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Employment Creation through Vocational Skills Development for Youths in the Informal Sector; Where is the TVET Challenge?

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ACRONYMS

CBET- Competence Based Education and Training

ILO- International Labour Organization

KILM- Key Indicators of the Labour Market

ODL- Open Distance Learning

OIBM- Opportunity International Bank of Malawi

SAPs- Structural Adjustment Programs

TQF- Technical Qualification Framework

TVET- Technical Vocational Education and Training

UN- United Nations

UNESCO- United Nations Education, Science, and Culture Organization

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ABSTRACT

Worldwide youth employment challenge is escalating with the few jobs being created in the formal sector pushing the majority into the informal sector which is seemingly not lucrative for the modern day youth. Culminating the problem is that the mainstream education is oriented towards the modern sector, leaving out survival skills which can enable the youth to gain meaningful employment while in the informal sector. To this effect Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) remains the last resort for the creation of that employment. However, the nature of TVET products being brought on the market for the informal sector has tarnished the image of TVET making it the last destination for the unprivileged many that could have gained that meaningful employment in the informal sector. To this effect the question is where is the TVET challenge in employment creation for the informal sector youths? This paper examines bottlenecks in TVET impeding its response to employment creation for the youths in Africa.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.0 Introduction

This paper looks at employment creation for the youth through the giving of skills, especially for those in the informal sector. It hinges much on youth unemployment which is basically defined as the percentage of the youth aged between 15 and 24 who are capable of working and are available for work but are not getting any employment. The informal sector according to the International Labour Organization (ILO) basically refers to that sector of the economy which is not governed by law. This sector has also come to be known as unorganized sector basing on the nature of its operations. This chapter will therefore provide the unemployment levels in Africa, compare them to other regions, and lastly provide some reason behind youth unemployment.

1.1 Youth Unemployment in Africa

The growth in World population has had tremendous changes on population dynamics, distribution and characteristics. Among these notable changes has been the polar aging of the populations in developed countries and developing countries. According to Komarecki, M. Ronald, U. Mendoza & Murthy, S. (2010), population distribution in the world indicates a growing number of youth in developing countries estimated at 87 percent of the total 1.2 billion people aged between 15 and 24. This then follows that only 13 percent is living in developing countries which qualifies them to be called aging populations. From the established trend, it can be stated that in 2007 Africa's youthful population rose with 25 percentage points above the initial estimation in the previous two years. Considering the fertility rates which, remains high in Africa it can therefore be stipulated that the youthfulness of the population will increase to such an extent that the job burden will continue to be felt above the current levels.

According to the International Labour Organisation (2012), the outlook for the job market already seems not promising for all ages. Statistics indicate that there is a backlog of global unemployment of 200 million – an increase of 27 million since the start of the World economic

crisis. In view of this, more than 400 million new jobs will be needed over the next decade to avoid a further increase in unemployment. The ILO further reports that the world is facing a worsening youth employment crisis: young people are three times more likely to be unemployed than adults and over 75 million youth worldwide are looking for work. The youth unemployment crisis can be beaten but only if job creation for young people becomes a key priority in policymaking. However, to generate sustainable growth while maintaining social cohesion, the ILO states that the world must rise to the urgent challenge of creating 600 million productive jobs over the next decade, which would still leave 900 million workers living with their families below the US\$2 a day poverty line, largely in developing countries.

Estimations therefore indicate that in 2011, 74.8 million youth aged 15–24 were unemployed, an increase of more than 4 million since 2007. In addition, an estimated 6.4 million young people have given up hope of finding a job and have dropped out of the labour market altogether. Even those young people who are employed are increasingly likely to find themselves in part-time employment and often on temporary contracts. According to the Key Indicators of the Labor Market (7th Edition), basing on 32 African countries whose data is available, the average youth unemployment rate can be calculated at 20.2 percent, which is equal to the rest of the world, one percentage point above the developed countries and European Union, and one percentage point below that of the middle east. The UN further stipulates that by year 2017 the employment burden will be intense in North Africa and the Middle East. Table 1 in Appendix 1 presents data for the African Region.

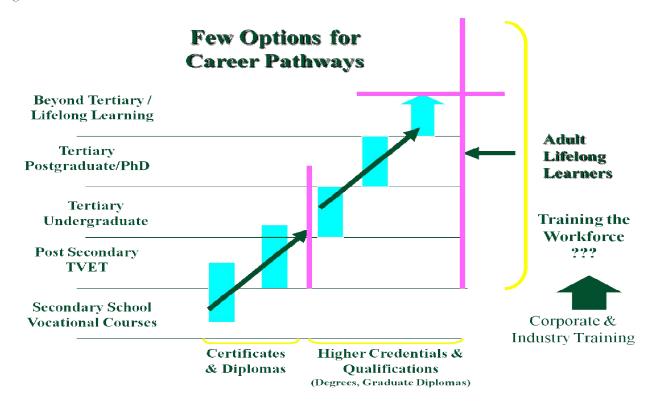
The youth unemployment burden is not basically a resultant effect of being in Africa, young or unqualified. A multiplicity of factors plays a role to an effect that a single causal relationship stands to be an insult to the whole problem. The nature of African economies owes a lot to the contribution of this unemployment. In contributing to an understanding of African economies, Kamdima & Nkunika (2012) points out that, African economies are largely informal in nature with up to 90 percent employed in the informal sector and the low job creation in the informal sector has enforced the growth of those working in the informal market especially females. Despite the existence of such an enforcement mechanism, African governments seem not to understand the niche of employment creation in the informal sector. The Britton Woods Institutions assumptions of modernizing the economies and getting done with the traditional

systems have not really worked for Africa since the advent of Structure Adjustment Programs (SAPS). This realisation would have therefore called for policy makers to put on African spectacles and understand their economies as a way to modernization. The gluing of ideas to the formal sector has starved the informal sector programs that have been drawn to an effect that they have lacked continuity and sustainability, political will, and quality that they deserve.

The second aspect to problems in employment creation in the informal sector has been the developers of the education system. African education has been inclined towards answering the needs of the western world at the expense of its own needs. The education systems have killed indigenous knowledge and propagated foreign knowledge which has in the end alienated its own people from their environment in search of creating new environments which are seen to be better off. With such a perspective education has put in young men the idea of a bad Africa and better West.

Secondly education has not adopted vocational skills from early stages of education in an effort to prepare the young men with skills that they can use even when they are not employed in the formal sector. The TVET Beijing Conference of 2006 proposed the introduction of vocational skills training programs from secondary level to tertiary level and therefore mapped the way forward for lifelong learning. The thrust in such a model is that whether an individual will be incorporated in the formal sector or will join the majority in the informal sector, that person will have gained a skill which would enable that person to have employment in the very informal sector which he did not desire. It is vital to state here that "once gained a skill, it has been gained for life."

Figure 1: A model of TVET in Education



Source 1: www.ifc.org

It is worthy acknowledging however that the introduction of vocational education though prepares the young person for career development after secondary school or when one has failed to finish the secondary level, it has its own draw back. A case study of Tanzania where it has parallel career development paths has shown that care has to be taken in the introduction of vocational skills. The Tanzania case has realised a lot of young people even below the working age of 15 getting into the world of work. As much as it can reduce poverty, it also threatens the realisation of Universal goal of education. Below is the developed Beijing TVET model.

Turning to TVET graduates, the unemployment challenge has emanated from the lack of practical entrepreneurship training. Though Africa has managed to adopt the competence education and training mode of delivery, it has confined the competence to the traditional trades not the entrepreneurship development. Though the colleges have taught entrepreneurship very few have developed business centers where students are involved as part of their training. A

more serious problem than that of the formal sector is prevalent in the informal sector, where entrepreneurship/ business management is not usually taught unless it is a special intervention.

Lastly among the many problems linked to unemployment of the youth in the informal sector is financial exclusion. Financial exclusion connotes lack of access to enabling monetary opportunities in setting one's own business venture. Despite all the skills that can be taught, for a person who has not had employment in the formal sector where the owners of the capital provide the means and the owners of skill bring their skill in exchange of a wage, there is need of capitalization. Capitalization basically means provision of support to set up a business. The easy and cheap way of capitalization is opening of financial opportunities which can incorporate those who cannot have collateral for the commercial banking system.

Major arguments behind financial access and excludability are that usually poor who are also the vulnerable, are excluded from financial/ capital market involuntarily; they don't have the mortgage and collateral for loan. Secondly the bureaucratic nature of loans makes the process to have a higher transactional cost. Such being the case the exclusion of the poor from financial capital increases the already existing inequalities which are usually calculated as gini coefficients later along deepening their poverty as expressed in poverty indices. Therefore it is argued that financial development aims at enriching the poor, the marginalised and the unprivileged. With such an understanding, it is important to develop inclusive programs that can enable the setting up of small businesses as part of employment creation.

Despite such a premise, it is important to acknowledge that the lessons from informal financial institutions and the micro financing institutions indicate that they have led to indebting the poor to the point that Hulme (2000) calls it "*Micro-debt*". With such a background an appropriate model in TVET has to be developed for financial inclusion.

1.2 Conclusion and arrangement of the paper

Chapter one aimed at introducing the concept of youth unemployment and state its levels and burden in Africa. The chapter also provided a background of the problems from which youth unemployment has resulted. The next chapter will develop the TVET model and provide its links

to the industry. The chapter will show the TVET challenges in employment creation. Finally chapter three will provide the conclusion and the way forward for Africa.

CHAPTER TWO

DEVELOPING A TVET MODEL

2.0 Introduction

In establishing the TVET challenge a better understanding of the ideal TVET model is critical. This chapter therefore presents a TVET model and the related environments, which will subsequently lead to the identification of the challenges within and without TVET that impedes employment creation in the informal sector.

2.1 The TVET Model

The Beijing Conference of 2006 proposed four pillars for a modern TVET system: Demand driven/ employer led, lifelong learning opportunities, recognized qualifications/ certified training, and quality/ accreditation / monitoring. The first pillar basically entails the collaboration of the industry and the training provider in the training process. In such a process therefore the training must reflect the industrial requirements and make the courses in the TVET system relevant to the industry. The industry comes in to provide advice, contents and standards for the trade under development. It therefore has to be acknowledged that the involvement of the industry in training insures best practice adoption which automatically assures the system of proper employment linkage and creation after the training. With the majority of people not getting into the formal sector where employment linkage applies, one may still be self employed and relevant to the industry because of the industrial specification obtained through industry's involvement. The industry is also involved in five other different stages depending on the type of recruitment process being followed; curriculum development, recruitment, funding, training, testing and measurement. These five forms part of the core for TVET.

Lifelong learning calls for having a career path which would provide opportunities of learning at all stages of life. As provided for in figure 1, TVET should allow career progression up to the highest tertiary qualifications. Similarly for the informal sector TVET should insure continued learning and sustainability of programs. This therefore calls for updated skills of those people who are in the informal sector to insure their continued relevance to the society, which will

subsequently create employment. It is important to acknowledge that with time technologies become obsolete and skill therefore irrelevant to the modern society. With such a development those people who were employed in the informal sector become redundant and increasing unemployment, an economic occurrence that every government tries to minimize. The continued learning and refresher courses for the informal sector would therefore keep assure those employed in the sector of continued employment and probably create new employment opportunities which will absorb those who are entering and in the end reduce structural and transitional unemployment.

Apart from those on self employment, a recognized qualification helps to have a guarantee that the person looking for employment really has the required skills. A recognized qualification connotes the awarding of achievements in the learning process at all levels. These awards at the same time should be those which can be accepted for employment by employers. This further calls for recognition of prio-learning and award of qualification on the competence that the individual has. In Africa there has been an influx of international and local qualification most of which are not in line with the Technical Qualification Frameworks of the respective countries and not recognized in their particular countries. A case of Malawi reveals 19 international awarding bodies and 25 local awarding bodies divided into national, industry specific and institutional bodies. It is worth mentioning that the majority of these bodies have not aligned their qualification to the TQF and also they target the formal sector which is accessed by a few. This therefore means the skills learnt in the informal sector remains unrecognized. In an effort to cover the qualification gap and improve their marketability, the providers in the informal sector who can afford to offer a qualification have developed their own and are awarding their trainees. The question is how recognized are these qualifications. The table below provides a Malawi case on the availability of awarding bodies vis-à-vis foreign bodies.

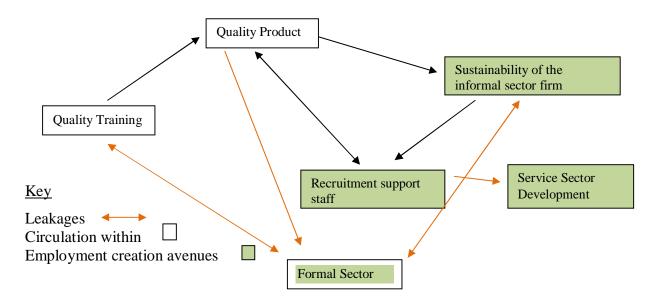
Table 1; Qualification awarding bodies and quality assurance bodies in Malawi.

TYPE BODIES	TOTAL NUMBER	QUALITY ASSURANCE	AWARDING BODIES
International Bodies	19	ASSURANCE	19
Local Bodies	29	6	25
National Bodies	6	2	5
Industry Specific Awarding Bodies	19	4	16
Institutional Awarding Bodies	4		4

Source 2; National Profile of TVET Training Market

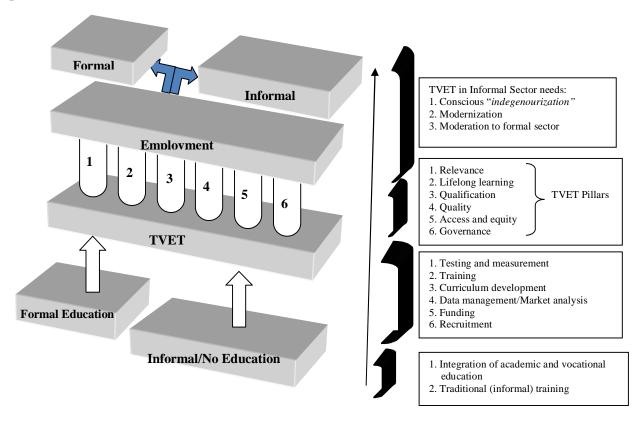
Lastly in the whole TVET system, whether Open Distance Learning (ODL) or class work, whether formal or informal, quality can be assured through the monitoring and accreditation of institutions, programs, assessors and instructors. TVET systems in Africa have concentrated on registering, monitoring, and accrediting formal sector training programs, putting little emphasis on the informal sector which deserves much more than the former. Despite such an occurrence, it has to be noted that the growth of the informal sector depends on the quality of the output. Once training is quality insured by registering the training providers, monitoring the training, and accrediting the institutions and trainers, quality products are assured which subsequently creates employment which is a derived output. Three things that can be noted are: The development of new enterprises will depend on the quality of the product they are producing, which then turns out that once the enterprise is a going concern, the entrepreneurs are assured of employment. The expansion of the informal sector enterprises depends on the turnover from what they are producing; the expansion will then insure employment creation for the others who are not part of the owners of production equipment. Thirdly the further development in quality would create and develop a service sector, which begins with distribution, within the informal sector, creating employment for those who cannot be in production. Through this development, there will be leakages to formal sector and also inputs from the informal sector into the formal; therefore employment creation in the formal sector will also be generated. The figure below shows employment linkages through quality assurance.

Figure 2: TVET quality and employment linkages



Beyond the four pillars, United Nations Education Science and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) proposes, access and equity, and governance and management as two more pillars that can be added to the four. With access and equity, it is critical to acknowledge that affirmative action is needed towards the marginalized and the vulnerable. The two are also the groups that are particularly prone to stagnate in the informal sector, unemployment, and in poverty circles. The marginalized has often looked at women as a group that needs affirmative action among some. One common distribution in access to TVET is that women are confined to trades that are feminine and would not generate much employment compared to those of men. This has also been partly a governance problem where the administrators of the TVET systems have targeted women with occupations that are basically domestic oriented. This has had an effect on the numbers of women developed as entrepreneurs who have the potential of employing other people. Lastly employment creation calls for capitalization or capital mobilization/ linkages for those trained to have that capital that allow them to be self employed in the informal sector. Below is an ideal TVET model that has been under discussion.

Figure 3: An ideal TVET Model



2.2 The TVET Challenge

The challenge of TVET in employment creation can be noticed in all the pillars of TVET. Despite that TVET aims at staying relevant to the needs of the industry and for entrepreneurial ventures, TVET is also to ensure its relevance to the environment in which one is to be operating in. The management of the TVET system has emphasized that relevance to the formal sector while the relevance to the informal sector has been developed as a byproduct of formal sector initiatives. TVET has neglected the very informal skills with which one can get employment or create employment in the informal sector. Among such skills are the pestle and motor making, basketry, basket chair making, mat making, traditional dances, cultural entrepreneurship, including informal sector banking. The traditional skills that are learnt within the home can be part of TVET and will insure self employment within the village setup. In other words this calls for "indegenourization" of TVET. Looking at the product market, it will be appreciated that some of these product despite being cultural and traditional, they have a great placement on the modern market. A good example of such products in Africa, are those found on Masai market in Kenya, Nigerian clothes, Khalidwe and Nzika wear in Malawi. It will be appreciated that these products despite being traditional, they have found a business placement in the modern man. This therefore would change the whole concept to "conscious indegenourisation" of TVET in the informal sector.

"Conscious indegenourization" basically calls for the modernization of the informal sector while maintaining the cultural and traditional attributes and properties of the skills and attributes relevant to the environment and abroad. In other words it is a call for a balance in modernizing the informal sector and maintenance of the very properties that make it such. These properties are the ones that will make it unique and be a trade mark to creating employment for those in the informal sector. The TVET challenge is to have such a balance that will create a dividing line and maintain the uniqueness and promote it for the sake of product differentiation that will subsequently make informal sector viable in employment creation.

The second pillar of lifelong learning has been challenged in the informal sector. TVET training in the sector has not been that sustainable as is the case in the formal sector. Most of informal sector programs that have stayed for a while have been projects. However informal sector in every country is the largest contributor to training output despite the training being mostly

unorganized and stochastic in trend. This lack of continuity has tremendous effect on the development of employment creation opportunities. The continued learning as earlier stated helps to catch up with technology, however much of the work done in the informal sector on advanced modern technology will come from learning by doing or observing. This has therefore resulted to tarnishing the image of the informal sector when the problem is multifaceted: TVET management and the providers of training and the beneficiaries of the training themselves. The TVET challenge therefore is to insure continued learning in informal sector.

Turning to qualification as earlier stated, the informal sector providers have tried to fill the qualification gap by providing an opportunity for those who undergo training to be able to get a qualification at a cheap price and also in an easy way. It is worthy appreciating that with the economic crisis that has affected the exchange rates to the point that foreign examination has become so expensive and a lot cannot afford, the cheap studies that people can afford have become an alternative and this has also bred a group of institutions which are not established.

This coupled with the emphasis of employers on the need for a qualification even in the informal sector to warrant a job, has bred a lot of unrecognized qualifications. This has also challenged the marketing of the very TVET qualifications that are in line with the TQF. The Malawi case study of Competence Based Education and Training (CBET) certificate gives evidence to the scenario under focus. There has been laxity on its acceptance by the industry. As much as it can be acknowledged that qualifications do not create employment on their own, but the holding of an acceptable qualification warrant that one has the necessary skills to accomplish what is being demanded. Acceptable qualification will therefore warrant the access to avenues that can generate capital, trust, or confidence on one's ability. The TVET challenge is therefore on the on the acceptability of the qualifications being offered and the extent that these qualification can help in employment creation.

The fifth pillar emphasizes on access to TVET. KILM (2011) shows that the majority of those involved in the informal sector are women. Though such is the case, UNESCO (2012) laments the denial of access to TVET of this majority which is also classified as vulnerable. It is worth noting that access to technical vocational education and training, enables the acquisition of skills for self employment which is the core to employment creation. As earlier pointed out, access as a

pillar is so vital in uplifting the whole society to meaningful involvement in income generation and employment creation. It is therefore so critical to ensure that all trades are open to access by all even if culture binds the trades to gender. Beyond the access, Kamdima and Nkunika (2012) showed that even when women access TVET, they are confined to trades that are so dependent and are of low pay. The TVET challenge is therefore to ride above the cultural boundaries and open TVET to all and insure women are getting into male dominated trades. Table 2 below shows the gender involvement in the informal sector in Africa, and table three gives a Malawi case on biased distribution of access to potential employment creation trades vis-à-vis gender.

Table 2: Share of persons in Informal Employment by Gender

	Year	Sex	Share of persons in informal employment in total non- agricultural employment (%)			
Sub-Saharan Africa						
Eastern Africa						
Zambia	2008	M	62.9			
		F	80.1			
Southern Africa						
Namibia	2008	M	41.1			
		F	47.0			
South Africa	2010	M	29.5			
		F	36.8			
Western Africa						
Liberia	2010	M	47.4			
		F	72.0			

Source: Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 7th Edition

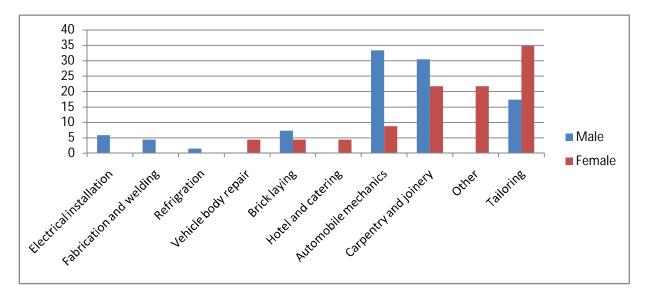


Figure 4: Distribution of beneficiaries based on gender and occupation (Source; own data)

Lastly but not list in importance is that TVET governance and management, has a bearing on employment creation. The managers of the TVET system have a responsibility of insuring that the output they are producing is remaining critical to the labour market and also employment creation. This therefore shows that the principals of TVET like curriculum development, recruitment, funding, testing and measurement including the actual training, are at the centre of governance. The upholding of right virtues associated with these principles like reviews and evaluations will keep the TVET system up to date. A little different from the other principles is that of funding. It is hardly believed that employment creation can be isolated from funding. From this perspective, it is imperative to note that capitalization and market linkages have come to be central in self employment. TVET governance and management should therefore be able to provide start up capital for the people it has trained and possibly link them to financial institutions if there is that possibility. In Malawi an initiative has just started with Opportunity International Bank of Malawi (OIBM) to link all those who can form groups and have accessed TVET to be able to access loan from the bank and start their own enterprises. From this perspective, the TVET challenges are how central is the TVET to the industry? And to what extent can TVET facilitate employment creation?

Beyond the principle mention, the other challenge is from the practise of data management. African countries have been found to have a big problem in providing TVET data to international bodies compared to their counterparts in the west. Two strong spheres of indication of data management problems are the country profile reports and the KILM. Africa has not learnt to manage its own data for decision making later alone market analysis for possible employment creation gaps and demanded courses. It is very important to establish a credible source for skills deficiencies in the informal sector and the top employment creation avenues in the same, and market saturated avenues among some.

Beyond the forward spheres of employment creation, TVET need a feed back on what are the graduates doing and how best should the courses be framed to address the needs of these informal sector beneficiaries. TVET management has a big challenge on information keeping especially data management.

2.2 Conclusion

This chapter aimed at developing a TVET model and establishing the challenges in TVET. As has been appreciated, the TVET has a challenge to strike a balance between modern and

indigenous skills. This result to the challenge of striking a balance that will create a dividing line and maintain the uniqueness and promote the informal sector for the sake of product differentiation that will subsequently make it a viable sector in employment creation. It also has the challenge of insuring continued learning in informal sector, acceptable qualifications, breaking the cultural boundaries and open TVET to all, making TVET central to the industry, and increasing the extent that TVET can facilitate employment creation in the informal sector. Next chapter therefore concludes and makes recommendation based on the challenges.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

3.1 Conclusion

Skills development has been seen as a catalyst for economic growth. Informal apprenticeship is the main source of skills development in most Africa countries. It is therefore commendable that the informal sector provides for skills development. However the quality and level of skills acquired, and recognition of skills acquired and subsequent employment and decent work has still remained a challenge despite the informal sector being a home to the majority of those seeking employment and actually employed (ILO, 2010). Much emphasis in TVET has been on the formal sector neglecting the very basis of skills development. Because of this the TVET system has tried to modernize the informal sector in the process destroying the skills needed in the informal sector and alienating the people from their very environments.

The TVET Management and governance has reversed the priorities needed to better answer the status core of an African environment. The informal sector does not need more management little focus and less development. What the sector needs is more development, optimal focus and little management. The figure below provides the situation on the ground and what is necessary. It is worth noting that if development of the sector remained core employment creation in both sectors would be assured. Africa should learn to take a step at a time and not jump steps which will be significant for its growth. The figure on employment linkages has clearly shown that the growth and employment creation even in the formal sector depends on the informal output.

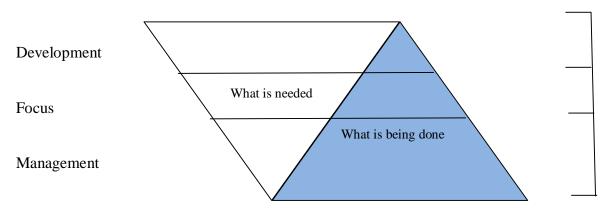


Figure 5: Development, focus and management of Informal Sector in Africa

3.2 Recommendations

- i. TVET authorities in Africa should come to a point of putting much emphasis into the development of the informal sector which is the employment creation sector. This paper calls for a "back to the roots" philosophy in the informal sector.
- ii. The paper has also clearly shown that the informal sector needs lifelong learning opportunities if it has to develop and create employment. There is therefore the need to insure continued learning for those already in the sector and those just joining.
- iii. TVET authorities should ensure recognized qualification for the informal sector and also explore the other avenues for recognition of prio-learning even for informal skills and appropriately award the achievement of the same.
- iv. Quality is at the center of every development, and quality in the informal sector will be a thrust for employment in the same and in the formal sector where employment creation has stagnated. This paper therefore recommends an improvement in the quality of products being produces in the informal sector.
- v. If TVET has to answer to the needs of many, affirmative action is needed towards access of women to TVET. Further to access, it is a recommendation of this paper that cultural boundaries have to be minimized as far as access to potential rewarding trades is concerned.
- vi. TVET systems have reliable sources of information on employment creation, investing avenues and trade development. This therefore calls for TVET systems to develop their data keeping capacities for better decision making of both practitioners and beneficiaries.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Data on Africa Youth Unemployment

Rank	Country	Youth unemployed ('000)	Youth labour force ('000)	Adult unemploy ed ('000)	Adult labour force ('000)	Youth unempl oyment rate (%)	Adult unemploym ent rate (%)	Ratio of youth unemploym ent rate to adult unemploym ent rate	Total unemploy ed ('000)	Share of youth unemploy ed in total unemploy ed (%)
1	Burundi	5.019	757.2	7.125	1 794.2	0.7	0.4	1.7	12.144	41.3
1	Rwanda	6.801	917.5	8.212	1 653.4	0.7	0.5	1.5	15.013	45.3
2	Benin	5.821	707.5	11.883	1 875.7	0.8	0.6	1.3	17.704	32.9
3	Madagascar	55.8	2 462.2	176.0	6 391.7	2.3	2.8	0.8	231.8	24.1
4	Niger	34.025	1 076.3	19.296	2 559.5	3.2	0.8	4.2	53.321	63.8
5	Burkina Faso	66.813	1 754.412	59.429	3 657.69	3.8	1.6	2.3	126.242	52.9
6	Liberia	10.035	197.575	32.06	962.314	5.1	3.3	1.5	42.1	23.8
7	Sierra Leone	20.058	389.472	43.919	1 479.506	5.2	3.0	1.7	63.977	31.4
8	Uganda	174.7	3 215.464			5.4			477.3	36.6
9	Zimbabwe	140.793	1 850.247	95.263	3 521.896	7.6	2.7	2.8	236.056	59.6
10	Sao Tome and Principe	0.8	9.812	0.4	25.236	8.2	1.6	5.1	1.2	66.7
11	Tanzania, United Republic of	467.5	5 285.551	409.5	13 535.97	8.8	3.0	2.9	877.0	53.3
12	Malawi	106.4	1 173.5	69.8	2 116.0	9.1	3.3	2.7	176.2	60.4
13	Senegal	147.546	996.6	203.824	2 507.7	14.8	8.1	1.8	351.37	42.0
14	Nigeria	711.6	4 635.4	487.1	25 750.5	15.4	1.9	8.1	1 198.7	59.4
15	Ghana	310.288	1 874.5	548.967	6 417.5	16.6	8.6	1.9	859.255	36.1
16	Morocco	397.265	2 217.285	630.985	9 320.27	17.9	6.8	2.6	1 028.25	38.6
17	Seychelles	1.833	9.016	2.468	34.843	20.3	7.1	2.9	4.301	42.6
18	Algeria	465.0	2 158.0	611.0	8 654.0	21.5	7.1	3.0	1 076.0	43.2

19	Mauritius	17.375	80.025	28.725	502.73	21.7	5.7	3.8	46.1	37.7
20	Zambia	387.166	1 652.273	370.513	3 266.515	23.4	11.3	2.1	787.006	49.2
21	Saint Helena	0.126	0.529	0.32	1.941	23.8	16.5	1.4	0.446	28.3
22	Egypt					24.8				
23	Ethiopia	353.4	1 419.8	402.3	3 023.8	24.9	13.3	1.9	755.7	46.8
24	Tunisia	205.9	671.1	280.4	2 743.8	30.7	10.2	3.0	486.3	42.3
25	Lesotho	68.651	199.393	123.468	558.927	34.4	22.1	1.6	192.119	35.7
26	Gabon	27.266	66.56	38.914	305.668	41.0	12.7	3.2	66.18	41.2
27	Cape Verde	17.484	42.4	8.845	71.9	41.2	12.3	3.4	26.329	66.4
28	Swaziland	27.01	60.28	26.08	175.25	44.8	14.9	3.0	53.102	50.9
29	South Africa	1 296.042	2 602.3	3 107.556	15 201.15	49.8	20.4	2.4	4 403.598	29.4
30	Réunion	26.7	45.6	75.6	300.4	58.6	25.2	2.3	102.3	26.1
31	Namibia	71.736	121.724	127.834	409.289	58.9	31.1	1.9	199.57	35.9

Source 3: KILM (7th Edition)