

Policies for Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa

*David Schwebel, Elisenda Estruch,
Peter Wobst, and Ileana Grandelis¹*

3.1 Introduction

The global trend of increased youth unemployment has led many governments and international organizations to develop youth-targeted policies and strategies. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in its Goal 8 commits to ‘promote sustained, inclusive, and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment, and decent work for all’. Specific targets were incorporated into this goal, including on achieving full employment for young people (8.5); on substantially reducing the proportion of youth not in employment, education, or training (8.6); as well as on developing and operationalizing a global strategy for youth employment by 2020 (8.b) (UNGA 2015).

At the regional level, the African Union (AU) has also a number of initiatives to promote youth employment. In its Agenda 2063, the AU commits to speed up actions to support young people through strategies that combat youth unemployment and underemployment (AU Commission 2015). In its Ouagadougou Declaration, the AU sets an overall regional framework for employment promotion by all AU member states, emphasizing youth and women. The Action Plan of this Declaration underlined the importance of promoting agricultural and rural development. This was followed by the Ouagadougou+10 Declaration on Employment, Poverty Eradication and Inclusive Development in Africa in January 2015, thus reiterating the importance of placing employment at the centre of development strategies (AU Commission 2015). The Malabo Declaration on Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods includes a specific target to create job opportunities for at least 30 per cent of the youth in agricultural value chains (AU Summit 2014). Similarly, the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme

¹ The views expressed in this chapter are the authors’ own and do not necessarily reflect the views of the International Labour Organization (ILO) or the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO).

(CAADP) Results Framework (2015–25) proposes expanding local agro-industry and value chain development (VCD) inclusive of women and youth (NEPAD 2015).

At the national level, many countries of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) have included objectives on youth employment promotion in their policies. Yet, much effort is still needed at the policy level to push support on rural youth employment to a scale commensurate with the magnitude of the challenge. In particular, additional efforts are needed to foster policy coherence towards more youth-friendly approaches for agriculture and food systems' development. Policy coherence should especially be encouraged between employment and youth policies, as well as agricultural and rural development policies.

This chapter presents a comparative qualitative policy analysis of national policies in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), based on a framework that incorporates the main constraints affecting the quantity and quality of rural youth employment. Whilst youth employment promotion in agriculture and rural areas is high in the regional and national agendas, few policy analytical frameworks and inventories include rural youth as a target group and this prevents analysing in a systematic and structured manner how the issue is being addressed in existing policies. Hence, the chapter builds on existing frameworks, which acknowledge the need for integrated policy approaches to youth employment, and further expands them by adding specific attention to rural youth and to the linkages between employment and rural development. The chapter follows by applying the analytical framework to 47 policies from 13 SSA countries from 1996 to 2016. The analysis follows the policy discourse analysis literature and focuses on the formulation stage of the policymaking process, therefore reviewing if the policy documents address main constraints to rural youth employment. The policies examined include development, agricultural, rural development, youth, and employment policies.

With the analytical framework, this chapter contributes to a more systematic and structured approach to raise awareness among policymakers and the development community about existing gaps in addressing the constraints to rural youth employment at policy level. This framework allows for the first time to systematically assess policies of SSA with a youth employment lens associated to the different pillars of the Decent Work Agenda. The importance of developing such a framework lies in the fact that previous policy reviews showed the prevalence of actions focused on labour supply, and the need to have a stronger focus on interventions addressing the labour demand.

The policy analysis conducted reveals several areas for improvement to create better employment opportunities for rural youth in SSA. In particular, the main findings show that policies focus more on promoting labour supply strategies—such as training programmes on entrepreneurship skills, rather than demand-side ones—such as reducing the constraints to business development and job creation at the sectoral level.

In particular, the unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth in rural areas was the constraint to rural youth employment least addressed by the policies

analysed. Also, some constraints related to the quality of employment (labour regulations, social protection, and social dialogue) were insufficiently addressed. Yet, a sound institutional and regulatory framework is crucial to protect workers' rights and vulnerable youth groups. Other relevant aspects often not addressed were access to social protection and youth representation in social and policy dialogue.

3.2 Rural Labour Market Dynamics and Effects on Youth Employment

Employment dynamics in rural labour markets are different from urban areas. They are generally characterized for a sub-optimal allocation of labour and lower income of workers, which leads to limited rural development (Tocco, Davidova, and Bailey 2012). The main employment challenge in rural labour markets is not unemployment, but a higher incidence of underemployment, especially through self-employment and casual wage employment in the informal sector. This is the result of structural constraints in rural labour markets that particularly affect rural youth participation in the labour force. In rural areas of developing countries, the lack of infrastructure, investments, farm inputs, and policy support has led to low levels of human capital, an agricultural sector with low productivity, and limited non-agricultural employment opportunities. It is therefore important to better understand how the conditions affecting labour supply interact with those affecting labour demand across rural labour markets (ILO 2008).

The ILO proposes a comprehensive rural labour market framework (Table 3.1) in terms of supply, demand, and institutions which is useful to analyse its impacts on rural youth in SSA. The supply side is mainly determined by demographics, access to productive assets, education levels, and social norms. The young population in SSA is expected to continue growing in the next decades, leading to approximately 370 million young people joining labour markets in the next 15 years (AfDB et al. 2015). This can produce an oversupply of unskilled labour in rural areas with limited employment opportunities in farm and nonfarm activities. One of the main limiting factors is the low access to productive assets through financial services for rural youth—including credit, savings, and insurance—to start their own business. Another factor is low levels of education and limited skills that curb the productivity of rural youth and hinder their entrepreneurial abilities. Social norms, which define the role that rural youth should play in a community or household, can also impair their ability to find a job or start a business, especially for young women.

The demand side is affected by economic growth, investment levels, and market access. Low public and private investments in rural areas and agriculture causes limited rural enterprise growth and job creation, which contributes to widespread underemployment and offers young school leavers few viable employment

Table 3.1. Main characteristics of rural labour markets

| Supply side | Institutions and intermediary structures and processes | Demand side |
|---|---|--|
| <p>Conditions influencing supply</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Population growth and family composition ▪ Social norms related to labour supply ▪ Migration patterns and intensity ▪ Urban growth and associated labour demand ▪ Access to land and other productive assets ▪ Nutrition and health ▪ Education and skills ▪ Income transfers | <p>Government policies, regulations, and services</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Macroeconomic and financial policies ▪ Agricultural and sectoral policies ▪ Trade and agricultural policies ▪ Public investment (infrastructure, education, health, and so on) ▪ Rule of law and property rights ▪ Land reform processes ▪ Labour codes and regulations, including international labour standards (ILS) ▪ Information and marketing systems ▪ Employment services ▪ Enabling environment for business and investment ▪ Donor policy (ODA) | <p>Conditions influencing demand</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ General economic growth ▪ Growth of agricultural output for the domestic market and for export ▪ Market access for agricultural products with trading partners ▪ Growth of rural non-farm activities ▪ Public and private investment in rural areas ▪ Technical progress in agriculture—type and intensity ▪ Relative factor prices in agriculture and in relation to other sectors ▪ Labour productivity in agriculture ▪ Public works ▪ Urban growth ▪ Farm structure ▪ Seasonality ▪ Landownership structure |
| <p>Types of work and workers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Waged workers, including permanent, fulltime, part-time, casual, temporary, seasonal, and so on ▪ Self-employed, including both on-farm (smallholders) and off-farm (service providers and small-scale businesses) ▪ Sharecroppers ▪ Outgrowers and other rural workers under ‘putting out’ systems | <p>Social partners, civil society, and the private sector</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Trade unions ▪ Employers’ organizations ▪ Farmer/agricultural producer organizations ▪ Cooperatives ▪ Advocacy and service organizations, including NGOs ▪ Private enterprises ▪ Value chain and sectoral organizations ▪ Marketing intermediaries ▪ Financial intermediaries | |
| <p>Categories of waged and/or self-employed workers who may be subjected to discrimination include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Young workers ▪ Women ▪ Migrant workers ▪ Landless poor ▪ Indigenous people | <p>Social and cultural factors and economic institutions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Informal networks, family, and kinship ties ▪ Cultural norms ▪ Sharecropping ▪ Contract farming and outgrower associations ▪ Non-market-based labour exchanges ▪ Debt peonage and bonded labour | |
| <p>Special consideration needs to be given in rural areas to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Child labour ▪ Bonded labour | | |

opportunities (ILO 2008). Rural youth also have limited access to land—either to acquire or lease—due to unclear and insecure land rights, inheritance laws, and customs. Young rural entrepreneurs also face difficulties in accessing markets for their products and integrating into value chains.

As can be seen, the rural youth face particular constraints both in the demand and supply side when entering the labour force. Their ability to achieve successful transitions into rural wage and productive self-employment depends on several factors, but most notably on the aggregate labour demand and job opportunities, quality training that meets rural labour market demands, social protection that reaches rural areas, protection of workers' rights, the elimination of youth discrimination, and collective bargaining by including young people in agricultural organizations. To address all these factors, adequate balance should be found between general interventions that favor an enabling environment for decent rural employment promotion and targeted interventions for rural youth.

Rural labour markets have the potential to create quality jobs for the rural youth. Beyond farm jobs, there is also significant potential for job creation in rural nonfarm activities around food value chains linked to sustainable agriculture, agribusiness development, and related support services. In SSA, for instance, the demand for food is increasing due to growing population, urbanization, and rising household income. This creates opportunities for suppliers and suggests that there is a largely untapped reservoir of employment opportunities in agriculture (FAO 2016). However, for the agricultural sector to attract youth, youth-targeted policies and investments are needed to improve the quality of the available jobs. Better working conditions will not only be crucial to sustainably increase agricultural productivity, but also key determinants to attract young people to rural jobs.

3.3 Methodology for Comparative Policy Analysis on Rural Youth Employment

Since the global employment crisis started in 2007, there has been increased attention on generating evidence on the most effective policies and interventions for governments to create jobs, especially for young people. Analytical frameworks increasingly recognize that policies focused only on labour supply (such as skills development) are not enough, and that an equally serious problem is insufficient labour demand (enterprise development and job creation initiatives) as well as poor working conditions (such as social protection programmes). This section provides a short overview of the strengths and gaps of existing frameworks to analyse youth employment, and proposes a new policy framework to better address youth employment focusing on rural areas. It later presents the proposed theoretical framework as well as the used methodology and scoring to analyse the policies.

3.3.1 Existing Frameworks for Employment Policy Analysis

Several frameworks have been recently proposed to analyse labour issues giving importance to different policy areas. The World Bank's MILES framework for employment stresses the importance of placing labour markets at the centre of the structural adjustment policy agenda (WB 2007). This multisectoral framework focuses on five areas: 1) Macroeconomic policies; 2) Investment climate, institutions, and infrastructure; 3) Labour market regulations and institutions; 4) Education and skills; and 5) Social Protection. It is based on the fact that successful policies must concentrate on key constraints to growth and job creation in each area. Its implementation can be examined in the evaluation report of the World Bank's Youth Employment Programmes. The portfolio review found that most youth employment projects focus on interventions in skills development (82 per cent), school-to-work transition (79 per cent), and interventions to foster job creation and work opportunities for youth (54 per cent) (IEG 2012).

Another policy framework focused on youth employment is the one proposed during the 2012 International Labour Conference (ILC), expressing the need for a multi-pronged, coherent, and context-specific approach (ILO 2012a). The policy responses included five policy areas: 1) employment and economic policies for youth employment; 2) employability—education, training, and skills, and the school-to-work transition; 3) labour market policies; 4) youth entrepreneurship and self-employment; and 5) rights for young people. In both the ILO and WB frameworks, there are several overlaps in the focus areas for employment creation.

Other useful tools to identify policies and programmes related to youth employment are the policy inventories and databases. For example, YouthPOL eAnalysis, ILO's database on youth employment policies, includes 65 countries with a total of 486 policy documents as of October 2016 divided into six policy areas: 1) Macroeconomic and sectoral policy; 2) Enterprise development; 3) Education and training; 4) Labour demand; 5) Labour law and legislation; and 6) Labour market policy. The policy area most addressed is education and training, showing a clear focus on labour supply. The database includes policies affecting youth employment in general, without a particular focus on rural youth.

Another relevant database is the Youth Employment Inventory (YEI), which provides comparative information of more than 750 projects to support young workers in over 90 countries. Although it covers some rural development programmes, it does not include a specific category on agriculture and rural development. In contrast, FAO's employment and decent work in rural areas policy database gives a comprehensive overview of agricultural and rural development policy and institutional frameworks. This database is an online inventory of current national, regional, and global policies, programs, and studies that are relevant to the promotion of more and better jobs in the rural areas of developing

countries. Although the database does not focus exclusively on rural youth, it is a useful tool to identify and find information on policies that directly affect rural employment and different groups of workers, including rural youth.

The calls to develop policies focused on youth had a positive impact at the national level. According to the report on the State of Youth Policy 2014, from a total of 198 countries, 122 countries (62 per cent) had a national youth policy, a considerable increase from 99 countries in 2013. Another 37 countries (19 per cent) are currently developing or revising their youth policy, 31 countries (16 per cent) have no youth policy, and 8 countries (4 per cent) have unclear or unknown information (youthpolicy.org 2014). The report identified common issues on youth policies across countries including: education, training, employment, labour market access, health, and youth civic involvement. But again, the report does not explicitly assess aspects related specifically to rural youth or agriculture as a source of youth employment.

Few policy frameworks and inventories include rural youth as a target group since policies themselves seldom devote particular objectives to promote rural youth employment. Rural youth rarely participate in the policymaking process and therefore their voices are not heard, causing limited inclusion of their particular needs and constraints to find decent jobs. Policies also often fail to reflect the heterogeneity of young people given the lack of comprehensive data on rural youth as a distinct group (FAO, IFAD, and CTA 2014). As a result, policies are many times not implementable and/or sustainable in rural areas since they are designed by policymakers who are often unaware of the situation of rural youth (MIJARC, IFAD, and FAO 2012). Against this background, the AU has raised awareness in its African Youth Charter on the need to include the African youth in political processes by promoting measures to facilitate youth participation in the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of national development plans, policies, and poverty reduction strategies (AU Commission 2006). It is therefore crucial to develop a comprehensive framework to analyse policies that affect rural employment from a youth perspective, especially in SSA.

3.3.2 Policy Framework for Rural Youth Employment Analysis

The proposed framework for policy analysis integrates the main constraints to rural youth employment into five policy areas: 1) sectoral development; 2) self-employment, employability, and skills development; 3) labour market institutions and regulations; 4) social protection; and 5) social and policy dialogue. The five areas were selected to develop a multipronged framework that covers the main issues that have an impact on youth labour supply and demand as well as on the job quality dimension. Within the policy areas, nine constraints were analysed to achieve productive and decent employment (See Table 3.2). The selection

Table 3.2. Policy framework for rural youth employment analysis

| Policy area | Constraint | Importance | Examples of inclusion in policies |
|---|--|---|---|
| Sectoral development (including private sector development) | Low investments in agriculture and rural development | Investments in infrastructure and services, including business development services, make rural markets work better and provide more job opportunities for rural youth. Investments in value addition facilitate value chain development (VCD) and job creation. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Agricultural policy: investments in agricultural diversification, sustainable intensification, micro, small, and medium enterprises (MSMEs), and VCD. - Rural development policy: investments in infrastructure, access to energy and water, quality education, and health. |
| | Weak labour demand | Innovative mechanisms for youth employment creation in rural areas, including nonfarm and agricultural wage employment. Food systems can be supported through different strategies which might be more or less employment-enhancing. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Prioritization of employment-intensive sectors/technologies/practices or sectors where most of the rural poor live and work. - Employment-creation among the criteria for value chain/investment selection. |
| | Unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth | To develop agribusinesses rural youth need access to key productive resources such as land, labour, water, financial services, and infrastructure. Rural youth can also engage in existing agribusiness and agricultural value chains as wage workers, contract farmers, and suppliers. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dedicated action to address youth constraints to engage in agribusiness (for example, access to credit, land, markets, and so on). - Specific fora established on youth involvement in specific value chains - Priority on youth intergenerational land and farm transfer. - Youth mainstreaming into agricultural productivity interventions. |
| Self-employment, employability and skills development | Job-relevant skills constraints and lack of adequate education | Rural skills development, including extension services, and relevant youth training to the needs of rural labour markets can raise youth productivity and employability. Better educated youth are more likely to make good use of resources and adopt agricultural technologies. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Formal and non-formal agricultural technical and vocation education and training/extension services - Basic education to develop literacy and numeracy skills. - Tertiary agricultural education. - Youth apprenticeship mechanisms. - Skills development programmes. - Certification programmes for rural youth. |
| | Job search, information, and business start-up constraints | Employment services expanded to rural areas provide job search assistance and information for rural youth. Young farmers need resources and information to start an agribusiness. Partnerships established with the private sector to facilitate school to work transitions. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Inclusion of youth kits, microfinance mechanisms and saving groups, and so on. - Increase awareness of self-employment and wage employment opportunities, especially for young women. - Introduce agricultural and labour market information systems. |

| | | | |
|--|--|--|---|
| Labour market institutions and regulations | Weak regulations, standards and rights at work | Young rural workers need to improve in the terms and conditions of employment (for example, occupational safety and health (OSH), wages, minimum working age, and so on). ILS should be enforced in rural areas. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Review regulatory framework to capture youth as a target group. - Ensure enforcement of decent work standards. - Institutional capacity for monitoring OSH standards in enterprises employing youth |
| | Social constraints | Remove cultural and systematic discrimination (for example, gender, ethnicity, religion, disability, and so on) for vulnerable youth groups to access decent jobs. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mainstream gender in all youth development approaches and interventions. - Special attention given to vulnerable rural youth groups, including indigenous, migrant, and poor youth. |
| Social protection | Limited social protection | Extend social protection coverage to rural areas to protect rural youth, promote their livelihoods and productivity, and overcome socioeconomic exclusion. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Social support programmes that target youth. - Tax exemptions on agricultural inputs for youth. - Cash transfers include young beneficiaries. - Promote youth-friendly health services. |
| Social and policy dialogue | Limited social dialogue and youth representation | Facilitate engagement of rural youth in governance mechanisms, including producer associations and cooperatives to defend their interests. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Promote youth participation in the decision-making processes. - Encourage rural youth to join or form associations and cooperatives. |

of the policy areas is based on existing frameworks adapted to the reality of rural labour markets. In particular, they reflect the pillars of the Decent Work Agenda emphasizing the key role that the development of the agricultural sector plays in rural areas as it still occupies the vast majority of the labour force, reaching 75 per cent or above in certain Sahel and East African countries (Losch 2017). Within each of the policy areas, the selected constraints reflect the main bottlenecks that prevent young people from accessing decent jobs in rural areas.

The policy framework was used to analyse the content of 47 policies from 13 countries of SSA (see Table 3.A1 for complete list of policies per country). Its main purpose was to determine whether or not key constraints to rural youth employment were addressed in the policy documents. Depending on availability, four types of policy were taken by country: 1) development policy, vision, or strategy to reduce poverty; 2) employment policy; 3) youth policy; and 4) agricultural or rural development policy. The rationale for selecting these four types was to assess the consistency of interventions across policies and policy coherence towards rural youth employment promotion.

3.3.3 Policy Discourse Analysis

It is important to begin by explaining what is meant by policy analysis as well as the selected theoretical background and methodology. Policy analysis emerged as a technique to better understand the policymaking process and provide decision makers with reliable knowledge and information on pressing economic and social problems (Fischer, Miller, and Sidney 2007). There are multiple quantitative and qualitative methods that can be used to analyse policies depending on the area of interest and purpose of the analysis. The methodology could also vary depending on the stage in the policy cycle being observed: either the formulation, implementation, or evaluation of a policy.² As the purpose of the current policy analysis is to examine if the constraints to rural youth employment are addressed in selected policies, we focus on the formulation stage of the policymaking process.

During the policy formulation, the objectives are defined based on the priorities of a government and the development needs of a country. At this stage, it is essential to conduct a thorough analysis of the socioeconomic challenges faced in a country and engage all key stakeholders in order to define the actual priorities and needs (ILO 2012b). There are however vulnerable groups that are sometimes not included in the consultations, as often happens with rural youth. It is therefore crucial to assess if policies are considering rural youth and their employment needs. To carry out an assessment of this type a sound methodology is needed to clearly analyse the content of a policy.

² Although policies are developed in several standard steps, there is no universal model of the policy cycle and variations might emerge depending on particular contexts and institutional arrangements.

The applied methodology to conduct this comparative policy analysis was based on the discourse theory for policy analysis. A discourse analysis focuses on the use of language in a speech or text (here it will be policies) within a specific context. An important component of policy analysis is the examination of the discourse, in this case policy statements, from a qualitative or quantitative perspective. We therefore consider the discourse as an integral part of the policymaking process. In particular, we focus on the poststructuralist³ interpretation of the discourse theory that emphasizes the ways in which language materializes in practices (Paul 2009). In other words, we analyse how governmental institutions state in their policy objectives how they will pursue specific actions that will translate into institutional practices. Due to limited availability of information, this analysis focuses on the language throughout the policy design without reaching the point of corroborating if the discourse is actually translated into practice.

The rationale behind selecting discourse theory over other methods for policy analysis is that the main goal of this assessment is to clearly identify if the language being used in the policy statements properly addresses the main constraints to rural youth employment. The main unit of analysis is thus the full text of the policies in which specific words were searched. Then, the linguistic meanings of the policy statements were assessed to see if they appropriately reflected the selected constraints. It is assumed that if the policy statements address the constraints, they will eventually be transformed into a political discourse and consecutively into actions, in this case, to promote rural youth employment. A caveat in the present analysis is that it is confined to the assessment of the explicit wording of the respective policy documents, and thus does not interpret the wording in terms of policy change induced by the policy or overall country performance on rural youth employment. Being a qualitative methodology, policy analysis inevitably entails a certain risk of subjectivity, mainly with regards to the interpretation of words. Hence, in order to mitigate related errors and biases, a methodological approach was applied to the systematic and structured review of the policy documents in relation to how main constraints to rural youth employment are or are not addressed.

3.3.4 Scoring Methodology

A scoring methodology was adopted to conduct desk review of policy documents for all countries and policy areas under consideration. A review of different scoring systems was carried out in order to choose the appropriate method

³ Poststructuralist Discourse Analysis has been instrumental in developing a more dynamic and historically-sensitive mode of critical inquiry claiming that texts are multiply implicated in their social contexts and, thereby, come to shape various forms of knowledge and identity (Chouliaraki 2008).

to assess how rural youth employment is addressed in the policy statements. One system is constructing a discourse quality index based on particular indicators that measure different dimensions of a political discourse (Steenbergen et al. 2003). Another method is using different scales to measure the quality of the discourse, for example a five-point scale ranging from 'very favourable' to 'very unfavourable' for a specific policy issue (Stromer-Galley 2007). A third system is to develop a binary indicator to capture the positive or negative quality of discourse within a policy. In this case it was decided to use the binary measurement system (1 or 0) in order to appreciate in a simple and clear way if the policies did or did not address the main constraints to rural youth employment. The binary criterion to qualify policy statements stems from the fact that general interventions to improve labour market outcomes for rural workers could also contribute to address particular constraints that rural youth face. As they are the predominant cohort facing underemployment, especially in rural areas in SSA, it would be expected that policies addressing employment issues will inadvertently be also covering or targeting the rural youth. However, given the aim of our analysis, our approach gives more weight when rural youth are explicitly mentioned.

The following describes the steps taken to perform the policy discourse analysis. A desk review was first conducted to identify key policies by country. The consulted sources to collect the policies included websites of government ministries, as well as policy inventories and databases. The most recent policies were selected, including the ones that are still under approval in national parliaments. The structure, length, and content of each one varied considerably depending on the country and type of policy. To facilitate comparison, policy statements were selected that expressed the aim or objective of addressing any of the identified constraints. Within the policies, keywords were searched and subsequently assessed consistently. The criterion was assigning 1 on each policy statement if it explicitly mentioned a constraint or 0 if it did not. After scoring the nine constraints per policy, weighted averages were calculated for each policy area per country. It was decided to calculate weighted means to avoid skewness, as some policy areas have one constraint while others have multiple. Since the highest score a country can get is 100, each of the five policy areas has a weight of 20 divided by the number of constraints.

An illustrative example is the analysis of Tanzania's policies. In the case of Tanzania's National Agricultural Policy (2013), looking at the *sectoral development* policy area, specific words were searched linked to the constraint of *unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth*. The related policy statement found was: 'The Government in collaboration with private sector shall create conducive environment for youth to settle in rural areas through improvement of social services, infrastructure, and promote rural development.' As can be seen, it clearly makes

reference on how a favourable environment is necessary to attract rural youth to agriculture. Therefore a value of 1 was assigned to this particular constraint.

The same process was followed for Tanzania's four policies, assigning 1 or 0 for each constraint depending on whether they were addressed or not based on the keyword search (see Table 3.3). Once the four policies had binary scores, the weighted averages for each constraint were calculated within each policy area. For example, for the policy area *Sectoral Development* the three constraints were scored in each of the four policies. The constraint *unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth* was addressed in three out of the four policies, its weighted average is therefore 5.00. Once the weighted averages were calculated, they were summed to obtain the overall policy score for Tanzania, which is 73.

The scoring of the policies was not carried out arbitrarily as all policy documents were systematically reviewed based on the proposed framework in order to assess to what extent the main constraints on rural youth employment were being addressed. There are however some limitations in this analysis. First of all, it focuses on the policy design and discourse, and thus not on the implementation of the policies. On the latter, it was only verified that the policy was available online, that it was complemented with an action plan, and that it mentioned specific programmes and projects. However, we did not get to the step of corroborating whether the policies were actually translated into particular actions, nor on their ultimate impacts. The policy analysis was mainly based on a desk review and expert assessment from FAO's Decent Rural Employment Team, as well as building on expertise generated through FAO's field programme on the subject matter. Moreover, we did not look at the interactions and policy coherence among different government ministries and sectors due to limited availability of information. Finally, the policies under consideration covered the period between 1996 and 2016.

3.3.5 Context Indicators for Selected SSA Countries

Before turning into the results of the policy analysis, it is relevant to have a general idea of the socioeconomic and political context in each of the countries. Thirteen countries from SSA were selected based on the availability of data and policies at the national level. The selection captures diversity in terms of social and economic conditions as well as income, geographic area, size, and population. It should be noted that cross-country comparisons can sometimes be misleading as many of the indicators are measured based on national definitions that may vary from country to country. Also, South Africa does not generally follow the trends of other SSA countries due to particular socioeconomic conditions.

Table 3.4 presents eleven key indicators that have an impact on rural labour markets and rural youth employment at the macro level. Due to the lack of available

Table 3.3. Policy scoring example of Tanzania

| Policies | Sectoral development | | | Self-employment capacity, employability, and skills development | | Labour market institutions and regulations | | Social protection | Social and policy dialogue | |
|--|---|------------------------|-----------------------|---|---|---|--------------------|---------------------------|--|--------------|
| | Unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth | Low investments in ARD | Lack of labour demand | Job-relevant skills, constraints, and lack of education | Job search, info. and business start-up constraints | Weak regulations, standards, and rights at work | Social constraints | Limited social protection | Limited social dialogue and youth rep. | |
| National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty II | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | |
| National Employment Policy | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| National Youth Development Policy | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | |
| National Agriculture Policy | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | |
| Weighted mean | 5.00 | 6.67 | 6.67 | 7.50 | 10.00 | 7.50 | 5.00 | 10.00 | 15.00 | 73.33 |

Table 3.4. Key indicators of selected countries

| Country | GDP per capita, PPP (US\$) ¹ | Pop. aged 15–34 (%) ² | Rural pop. (%) ³ | Rural poverty (%) ⁴ | Agri. emp. (%) ⁵ | Wage emp. (%) ⁵ | Self-emp. (%) ⁵ | Vulner. emp. ⁵ | Youth unemp. rate (%) ⁶ | Political stability score ⁷ | Policy score ⁸ |
|--------------|---|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------------|--|---------------------------|
| Benin | 2,272 | 33.9 | 53.2 | 39.7 | 43.2 | 8.1 | 88.9 | 87.7 | 5.2 | 0.05 | 46 |
| Ethiopia | 1,899 | 36.3 | 79.7 | 30.4 | 68.2 | 10.0 | 89.5 | 88.8 | 7.4 | -1.24 | 63 |
| Ghana | 4,492 | 34.8 | 44.6 | 37.9 | 40.7 | 18.2 | 81.7 | 76.8 | 4.9 | -0.13 | 53 |
| Kenya | 3,285 | 36.1 | 73.4 | 49.1 | 38.0 | 33.4 | 63.4 | 77.7 | 26.2 | -1.27 | 64 |
| Liberia | 1,283 | 33.8 | 49.3 | 67.7 | 43.0 | 18.1 | 81.7 | 78.7 | 3.3 | -0.63 | 69 |
| Malawi | 1,202 | 35.8 | 83.3 | 56.6 | 84.7 | 16.1 | 83.9 | 83.9 | 7.8 | 0.12 | 52 |
| Nigeria | 5,875 | 32.9 | 50.5 | 52.8 | 36.6 | N/A | N/A | N/A | 13.4 | -2.11 | 44 |
| Senegal | 3,450 | 34.3 | 53.3 | 57.1 | 53.4 | 22.3 | 58.3 | 58.0 | 5.5 | -0.13 | 40 |
| South Africa | 13,498 | 35.9 | 34.2 | 77.0 | 5.6 | 85.9 | 13.6 | 9.3 | 53.5 | -0.08 | 51 |
| Tanzania | 2,946 | 33.2 | 66.9 | 33.3 | 66.7 | 16.2 | 75.9 | 74.0 | 3.9 | -0.54 | 73 |
| Togo | 1,660 | 34.1 | 58.8 | 73.4 | 37.8 | 10.9 | 89.1 | 89.1 | 2.8 | -0.16 | 59 |
| Uganda | 1,864 | 34.0 | 76.8 | 22.4 | 69.0 | 19.6 | 80.2 | 78.9 | 2.9 | -0.93 | 72 |
| Zambia | 4,024 | 35.0 | 57.0 | 77.9 | 53.3 | 20.4 | 79.3 | 79.0 | 15.94 | 0.21 | 55 |

Sources:

¹ *WB WDI. 2017.* Gross domestic product per capita based on purchasing power parity (PPP).

² *UNDESA, World Population Prospects. 2017.* The African Union's definition of youth covers the age range 15–34.

³ *UN World Urbanization Prospects. 2018.* Rural population refers to people living in rural areas as defined by national statistical offices.

⁴ *WB WDI. Latest available year.* Rural poverty headcount ratio is the percentage of the rural population living below the national poverty lines.

⁵ *ILOSTAT 2017.* Status in employment distinguishes between two categories of the employed—(a) wage and salaried workers and (b) self-employed workers. The vulnerable employment rate is calculated as the sum of contributing family workers and own-account workers as a percentage of total employment.

⁶ *ILOSTAT 2017.* The unemployment rate indicates the proportion of the labour force that does not have a job and is actively looking and available for work covering persons aged 15 to 24.

⁷ *WB WGI. 2014.* Political Stability and Absence of Violence/Terrorism measures perceptions of the likelihood of political instability and/or politically-motivated violence, including terrorism. Units range from -2.5 to 2.5, with higher values corresponding to better governance.

⁸ Own calculations based on rural youth employment policy framework; units range from 0 to 100.

data on rural employment, general employment data was included. The policy score obtained from the discourse analysis was also added to appreciate its relationship with the other indicators. As can be observed in the socioeconomic indicators, the GDP per capita varies between countries: eight are low-income economies, four are lower-middle-income economies, and only South Africa is an upper-middle-income economy. In all countries, young people (aged 15–34) comprise between 30 and 40 per cent of the total population. In 10 out of 13 of the countries more than half of the population lives in rural areas; on the one side Ethiopia has 80 per cent of its population living in rural areas, on the other side South Africa has only 34 per cent (UN DESA 2018). Likewise, rural poverty prevails in many of the countries reflecting low agricultural incomes, with Zambia having around 78 per cent of the rural population living below the poverty line and Uganda with around 22 per cent.

With respect to labour market indicators, agriculture remains the main sector of employment in most countries, employing more than half of the population in 7 out of 13 of the countries. For example, in Ethiopia around 73 per cent of the population works in agriculture against only 4.6 per cent in South Africa. Most of the economically active population is self-employed, including employers, own-account workers, members of producers' cooperatives, and contributing family workers. Also, most of the employment is considered to be vulnerable as the majority of the employed population includes own-account workers and contributing family workers, who are less likely to have formal work arrangements, and are therefore more likely to lack decent working conditions (ILO 2013). Youth unemployment rates also vary considerably between countries; on the one hand Benin has a youth unemployment rate of only 2 per cent, on the other hand 50.7 per cent of South Africa's youth is unemployed.

With regard to the political context, some countries have a low score in political stability and absence of violence/terrorism, which can considerably affect the policy and institutional environment in a country. For example, Nigeria has the lowest score given the current political instability and terrorism in the country, which could hamper the implementation of policies. Finally, the policy score is the result of the analysis carried out with the proposed policy framework reflecting the average of the scored constraints per country. The country that received the highest score is Tanzania with 73, while the one with the lowest is Senegal with 33. As can be seen, the policy scores do not necessarily correspond with the other indicators presented; for example, a low policy score does not translate into a high rural poverty headcount. The reason for this is that the policy assessment only focuses on the policy design without checking whether the policy statements were indeed transformed into concrete actions that have an impact on the economic performance and on rural youth employment in a given country.

3.4 Main Findings of the Comparative Policy Analysis

This section presents the main results of the comparative policy analysis conducted with the rural youth employment policy framework in the selected SSA countries. The implementation of the methodology through the proposed policy framework provided revealing findings which require an in-depth discussion. The results of scoring policy statements within the four types of policies are presented at the policy area, constraint, and country level. The discussion of the findings highlights the issues with lower scores, interprets the results, and proposes strategies to overcome these challenges.

3.4.1 Policy Area Analysis

The scores for the five policy areas let us appreciate the differences between countries in addressing the constraints to rural youth employment within the policies. In Figure 3.1, we can see which policy areas received the highest and the lowest scores on average, and the performance of each country across the five policy areas. In each policy area the scores for the thirteen countries range from 0 to 100, with the average marked with a line. As previously explained, the score for each country within a policy area is the average that resulted in the binary assessment of the nine constraints that were grouped into the five policy areas for each of the analysed policies.

The policy area that received the highest score is self-employment, employability, and skills development (74), supporting the argument that most policies focus on labour supply. Liberia and Benin had the lowest score (33) while South Africa obtained the highest (100). South Africa received the highest possible score because the three analysed policies explicitly addressed the two main constraints on labour supply for rural youth, namely: lack of skills and education, as well as inadequate job matching services, information, and business start-up resources. For example, South Africa's National Youth Policy (2015) states that training young people in skills relevant to agriculture and the agricultural value chain will also help to attract young people to the sector and promote agriculture and agroprocessing.

The second policy area is sectoral development (56), linked with labour demand, which includes ARD investments, rural labour demand, and agribusiness environment for youth. Although many policies include this type of intervention, they do it at a lesser extent than labour supply interventions. Tanzania received the highest score in this policy area (92), while Nigeria and Malawi had the lowest score (33). Kenya has a score in sectoral development on the average (56) given that the three analysed policies addressed only some of the constraints to the labour demand of rural youth. For instance, Kenya's Agricultural

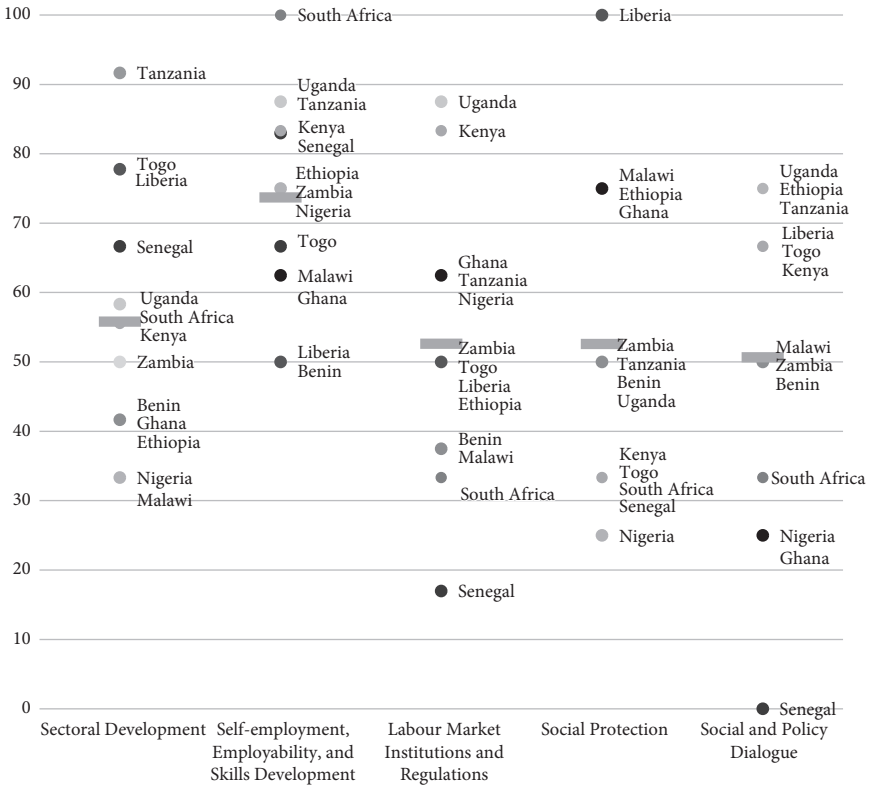


Figure 3.1. Total compliance by policy area

Sector Development Policy (2010) commits to empower the rural youth by sensitizing them on lucrative ventures in the agricultural sector and establishing processing plants for value addition in rural areas to provide employment opportunities for youth.

The third policy area is labour market institutions and regulations (53), indicating that labour standards and social constraints is an issue that needs to be better addressed. Uganda received the highest score (88), while Senegal had the lowest (17). Social constraints are a major challenge for rural youth. Local traditions and social norms prevent young people, and especially young women, from accessing the necessary productive resources. Particularly young women have lower incomes since they are less likely than their male counterparts to own land. Malawi’s Youth National Policy (2013) addresses this constraint with the goal of providing access to productive agricultural land in adequate proportion and other factors of production for the youth who fail to access these resources due to culture, gender, and/or other socioeconomic factors.

In third place is also the social protection policy area (53), showing that policies partially cover social security schemes such as cash transfers, minimum wages, tax exemptions, health services, and so on. All of Liberia's policies adequately addressed the access to social protection for rural youth, it thus received the highest score (100). In contrast, only one out of four of Nigeria's policies addressed social protection issues for vulnerable groups, so it received the lowest score (25). One of the policies that explicitly mentioned young people is the National Youth Policy of Ghana (2010) which commits to provide social protection for the vulnerable and excluded youth.

Finally, the least addressed policy area is social and policy dialogue (51) as promoting the organization of rural young workers to increase their bargaining power was only included in around half of the policies. Some policies did commit to promote social dialogue and tripartism, however few explicitly mentioned the importance of engaging rural youth in decision-making processes. For example, the Second National Youth Policy Document of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (2009) declares that governments should always lend support to and be willing to engage in dialogue with youth-led organizations and work with a broad range of the youth population. In contrast, none of Senegal's policies mentioned the importance of involving excluded young people in social dialogue.

As can be seen, the systematic review of policies shows a clear trend to address one policy area, that is, promoting self-employment, employability, and skills development, over the other four policy areas. This finding indicates in turn that policies would focus more on the supply side of the labour market, paying less attention to other constraints that also affect the access of rural youth to decent employment. It is also noteworthy that the other four policy areas had a similar score of just over 50, showing that around half of the policies would be addressing in rather similar ways these policy areas.

3.4.2 Constraint Analysis

The analysis at the constraint level adds further elements to our comparative policy analysis to examine how the policies across 13 SSA countries addressed the main challenges to rural youth employment. Table 3.5 presents the constraints with the lowest scores per country. To capture the binding character of the constraints, countries were bound by the lowest score. As can be seen, the constraint with the lowest score in most countries is unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth within the sectoral development policy area. This shows that most policies do not explicitly focus on creating an enabling environment for youth agribusiness development. Many policies did mention the intention to enhance a conducive business environment to promote private sector growth, but they neither focus on the agricultural sector nor on rural youth.

Table 3.5. Main constraint and score per country

| Country | Main binding constraint | Score per constraint |
|--------------|--|----------------------|
| Benin | - Weak regulations, standards and rights at work | 0 |
| Ethiopia | - Unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth | 0 |
| Ghana | - Unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth | 50 |
| Kenya | - Unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth | 0 |
| Liberia | - Job search, information, and business start-up constraints | 0 |
| | - Weak regulations, standards, and rights at work | |
| Malawi | - Unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth | 0 |
| Nigeria | - Unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth | 0 |
| Senegal | - Limited social dialogue and youth representation | 0 |
| | - Weak regulations, standards, and rights at work | |
| South Africa | - Weak regulations, standards, and rights at work | 0 |
| Tanzania | - Limited social dialogue and youth representation | 50 |
| | - Limited social protection | |
| Togo | - Social constraints | 33 |
| | - Limited social protection | |
| | - Job search, information, and business start-up constraints | |
| | - Unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth | |
| Uganda | - Unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth | 0 |
| Zambia | - Unfavourable agribusiness environment for youth | 25 |

3.4.3 Country Analysis

The scores can also be analysed by country to better grasp how national policy documents address issues related to rural youth employment. Such additional level of detail is also useful to compare policy performance on the five policy areas simultaneously within and between the thirteen countries. The disaggregated scores by policy area per country are presented in Table 3.A2. As mentioned before, Senegal received the lowest score (40) and Tanzania the highest (73). Figure 3.2 clearly shows significant differences between these two countries in the scores across the five policy areas. Due to limited space, only the policy context of these two countries will be discussed here. Given the aim of our analysis, it is relevant to look at potential reasons behind these contrasting scores.

The main reason for Senegal's low scores is explained by the lack of mainstreaming youth in the analysed national policies. It is therefore necessary to look further into the content and to discuss main gaps of these policy documents regarding rural youth employment. The Agro-Sylvo-Pastoral Orientation Act (LOASP) adopted in 2004 is Senegal's legal framework for the development of agriculture and the reduction of poverty in rural areas. Its main objectives are to reduce the impact of external shocks to the agricultural sector, increase agricultural exports, improve farmers' social and economic conditions, and establish a system incentivizing private investment in agriculture and rural

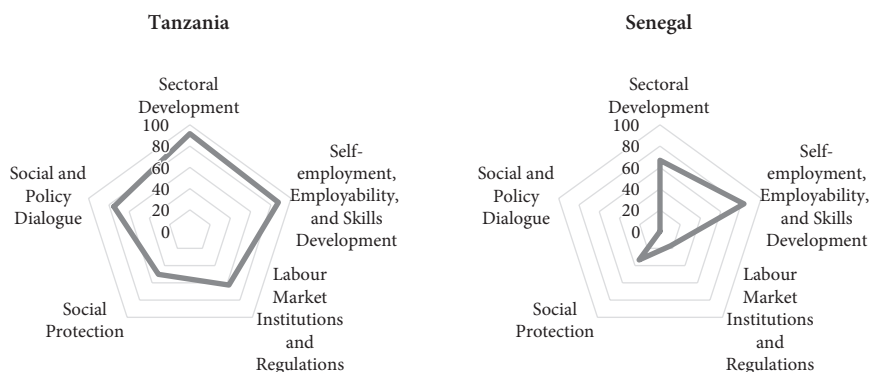


Figure 3.2. Radar chart comparison between Tanzania and Senegal

areas (Seck 2016). The LOASP includes a priority to integrate young people in all activities related to agricultural businesses through access to land and credit, as well as to establish an aid system for young farmers who received agricultural training. It however does not make reference to the particular needs of the rural youth in the areas of labour market institutions and regulations, social protection, and social and policy dialogue.

The Emerging Senegal Plan (PSE) was launched in 2013 as a reference for economic and social policy in the medium and long term, with the aim of making Senegal an emerging economy by 2035. Job creation is a key priority for the PSE and the plan envisages increasing the decent work opportunities (productive and remunerative) at the rate of 100,000 to 150,000 new jobs per year. This policy lacks specific references to the promotion of labour regulations that favour rural youth as well as organizations to encourage their participation in social dialogue. The PSE was supplemented with the Employment and Promotion of Youth Employment Policy. However, at the time of the analysis, the latter document was only a thematic note that delineated the main strategies to promote employment in Senegal and thus would need further development into a more comprehensive employment policy. The main reason for Senegal's low policy scoring was therefore that the available policy documents include objectives with a fairly limited scope with regard to rural youth employment promotion, even though it has to be recognized that more extended policies are under development.⁴

In contrast, Tanzania is well equipped in terms of national pro-poor growth policies, particularly in addressing the challenges to rural youth employment. The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty II (NSGRP II) is oriented towards growth and enhancement of productivity, focused on wealth creation as a

⁴ Senegal is developing its new National Employment Policy as of 2017, which according to initial information is going to include a strategy component on decent rural youth employment.

way out of poverty. It includes a particular goal on ensuring the creation and sustenance of productive and decent employment, especially for women and youth. On the labour demand side, it addresses underemployment in rural areas through establishing production clusters and promoting nonfarm income generating programmes. On the labour supply side, it promotes the development of skills for productivity enhancing employment and self-employment especially for women and youth.

Furthermore, most of Tanzania's youth or employment related policies and strategies include specific rural and agricultural focus. The National Employment Policy commits to accelerate skills development of the rural labour force for enhancing labour productivity and their income growth giving priority to the youth. Similarly, the National Youth Development Policy promotes the equitable access to land and other resource allocations putting emphasis on rural youth and gender. The National Agriculture Policy is also quite conducive to promote rural youth employment. It has a dedicated section on youth involvement in agriculture with a concrete objective to create an enabling environment to attract youth in agricultural production. One of its goals is to support group cooperation and rural entrepreneurial skills development particularly to women and youths through Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools (JFFLS) and young farmers' associations. As can be seen, Tanzania's policies were the most inclusive from the selected countries with regards to the analysed constraints to rural youth employment. These policies are illustrative of how rural youth can be considered at the policy level in an integrated manner. While beyond the scope of our analysis, it is also acknowledged that bringing these political statements a step forward is equally important, including by complementing them first with an action plan and subsequently with programmes that have the necessary resources to support rural youth, as well as with adequate M&E systems in place to enable measuring their ultimate impacts on rural youth employment.

3.5 Conclusion

The rural youth population in SSA is expected to continue to grow and will gradually join the labour force. This offers both an opportunity and a challenge for rural livelihoods in SSA. Great economic benefits could come from this demographic dividend provided the right policies are developed and implemented. This chapter contributed to achieve this goal by shedding light on the main strengths and weaknesses among policies of SSA from a rural youth employment perspective. It focused on reviewing policy documents based on the proposed policy framework to assess if the main constraints to rural youth employment were being addressed or not at the formulation stage, in order to suggest areas for improvement.

The scores presented in the chapter helped to identify key policy gaps per country across the five policy areas. The policy area that received the lowest scores was *social and policy dialogue*. A likely reason for that is that the interests and needs of rural youth are often not adequately taken into account in policy processes. The lack of participation of rural youth in the policy dialogue leads to an insufficient attention to their needs and to constant difficulties in finding productive and quality jobs in rural areas (Leavy and Smith 2010, Protcor and Lucchesi 2012). Policies should therefore promote the creation of institutionalized channels for the inclusion of rural youth in the decision-making process. Rural youth can create organizations or join existing ones, for example cooperatives, producers' organizations, youth associations, or NGOs. These organizations can provide efficient channels to make their voices heard and facilitate their inclusion in the policy dialogue.

Similarly, social protection as well as labour market institutions and regulations were insufficiently addressed in the policies analysed. Although many policies pledged to expand the *social protection* system, only some explicitly mentioned particular social security schemes that targeted rural youth. Policies should promote social protection interventions that address the particular vulnerabilities and risks faced by rural youth, including education and training, conditional cash transfer programmes, public works programmes, social insurance, and youth employment programmes, among others. Likewise, some policies did not mention the importance of promoting *labour market institutions and regulations* in rural areas. Yet, most of the rural youth are employed in the informal economy and not protected by labour institutions or regulations. The application of International Labour Standards (ILS) in rural areas is essential in improving working conditions, support the transition of the informal economy into formality and progressively improve the quality of jobs undertaken by rural youth.

The second most addressed policy area was *sectoral development*, which is related to labour demand. It is essential to unlock the labour demand in rural areas in order to provide quality jobs for the youth. Policy interventions focused on creating jobs both in agriculture and nonfarm activities can contribute to solve SSA's youth employment challenge. The policies should create a favourable agribusiness environment that attracts rural youth and provides access to credit, technology, skills, land, markets, and infrastructure. It is particularly important to facilitate the engagement of youth across inclusive agrifood value chains by linking youth farms to markets and provide them with the necessary technical support.

Finally, the most addressed policy area was *self-employment, employability, and skills development*, which is linked to labour supply. Most of the policies included actions to improve the skills and education of rural youth as well as measures to improve their access of information and business start-up resources. Further research would still be needed to assess how these actions are being

tailored to the skill requirements in rural labour markets, and thus analysis on how these labour supply measures are matching labour demand needs in rural areas would be desirable.

As was observed, policies of SSA still need to integrate additional thematic areas in order to achieve full and productive employment for rural youth. Redesigning policies to stimulate youth employment in both agricultural and non-agricultural sectors is an essential first step to both economic growth and poverty reduction. More evidence is still needed though, especially regarding the translation of policies into concrete actions, as well as to ultimate impact and results of policy interventions on rural youth employment. More integrated policy frameworks with inclusive policies and targeted investments and programmes will create the enabling environment for rural youth to reach their potential.

Appendix

Table 3.A1. List of reviewed policies and scores per country

| | Policy | Year | Policy Score |
|----------|---|-----------------|--------------|
| Benin | Stratégie de Croissance pour la Réduction de la Pauvreté (SCRP) | 2011–2015 | 47 |
| | Politique Nationale de l'Emploi | 2012–2016 | 27 |
| | Politique Nationale de la Jeunesse | 2002 | 73 |
| | Plan Stratégique de Relance du Secteur Agricole (PSRSA) | 2010–2015 | 37 |
| Ethiopia | Second Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP II) | 2015/16–2019/20 | 47 |
| | National Employment Policy and Strategy of Ethiopia | 2009 | 93 |
| | National Youth Policy | 2004 | 30 |
| | Rural Development Policies and Strategies | 2003 | 83 |
| Ghana | Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA II) | 2014–2017 | 63 |
| | National Employment Policy | 2014 | 63 |
| | National Youth Policy of Ghana | 2010 | 60 |
| | Food and Agriculture Sector Development Policy (FASDEP II) | 2007 | 27 |
| Kenya | Vision 2030 | 2008–2030 | 73 |
| | Kenya National Youth Policy | 2006 | 67 |
| | Agricultural Sector Development Policy | 2010–2020 | 53 |
| Liberia | Agenda for Transformation: Steps towards Liberia Rising 2030 | 2012–2030 | 80 |
| | Employment Policy | 2009 | 73 |
| | Food Agriculture Policy and Strategy (FAPS) | 2009 | 53 |
| | | | |

| | | | |
|--------------|---|-----------------|-----|
| Malawi | Malawi Growth and Development Strategy | 2011–2016 | 67 |
| | National Employment and Labor Policy (Pending approval) | 2011 | 53 |
| | Youth National Policy | 2013 | 67 |
| | National Agricultural Policy | 2010 | 17 |
| Nigeria | Nigeria Vision 20:2020 | 2009 | 73 |
| | National Employment Policy | 1998 | 37 |
| | Second National Youth Policy Document of the Federal Republic of Nigeria | 2009 | 50 |
| | The New Nigerian Agricultural Policy | 2001 | 17 |
| Senegal | Plan Sénégal Émergent | 2014–2018 | 63 |
| | Politique de l'Emploi et Promotion de l'Emploi des Jeunes | 2014 | 23 |
| | Loi d'orientation Agro-Sylvo-Pastorale (LOASP) | 2004 | 33 |
| South Africa | National Development Plan 2030: Our future—make it work | 2012–2030 | 63 |
| | National Youth Policy | 2015–2020 | 63 |
| | Integrated Growth and Development Plan (IGDP) for Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries | 2012 | 27 |
| | | | |
| Tanzania | National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty II | 2010–2015 | 53 |
| | National Employment Policy | 2008 | 50 |
| | National Youth Development Policy | 2007 | 90 |
| | National Agriculture Policy | 2013 | 100 |
| Togo | Stratégie de Croissance Accélérée et de Promotion de l'Emploi (SCAPE) | 2013–2017 | 47 |
| | Politique Nationale de l'Emploi (PNE) | 2013–2017 | 27 |
| | Plan Stratégique National pour l'Emploi des Jeunes (PSNEJ) | 2013–2022 | 73 |
| Uganda | Second National Development Plan (NDPII) | 2015/16–2019/20 | 37 |
| | The National Employment Policy for Uganda | 2011 | 77 |
| | The National Action Plan for Youth Employment | 2015/16–2019/20 | 73 |
| | National Agricultural Policy | 2013 | 43 |
| Zambia | Zambia Vision 2030 | 2006–2030 | 53 |
| | National Employment and Labour Market Policy | 2004 | 93 |
| | 2015 Youth National Policy | 2015 | 40 |
| | National Agricultural Policy 2012–2030 | 2012–2030 | 33 |

Table 3.A2. Scores for constraints per country

| Country | Sectoral development | | | Self-employment capacity, employability, and skills development | | Labour market institutions and regulations | | Social protection | Social and policy dialogue |
|--------------|--|------------------------|-----------------------|---|--|---|--------------------|---------------------------|--|
| | Unfavorable agribusiness environment for youth | Low investments in ARD | Lack of labour demand | Job-relevant skills constraints and lack of education | Job search, information, and business start-up constraints | Weak regulations, standards, and rights at work | Social constraints | Limited social protection | Limited social dialogue and youth representation |
| Benin | 25 | 75 | 25 | 75 | 25 | 0 | 75 | 50 | 50 |
| Ethiopia | 0 | 75 | 50 | 100 | 50 | 25 | 75 | 75 | 75 |
| Ghana | 0 | 75 | 50 | 25 | 100 | 50 | 75 | 75 | 25 |
| Kenya | 0 | 67 | 100 | 67 | 100 | 67 | 100 | 33 | 67 |
| Liberia | 33 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 100 | 67 |
| Malawi | 0 | 75 | 0 | 75 | 50 | 25 | 50 | 75 | 50 |
| Nigeria | 0 | 75 | 25 | 100 | 50 | 50 | 75 | 25 | 25 |
| Senegal | 33 | 67 | 100 | 100 | 67 | 0 | 33 | 33 | 0 |
| South Africa | 67 | 33 | 67 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 67 | 33 | 33 |
| Tanzania | 75 | 100 | 100 | 75 | 100 | 75 | 50 | 50 | 75 |
| Togo | 33 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 33 | 67 | 33 | 33 | 67 |
| Uganda | 0 | 100 | 75 | 100 | 75 | 100 | 75 | 50 | 75 |
| Zambia | 25 | 50 | 75 | 100 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 50 |

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