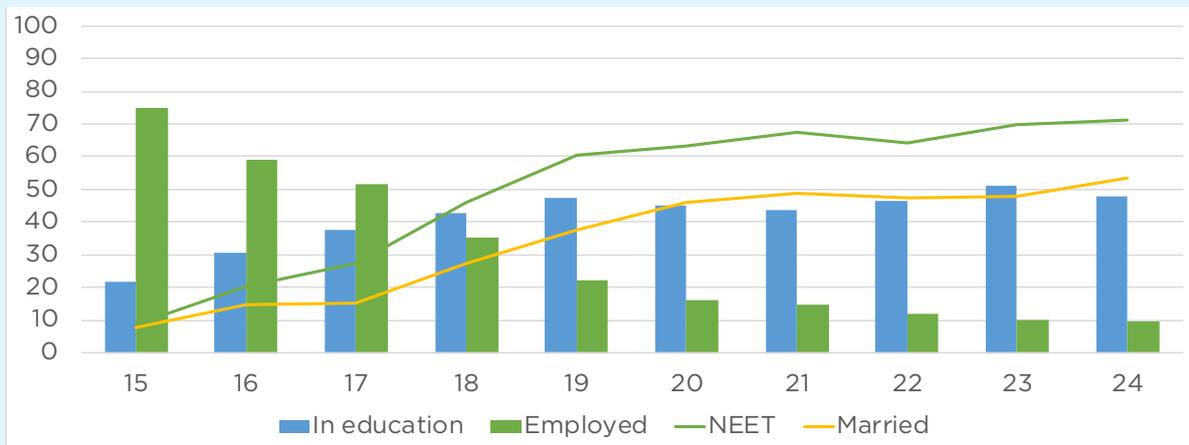
Retention in education, training options and increasing employment opportunities for young women who are currently leaving school at 15, 16 and 17 years of age but are not yet married is an urgent target if the number of 18 and 19 year olds getting married and becoming adolescent mothers is also to be reduced.

Figure 30: Percentage of women in education, employed, NEET and married by age



Source: Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey 2018/19. Author's calculations.

Figure 31: Percentage of Mozambique women in education, employed, NEET and married by age



Source: Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20. Author's calculations.

In policy terms continued provision of and access to good quality education and training is a priority but it needs, as a matter of urgency, to be combined with inputs that give young women real choices about marriage and their reproductive health. This ultimately means expanding opportunities for young women to contribute to their own and their family's financial well-being.

5.4 Youth targeted interventions and active labour market policies

There is much debate about the success of interventions that directly support youth in job searches, entrepreneurial skills, technical skills development, job placements and apprenticeships. Kring (2017) suggests that the impact of active labour market policies (ALMPs) “based solely on job placement rates in the short term tend to show only small positive impacts. However, their longer-term impact is generally more substantial. ALMPs are particularly valuable for women, enabling young women to gain essential skills and work experience, as well as providing guidance in non-traditional work opportunities.”

Broader literature on youth employment stress the need for increased “soft skills” such as communication, problem solving as well as more digital and IT skills. Fox and Ghandi (2021) find this with case studies across the sub-continent where several programmes, complementary to the formal education system, are proving cost effective. UN-Habitat (n.d.) found in their interviews with young women in Kampala that this was one of the few ways in which young women were able to overcome societal norms which required young women to be deferential.

“Women in particular benefit from developing socio-emotional skills. These interventions are showing results in terms of higher self-employment earnings and better access to wage jobs. It is a productive avenue for closing the gender pay gap.” (Fox and Ghandi 2021)

UN-Habitat (n.d.) has identified several sources of assistance appropriate for youth and women's organizations. The Kampala local government, for example, provides a range of support and services such as credit to youth and women's organizations. Registered savings and credit cooperatives that operate throughout the country can receive government grants for youth and women's business development and initiatives exist

that facilitate other financial support such as bulk buying and marketing. However, UN-Habitat also point to the need for training and support for young women not only in business and finance but also in overcoming gender and youth norms that prevent them from continuing their formal education, finding decent work for equal pay or starting a business. (UN-Habitat n.d.)

5.5 Child labour

Legal interventions will also need to be made by governments with regards to child labour. While not specifically part of this project brief, analysis of the Malawi IHS5 2020 shows the percentage of children and adolescents working as Ganyu labour – 3 per cent of children 5-9 years; 20 per cent of girls and 22 per cent of boys 10-14; 38 per cent of women and 48 per cent of men 15-19; and 45 per cent of women and 62 per cent of men 20-24.

While this work does not necessarily constitute child labour or hazardous labour, a report on child labour and youth employment in Malawi by the ILO, UNICEF and the World Bank (2018) has expressed concern over the exploitative nature of informal and part-time youth labour. Child labour is also ubiquitous in Uganda with 14 per cent of children engaged in some sort of child labour – predominantly in the rural areas. 12 per cent of girls and 15 per cent of boys are engaged in child labour (UBOS in Global March 2020). The Global March Against Child Labour (2020) study on child labour in Uganda’s sugarcane production, which has been defined as “hazardous” work for children, finds that exploitation of child labour continues despite government legislation to the contrary.

Child labour also displaces paid work for youth (and adults). The document recommends more government support for the implementation of existing legislation preventing child labour, hazardous labour and indentured labour. If child labour policies that all countries have committed to were implemented more productive work may be available for young adults.

6

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7

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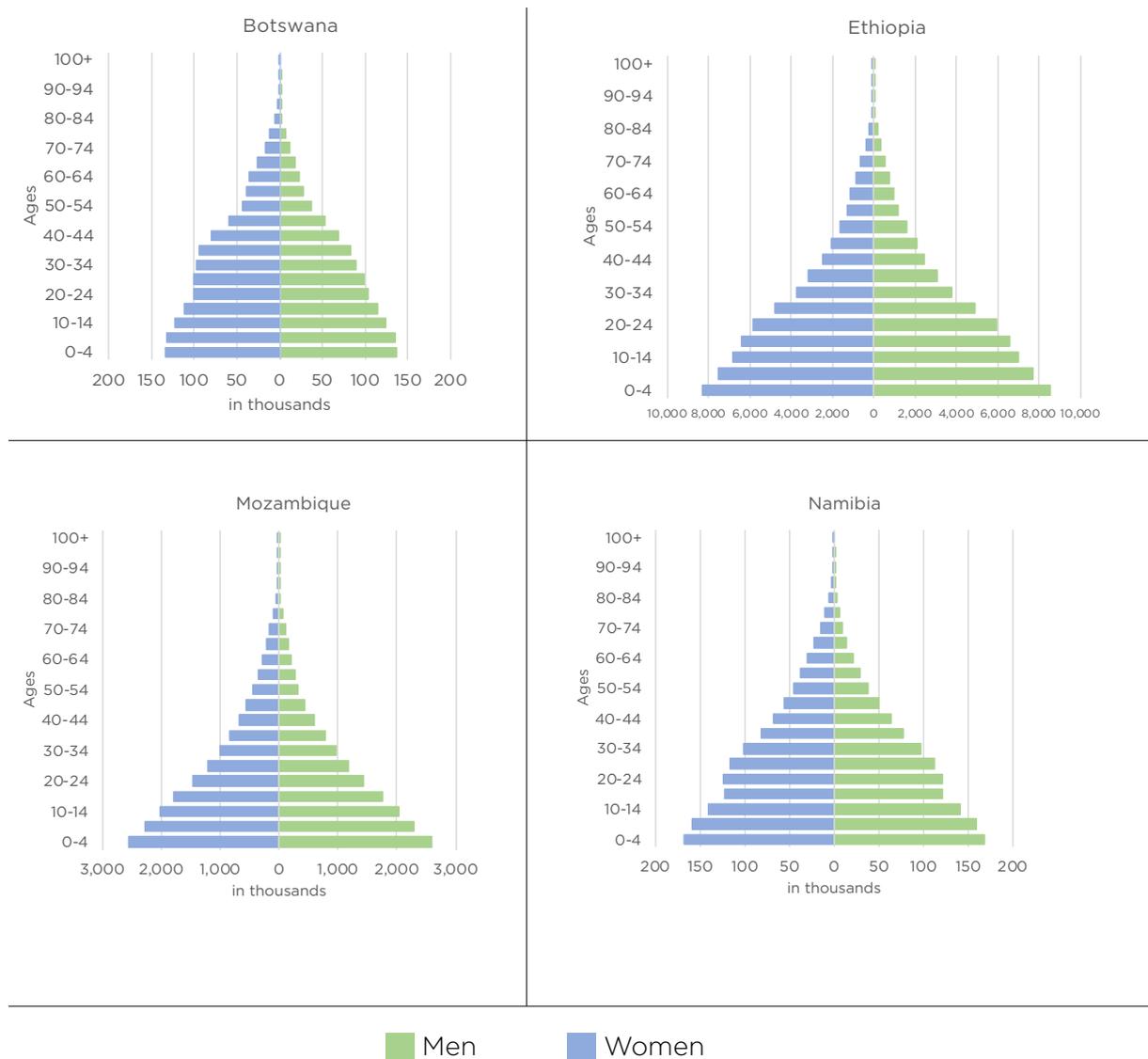
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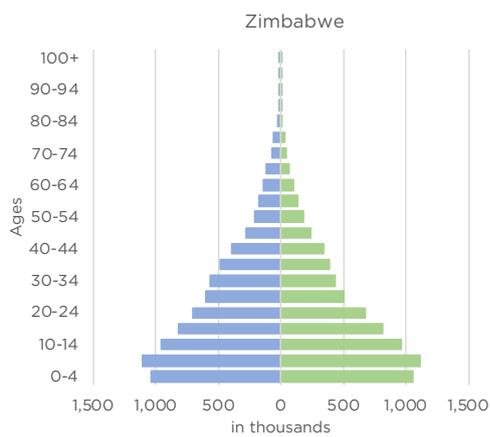
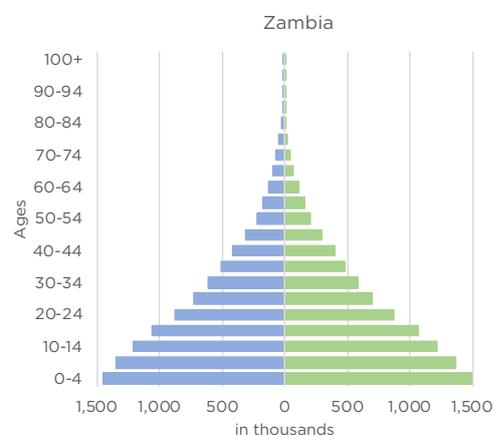
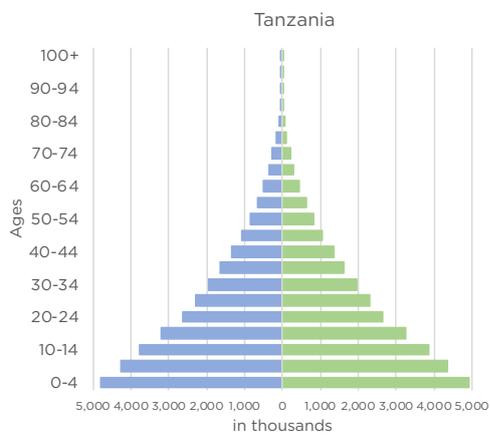
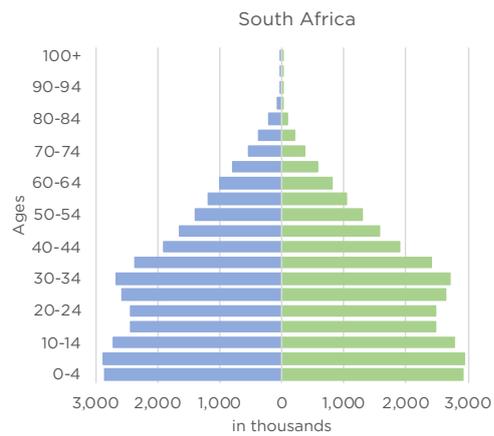
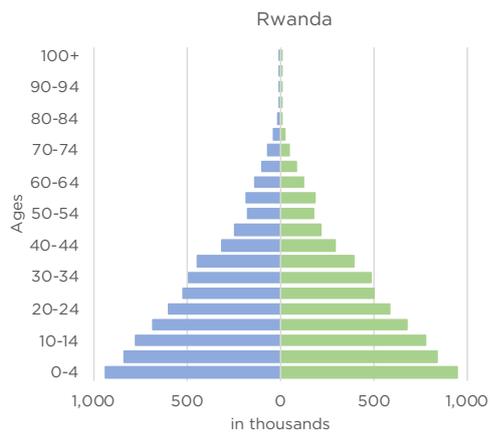
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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Population Pyramids – Botswana, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa and Uganda





■ Men ■ Women

Appendix 2: ICLS standards applicable in each country survey

Country and survey used	ICLS standards used in survey	Implication for calculated NEET rates in this report
<p>Botswana Quarterly Multi Topic Survey (QMTS): Labour Force Module Q1 2020</p>	<p>ICLS standards used: The report on the results of the QMTS Q1 2020 states that the survey data collected follows the 19th ICLS resolutions most especially that “persons are considered employed only if they work for payment and/or profit or gain. This implies that persons engaged in subsistence farming are not considered to be in employment. Activities of producing goods and services mainly for own final use by households are not included under employment” (Statistics Botswana 2020). However, there may be some ambiguity since own use production of goods is not specifically asked in the questionnaire.</p> <p>Agriculture: Clearly stated if for own use or sale.</p> <p>Other household production of goods and services: Not explicitly included in the survey.</p> <p>Non-farm household business (or enterprise): No distinction asked between own use or sale. Separate questions ask if respondent <i>works or helps</i> in a non-farm household business and both categories are considered employment.</p> <p>Unpaid domestic labour: No data collected on any other own use family work.</p>	<p>Employed if in the last 7 days:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Employed for salary or wage <p>OR</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2) Works or helps in non-farm household business <p>OR</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3) Works or helps in household agriculture for sale <p>OR</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4) Is absent from any of the above <p>Not employed if:</p> <p>Works or helps in household agriculture for family own use</p> <p>OR</p> <p>Apprentice or volunteer for no pay.</p> <p>NEET rates calculated may be affected by ambiguity in definition if some non-farm household business is for own use only. In which case NEET rates may be higher than those calculated in this report.</p>

Country and survey used	ICLS standards used in survey	Implication for calculated NEET rates in this report
<p>Ethiopia Socioeconomic Survey (ESS) 2018/19</p>	<p>ICLS standards used: Not stated in the published ESS 2018/19 report but the current 2021 Labour Force and Migration survey states that Ethiopian labour definitions are according to the 13th ICLS (1982).</p> <p>Agriculture: ESS 2018/19 does distinguish between own use or sale and therefore not employed or employed</p> <p>Other household production of goods and services: Not explicitly asked in the survey.</p> <p>Own account or household business enterprise: ESS 2018/19 <i>does not</i> distinguish between own use or sale</p> <p>Unpaid domestic labour: Hours collecting wood and water are included in the ESS 2018/19 but no other unpaid domestic labour. 13th ICLS (1982) considers collecting wood and water as employment.</p>	<p>Employed if in the last 7 days:</p> <p>1) Employed for salary or wage OR</p> <p>2) Works or helps in non-farm household business OR</p> <p>3) Works or helps in household agriculture for sale OR</p> <p>4) Is absent from any of the above</p> <p>Not employed if:</p> <p>Works or helps in household agriculture for family own use OR</p> <p>Apprentice or volunteer for no pay. OR</p> <p>Collection of wood and water not included as employment in calculation of NEET rates for this report.</p> <p>NEET rates calculated may be affected by ambiguity in definition of household business enterprise if production is for own use only. In which case NEET rates may be higher than those calculated in this report.</p>

Country and survey used	ICLS standards used in survey	Implication for calculated NEET rates in this report
<p>Kenya Continuous Household Survey 2019</p>	<p>ICLS standards used: Stated that “international standards are used” (KNBS 2019).</p> <p>The survey asks if the respondent worked in the past week on any of the following activities for family use or for sale:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Worked on own account agricultural or non-farm business; • Helped in agricultural activity or non-farm business run by the household. <p>It is somewhat ambiguous which activity is being referred to (for family use or for sale) if more than one activity is confirmed.</p> <p>However there are a number of further questions which allow employment status to be confirmed. These are:</p> <p>1) Employed if primary or secondary activity status is classified as any of the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Own-account worker; • Contributing family worker • Paid employee (within HH) • Paid employee (outside HH) • Working employer <p>2) Employed if data is filled in for: Usual work (KNOCS); Economic activity (ISIC); and Main employer.</p> <p>Family agriculture: As above. Household business enterprise: As above Other unpaid work related questions: Survey does not ask about other unpaid domestic or care work.</p>	<p>Employed if in the past 7 days:</p> <p>1) Worked for a wage/salary OR</p> <p>2) Worked on own account agricultural or non-farm business OR helped in agricultural activity or non-farm business run by the family if the proceeds were for sale or mainly for sale OR</p> <p>3) Is temporarily absent from any of the above OR</p> <p>4) Primary or secondary activity status is classified as any of the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Own-account worker; • Contributing family worker • Paid employee (within HH) • Paid employee (outside HH) • Working employer <p>AND</p> <p>Employed if data is filled in for: Usual work (KNOCS); Economic activity (ISIC); and Main employer is not null</p> <p>Not employed if:</p> <p>1) Worked on own account agricultural or non-farm business if the proceeds were for only or mainly for family use. OR</p> <p>2) Helped in agricultural activity or non-farm business run by the household if the proceeds were for family use or mainly for family use OR</p> <p>3) Unpaid apprentice or volunteer</p>

Country and survey used	ICLS standards used in survey	Implication for calculated NEET rates in this report
<p>Malawi Fifth Integrated Household Survey data 2020;</p>	<p>ICLS standards used: Not stated in the survey report (NSO Malawi 2020).</p> <p>Children living outside of the household: The Roster of family members includes some information on children living outside of the household. It is not possible to know if this roster is complete and what type of residence the children may be living in.</p> <p>Wage: Asks separately if worked for wage/salary or ganyu (casual labour).</p> <p>Agriculture: Survey asks if agricultural activities are for family use or for sale. But then two further questions specifically ask hours spent in livestock and fishing activities. We assume the identification of family use or for sale refers to livestock and fishing.</p> <p>The economic activity for any household agriculture is defined as “UNPAID HOUSEHOLD LABOR(AGRIC)” - this field cannot be used to distinguish agriculture for family use or for sale.</p> <p>Household business enterprise: Asks if ran or helped in any household non-agricultural/non-fishing household business. Does not distinguish between for family use or for sale</p> <p>Other unpaid work related questions: Asks how many hours spent collecting fuel/fire wood and water.</p>	<p>Children living outside of the household: The analysis of survey data does not include children living outside the household. Further detail in Malawi country report.</p> <p>Employed, if in the past 7 days:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Worked for a wage/salary <p>OR</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2) Engaged in casual, part-time/ganyu labour <p>OR</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3) Ran any kind of non-agric/non-fishing HH business <p>OR</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4) Helped in any kind of non-agric/non-fishing HH business <p>OR</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5) Worked in family agriculture for sale. <p>OR</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6) Is temporarily absent from any of the above. <p>Not employed if:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Worked in household agricultural activities for family use only. <p>OR</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2) Unpaid apprentice or volunteer. <p>OR</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3) Collected wood or water

Country and survey used	ICLS standards used in survey	Implication for calculated NEET rates in this report
<p>Mozambique Family Budget Survey 2019/20</p>	<p>ICLS standards used: Not stated in the survey report (INE Mozambique 2021).</p> <p>The format of employment questions in the survey is somewhat different to the other countries' surveys. The Mozambique survey asks if the respondent is employed; who they work for (an employer, own account or family worker without remuneration); whether they are permanent, seasonal or casual; main occupation and sector.</p> <p>In the absence of data to distinguish whether the respondent works in family agriculture or enterprise for own family use or for sale the "family worker without remuneration" is used to denote "not employed". While this is not an ideal distinction it was found that there is approximately 90 per cent correspondence between the designation "family worker without remuneration" and the occupational and sector codes for subsistence agriculture/fishing.</p> <p>In the "own account worker" category approximately 60 per cent of respondents were engaged in subsistence agriculture/fishing while the other 40 per cent had occupational codes such as vendor, baking, brick laying.</p> <p>For the purposes of this data analysis it is assumed that "family worker without remuneration" and "own account worker" is a sufficiently reliable distinction as to whether the agriculture/fishing is for family use or for sale.</p> <p>Agriculture: Does not ask if for family use of sale</p> <p>Other unpaid work related questions: Survey does not ask about other unpaid domestic or care work.</p>	<p>Employed, if in the past 7 days:</p> <p>Worked for any of the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public administration • Local Authorities • Public company • International/Embassy • Private company • Cooperative • NGO • Private house • Own account with employees • Own account without employees <p>Not employed if:</p> <p>Family worker without remuneration</p> <p>Unpaid apprentice or volunteer.</p>

Country and survey used	ICLS standards used in survey	Implication for calculated NEET rates in this report
<p>Namibia Inter-censal Demographic Survey 2016</p>	<p>ICLS standards used: Not stated but the NIDS 2016 report does not publish employment data (Namibia Statistics Agency 2017)</p> <p>Survey asks if respondent if they:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) worked for pay; 2) did business; and/or 3) worked for “at least an hour at an activity, for example as a trader, selling in the market, collecting wood or dung to sell, making handicrafts for sale, etc.” <p>This latter category determines the distinction between whether work in family agriculture or enterprise is for own use or for sale.</p> <p>Further questions in the survey on agricultural work on the household farm/ plot or if the respondent is an unpaid family worker are cross tabulated with point 3.</p> <p>The survey has the following employment status categories: employee; subsistence farmer (with and without paid employees); other own account worker; unpaid family worker.</p> <p>Agriculture: Separate question on work in family agriculture. For sale or for own use is determined by reply 3) above.</p> <p>Other unpaid work related questions: Survey does not ask about other unpaid domestic or care work.</p>	<p>Employed, if in the past 7 days:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) worked for pay; 2) did business; and/or 3) worked for “at least an hour at an activity, for example as a trader, selling in the market, collecting wood or dung to sell, making handicrafts for sale, etc.” 4) was temporarily absent from above <p>Not employed if:</p> <p>Answer to all the above is “No” even if further questions on subsistence agriculture is Yes or employment status is “subsistence farmer” or “unpaid family worker”.</p>

Country and survey used	ICLS standards used in survey	Implication for calculated NEET rates in this report
Rwanda Labour Force Survey 2019	<p>ICLS standards used: The survey uses the 19th ICLS standards (NIS Rwanda 2021).</p> <p>Questions on employment include working for wage/salary; run or do any kind of business; help unpaid in household business; work in household agriculture, farming or fishing for sale or family use.</p> <p>Agriculture: In addition to the above questions on employment further questions ask the hours spent in household agriculture and if the products are sold or bartered.</p> <p>Other unpaid work related questions:</p> <p>The survey asks detailed questions on hours spent in the last 7 days in unpaid domestic work according to the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • collecting firewood • fetching water • searching for fodder or grass • constructing your dwelling • household chores (cleaning, cooking, washing etc.) • spend looking after children and elderly members of the household 	<p>Employed if in the past 7 days:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Worked for wage/salary; 2) Run or did any kind of business; 3) Help unpaid in household business; 4) Work in household agriculture, farming or fishing for sale 5) Was temporarily absent from above <p>Not employed if:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Work in household agriculture, farming or fishing mainly or only for family use. 2) Engage in unpaid domestic work
South Africa General Household Survey 2019	<p>ICLS standards used: Not specifically mentioned in the survey metadata or published report.</p> <p>Questions on employment include working for wage/commission/salary; run or do any kind of business; work without remuneration in a family business.</p> <p>Agriculture: <i>Household</i> agricultural activities are asked in some detail in the household questionnaire (including whether they are mainly for family food or income from sale) but this household characteristic cannot be imputed to any individual.</p> <p>Other unpaid work related questions: No questions relating to time spent on unpaid domestic or care work.</p>	<p>Employed, if in the past 7 days:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Worked for wage/commission/salary; 2) Run or did any kind of business; 3) Work without remuneration in family business; 4) Was temporarily absent from above <p>Not employed – no other distinctions made in the above definitions</p>

Country and survey used	ICLS standards used in survey	Implication for calculated NEET rates in this report
<p>Uganda National Household Survey 2019/20</p>	<p>ICLS standards used: Not specified in the survey metadata or the published report.</p> <p>Questions on employment include working for wage/commission/salary; run business of any size; help without being paid in a business run by the family; work on household's farm/forest/fish/hunt for sale or barter.</p> <p>*[An extremely small number of respondents help without being paid in the family business <i>and</i> in family farming where the proceeds were mainly for family consumption and their <i>main job</i> description is "subsistence farmer". In these cases the respondent was imputed to be "not employed". All others who are not subsistence farmers as their main job description are classified as "employed".]</p> <p>Agriculture: Distinguished between products for sale or family consumption.</p> <p>Household business enterprise:</p> <p>Other unpaid work related questions: The survey asks whether the following household tasks were undertaken - fetch water; fetch firewood; cook; clean utensils/house; wash clothes; care for children/old/sick; other household tasks - and how many hours were spent on such tasks during the preceding day.</p>	<p>Employed, if in the past 7 days:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Worked for wage/commission/salary; 2) Run a business of any size; 3) Help without being paid in family business; 4) Work in household farm/forest/fish/hunt for sale or barter 4) Was temporarily absent from above <p>Not employed if:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Work in household farm/forest/fish/hunt for family consumption (see * in central column) 2) Volunteer or unpaid apprentice 3) Undertake household tasks including fetch water, firewood, cook, clear and care for family members.

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